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Revisiting EAP Syllabus for Indonesian Learners

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Abstract

English as a lingua franca for academia and academic literacy practices in English for academic purposes (EAP) were investigated in this study. This study used a qualitative approach and applied content analysis as the research design. The study was conducted in Surakarta between March and June in 2018, analyzing 12 EAP syllabi and engaging with 40 participants from three State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Surakarta, the Sebelas Maret University (UNS), and the Veteran Bangun Nusantara University Sukoharjo (VUS). The 40 participants were 6 EAP lecturers, 4 heads of study programs, and 30 EAP students of EAP class. The primary data for this study were the results of the interviews and checklists, while the secondary data included the features of the EAP syllabi and their instructional design, teaching materials, and learning objectives. Data were collected through documents, interviews, and checklists. The thematic analysis was used to arrive at findings. Results show that (1) English courses in this study included four states: a 2–4 credit English course, an EAP Certificate, an ESP course, and EAP for the public; (2) to be literate, EAP involves a basic knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, as well as basic speaking and listening skills. A mastery of a general 3,000-word vocabulary and a 750-word academic vocabulary were found to be the foremost objective to include in academic literacy accomplishment. Academic writing and academic reading should also be prioritized in literacy for academic purposes.

Keywords*: academic literacy, basic knowledge, English skill, EAP, ELFA*

Introduction

This paper takes three initial views for the practice of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Indonesia, including the concept of English as a lingua franca for academia (ELFA). First, in our context, EAP is perceived as teaching English for non-English programs, and this can be confusing, especially if the management and purposes of the program are lax. Second, EAP curriculum and teaching materials vary due to the absence of a needs analysis to inform the design of EAP syllabi and teaching materials (Ortega, 2018). Third, the advance of ELFA acts as an evangelist for international academic competency, as well as academic literacy and national qualification frameworks, and the areas that EAP should cover brings a new sophisticated problem to solve (Sing & Sim, 2011. Furthermore, this paper uses the term EAP for any use of English in any academic context.

EAP practices in Indonesia are diverse, with each describing teaching materials and analyses of EAP programs that are mismatched. Emphasis is placed on teaching grammar and genre analysis, demonstrating that EAP programs are intended to equip students with a basic knowledge of English (Onder-Ozdemir, 2019). A salient fact emerges from this variety in objectives, because it indicates low quality programs and mismatches between the goals and learning outcomes on which the teaching materials are based (Solikhah, 2013).

The emergence of the recent ELFA phenomenon prompts a need for curriculum reform and a complete overhaul of EAP programs. The ELFA notion requires new practices in EAP, such as curriculum renewal in terms of needs analysis, learning outcomes, teaching materials, and management.

This study examines the agreements of the EAP Forum, which has defined a plethora of problems, specifically the policy perspectives that exist in the conduct of EAP programs in Surakarta, Indonesia. The potential number of students is overwhelming, but there are significant human resource limitations, such as large classroom sizes, the part-time basis of some EAP teachers, and the status of courses as general English courses (MKDU).

An EAP program in the Indonesian context should therefore be approached from various perspectives that emphasize curriculum policy and reform as a starting point. ELFA as an element in the teaching of EAP would be a great aspiration to consider, for example. With regards to the above background, the research questions for this study are defined as follows:

1) How do EAP programs in Indonesia define student needs and academic literacy in practice?

2) How can a renewed syllabus be defined for an Indonesian EAP program that encourages academic literacy in the context of ELFA?

Review of Literature

EAP Development

The growth of EAP derives from an awareness in practitioners of English for specific purposes (ESP) that all tertiary-level students have different learning needs that cannot be fulfilled by teaching them the same subset of the English language (Sing & Sim, 2011). ESP as a phenomenon grew according to three trends: (1) a demand for a subset of English tailored to the specific needs of a profession, (2) the development of field linguistics from formal language features to enable language use in real communications, and (3) learners' needs and interests and effective learning (Bojovic, 2004; Tarman, 2016; Prima 2019; Onder-Ozdemir, 2019).

EAP can be divided into two types: English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) and English for general academic purposes (EGAP) (Jordan, 1997). EGAP is better known for study skills with elements of general academic English and incorporating a formal academic style with proficient language use. Such skills include effective lecturing, listening comprehension and note taking, writing in the appropriate academic style, reading effectively for study purposes, and participating in discussions and research. The objective of EGAP is to equip learners with all the necessary skills to complete tasks in a general academic setting, such as writing a doctoral thesis in English. In EGAP, strategies for reading, writing, speaking and listening are taught for all academic subjects. In contrast, with ESAP, a specific subject is emphasized in teaching according to the vocabulary and skills that are important to the subject being studied (Bojovic, 2004; Chowdhury & Haider, 2012).

The EAP concept is interpreted and implemented differently based on the needs and status of a country's education policy. Dudley-Evans and John (1998) outlined four EAP-type situations: (i) an English-speaking country, such as the UK or the USA, (ii) an ESL situation in a former British colony, such as those in Africa or Southeast Asia, (iii) a situation where certain subjects are taught in English as well as in the national language, and (iv) a situation where all subjects are taught in the national language with English playing an ancillary role, as is the case in Indonesia.

In addition, curricula's responses to EAP varies in three main streams: study skills, socialization, and academic literacy (Hyland, 2006). Study skills are defined as abilities, techniques, and strategies that are used when reading, writing, or listening for study purposes. In the study skill approach, emphasis is placed on preparing students with test-taking skills to gain the requisite score as quickly as possible (Wilson, 2009) and achieve proficient academic writing (Tribble, 2017). Socialization in EAP (Wilson, 2009) comprises two main sub-streams: contrastive rhetoric and genre analysis. Contrastive rhetoric suggests that academic thinking and writing are approached differently in different cultural contexts. This way, the learning strategies and writing products of EAP learners are viewed from the perspective of their culture. Genre analysis, meanwhile, asserts that the learning process in EAP is easier to achieve through reading passages from different genres. Each genre requires a different method to learn, so students should be exposed to the models of different genres. The literacy approach regards language awareness as critical. Literacy here refers to language not as discrete skills (e.g., reading and writing) but rather as a discourse (Wilson, 2009, p.13). Academic literacy aims to enable students to participate in their academic fields as much as possible.

Tribble (2017) asserted that cutting-edge EAP pedagogy is represented through two contrasting paradigms: genre analysis (Swales, 1988) and ELFA (Tribble, 2017). The curricula of EAP courses has to be academic oriented and presuppose solid literacy, thus building students knowledge of a particular language with academic-oriented ways of talking, reading, and writing about ideas and texts (Jordan, 1977). This implies that language aspects and study skills are important in EAP. The inclusion of various language aspects and study skills in the contents of EAP should therefore develop academic literacy rather than just reading and writing skills (Mo, 2005).

Study skills in EAP include lecturing; talking; participating in seminars, tutorials, and discussions; supervising; engaging in practical and field work; private studying; and using reference materials (Jordan, 1997). EAP courses must therefore highlight "learning how to learn," such as through consciousness-raising, explicitness, the use of task-appropriate strategies, learner-centeredness, self-directed learning, and learner autonomy (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). By emphasizing study skills, students become better, more independent, and responsible learners. Genre also ought to be present in EAP courses. Swales (1990) contended that genres differ in terms of their communication purpose, structure, style, content, and intended audience, so study texts (e.g., research papers, journals, discourse analysis, and contrastive rhetoric) are specifically served by EAP (Tarman & Dev, 2018).

Many institutions around the world offer specialized courses in EAP, with their aim being to enable students to acquire the necessary skills to function successfully in academic settings. The contents of an EAP course, as well as the developed materials and syllabus design, are determined by what students need to know in terms of their command of English (Szudarski, Carter & Adolphs, 2004). The durations of EAP courses vary according to the setting and specific requirements of the students, so they can be pre-sessional (a full-time course before an academic program begins), or in-sessional (courses delivered during the academic year, so students can take them concurrently with their chosen programs). The length of a course is not standardized. It may be as short as a month or so or as long as six months, a year, or even longer (Jordan, 1997).

English as a Lingua Franca for Academia (ELFA)

English as a lingua franca (ELF) describes a situation where the English language is used as a common means of communication for speakers of different first languages. In a academic setting, ELF is extended to ELFA, which stands for English as a lingua franca for academia. ELF, and by extension ELFA, functionally enables intercultural communication rather than adhering to native-speaker norms. English as a foreign language (EFL), meanwhile, differs in that it aims to meet the standards of native speakers ("English as a lingua franca," n.d.).

The global dominance of the English language in higher education is not surprising given the status of English as a common language around the globe. Globally, English has been key to academic collaboration through research activities, events, and communication both within and between institutions (Khodorkovsky, 2013; Shaw, 2013). English is used as a lingua franca in an enormous range of domains, from international politics to entertainment, from air traffic control to academic discourse, trade, diplomacy, and social media (Maureen, 2010).

The way in which English is used as a lingua franca heavily depends on the specific situation. ELF interactions typically concentrate on function rather than form, and efficiency (i.e., conveying the message) is more important than fluency. Consequently, ELF interactions are very often an amalgam, with a speaker adapting to the other party's culture and possibly occasionally switching into an alternative language that he or she knows ("English as a lingua franca," n.d.).

ELF therefore differs from standard English in some ways, such as different article usage (or even no article usage at all), variances in preposition usage, and novel uses of morphemes (e.g., *importancy* and *smoothfully*). Many speakers adopt an across-the-board third-person usage (such as "*He go to the store*"), use "who" and "which" interchangeably, and demonstrate a lack of gerunds (Khodorkovsky, 2013; Sewell, 2013). The verbal differences may include skipping some consonants and adding extra vowels, with there being a general tendency to prioritize communication rather than use correct English grammar usage ("English as a lingua franca," n.d.). ELF is therefore not a variety of English but rather a set of practices, but these are by no means invariant or "obligatory" (Sewell, 2013).

The Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) and other research have identified the features of ELF lexicogrammar as follows:

1. Different use of articles or even a lack articles (e.g., *our nations made trade deal*)
2. Unchanging question tags (e.g., *Mary is very ill, is it not?*), as well as further similar forms

3. Using “which” and “who” as compatible relative pronouns (e.g., *the car who crashed into me* or *the person which crashed into me*)
4. Varied preposition use (e.g., *we need to go in Sunday*)
5. A tendency to use the full infinitive or bare form rather than gerunds (e.g., *I'm looking forward to see the game next week.*)
6. Extending collocational words with high semantic generality (e.g., *take an operation*)
7. Over-explicitness (e.g., *how much cost*?)
8. The redundant use of constructs like ellipsis (e.g., *I want to help…*)

In the EAP context, emphasis is very strongly placed on the written form, largely because reading is important for study purposes, while writing is necessary for documenting and publishing research. However, one research-based solution indicated that speaking is just as important as writing (Maureen, 2010), with it being key to making sense of academic discourse. It is crucial for maintaining social structures, and academic institutions constantly engage in oral communication. For example, we hold lectures, seminars, and consultations as part of our daily routines, and we organize conferences, panel discussions, and public lectures. We make speeches at graduation ceremonies, and we talk in our endless meetings to maintain and negotiate our institutional relations at all administrative levels of our organizations (Mauereen, 2010). ELF is a natural language, so students can choose to “speak ELF” rather than try to speak like native speakers (Sewell, 2013).

Academic Literacy in EAP

A major challenge for learners is not conversational fluency but rather academic literacy (Warchauer, Grant, Del Real & Rousseau, 2004). Academic literacy can be defined in terms of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking skills, as well as the dispositions and mental habits that students need for academic success. This includes the ability to critically read and interpret a wide range of texts, write competently in scholarly genres, and engage in and contribute to sophisticated discussion. Academic literacy is a complex of linguistic and conceptual resources for analyzing, constructing, and communicating knowledge in a particular subject area (Warren, 2003). While teaching, academic literacy includes the ability to comprehend information presented in various ways; to paraphrase text, to present information visually; to summarize information; to describe ideas, phenomena, processes, changes of state, and so one; to write expository prose (e.g., arguments, comparisons and contrasts, classifications, categorizations, etc.); to develop and express one's own voice; to acknowledge sources; and to perform basic numerical manipulations (Yeld, 2003).

Research has shown that academic literacy for success in university learning is basically a proficiency in writing and reading. Academic writing comes first as this most affects students' success, but reading competency is also a necessity in supporting this success. In context of EFL, both skills are, of course, hard to attain. There are major obstacles to the acquisition of basic English knowledge in the form of grammar and vocabulary—as well as English skills like listening, speaking, reading, and writing—as students strive to become literate in English. Inevitably, academic literacy in this context ranges from a very basic knowledge to the highest levels of competency. Academic literacy here includes vocabulary, grammar, and writing, reading, speaking, and listening skills.

While English learners develop basic interpersonal communication skills within a year or two, it takes much longer to learn the complex vocabulary, syntax, and genres that underpin academic literacy. The development of this broader academic language proficiency requires five to seven years of instruction with several key elements, such as extensive reading, a focused linguistic analysis of texts, and the involvement of students in cognitively engaging in learning activities and projects (Cummin, 1989).

Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is the process of identifying and evaluating the needs of a community or other defined population. Needs analysis that focuses on learner needs has been associated with EAP, ESP, general English or event the general education (Onder-Ozdemir, 2019). The identification of needs is a process of describing the "problems" of a target population and developing possible solutions to these problems (Ticomb, 2000). A need is defined as the difference between "what is" and "what should be" (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995). It is therefore the gap between what exists in reality what would be ideal according to the community's values (Reviere, 1996). Needs analysis focuses on what should be done in future rather than what happened in the past. Some people use the related term "needs assessment" (Shing & Sim, 2011).

Needs analysis is the initial step in curriculum development, because it starts with formulating aims and objectives based on the needs of the students. Once a teacher identifies the needs, he can translate them into linguistic and pedagogic terms in order to design and teach an effective course (Cook, 2001; Kaufiman, 1982; Budiharso & Arbain, 2019). Wilkins (1976) insisted that language needs should be stated in expected communicative behavioral terms in order to specify the content, purpose, role, medium, mode, and channel of language teaching. Needs analysis is very relevant to designing a syllabus and teaching materials, because it helps address the identified needs within the teaching experience (Cowie & Heaton, 1977). Needs specification helps course designers to properly assess the teaching situation before designing a course.

In English teaching, needs analysis arose out of a demand for English courses that are geared to the specific needs of learners. Needs are based on necessities and desires, which are determined by the target learner. Needs analysis should therefore lead to a statement of objectives to guide a program's implementation in the desired direction. This shows the importance of needs analysis to EAP. Hardwoord and Petric (2011) asserted that needs analysis should involve not just students but also teachers, education authorities, parents, and sponsors when designing and developing EAP syllabi and teaching materials.

Methods

Research Design

This study employed a qualitative approach and applied content analysis in the research design. The qualitative approach was appropriate because the primary data were narratives that resulted from the reconstruction of written and oral data, while content analysis was applied to documents that were linked logically in their themes and interactions for the phenomena. The research was conducted in Surakarta between March and June in 2018, and the study analyzed 12 EAP syllabi and engaged with 40 participants from three universities in Surakarta.

Research Subject

The 40 participants in this research comprised six EAP lecturers, four heads of study programs, and 30 EAP students. The lecturers were members of the Association of EAP Lecturers in Surakarta, and they had been teaching EAP for six years in their universities. They had designed syllabi, teaching materials, and teaching methods, as well as learning outcomes. The heads of study programs regulated the implementation of EAP programs, set time allotments, and maintained the programs according to their respective universities' policies. The 30 students were involved in EAP classes at the State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Surakarta, the Sebelas Maret University (UNS), and the Veteran University Sukoharjo (VUS). Some 10 students from the EAP classes of each university were purposively selected as research subjects.

Data and Data Sources

The data sources for this study comprised the syllabi and teaching materials of the EAP programs and interviews with participants in which fields notes were taken. The primary data for this study were therefore the results of the interviews and checklists, while the secondary data included the features of the EAP syllabi and their instructional design, teaching materials, and learning objectives. Details of the syllabi were obtained from IAIN Surakarta, UNS, and VUS. No research instruments were devised in this study, but the syllabi and teaching materials were read thoroughly and the researcher identified statements, written facts, and their relationship with the purposes of EAP, as well as teaching objectives and teaching materials. The interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format, so the objectives, design, problems, solutions, and future expectations of the EAP programs could be clarified.

Research Procedures

The main objective of this study was to design a new format for an EAP program that includes academic literacy in an ELFA context. Data for this study were collected through documents, interviews, and checklists. To this end, EAP syllabi, teaching materials, and documents for EAP implementations were evaluated. The results of the analysis placed emphasis on learning objectives, the content of teaching materials, and learning outcomes and other related information. An analysis of the domain and taxonomy was applied to explore the data, and a thematic analysis was used to arrive at conclusions.

Once the content analysis was completed, the interviews with the EAP lecturers were conducted to explore the teaching–learning process of EAP and its pitfalls. The interviews focused on six concerns: learning outcomes, teaching objectives, teaching materials, the syllabus, problems that needed to be faced, and future aspirations for the EAP program. Similar interviews were also conducted with the heads of study programs with similar questions to gather information from a policy perspective. The results from both sets of interviews were integrated to define a new perspective for EAP. In general, any queries about EAP and academic literacy in the context of ELFA were specifically explored, and a future appropriate format for EAP programs was defined in line with management and the syllabi. Following the interviews, a checklist exploring the needs and expectations in the conduct of an EAP course was distributed, with the results being administered complimentary to the interviews.

Results

EAP Practices in Indonesia

Diagram 1 shows the results of the documentary analysis of EAP practices and indicates the four ways in which English courses are presented in Indonesian universities. The status of EAP in an Indonesian context is unclear, and there is diverse substance in the EAP curriculum policies. As stipulated in the Decree of the Ministry of Higher Education, Research and Technology (henceforth referred to as *Mendikbud*) No. 011/2000, the status of an English course for a non-English department is said to be compulsory and categorized as a *Mata Kuliah Dasar Umum* (MKDU or Basic General Course) that aims to support learners in studying English texts. An English course for a MKDU is allotted 2–4 credits over two semesters for a freshmen majoring in a non-English program. Such an MKDU can be classified as English for specific purposes (ESP).

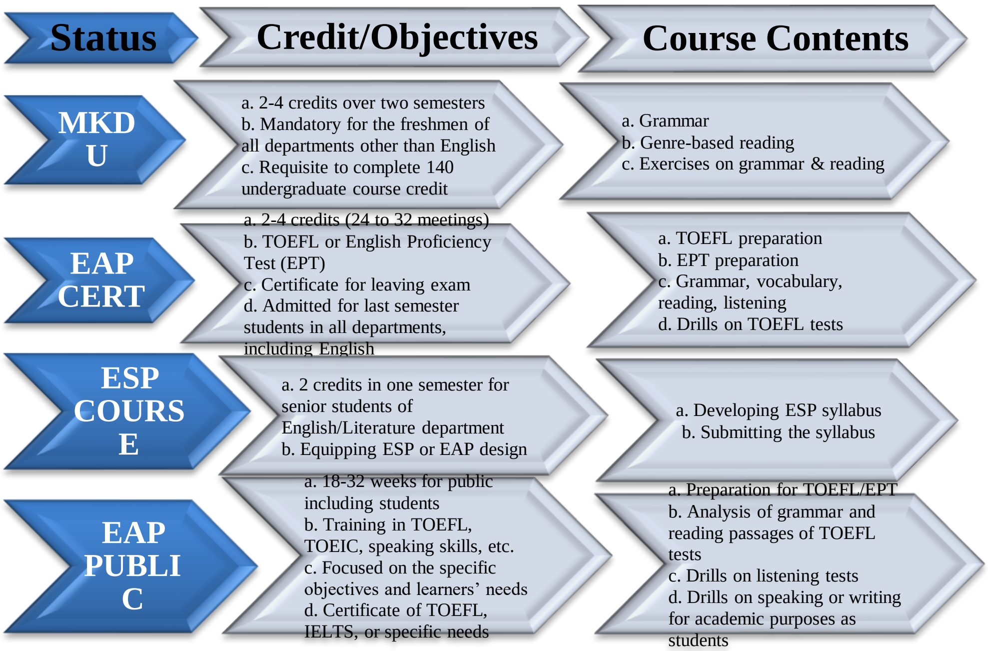


Diagram 1. Four model of English course in Indinesia

In response to an Education Ministry decree, all universities must offer at least two semesters of English language teaching throughout an undergraduate's period of study. At 2 credits per semester, the implementation of an MKDU is overwhelmed by policy and practical problems, because an English MKDU course appears in every curriculum in every department and faculty. Each department has 300–700 students, and one faculty can have approximately 1,000–3,000 students. Problems exist in terms of crowded classes of 70–100 students, a limited number of English teachers, teaching materials, and assessment.

From a policy perspective in the Indonesian context, an English course at university level can take four statuses, each of which implies that practices in the lower level unit (e.g., study program) are very significant. These four statuses are English as an MKDU, English as an EAP Certificate (EAP-CERT), English as an ESP/EAP Course, and English as EAP for the public (EAP-P).

First, English as a general course can be offered in any department. This suggests that to complete the minimum 144 credits for undergraduate students, an English course worth 2–4 credits is compulsory. This English course takes the form of an MKDU.

Second, there is English as an EAP certificate. When an English course is labelled as an EAP Certificate, it trains students to take the TOEFL test or some other English proficiency test, depending on the university's policy. In this regard, English is taught to prepare students to successfully pass the test (e.g., TOEFL). Gaining the test certificate is required for every student finishing the course. Universities usually assign their Language Center units to conduct the program.

Third, there are English as ESP/EAP programs. An ESP course in this context is unrelated to the two abovementioned English courses. An ESP or EAP course is one offered for students majoring in the teaching of English or English literature, and it is a mandatory course when gathering the 144 credits required for English undergraduate students. The purpose of this course is to equip students as EFL learners and help them achieve theoretical and practical notions of ESP or EAP. The head of the English department is responsible for operating these programs. The implementation is normally emerged in trivialities and lacks substance and focus in the syllabus. Teaching EAP in this way usually involves limitations in syllabus design, teaching materials, needs analysis, and the apparatus required for actual EAP practices.

Fourth, there are EAP programs for the public. EAP for the public indicates a real desire to improve learners' competency in English, and it is offered to the general public, as well as students of the university. Professional services are delivered in terms of needs analysis, syllabi, and teaching materials, and the course is linked to the international TOEFL test. The aim is to make learners more proficient in English, such as with academic writing and professional and academic speaking. Only a well-equipped university, however, has the potential and capability to serve this kind of EAP course, usually one with good English services and international resources and access.

Academic Literacy Implementation

Results of the needs analysis

The results of the interview and checklist showed 14 kinds of needs in English teaching, including basic knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but also other English skills like speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The level of difficulty and need was indicated by the frequency of occurrences for a particular category. When students were asked to indicate the most important items to include in an EAP course's content, students pointed out daily conversation, general

English, grammar, vocabulary, and reading. Writing and listening are considered hard to accomplish, so students put them at the lower end of their needs, as can be seen in Table 2.

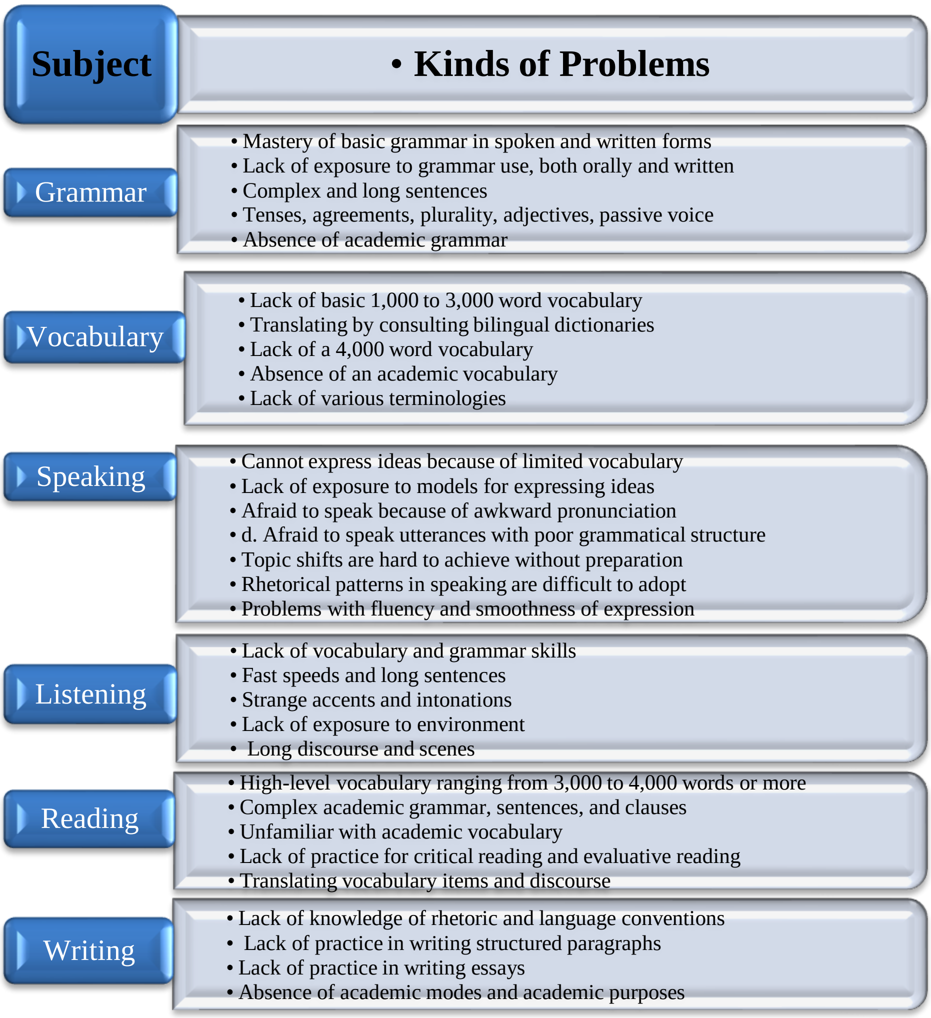
Table 2

Expected subject needs on the EAP course

No.	Subject	Teachers		Students	
		F	%	F	%
1	Basic grammar	10	8,20%	30	8,50%
2	Academic grammar	9	7,38%	25	7,08%
3	General vocabulary: 3,000-4,000 words	6	4,92%	28	7,93%
4	Academic vocabulary: 750 words	8	6,56%	10	2,83%
5	Conversation	8	6,56%	30	8,50%
6	Public speaking	9	7,38%	25	7,08%
7	Academic speaking	10	8,20%	30	8,50%
8	Listening for general use	6	4,92%	30	8,50%
9	Listening for TOEFL	8	6,56%	20	5,67%
10	Reading for daily needs	10	8,20%	30	8,50%
11	Reading for academic texts	10	8,20%	20	5,67%
12	Academic reading	10	8,20%	20	5,67%
13	Writing for daily use	8	6,56%	30	8,50%
14	Academic writing	10	8,20%	25	7,08%
	Total	122	100%	353	100%

As Table 2 suggests, the various areas that students and teachers want to cover include a basic knowledge of English (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) as well as other English skills like listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each of these is perceived as important by at least 60% of the subjects, implying that students seem to be lacking in both their spoken and written English competency. Some areas were confirmed at 100% across students and teachers, indicating a high need to prioritize these areas in a program's design.

An elaboration of each problem related to basic knowledge and other English skills is presented in diagram 3. This was based on the students' and teachers' responses in interviews and the checklists when asked about the details of one subject area that they consider necessary to include. For example, if vocabulary was indicated as a problem in learning by a student, he or she was asked to define the kind of vocabulary and how students mastery is being inhibited.



The modified EAP syllabus

Prior to syllabus design, problems are identified that may inhibit successful instruction. Based on this, some revised teaching objectives were devised, as in diagram 4. In general, the modified teaching objectives rely on the existence of academic literacy and the inclusion of academic literacy in basic English knowledge and skills, just as the research participants expected. Literacy in this context is defined as knowledge that will make a student literate in English. To this end, literacy is achieved through a minimum mastery of basic grammar and a 3,000 general word vocabulary. Literacy should be emphasized as the starting point for students becoming involved in the EAP program. In addition, academic literacy refers to the competency that students must attain for academic communication in English. Students and teachers indicated that for their needs, academic literacy should start with academic writing, academic speaking, and academic reading.

Academic listening was considered a skill that would come later, so they did not include it as a top priority.

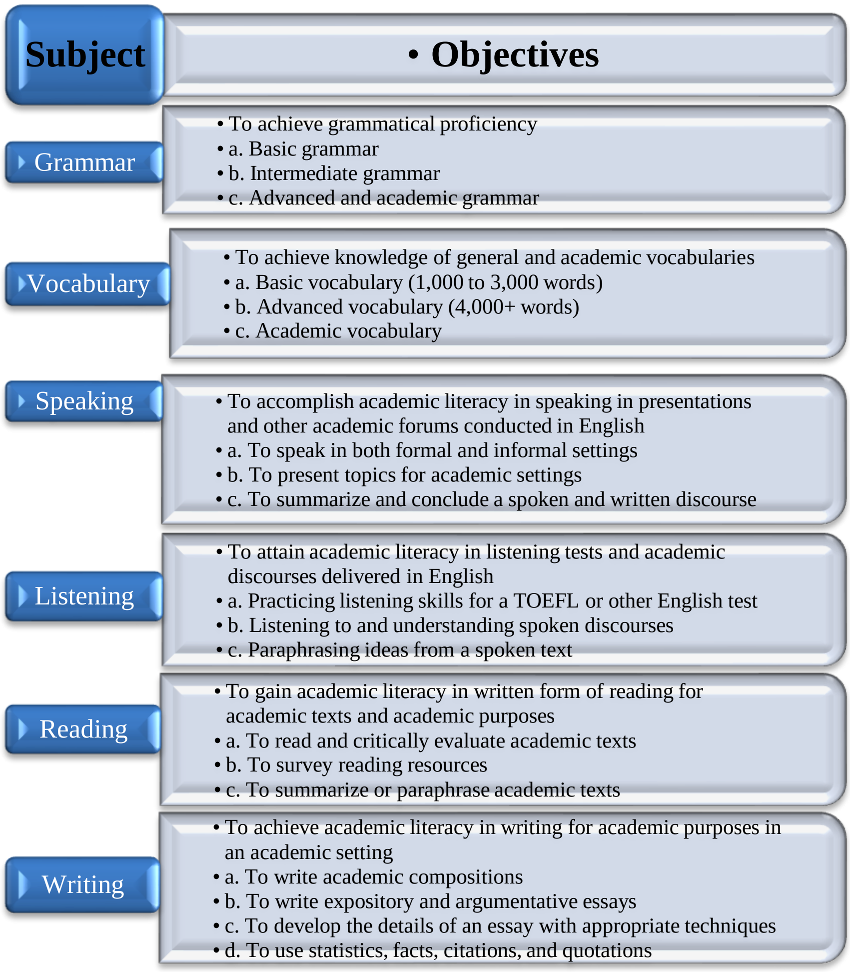


Diagram 4: Revised subject matters and objectives of program

Finally, a proposed syllabus design for EAP was devised, as can be seen in Table 5. This syllabus accommodates revised teaching objectives, literacy areas, academic literacy, and other subject matters that the students and teachers believe are important to include from an ELFA and EFL perspective.

Based on the syllabus of Solikhah (2013), this syllabus defines learning outcomes, literacy, and academic literacy as being important when developing teaching materials. This rough draft could be further developed with teaching materials and other components of a final syllabus. In this draft, nine syllabus components are developed: learning outcomes, literacy, academic literacy, objectives, content and organization, methodology, target learners, and duration of instruction.

Of the nine components, it should be noted that the content and organization of the draft indicates that teaching materials should be included in the syllabus. This draft describes only the general contents. Details about the teaching materials should be added to the final version of the syllabus, and prior to this development, identification of the scopes and areas should be finalized.

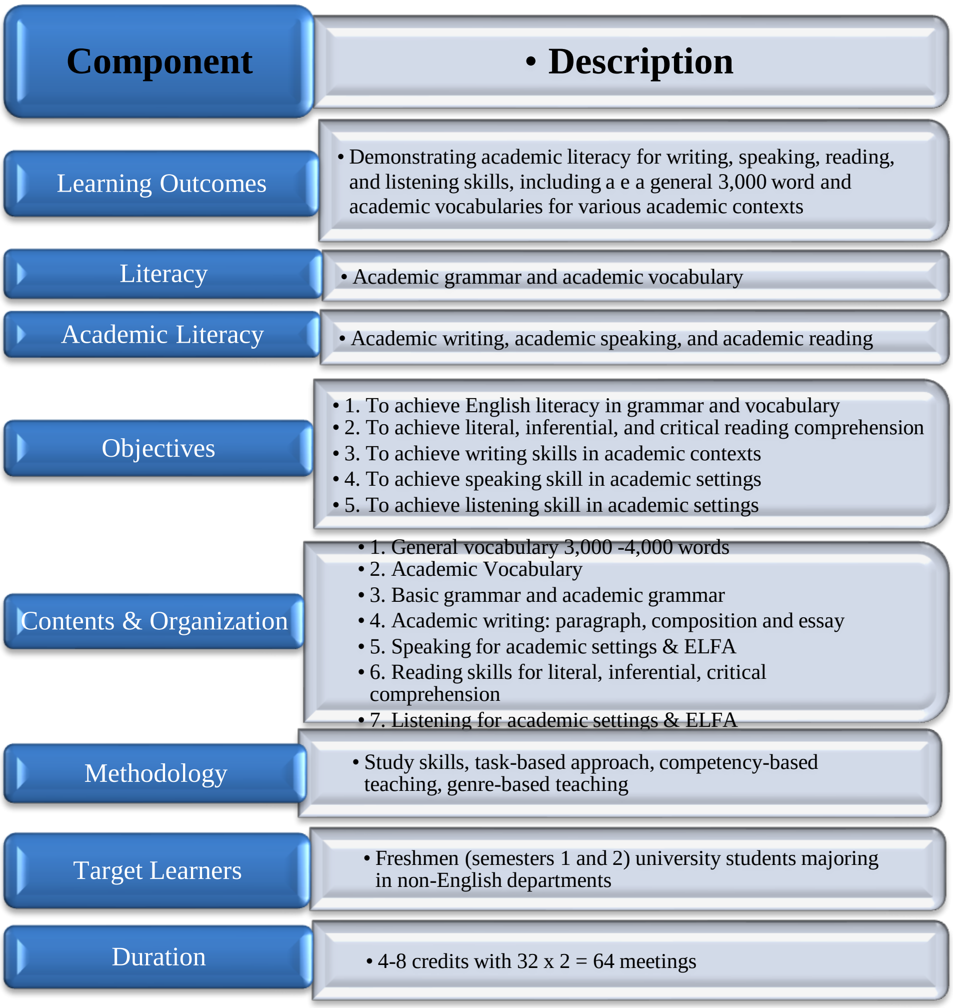


Diagram 5: Needs analysis for EAP, as modified from (Solikhah, 2014)

Discussion

This study found that EAP practices in Indonesia are not meeting expectations, and the features of the EAP syllabi do not yet include academic literacy. Evidence to support the findings, as well as related research work that relates to the current findings, are discussed below.

The continuing status of English as a lingua franca for academia is inevitable, so all university students should be prepared for this. EAP courses are used to equip students to improve their

English proficiency and ensure the success of their studies. In Indonesia, English courses for the EAP context do not meet the criteria for enabling students to achieve English literacy and proficiency.

Adewumi and Owoyemi (2012) asserted that EAP is very involved with the attainment of an English proficiency certificate. This functions as an aid for obtaining a certificate or degree as part of a higher education program, and it also plays an important role in a school curriculum. EAP aims to teach the precise language areas and skills needed for academic practices. EAP is especially concerned with a restricted repertoire of words and expressions that will cover every requirement within a well-defined context, task, or vocation.

This finding was confirmed by Yurekli (2012). EAP students need an adequate level of English, both in terms of grammar (the use of the language's form and function) and lexical discourse. Grammar and vocabulary are therefore inevitably embedded in every single objective. Vocabulary focuses more on academic words that are frequently used in a study area. As regards grammar, students need to be given plenty of opportunities to develop their existing linguistic competences. A basic knowledge of English for EAP learners is an important consideration in an EAP program. Achieving a standard competency in English—including a basic knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and other basic English skills—is important in making a program successful.

In general, an EAP course as an MKDU is offered in the first two semesters of an undergraduate program, so the course has two main parts delivered in each semester. Lessons include grammatical issues, such as tenses, sentence types, the passive voice, gerunds, numbers, adjectives, pronouns, suffixes, transformation of sentences, and so on. Reading and writing are also offered to a limited degree. Reading comprehension is used to equip students to answer questions after reading a passage. Emphasis is placed on expressing ideas about the content of a passage. In addition, the writing portion focuses on how to write a paragraph and compose text using different descriptive, narrative, and argumentative modes. Similar to the work of Chowdhury and Haider (2012), this study found there was little scope for developing speaking skills beyond the oral presentations in the classroom that students were required to perform.

Regarding a basic knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, this study confirms that an EAP program should aim for English literacy from the start. Literacy is therefore somewhat of an entry-level skill that students should achieve prior to enrolling in the program. What has been identified from Indonesian EAP programs is that no prerequisite entry-level skills are defined. Any student enrolled in a study program takes an English course, and all students receive the same teaching materials that were devised by the teachers. This implies that changes are needed in the syllabus design.

The English skills indicated in this study suggest different needs than those that some other researchers have arrived at. The students and teachers confirmed that academic literacy should begin with academic writing, academic speaking, and academic reading. Academic writing is crucial because any idea or proposal needs to be delivered in a written form. Therefore, literacy in writing should be given priority. Academic speaking is also considered influential, because presentations, seminars, and other speeches for various academic purposes are delivered through oral interaction. In this way, speaking and listening are of similar significance. Reading is also important but less so than the above skills.

The level of proficiency of the EAP students in this study was below what would be expected. Of course, some students perform very well and are competent in writing, speaking, and reading, but this proficiency derives from their own learning outside the EAP program. This implies that literacy itself is not enough, so students need to integrate academic literacy into their language skills. For Indonesian learners, where EFL applies but the characteristics of students and teaching indicate ELFA, a directed program to achieve academic literacy is recommended. Literacy involves the accomplishment, at a minimum level, of a general vocabulary of 3,000 words and basic grammar skills, and this should be the entry-level prerequisite for students participating in an EAP program. Academic literacy covers academic vocabulary and grammar. To be academically literate, students should become competent in writing, speaking, and reading in various academic contexts.

In a renewed syllabus, all the aspects above should be considered for an EAP program through needs analysis. Needs analysis is fundamental to designing any EAP course and subsequently teaching it. It leads to specifying the objectives for a course and the range of content to be covered, as well as assessing the available resources. Needs analysis also helps to identify constraints that can then be taken into account in order to optimize the syllabus (Chowdhury & Haider, 2012). When determining an EAP syllabus's factors, needs, aims, means, and other variables or constraints are considered (Ortega, 2018). An EAP course primarily focuses on separate study skills, including reading comprehension, academic writing, listening comprehension and note taking, academic speech, and reference skills (Jordan, 1997). The redesigned EAP syllabus in this study asserts that learning outcomes should include literacy, academic literacy, and ELFA in their core design.

Conclusion

This study attempted to describe the current characteristics of EAP practices in Indonesia and propose a redesigned syllabus that will achieve academic literacy for an ELFA setting. The significant findings show that EAP practices in Indonesia are not meeting expectations, and the problem of English literacy is the most crucial one to solve. English courses have been included in various teaching programs, but they are not meeting the criteria for the EAP goal. An English course can be labelled as MKDU, an EAP Certificate, an ESP course for English-language students, or an EAP course for the public. In response, this study proposes a redesigned EAP syllabus to achieve English literacy by teaching grammar and vocabulary and other English skills, thus meeting the needs for academic purposes, namely academic writing, speaking, and reading. This way, ELFA in the university environment and academic atmosphere is accommodated by the EAP program's design.

Pedagogical Implications

This study has found that EAP program in Indonesia has not yet defined in a way EAP standard refers to the EGAP or ESAP. The general English as MKDU in Indonesian university has been indicated as the EAP. This funding implies that EAP program in Indonesia needs revisiting and an overhaul policy. Teaching EAP should basically incure basic knowledge of English, the academic words and impriving academic literacy. Externally, it is the digital era where teaching materials and teaching methods should be based upon. Teaching of EAP should put emphasis on the use of the digital tools.

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Pragmatics of Immigration & Identity:
Computational Study of Online Discourses

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Abstract

Framed within the Critical Metaphor Analysis of Online Social media and Social Psychology, the present study explores the dynamics of the online construction of the “Identity” in the context of immigration and current policy in USA. Thematically, we scrutinize online discourses on immigration and migrant-related mainstream in USA in 2017-18 and till date. On theoretical and methodological level, it looks at the nature of metaphorical thought-form of immigrants and migrants or refugees, their axiological (of values) assumptions and emotional potential for economical and identity construction, and thus impact on possible cognitive-affective attitudes of the host countries’ citizens. In line with Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), and using Computational techniques, the paper addresses the following questions: 1. To what extent are particular metaphorical conceptualizations within the representation of migrants/refugees? 2. How is the "Identity" conceptualized as a threat in both physical and symbolic sense? 3. How does socio-cultural context depend on Identity? and 4. How are metaphors including dehumanization, serve as a springboard for discrimination? The analyzed data is collected within the Social Media speeches and explores various aspects of ‘self’, ‘other’ and ‘IDENTITY’ speeches on online social networks such as: TWITTER, NPR, ABC, Reuters, the Associated Press, and presidential speeches.

Keywords: *Pragmatics, Computational study, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), Online Discourses, migrants/refugees, self, other, identity, US immigrants.*

Introduction

English language is becoming more important as a universal means of communication, particularly after the recent advances in technology that have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree, Hasan, 2020; Al-Ghamdi & Alrefaee, 2020; Tran & Yeh, 2020). Illustrating from the recent speeches and online media reports on the ‘immigration policy’ of USA and the legal rights of International Law for foreigners to enter their lands (Zolberg& Zolberg, 2009), the present paper focuses on the Conceptual Metaphors (henceforth CMs) and their role in the construction of, Immigrant/Migrant and of ‘Identity’ in comparable to the speeches present by leaders in social media along with the comments by the participants in that online platform. As there was a huge discussion on the immigration policy recently, this has created a lot of CONFUSION and THREAT among the foreigners that settled in USA on various purposes, and also among the natives there. It also caused an ideological crisis among immigrants of other countries too. Firstly, we aim to understand the contextual meaning of the metaphors used in by the leaders of USA in its cultural contexts with a comparison to the other majority country people.

The data was collected within TWITTER, NPR, ABC, Reuters, the Associated Press and online presidential speeches on immigration popular in Social networks. 'IMMIGRATION' and 'IDENTITY' are considered as a conceptual and multi-level view of metaphors that provide us insights for the existing study (Kovecses, 2017).

Firstly, despite cross-cultural backgrounds, the people from different countries are moving to US[1], (1/5th of migrants live as of 2017 and it is the top destination for migrants). They are contributing towards the economy and societal values which form the very backbone of any national identity and find their manifestation in nationalist and far-right movements (Kopytowska et. al. 2017, Elaf Bustan & Hussien Alakrash. 2020). Secondly, the recent border wall issue to stop immigrants fleeing from Mexico into USA instigated insecurity and fear of splitting refugee families. A study conducted by Yale University, (published by PLUSONE) reports a huge number of undocumented immigrants coming from Mexico to USA (Centre for Migration Studies) faced contradiction from many. We shall firstly focus our study in the field of cognitive linguistics, considering metaphors that belong to one domain or target group constituting Conceptual Metaphors (Gibbs 1993; Lakoff 1993; Lakoff and Johnson (2003). In particular, conceptual metaphors structure our sensitivities and level of domain, level of mental spaces and understanding, as "most of our ordinary conceptual system is metaphoric in nature" (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003: 4). Yet, insights from corpus-based discourse analysis, as well as social psychology, allows us to "uncover" and discuss motivations behind particular metaphorical conceptualizations, their ideological conditioning and cultural embedding. Social psychology helps us identify the public perception of the socio-political phenomena (and, possibly, self and group verbal and physical actions), especially with the concepts of symbolic and realistic threat (Allport. G. 1954: and realistic threat (Campbell, D.T :1965).

The researchers Baider, and Kopytowska (2017:205) argue that conceptual metaphor mainly formulates the hidden mental processes of the human mind. Yet, there is an urgent need to conduct a study that focuses on the cultural and ideological factors behind using metaphors in immigration context. Speaking of metaphor universality, it turns out that metaphor cases are not found in particular languages only. On the contrary, metaphors are found common across languages as well. For example, all humans have an experience of metaphors of ANGER and JOY (Wiezbicka,1999: 276). The frequency usage of such conceptual metaphors across cultures might be done with the aid of Corpus- based discourse analysis and Social psychology. As such, now in the digital age, social networking platforms are used for sharing information to communicate emotions and express opinions and feelings among the people. Thus, online social networks are very good tools for developing allied areas to Social Sciences, such as Social Psychology.

Conceptual Metaphor Analysis - A Brief Literature Review

Earlier researches about metaphors on immigrants already opined that they are involved in a "dehumanization" psychological process by the (speakers) source domain (Opotow, 1995:347). It was observed by Charteris-Black (2004:244) that the previous studies about metaphors have made a comparison between "underlying" and "surface" metaphors. He further opines that metaphors play an important persuasive role in "evoking strong emotional responses that may prioritize one interpretation of a text over another". According to Charteris-Black (2004:247), there are two issues that ought to be discussed: a. The ideological loading of the political and media means, and b. The cultural conditioning of the values of a specific society which means the previous knowledge, their implicit stereotypes and cultural values and sometimes can be identified 'individually' may be generalized by media. Chilton (2004:17) identifies that CMs in case of immigration may transfer both positive and negative emotions like"fear, anger, sense of insecurity, loyalty to the targeted group". Johnson (2005:1) argues that, metaphor analysis is grounded in critical Discourse Analysis. Hence, metaphors are "linguistic outcomes of underlying cognitive processes." In addition, Evan and Pourcel (2009: 519) point out that the knowledge of socio-cultural situation of cognition added to the critical discourse focusing on social issues and how discourses are manipulative. Further, Bloor and Bloor (2013) give a prologue to the diverse kinds of language investigation that are utilized in various settings.Wang (2014) plans to lead a comprehensive report on hypothetical system of basic visual investigation proposed to encourage experimental examination. However, Atanasova and Koteyko (2017) ponder etymological and calculated representations in feeling page content from the English online papers Watchman On the web and Mail On the web, while focusing on the contentions they advance. In addition, Ifeanyichukwu (2018) embraces the system of Charteris-Black's (2004) Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) which stems from Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Therefore, in this research a step is taken further than analyzing the identification of conceptual metaphor to explore the pressing issue on refugees.

Materials and Methodology

This study follows Lackoff's (1993)**,** and Lackoff and Johnson's (2003) cognitive model of conceptual metaphor. It also adopts critical Metaphor Analysis model (Charteris-Black 2004,2005,2006) in an attempt to add the pragmatic side of a specific linguistic event. This pragmatic side examines the purpose behind using the ideological basis of such linguistic event; in our case namely online social media. Social psychology (Pragglejaz group: 2007) methodology is also adopted so as to explain the cultural value and perception of the source domain which holds against the target source.

In this 21st century, the role of social media is unavoidable by politicians especially for pressing issues like ‘immigration policies’. The social media content (sent, shared and participated in post by commenting and pinning) has highlighted the public discourses that are in online news channels and other social media since 2017- till now. It has also highlighted the messages on ‘self’ and ‘other’ and became the source of spreading ‘insecurity’ among so many sectors of immigrants as there has been reason for emotional agony among the refugees first and other immigrants coming for jobs, business and other reasons. These messages spread uncivilized acts and encourage anti-social activists to deviate the common public and creates agony (Santana :2013). Besides, despite spreading the negativity and escalating prejudice among netizens, they overtly induce hatred and chances of violence too. According to UNHCR (2016) there was so much influx of migration to both Europe and US. It is widely understood that majority of violence in the World are caused by Religious, National and Economic inequalities alongside migration within these three causes resulting in so much anxiety and resentment (European Commission 2017). This was reported in ECRI (2017) in which Europe already pointed out the increase in terms like ‘racist’ and ‘xenophobia’ in social media discourse.

However, for collecting data, we used manual text mining tools with R for Twitter, Facebook and for news channel NPR, ABC, Reuters, Associated Press, CNBC and ANI international by following their regular news especially when the immigration and H1B visas issues were on high discussion during 2017-18 and data collected during the time periods May - November 2018 and using the key words ‘H1B Visas’, ‘Immigration policies’, ‘migration/refugees’ as the search terms. Information was thence collected from the comments of few active followers of this conversation. While monitoring social media, the number of ‘likes’ and ‘retweets’ were considered to locate the percentage of online participants engaged in this conversation. As text mining tools are restricted only to identify the number of comments on ‘immigration’, ‘identity’ and ‘perceived otherness’ and frequency of appearance, the relevance of content mined was observed manually (not by any software).

Identification and Recognition of Metaphor

After collecting the required information from the possible sources, we have focused on the commonality between different expressions and the context they were expressed to label them a category. As there has been research going-on on metaphor and identifying metaphor in [1]context, Lakoff and Johnson (2003: 3-4) maintain that metaphor is crucial in our everyday life together in language plus thought and action. So, what is done in everyday life situations and the way we experience ourselves and others are to a large extent determined by our conceptual system. The latter, thus, is considered metaphorical in nature. Metaphor, thus, "structure how we perceive, how we think, and what we do" (ibid: 4). The definitions of these two linguists emphasized on the poetic, fixed and active metaphor categories which are considered to limit our search. In addition, further categorization was done by the similarity, perceived meaning and interpretation of the receiver.   The above discussion is concerned with the identification of metaphor from a cognitive linguistics viewpoint. As for the recognition part, the researcher's job here would be providing an explanation on the use of metaphor by a specific speech community in line with the social network analysis of lexical affinity (discussed in 2.1).

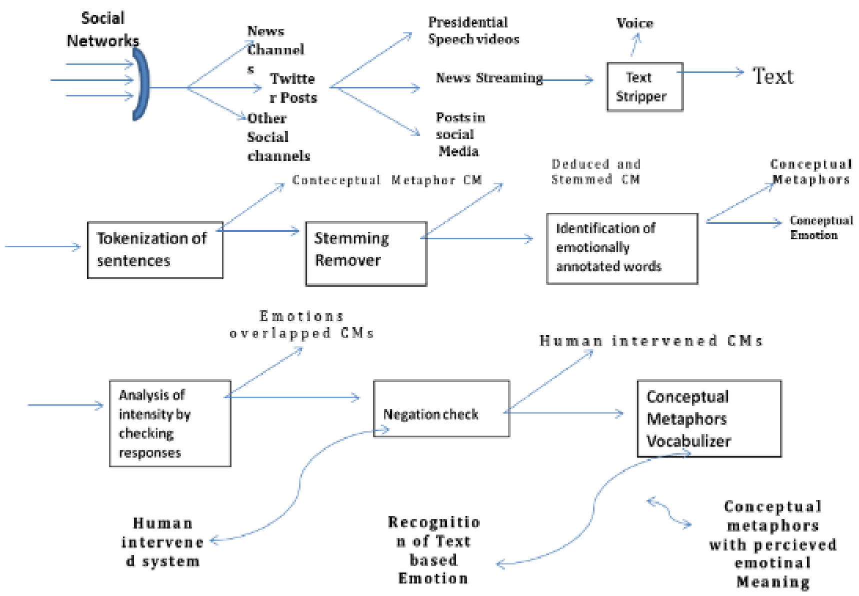


Fig:1 Operational Map of Keyword Spotting Technique of Conceptual Metaphors and Emotions

The following steps were pursued to address the research questions. The primary focus of our study was mainly on public discourses that were widespread throughout online social media

[1] Fixed metaphors (e.g. An image of "bag no refugees", active metaphors (e.g. migrated population increases crime rate), and decorative metaphors (No one leaves home, unless home is the mouth of a shark).

platforms, with attention to deliberate metaphors (Cameron:2013) that are identified in the under mentioned criteria to answer the research questions posed:

1. Analogy or similarity between the literal meaning of the speaker and perceived meaning of the audience.
2. Inferences and corresponded meaning of the speech or statements.
3. Active participants' responses against the posts on Twitter and similar discussions on FB news channels posts during the same period, and also by consulting the newspapers like Guardian.

To collect these 1-3 categories of metaphors, the research relied on Deignan's recommendations on 'Discourse approaches'; these were followed to recognize the above kind of metaphors and applied MIP - Metaphor Identification Procedure (Ed. Mc Arthur. F - literally taken from Pragglejaz 2007) alongside with Keyword spotting technique (KST) to the collected data.

1-3 points are achieved by:

1. Using 'Keyword spotting technique' from the comments posted by active participants with a minimum of 25 likes and 25 retweets are considered. Repetitions are ignored,
2. Analyzing the contextual meaning of the 'content word' before and after,
3. Relating the 'lexical word' meaning more to the contemporary scenario,
4. Examining its similarity and resonance with the interpretation of the majority of active respondents in that tweet,
5. Labeling of either the 'sentence' or 'lexical word' based on its emotion,
6. Calculating the frequency of 'used (by speaker) and perceived (active participants), and
7. Identifying deliberate metaphors that aggravate negative interpretation of existing opinions are more frequently seen in the data collected.

Tables 1-3 show conceptual metaphors and their frequency in the data collected. There are a few metaphors that overlap: *Outlaw* is a specific type of *Invasion, Barbarism* is a type of *Animal* and *Terrorism* and can evoke *Violence*. Thus, Immigrants are identified with metaphors of Violence and create 'Othering'.

Data Collection and Findings

According to Menjivar (2016) "online social networks are maintained to play a crucial role in formulating the immigration public view". This is very apt to this research as the messages of the media powerfully reflects the immigrants as negatively unwanted by the active participants of that particular message which immediately results into immigrants to defend themselves. In addition, Robinet (2018:2) reports that Father Piedra (who works in New York immigration court) defends people who seek refuge in US. Father Piedra reports a case of rejecting offering asylum to a refugee as his case has to do with gang violence.

As suggested by Kopytowska, Grabowski and Wozniak (2017), media crew like journalists, live coverage anchors, commentators and people in discussion boards, participants in media debates also directly or indirectly can create negativity, insecurity, fear, hatred and prejudice by appealing to implicit stereotypes that already exist. Many researches have already proven that the data collected from Facebook pages of news channels with commentaries majorly communicate negative stance and racial disparities among countries and people, (Baider and Constantinou: 2017a, 2017b).

Thus, it can be perceived that in most cases on the discussion of immigrants, these are being described as "threats" to those seeking asylum and needing humanitarian support than power politics. In (2016), the U. S allowed around 85,000 refugees but in (2018) it nosedived into 22, 500 approximately, (Guardian News). Hence, the recent announcement by the US government to close its immigration offices in selected places Worldwide is also important in this account. Regarding the discussion of metaphors used in social media, and its relevance is that, ‘metaphors by themselves evoke emotional potency if it is between ‘the ruler’ (Politicians) and ‘the seeker’ (refugees). Due to the availability of huge data, the study of linguistics has become very challenging due to the social nature of exchange of feelings, habits and demography of the participants. Thus, the universality to the lexical affinity of the words that sound similar and relevant in opinion are taken into consideration for this study.

Emotion can be affected by both external and internal sources. If it is external source and shared among a group of participants through a social media platform, it can be categorized as anger, fear, joy, love, surprise and sadness (Paul Ekman: 1994):

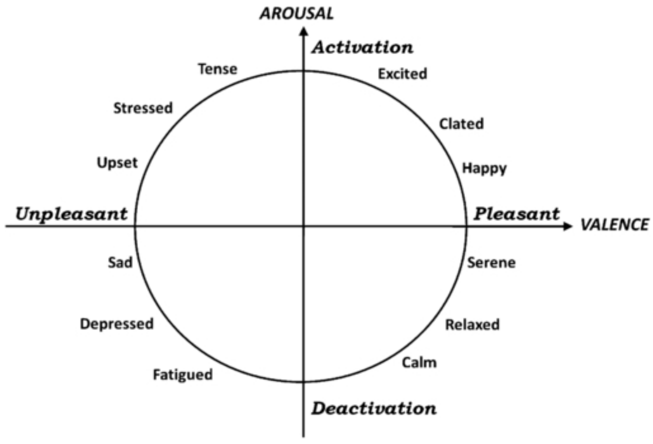


Fig:2 Categorization of online social network shared emotions

Let us understand this with the following examples of tweets:

Table-1 Shows the lexical analysis of online social network posts

Example Tweets	**Subject**	**Contextual Emotion/Metaphor**
US welcomes refugees with big heart	US-Refugees	Positive/Joy
There is no space for anyone coming into US	US-Refugees	Negative/Anger, fear

Let us see the following stepwise process to understand emotions. Identification of sentences in discourses, splitting into words, recognizing the words emotionally annotated, looking for the negation and categorizing the words within their emotions. This is a very flexible technique, but the knowledge of social networking language is very essential as online networks area diversified environment. Extreme care is taken while categorizing the words.

The following are the examples collected from various online social media sites and TWITTER.

Table-1.1: Examples of biased tweets with lexical affinity:

Tweets posted during May-Sep, 2018	**Subject**	**Contextual emotion/ Metaphor**
"To me, immigration is an Islamophobia. It's racist, in my opinion."	Immigration	Racism/anger, fear
"The ultimate goal is making immigrants more difficult to live in the United States legally,"	legal Immigration	legally difficulty/Anger, fear
"If you're tough on immigrants they won' come here.	US-Refugees	Being tough/fear, anger
"These are political moves by the administration to reduce immigration."	Politics on Immigrants	Fleeing/fear

Table-1.1 shows the subjective (user/participant feeling) examination towards the tweets.

The above sentences are just a few among many threatening dialogues that appeared in the online social networks on refugees and immigration policies that are under social discourse. Immigrants, in specific groups are facing highly insecure, fear and uncertainty in their livelihood and thus fueling tensions among their group-immigrants.

The recent decisions on migrants, tolling in Twitter with a hashtag #NoBanAct, act to ban a single religion not to enter is such a move that would go radically farther than the specific geographical administration's current “zero tolerance policy” which aggressively enforces the 1965 law that made illegal entry into the US a federal misdemeanor (Theiss-Morse, E. 2009). Hence, the goal of the new policy was to criminally prosecute 100% of immigrants caught crossing the border.

Examining a Few Speeches Broadcasted on Online News Channels on “Immigration”

Below are the speeches; September. 1, (2016), June. 20 (2018), June 22, (2018), and November 1, (2018), the most recurrent used metaphors might be illustrated in the following table (1):

Table-2: Recurrent metaphors used for personifying the Immigrants as Outsider/Others

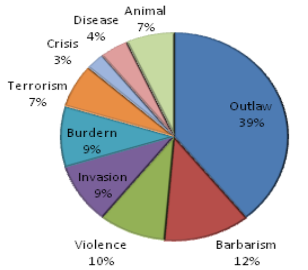
The examples in the collected data	Subject - Immigrants (Default)	Conceptual Metaphor of/ -ve Emotion
Refugees do everything illegally. The following are the sentences used in the public discourses: “illegal flow of drugs, cash, guns, and people across our border”, “put the cartels out of business”, “the perpetrators were illegal immigrants with criminal records, a mile long”, “families who come here in violation of the law(immigrants), “keep out criminal cartels”, “anyone who illegally cross the borders will be detained”, “until they are removed out”, “zero tolerance for criminal aliens”, “criminal aliens”, “criminal illegal immigrants”, “ issue detainers for illegal immigrants”, “remove criminal aliens”.	Outlaw	anger/fear
Migrants are considered as “non-citizens”, “the biggest thing”, “they come from Trojan house”, “thugs”, “it’s evil”, “they are not archaic”, “they’re just bad”, “uncontrolled, low-skilled immigration”,	Barbarism	Upset/fear, threat, Anger

Migrants have associations with Jihadis and are suspected as "the release of dangerous, criminal from detention", "death and destruction caused by people) immigrants", "hardcore criminal aliens", "violent criminals", "security threat", "tremendous crime", "criminals"	Violence	Stressed, Tense/fear, anger
Migrants are occupying the entire country and thus considered as: "invaders", "it is like an invasion", "very, very violent- that break in", "they're throwing rocks viciously and violently", "are hurting a lot of our people", the current influx threatens to overwhelm our immigration system and our communities", "uncontrolled masses of people rushing their border", "swarm"	Invasion	Depressed, sad/anger, fear
Migrants are called as "lower skilled workers with less education", "the biggest problem facing America", "breaking the federal budget", "the communities bear the cost", "public charges", "it cost us billions of dollars a year", "they are incompetent".	Burden	Sad/Threat
Migrants are always referred to as foreshadows of terrorism. "destroy our country", "weapons", "dangerous threatening mess", "gang members", 'gang of eight', " people that will continuously get into trouble and do bad things",	Terrorism	Stressed, Tense/fear, anger
Migrants are harbingers of crisis	Crisis	Depressed/fear
Migrants are suspected as creators of "a drug problem", "drugs", "deadly drugs pour into country ", " I will clean it up",	Disease	Depressed/fear
Migrants are often called by President as 'animal', is nothing but fascism.	Animal	upset/anger

As can be seen from Table (2), most of the metaphors that a few leaders exploited in their public discourses are that of *outlaw, barbarism, violence, invasion, burden, terrorism, crisis, disease, animal,* and these are acting as springboards to create 'other' within their socio-cultural context. In contrast to these metaphors, the metaphor of 'victim' in rhetoric and grotesque language are used on Immigrants and it hence shows that he never thinks of immigrants as human beings. To demonstrate his citizens as being "poor people" which shows his nativism thus reflects 'Othering' of immigrants and calls Americans as 'angels' and 'innocent'.

The following table (3) shows metaphors on 'IDENTITY' of immigrants as Aliens and Stateless may create 'Othering', which is nationally significant, so we classified sub-metaphors from the metaphor of 'Identity'.

Fig.3 Percentage Distribution of Conceptual Metaphors in Table:2



The above Fig.3, pie diagram shows the percentage distribution of contextual emotional metaphors of the subjects mentioned in Table-2. The above data is collected from four selected speeches to show how online discourses instigate negative emotion of ‘fear, anger’ and threat. In this chart, we can see ‘outlaw’ is of the highest percentage.

Table-3: Metaphors of IDENTITY used ‘dehumanizing ‘the other ‘(immigrant)’

The keywords in the collected data	Subject - Immigrants search hashtag #identity	Conceptual Metaphor of and associated Emotion
Immigrants are identified as ‘anchored babies’ and ‘felons not families’.	Immigrants/others	Aliens/Depression
Migrants are referred to as ‘Stateless’, ‘Anti-family’	Migrants/Identity	Stateless/confused, anger
Migrants are called as ‘Un-American’, ‘multi citizen’	Immigrants/nationality	Identity/anger
Immigrants are separated on the name of ‘white nationalism’	Foreigners/Self	identity, others/threat, anger
Immigrants are called as ‘brown colored’	Foreigners/self	Other/disgusting, anger
Asylum seekers are called as ‘Melania’s useless parents’	Immigrants Parents/Ancestry	Identity/fear
Children born to Immigrants are called ‘mixed status people’	Foreigners/Self	Identity/threat, fear
the notion of using immigrants as ‘pawns’	Immigrants/Notion	Subhuman/threat
Immigrants are called ‘pestilence to spread around the country’.	Immigrants/dehumanizing	Burden/Anger, fear
Online discourses were, ‘demonizing the ‘other’.	Inhuman/immoral	Outlaw/Threat

Table: 3 show CMTs of the term ‘dehumanizing’ the immigrants as ‘others’. The findings from the data collected shows that the hierarchy is in between metaphors of ‘Immigration’, ‘Invasion’, and ‘Outlaw’ and the dominant emotion is ‘fear’. It can be considered as macro-contextual metaphor, and represents other metaphors in many ways. Further, a dominant metaphor always tends to motivate remaining contextual metaphors (Rosch et.al., 1976). The rest of the metaphors that underlie in contextual emotions related to ‘IMMIGRANTS’ can be related to ‘OUTLAW and THREAT’ which are closely associated with emotion- ‘FEAR’. In this study of online discourses, the two elements that would relate to the prejudice against immigrants are: “Realistic Threat” (the perceived feeling of insecurity, joblessness, economical competition, less or no resources for health and well-being) and “Negative Stereotypes” (a variety of common social functions like social interactions, explanations for behavior and severe in minority groups). The data in Table-2 and 3 the metaphors describing the Realistic Threat are:

(though we see overlapping among the metaphors) (1) Terrorism / Violence / Crime (theft, rapes etc.), (2) Animal, (3) Disease / Dirt, (4) Burden, (5) Invasion / Flood.

We associated anti-family, parents, groups, pawns all being interrelated in our data: *terrorism* implied *religion*, *religion* implies *violence* and *violence* implies *crime*. We also associated “respect/hardworking” with “dirt/pestilence” since both are related to behavior. The second category of Negative Stereotype threat is multifactorial, and has the indicators that are associated with symbolic threat present in our data including: (1) Religious/brown-colored, (2) Social behavior/ Outlaw, (3) Moral values / inhuman. All these metaphors are cross-checked with the emotional mining to classify the percentage of negative emotions using mining techniques.

Table-4: Results of running Lexical Method for the data in Table-2 and 3

Emotion	Precision (P) %	Recall (R)%	F1(Measuring Value) %
ANGER	45.29	23.10	31.11
FEAR	56.98	38.47	47.37
SADNESS	47.89	36.53	41.39
DISGUST	33.70	25.53	26.27
GUILT	23.16	58.68	33.61
DEPRESSED	46.90	36.60	41.40
FATIGUE	31.68	25.53	26.25
ALL	45.48	39.70	48.50

The table showing the percentage of each emotion (Bollen. et al., 2011).

The above table: 4 shows the precision, recall and F1 measures values after executing emotional mining on lexical words on an average of 4 independent rounds of experiment on 25% of the data of the total for each test.

$$\mathbf{F1} = \frac{2 \ X \ precision \ X \ recall}{Precision + \ recall}$$

The table: 4 shows that the average F1 for all Emotions = 48.50 is of higher value to the base value (11.11%). 'Fear' and all other negative emotions have significantly seen in the data. This can be related to metaphor THREAT, as it alarms fear and other negative emotions. Fear being dominant emotion in the data and THREAT playing an "organizing role in structuring other concepts" [Gerow and Keane-2012] this could be motivating other metaphors in order [Rosch et al.,-1976] and can be considered as super ordinate metaphor.

In the context of social psychology and socio-cultural context, 'fear' has been identified as a dominant factor in 'fascist and racist', and 'anti-immigrant' discourses. Charteris-Black (2011: 25 and 2006: 50) points out that the contextual emotional metaphor of 'fear' is directly proportional to 'social control', the more the social groups *fear,* the greater the issues/society will be out of control. This is clearly observed when we used the search term, 'H1B visas'. The comments posted by participants in social media show that they have encountering 'insecurity' and 'uncertainty' to pursue higher education in U.S instead inclining towards Canada, Australia and Germany [MEA-India]. From this data, it can be understood, public discourses that instigate 'threat' and 'fear' simultaneously have created reasons for fearing among social groups. There is a hierarchy between the metaphors in Table-3 in our data which can be related to 'IDENTITY' AND 'NATIONALITY', as a realistic *threat*.

Table-5: Below is a brief data to support the above statement:

Indian students in abroad Higher Education		
Country	**2017**	**2018**
Australia	63,283	87,115
Canada	1,00, 000	1,24,000

Germany	13,740	15,308
USA	2,11,703	2,06,708

Source: Based on the statistics by Indian Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2017-2018

In addition to the above, 5, 53,400 Indian students went to different countries for their further studies as on August 2017. The empirical data gathered shows since the beginning of H1B Visa crisis, public discourses on creating more jobs for Americans and Skilled migrants which affected on visa issuing process and rejections of many visa applications, severity of work permits while pursuing higher education are all the reasons to consider for alternative venues than US.

Discussion

Further to the above mentioned, contextual metaphors that are connected to Immigration are more commonly noticed in almost all online discourses. However, Cultural distinctions may affect the perceived emotional intensity, which are rooted in different nationals.

Socio-Cultural Influences of 'Threat' Macro Metaphor

The traditional beliefs underlined in these regular metaphors can also be considered as conventional. This needs a lot of observation and knowledge of social networking language. Many researches have considered comparing linguistic and conceptualization of emotions (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, Barbara & Paul A. Wilson, 2013, 2014). These studies agreed that cultural differences certainly influence the 'emotion' and its outcome accordingly. According to The Integrated Threat Theory, the three factors that influence the level of perceived threat are: "Power dynamics", "Identity" and "culture" Mackie & Smith (2016: 92-115). Indeed, Table-2 and 3 show similarities in most cases. It can observe the recurrent metaphors on 'IDENTITY' AND 'CULTURE'. The word 'Jihadis', 'terrorists', undermine identity and expresses the "negative stereotype threat", therefore perceives abjection of migrants and brews prejudice (Adorno. T: 2004). Similarly, 'humans as animals', 'no citizenship', 'barbarians' come under personal threat. Every Society is built on certain rules to follow and culture being the inherent code of human behavior with different sets of values among people can be understood through pragmatic approach.

Context and Force as Illocutionary Points

Social Networks are good platforms to get vast data. The collected data was taken from the people who are actively participating in social networks to share their feelings, emotions and opinions on recent immigration policies. Their posts immediately spot on the using of ‘Anchored babies’, ‘allow people invade our country’, and grotesque terminology like, ‘melania’s useless parents’, in the context of ‘IMMIGRATION’ had received a huge criticism in social media. His speeches show the power and perceived force is more like ‘warning’, ‘threatening’, ‘dehumanizing’, and in comments following Twitter posts he is understood as a *racist, fascist a*nd *anti-immigrant*. The force and strength of verbal abuse is very evident in his discourses.

Conclusion

This research has been carried out using Social Network analysis with a specific focus on ‘Keyword Spotting Technique (KST)’ in conceptual metaphors as suggested by Paul Ekman category of online emotions. Language is the source of worldy knowledge and hence it become more interesting subject ever. Fontaine, J. R., Scherer, K. R., & Soriano, C. (2013) has proposed Component Process Model of Emotion which was close to lexical approach to social issues (also known as Lexical Sedimentation Hypothesis by Saucier, G., & Goldberg, L. R. 1996, 2017) which looks at various lexical matrices involved in understanding emotions in discourses. In this study the results predicted using both these approaches and computational techniques helped us to achieve valid results. As online social platforms being culturally diversified, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) provides insights on globalization of metaphors and their importance in specific contexts. Due to certain limitations and challenges we found it is not easy task to data-mine Facebook and Twitter. In the accounts that followed Social media news on Immigrants, it is observed that the political discourses are losing trust and faith of the people because of the leaders who exercise their power politics and not hesitant to abuse opposition members by stooping down to earth. A few media personnel always keep the nation at fire. The dominant metaphor in our data is THREAT resulting into emotion FEAR. In a number of responses, it is observed that during the times of ‘immigrants’ crisis, migrants were discriminated by calling WE ‘Americans-angels’, ‘We-good’, ‘Our Nation-Americans’, ‘Civilized’, THEM ‘labors’, ‘Uncivilized’, ‘Jobless’ which shows creating ‘otherness’ intentionally. Further to this, we have collected the responses from students seeking H1B Visa and the statistics collected show the physical and symbolic sense of existence of ‘Threat’. In this empirical study, such speeches are very less likely to be accepted even by natives.

Further Recommendations for Pedagogical Implications

The motivation of this research is C.O.N.T.A.C.T. (Creating an On-line Network, monitoring Team and phone App to Counter hate crime Tactics) which is a collective effort by EU and other union countries (reportinghate.eu) aimed to uncover the similarities and group-specific discourses that affect emotions. Xu, X., & Sun, Y. (2019) in their empirical research studied the importance of technological resources intervention in teaching and learning English for Specific Purposes because we use language jargons, culture specific cues whenever needed. Through this research we address the importance of bringing new research methods that help linguists with a special focus to discourse analysts to better understand and contribute for the emotional genre-based research. (Tsai-Yu Chen & Chih-Hua Kuo, 2012, Hussien Alakrash & Norizan Abdul Razak Razak, 2019). With the intervention of technology into our social life has many ways improved people's understanding of leaders. As such Social Networks are the great data sources for mining for emotions, opinions and reactions to any pressing topic or event of life. These preliminary findings would certainly encourage future scholars of Cognitive linguistics, Social Psychology and Computer Science; possibly look for the gaps to make use of hugely available social network data for preparing a Contextual sensitive metaphor dictionary for Social Network users. This is the need of hour for ESP researchers to focus on linguistic features like grammar, vocabulary, rhetoric figures, and metaphors in any discourse. Discourse analysis is the key for social change as it mainly focus on ideological media and political discourses by rationalizing and drawing reasonable distinction between knowledge, linguistic attribution and assumptions to any discourse.

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Exploring Implicature via WhatsApp:
The Maxim of Conversation Analysis

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Abstract

This research explores the type of conversational implicature conducted by the lecturers in the context of generalized and particularized implicature, and how the lecturers flout the maxims in responding the students' questions via WhatsApp. This research is a qualitative case study that describes a case of flouting the maxim of conversation between the lecturer and the students. The case study was done because it investigated a group of people that have distinctive phenomena with a bounded space and time. The result shows that between the generalized and particularized implicature, the lecturers used particularized implicature to shorten the conversation. Morever, the lecturers also broke the maxim of conversation by flouting the answer. However, this flout did not cause any misunderstanding, even this way can help the students to get the information faster without asking too many useless infrmation.

Keywords: *Cooperative principle, implicature, flouting the maxim, communication, language.*

Introduction

WhatsApp since its discovery by Brian Acton and Jan Koum in 2009 has widely used by billion people worldwide (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). The platform is a free of charge SMS, photo, text, video call communication that is easier and faster (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). Today, whatsApp likns over one billion users every day, with about 55 billion messages sent by one billion users per day. Using these texts, users can openly share their thoughts and feelings with friends and contacts (Al-Khawaldeh et al., 2016). This paper explores the use of WhatsApp for the daily conversation from the perspective of pragmatic studies (Assagaf, 2019).

In the eye of pragmatics, WhatsApp can produce the *locutionary act* as meaningful linguistic expression. This expression has a goal, or the *illocutionary act*. This kind of expression has an effect on the reader or hearer or *perlocutionary act* (Yule, 1996; Assagaf, 2019). This way, WhatsApp has the pragmatic functions and share elements from both written and spoken varieties of the language (Sanchez-Moya & Cruz-Moya, 2015). This application allows its users to use real-time texting or communication to exchange information and media content (Ahad & Lim, 2014). These include emoticons, images, pictures, voice notes, videos, weblinks and so on.

One specific contextual conversation that became the focus of this research is the conversation between the lecturer and the student that communicated the academic topics. The conversation is observed based on the cooperative principle that regulate the rules of communication. This means the information being delivered by the lecturer or the student should conform the maxim of conversation as a way to be cooperative in the conversation. However, being cooperative does not always presume the maxims, for example, sometimes people can be very creative in their conversation by using implicature. This implicature can create a unique characteristics in communication style.

According to Yule (1996) implicature is an additional conveyed meaning. It means that not only words means, but also the inside meaning of the words. Grice (1975) divided implicatures into two basic sorts those are conventional implicatures and conversational implicatures. This study focuses on conversational implicature. Grice distinguish types of conversational implicatures into two, first generalized conversational implicature (the intended meaning does not need particular information) and second, particularized conversational implicature (the intended meaning need particular information).

Generalized conversational implicatures occur without reference to any particular features of the context (Levinson 1983). In other words, special background knowledge or inferences are not required in calculating the additional conveyed meaning. In contrast to generalized conversational implicature, particularized conversational implicature is strongly tied to the particular features of the context. In this specific context, locally recognized inferences are assumed (Yule, 1996). Conversational implicature is quite different from conventional implicature; conversational implicatures are primary examples of more being communicated than is said, but in order for them to be interpreted, some basic cooperative principle must first be assumed to be in operation.

Within these two types of conversational implicature, there are four maxim of conversation that should be obeyed in order to make the speakers can cooperate each other (Grice, 1975); they are:

1. Quantity: Making the contribution as informative as is required and don`t make the contribution more informative than is required.
2. Quality: Try to make the contribution one that is true. Don`t allow to say what you believe to be false and which you are lack of adequate evidence.
3. Relation : Try to be relative
4. Manner: Try to be perspicuous with avoid obscurity of expression and ambiguity. Be brief and orderly.

Based on the rule of cooperative principle, in communication people have to follow the maxims but evidently there are many cases which happened in the talk exchange that do not follow them. When people flout the maxim in a talk they must have underlying meaning (implicature) based on their utterances. Then, the interlocutor has to understand the implied in order to be cooperative in the talk exchange. There are three ways of applying cooperative principles based on the implementation of these maxims:

1. **Obeying maxim:** If the speaker follows the maxims in a fairly direct way however he may rely on the addressee to amplify what he says by some straightforward inferences based on the assumption that the speaker is following the maxims (Levinson, 1983). The speaker will do the conversational maxims in every conversation.
2. **Flouting maxim:** When the speaker appears not to follow the maxim but expect hearer to appreciate the meaning implied, it can be said that the speaker flouting the conversational maxims. The speaker implies a function different from the literal meaning of form when flouting the maxims. The speaker assumes that the hearer knows that their words should not be taken in face value and they can infer the implicit meaning (Cutting, 2002). To flout the maxims is to go against the command of a certain maxims in order to achieve certain end, which understood by the listener

   A : How do I look?

   B: Your sweat shirt is nice.

   B doesn't explain the whole appearance of A and only comments about the parts of it but he knows that A will understand the implication. This is flouting the maxim of quantity.
3. **Violating maxim:** Violating conversational maxims means to go against the maxim, causing the communication failed. Violation is common in the standard conversation, written and spoken. Speakers recognize when a sequence of a sentence 'hangs together' or when it is disjointed (Fromkin, 1999). A speaker is indicated to violate maxim when they know that the hearer will not know the truth and will only understand the literal surface meaning of the sentence. The speaker deliberately produces insufficient information, say something that is insincere, irrelevant or ambiguous and the hearer wrongly assumes that they are cooperating (Cutting, 2002)

   A: How much did that new dress cost, darling?

   B: Less than the last one.

   (Cutting 2002)

B’s information looks like not being sincere toward the A’s question. This answer might give the wrong information. B intentionally doesn’t provide enough information. This is violating the maxim of Quality, and manner.

To understand the intended message, it does not only depend on the words that the speaker uses but also the interlocutor’s ability to construct inferences. Sobhani and Saghebi (2013) states that ‘it was clear that the message people intend to convey is not wholly contained within the words they use, but it is also dependent on how hearers interpreting the message taking into account context and implicated meaning. This infering counter ability from the interlocutor is expected by the speaker because the speaker always has a supposition of what he implicates is related to the interlocutor’s context. Grice (1989) described five conditions of how the implicatures could work in a conversation; one of those conditions says ‘the speaker thinks (and would expect the hearer to think that the speaker thinks) that it is within the competence of the hearer to work out, or grasp intuitively, that the supposition mentioned is required’

From those three ways of applying cooperative principle, this paper has chosen flouting the maxims as the focus of this analysis since the conversation being analyzed are in the form of flouting expression which are uttered by the lecturers to make the students understand the implied meaning without hiding information. As an academic individual, the lecturer cannot use violation becaause if he/she uses violation, the truth message delivered cannot be understood.

The research questions in this paper are:

1. What types of conversational implicature do Indonesian lecturers use?
2. To what extent do Indonesian lecturers flout the four maxim of conversation while interacting with their students via WhatsApp?
3. To what extent do implicatures characterize the conversation between the lecturer and the student via WhatsApp?

Methods

The research method in this study was a qualitative case study since it investigates a group of people that have distinctive phenomena with a bounded space and time (Hancock, 2006:23-26). This is a case study research since it explores the context, the participants, the background of knowledge, the social status that contribute the flouting of maxim of conversation. Through this case study, it is hoped to gain in-depth understanding of situations and meaning for those involved

This research consisted of six participants for the sample. These six participants were taken because of four reasons. Firstly, they start the conversation by obeying the rule of being polite in providing greetings in WhatsApp conversation. Secondly, they have experienced getting flouting maxim responds upon their questions. Thirdly, since those conversations occured in two languages: Indonesian and English, the data selected for the analysis was in English. An interruption of other language was not clarified because it can involve other specific linguistics issue. The fourth reason is because each participants represent each results on implicature category. Those participants came from one English Department in East Java that focused on the academic conversation between the lecturer and the student. The academic area is one of the formal place that based on the maxim rule it should obey the maxim. However, when this false condition happens, either the lecturer or the student still needs to manage their communication in order to achieve their goal.

The focuses of this research are the type of conversational implicature conducted by the lecturers in the context of generalized and particularized implicatue, and the flouted maxim of the lecturers in responding the students' questions via whatsapp. The data consist of whatsapp conversations screenshot which have been conducted by the lecturers and the students of English Literature 2017. The conversations were produced by the six people as the sample participants. The contents of these conversations are the flouting maxims that are used by the lecturers in responding the students' question. The data collection and data analysis were performed by the researcher.

The instrument of this research were the students who also became the participants . The conversation between the lecturer and the student being analyzed were in the area of academic business. The data were written text, which were then being analyzed, categorized, interpreted, and explained. The data reduction was done through some process like, selecting the academic topic discussion, identifying the implicature, and analyzing the context of the flouting maxim.

Results

This part divides the explanation into two parts. They are results part and discussion part. In result part, it describes the answer of the three research questions. In this first part, it explains the types of conversational implicature that are used by Indonesian lecturers, which maxims that were flouted and the context that accounted in the conversation while interacting with their students, and conversation between the lecturer and the student via WhatsApp. In the discussion part , it explains the major results that have been formulated through analysis.

Particularized Implicature

Figure 1. Flouting the maxim of relevance

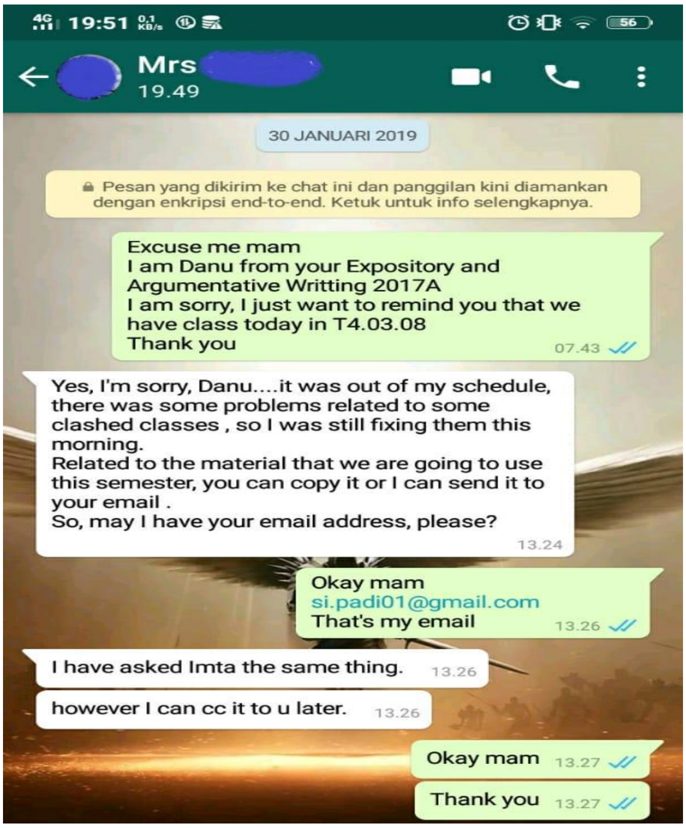
This conversation occured between a student and one of the lecturers of English Literature when the student had to submit a permit letter after being absent for EIP program. According to the context, lecturer 1 (see Figure 1) is conducting particularized conversational implicature in the ending by flouting relevance maxim. It needs a certain background knowledge to figure out what was the lecturer was talking about and the utterance triggers an inference process in which the addressee looks for the likeliest that is relevant in the context that obtained. What the lecturer said through her utterance did not contains what she meant, but only what she implied. The action to "*put*" the letter in her folder ordinarily did not convey anything about the asked question; whether she was present in the office or not. Instead, the implicature in this case depends on the context as well as the utterance itself; that the student was asked to put the letter directly into her folder meaning that the student would not be able to meet her, thus it implied she was not present in the office, or she was too busy to met the student at that moment.

Figure 2. Flouting the maxim of manner

Figure 2 shows a conversation of lecturer 2 and his student. The answer from lecturer 2 does not relate to the question which the student asked about. That means he floutes the maxim of manner. The purpose is to direct the meaning that the student could be accepted in that activity without any further to ask about. The way he broke the maxim is in a way of flouting the maxim of manner. It shows that instead of texting and explaining briefly he just mentioned ‘noted’ that did not give clear information whether the student’s application is accepted or not in that students activity program. The answer he gave also shows that it needed an inference to be understood that the meaning is ‘yes, you are accepted’, that is why it is considered as the particularized conversational implicature.

The maxim of quantity requires the speaker’s contribution be as informative as one possibly can, and gives as much information as needed, and no more. The answer from lecturer 3 (see Figure 3) shows complete information that lecturer 3 could not attend the class because of some problems. It breaks the maxim of quantity since the answer is too informative. The way she broke the maxim is in a way of flouting the maxim of quantity. It shows that she wants to give the information that she could not attend the class. She also asked the student to sending email to her.

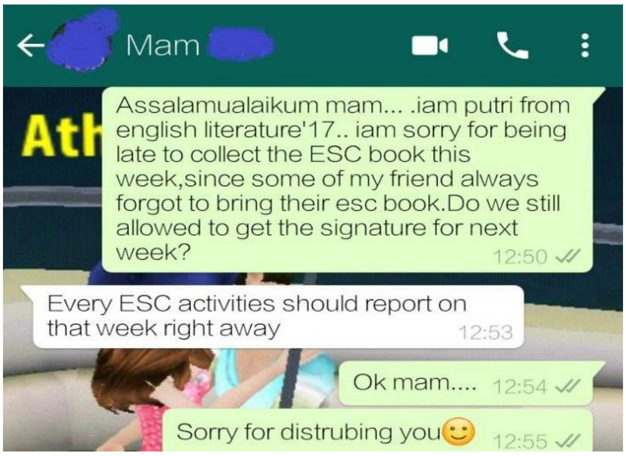
Figure 3. Flouting the maxim of quantity



The answer from the lecturer is in the form of flouting maxim of quantity because she added more information related to the subject being asked. The question is about a kind reminder that she would have a class at that time. However, instead of answering it with expected answer, she added the information of the reason why she could not attend the class. Moreover she informed that she has sent the material to the class-leader's email to be shared for their classmates by saying 'I have asked Imta the same things'. This flouting expression does not need any inferences from the reader (student) to understad the implied meaning, so generalized implicature is employed in this expression. When she says 'I have asked Imta the same things', it means she uses the term in general and she already has asked Imta for an email address.

Generalized Implicature

Figure 4. Flouting the maxim of relation



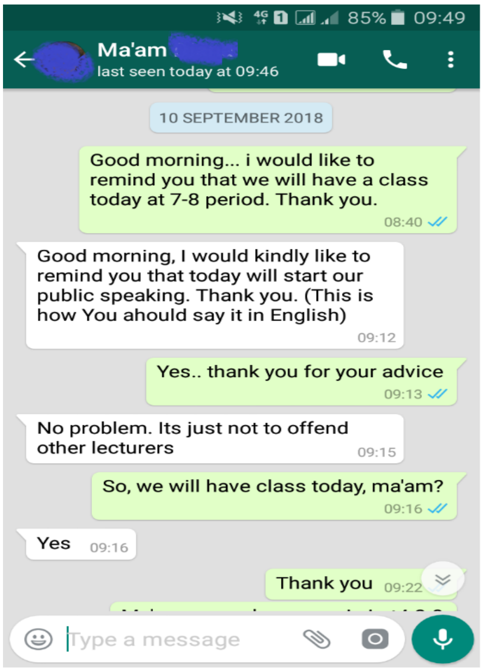
In Figure 4, lecturer 4 shows that there is a student who is late in collecting ESC books, she apologizes for the delay in collecting the book by explaining the reasons for the delay. However, the lecturer answers as if indeed the book must be collected on time. In this case the lecturer flouted the maxim of relation or relevance because the relevance of the answer needs to be concluded based on information from the initial context. The way of breaking maxim uses flouting because in the chat the lecturer makes a word where her student need to understand the final intention from the lecturer. In the sentence ‘Every Esc activity should report on a week right away’ written by the lecturer is a generalized conversation implicature which is a sentence that is still general. General here is an expression that all people can understand the implications of that sentence.

Figure 5. Flouting the maxim of quantity

According to the conversation above, the answer from lecturer 5 ‘I don't go to campus,’ and ‘next Thursday’ concluded that it floutes the maxim of quantity, because in that context, he simply added an information of ‘next Thursday’ which the student did not ask abut. However, by giving this additional informatin to the student, it can make the conversation more effective. This is flouting the maxim, because he tells the student to understand his own reply, so the student concludes that the meaning of the reply are: he can't sign it because he didn't go to campus, and he can sign it next Thursday.

The answer from he ‘I don’t go to campus’ and ‘next Thursday’ show generalized conversational implicature, because the phrase is enough to make the reader understand what is meant by the lecturer. So, to understand what the reply of he does not need special knowledge like an inference because it is quite clear.

Figure 6. Flouting the maxim of manner



The above picture is the condition from lecturer 6 (see Figure 6) with her student asking information about the class. The respond from the lecturer is considered as flouting the maxim of manner, because in this way, the lecturer did not give a clear and brief respond that she will attend the lecture or not in that day. She replied the student by giving an example of polite reminder toward a lecturer. It could also be seen that the student asked her again by saying ‘So, we will have class today, ma’am?’ to make sure that she would attend the class or not. This revision from the lecturer also means that this does not need an inference to be understood because in that respond includes a note ‘(This is how you should say in English).

Discussion

The Flouted Maxim of Conversation

From the analysis from Figure 1 to Figure 6, the lecturers use 2 types of implicature, they are particularized and generalized implicature in their conversation via WhatsApp with their student. From figure 1 to figure 3, the condition of particularized implicature shows that the lecturer implied the intended meaning by inviting the student to think that there is a particular information needed to understand the intended information from the lecturer. The intended information could arouse by flouting the maxim of quantity, relation , and manner. Lecturer 1 flouted the maxim by not answering whether she would be in the following day in the office or not , instead she answered it by telling the student to put the books in the folder on the shelf. This invite the student to think that she would not be in the office on the day the student asked about. In figure 2, lecturer 2 also answer the student’s question by flouting the maxim of manner. The question which is about the application was still open or not, was answered by stating the word “noted”. This answer does not provide a “yes/no” answer which causes ambiguity toward the student. In the conversation of lecturer 3, she flouted the maxim of quantity by giving more information which was not asked by the student, because she knows that this information is needed after answering the former uttered question. All of this flouting conditions happen in the context of particularized implicature; as Yule (1996:42) stated that ‘particularized conversational implicature is strongly tied to the particular features of the context’ and ‘locally recognized inferences are assumed.’ That is why in understanding the meaning of expression of lecture 1, lecturer 2, and lecturer 3; it needs a particular context to infer the implied meaning. If the students do not have the inference in their mind, they would fail to understand.

The conditions of flouted generalized implicature can be seen in figure 4 to figure 6. In those figures, every lecturers flouts the answer of the students’ question in the form of quantity, manner, and relation. Lecturer 4 flouted the maxim of relevance by providing a general information which has been known by the student. The answer delivered by lecturer 4 is not basically the expected answer for the student, because the student asked if it is still allowed to get the signature for a test requirement next week, but the answer is a general information that every activities related to the test requirements were still accepted. The generalized implicature that happened in Figure 5 have the same condition that presenting the general information to the student. Lecturer 5 flouted the maxim of quantity by giving more information as the answer from the initial question. Meanwhile, flouting the maxim of manner was expressed by lecturer 6, that she did not answer briefly if she could be met in the office or not,instead she was correcting the student's sentence which she considered as impolite questions. Through the lecturers' answer in Figure 4 to Figure 6, they generalize the infoormation because their flouting expression does not need specific inference or background knowledge. As stated by Levinson (1983:126) 'generalized conversational implicatures occur without reference to any particular features of the context.' and 'In other words, special background knowledge or inferences are not required in calculating the additional conveyed meaning'.

From all of four maxim conversation, there is one type that was not expressed by the lecturers, that is maxim of quality. Maxim of quality is the maxim that is used to express a quality information which is true and has definite facts (evidence). When a lecturer flouts this maxim of quality, he/she may deliver wrong message. So, a lecturer must not flout a quality information since the academic information can loose its trust, worsely it can become fully ruin the quality of the information.

The Form of Flouted Maxims Being Characterized in the Conversation

Based on the rule of conversation, first of all, the students always follow the maxim by performing greeting expression when they start the conversation with their lecturer. In all of the figures above, the students maintain their cooperative principle by mentioning greeting expression like 'Good afternoon', 'Excuse me, ma'am/sir', 'Assalamualaikum', and ' Good morning'. After mentioning greeting expression, they always introduce themselves, then they deliver their purpose of texting their lecturer. From this point (mentioning the purpoose), the lecturers respond their student by flouting the maxims which is considered as not obeying the maxims. However, although the lecturers do not obey the maxim, it does not mean that the lecturers are not being cooperative; instead in this way, the lecturers have been acted effetive in their conversation. Besides, by conducting a communication like this, the lecturer has acted indirect in responding the student's question to make message easily accepted by the students. In conducting Communication Strategies, speakers can do three ways of communication perspective (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Willems, 1987 in Hardianti, 2018), they are direct, indirect and interactional strategies. In doing indirect communication, this strategy mainly does not provide meaning structure but it holds the message to be delivered easily and indirectly by creating the situation for receiving mutual understanding. It can be seen in figure 3, 5, and 6, that the students still follow the maxim to being cooperative by expressing gratitude like 'OK, ma'am, thank you.' Without any further explanation and additional useless speech event, the students immediately understand the intended meaning of the lecturers' answer. For example in figure 6, the lecturer and the student may perform speech event as a courtesy like the following fragment taken from conversation in Figure 5:

Fragment 1:

S: Morning, Sir. Could I ask your signature now? (1)

L: I’m soryy I could not do that now. (2)

S: May I ask why? (3)

L: (Because) I don’t go to campus. (4)

S: So, when can I get it? (5)

L: Next Thursday. (6)

S: Could I ask your signature after IE class? (7)

L: Yes. (8)

S: All right, thank you, Sir. (9)

Sentences 2, 3, and 5 are the sentences that can make the conversation sound perfect following the rule of cooperative principle. However, those three sentences (2), (3), and (5) do not have to be uttered because without them, the intended message could be delivered well to the students. So, the form of the conversation which has been established as in table 1.

Table 1. The form of flouting maxim of conversation

Task	Student	Lecturer
Greetings	‘Good afternoon’, ‘Excuse me, ma’am/sir’, ‘Assalamualaikum’, ‘ Good morning’	-
Delivering Main Purpose	‘Could I ask your signature now?’	-
Responding Main Purpose	-	‘I don’t go to campus. Next Thursday.’
Closing	‘All right, thank you, Sir.’	-

Table 1 suggests the position of flouting the maxim ‘I don’t go to campus. Next Thursday’ belongs to the part of responding the main purpose . This expression contains an implicature that implicate he (the lecturer) could not do the signature at that time. When the lecturer answers or responds the student’s question in this position, while omitting some speech event like sentence (2), (3), (5) in fragment 1, it means he (lecturer) is performing flouting maxim of conversation.

Pedagogical Implication

This research produce two implications, first, flouting maxim of conversation in academic context via WhatsApp is appropriate to deliver the message faster, because through an indirect way of communication both speaker and hearer can get benefit in this effective context; second, using flouting maxim of conversation create a new idea in the world of communication pragmatically. It can be said that implicature and flouting maxims are the part of cooperative principle that commonly happen in the conversation in any kind of circumstances. It could happen in the written form in the social media like WhatsApp application. Moreover, through that social media, it does not only occur when two people interact in the context of informal situation but also in the formal situation like academic context that involve the lecturer and the student as the participants.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to find out the types of conversational implicature that Indonesian lecturers use and to explain what maxims that were flouted by Indonesian while interacting with their students via WhatsApp. After identifying those flouted maxim, this research explained implicatures characterize the conversation between the lecturer and the student via WhatsApp.

In summary, conversation between the lecturer and the student via whatsapp has conducted the cooperative principle. It could be said like that because although the conversation via whatsapp is a written conversation, it also has the same principles like the spoken communication. These principles are related to the implicature which are divided into two types, they are particularized implicature and generalized implicature.

In particularized implicature, the lecturer responded the question from the student by offering an opportunity to create an inference so that it can be more effective because the lecturer does not have to type a question that follows the formality of maxim. Although it does not obey the maxim, the student who accepted the respond has really understood what information that the lecturer wanted to deliver. This flouting way could happen because the lecturer could predict what next question that will be asked by the students. For example, in the flouting maxim, instead of saying ‘yes, I am’, the lecturer answers ‘put into my folder, thank you’. In this way, the lecturer can predict that the next question could be ‘Where should I put the letter?’, so she just directly answered it with ‘put into my folder, thank you’. This kind of additional information ‘Where should I put the letter?’ is needed as the particularized information in this cooperative principle. Data 2 and data 3 also need this kind of additional information like ‘yes, it is still open’ or ‘ no, it is not open’ for data 2, and ‘Thank you for your information, but I don’t go the class’ for data 3. Shortly speaking, in the study of Pragmatics this additional information is called inference; so the speakers who uses particularized implicature in their communication, they have to make sure that their interlocutors may have inference in order to understand the utterane meaning from the speakers.

In using generalized conversational implicatures, the lecturers do not need to prepare an inference to make the interlocutors understand the meaning being implied. The information could be simply delivered to the interlocutors because the sentence does not need inference to convey the meanings. Although the lecturer expressed the flouting maxim, it does not require inference to make the response to be understood. In one particular finding from the analysis, one out of four maxims in the cooperative principle, it is only maxim of quality that is not flouted, because in the academic conversation the lecturer always obey the maxim of the quality. Moreover the flouting of maxim quantity, relation, and manner occur to achieve the quality information, and if the maxim of quality is flouted, it would not achieve quality information anymore.

In general, flouting is the way people share their purpose as they communicate. The functions are to make the conversation could run effectively, could make the message delivered faster, could give a new idea of doing conversation in an academic condition. It means, a lecturer does not always obey the maxim to achieve a cooperative principle. A lecturer can have their own way to communicate as long as it can create the conversation run effectively. To achieve communicative effectiveness in information-dense and knowledge-dissemination lecturers can adopt a conversational style, using wh- questions, question tags and yes/no questions, but they rarely request confirmation/ clarification, solicit agreement, suggest action or use classroom management or rhetorical questions.

For future research, the analysis of flouting implicature could be expanded in the area of spoken text , so it would be more complete to see the result from both written and spoken data. However, the future research that wants to compare spoken and written text, it should select the same genre, for example both of them are the social media text. The ‘missing’ speech events that were omitted as the case making the delivered message could be accepted faster, yet, would be beneficial to be analyzed since speech events are also one of communication tools, moreover analyzing the speech event in the contrary like why in some cased it should be used can give new completing session within this related research.

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Effect of Differentiated Instruction on Students' Level of Engagement and Performance in English

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Abstract

This descriptive-correlative study aimed to determine the effect of Differentiated Instruction (DI) on students' level of engagement and performance in English. It also probed if there exists a relationship between the students' personal factors such as sex, languages spoken and learning style and their level of engagement and their performance; and if the students' level of engagement has a significant relationship to their performance.

The study involved 151 Grade 10 students enrolled at the Regular Program of a national secondary school in the Division of Ilocos Norte.
A modified survey questionnaire served as the primary instrument in gathering the needed data. To verify the respondent's level of engagement, a focus group discussion was conducted. On the other hand, the students' final grades in English served as bases on the students' performance. Frequency, percentage distribution, Point-biserial and Pearson's *r* correlation were used to treat the data.
Findings reveal that the students were moderately engaged in English class when DI is employed. However, results show that the students' level of engagement is significantly related to their learning style. Also, the students' performance is significantly related to their sex and the languages they speak. Lastly, findings confirm that there exists a relationship between the students' level of engagement and their performance in English.

Keywords: *differentiated instruction (DI), engagement, performance in English*

Introduction

Engagement is the key to learning. It requires not only being active but also feeling and sense making (Dewing, 2013). In addition, Dyer (2015) define student engagement as students' willingness, needs, desire motivation and success in the learning process. Kuh (2009) associated student engagement with the high quality in learning outcomes. Moreover, Gunuc and Kuzu (2014) refer to student engagement as the time allocated by students to educational activities to contribute in anchoring the desired outcomes.
It is important for teachers to find the best way to engage all students in learning. Students need to be engaged to fully appreciate and learn what is being taught. According to Barkley (2013), engaged students are more likely to earn better grades and perform well.
Research indicates that student engagement declines as the students progress from upper elementary grades to middle school, reaching its lowest levels in high school. Some studies estimate that, by high school, 40 to 60 percent of youth are disengaged and gain low grades (Marks, 2000).
Based on the study conducted on children funded by the UNICEF in 2004, the primary reason for not being in school among high school students is lack of personal interest. Notably, such reason starts early among those with some elementary education and is considerably lower among those with some high school education (Orbeta, 2005). This implies that engaging students in school is one of the challenges faced by educators, especially those who teach secondary school students.

The report of the Department of Education through the National Statistical Coordination Board (NSCB) posted on May 08, 2007 stated that the mastery level of the students in the National Achievement Test (NAT) results reflect a declining academic performance of the students in the country.

Based on the 2012 and 2013 results in the National Achievement Test (NAT), the performance of the students, particularly in the English area, is the emerging challenge being faced by the K to 12 Education Curriculum. The need to assess the basic education skills and competencies of the learners, particularly in the English language, should be widened and intensified in its scope in a number of ways. In order to broaden the view of language ability in the curriculum, it must recognize the variety and complexity of factors other than language ability that affect the performance of the learners (Department of Education, 2016).

Student engagement is increasingly viewed as one of the keys to addressing problems such as low achievement, boredom and alienation, and high dropout rates. The concept of student engagement has received considerable attention as a possible solution to the declining students' engagement and performance.

In 2012, the Philippines embraced the ideals of K to 12, a paradigm shift in the curriculum which catapulted major changes. The country changed its basic education landscape. The K to 12 Basic Education Curriculum is geared towards the development of holistically developed Filipino with 21st century skills who is ready for employment, entrepreneurship, middle level skills development and higher education upon graduation (Department of Education, 2010). Change is never easy but the Department of Education believes that this is the answer for the declining performance of students.

It is not sufficient to focus only on completion of learning activities. Student feelings, interests and attitudes, as well as self-perceived competence on the task or the use of strategy for doing one's best, are part of this identity (Francisco, Gonzales, & Vargas, 2015*)*. Certainly, there are lots of things to consider so that the problem on the low engagement of students be addressed. For this reason, various approaches have been introduced by the K to 12 Curriculum. One of which is the use of Differentiated Instruction (DI).

According to Tomlinson (2001), students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform and understand in different ways. Students would be better served if teachers teach in a number of ways and learning could be assessed through a variety of means. Thus, she forwarded the Theory of Differentiation which states that students learn best when their teachers accommodate the differences in their readiness levels, interest and learning style. This emphasizes that the ability of students to learn is fully taken advantage. In addition, this theory points out that it can be performed in different ways for a more effective practice to respond to the needs of diverse learners. The complexity or level of independence required to complete a task can enhance both student performance and student attitudes (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003). In order to respond to the learning needs of students with different skills, the content, process and product are adapted according to students' various interests, learning styles and readiness.

There is a need to heighten the level of students' engagement in the classroom. The approach of using the same instruction for all students probably falls short for many students because in that situation, the learning content is out of their zones of proximal development (Goodnough, 2010). Students of the same age differ in the extent to which they need instruction and support during learning (Kanevsky, 2011). According to Landrum and McDuffie (2010), teachers should attempt to maximize the learning of each student and this can only be accomplished when teachers employ DI.

The K to 12 Program has embraced the use of DI in classroom instruction and employed it in several learning materials given to teachers. It is in this perspective that this study is conducted to determine the effects of DI on students' level of engagement in English class and performance in English. In spite of the notion that DI is required in the new K to 12 Curriculum, there is a dearth of researches that looked into the effect of this approach to students' level of engagement and performance in English class and the worth of DI in English instruction. For these reasons, the researcher conducted this study to the Grade 10 students of the Regular Program from one of the national high schools in the Division of Ilocos Norte. These students are chosen since they are exposed to the use of DI since first grading to the time the research was conducted. Moreover, the learning materials used in Grade 10 contain lessons where DI is employed.

This study conceptualizes that DI improves the students' level of engagement and performance in English. It further conceptualizes that the personal factors of the students such as sex, languages spoken and learning styles may have effect on the students' level of engagement and performance in English. Lastly, the study conceptualizes that the students who are engaged in their English class have better performance in the said subject.

Hence, this study aimed to determine the effect of DI on Grade 10 students' level of engagement and performance in English. Specifically, it determined the students' level of engagement and performance in their English class. Further, it determined whether or not the students' personal factors such sex, languages spoken, and learning styles have relationship to their level of engagement and performance in English. Lastly, it determined whether the students' level of engagement and their performance in English are related or not.

Results of this study could shed light on how English teachers implement DI in their classes. Also, the results could reflect the effectiveness of DI in engaging students in tasks and improving student performance. Thus, the teachers could use the results of the study as bases in the correct implementation and use of DI in their classes. Further, students could benefit from the results of this study because they could be provided with better learning experiences that maximize their engagement in classes leading to the attainment of good academic performance. Through the results of this study, school administrators would be encouraged to support their teachers to attend seminars and trainings related to DI so that their teaching skills will be enhanced. In the case of the curriculum and material developers, the results of the study could provide them feedback which they could use as basis in improving or revising the curriculum, including the learning materials used by the teachers. Lastly, other researchers could further assess the effects of DI on students' engagement and academic performance. The results could entice researchers to conduct related studies focusing not only the effect of DI to student engagement and performance but also to other student learning variables.

Methodology

The study used the descriptive-correlative research design which described the Grade 10 Regular Class students' level of engagement and their performance in English. Further, it described the relationship that exists between the said variables. Likewise, the relationships between the students' personal factors (which are limited to sex, languages spoken, and learning styles) and their level of engagement and performance in English were also ascertained.

The study was conducted in a national high school in the Division of Ilocos Norte. This public secondary school offers different curricular programs namely Special Science Class, Special Program in the Arts, Open High School, Inclusive Special Education, Senior High School and Regular Class. The said school was chosen because it strictly follows all instructions and memoranda prescribed by the Department of Education, most especially on the use of DI as stipulated in the K to 12 Curriculum, DepEd Order No. 39 and 42, series of 2016 and the Implementing Rules and Guidelines of the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013.

The study included the 242 Grade 10 students enrolled at the Regular Program of the aforementioned school. The said students were chosen since they have been exposed to DI since first grading to the time the research was conducted. Moreover, the learning materials used in the said year level contain lessons where DI is employed. However, only a sample of 151 students was selected using stratified random sampling technique where section was used as the key of stratification. The sample size was determined using the Slovin's Formula with .05 as the margin of error. The sample size was proportionally allocated to six sections. Samples from each section were then selected through random sampling.

Two research instruments which include the survey questionnaire and interview guide were used in the study. The survey questionnaire has three parts. The first part of the questionnaire intends to gather the profile of the students as to sex, languages spoken and learning style. The second part intends to determine the students' learning style. The statements from this section were adopted from the Learning Style Survey developed by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2009) which is designed to determine the general approach or style to learning. The students were asked to encircle their responses using the following scale: 0 (Never); 1 (Rarely); 2 (Sometimes); 3 (Often); and 4 (Always). It has two classifications in understanding the total ─ introverted and extroverted. The part with the higher number was considered as the learning style of the student. Meanwhile, the third part of the survey questionnaire was patterned after the survey tools developed by the International Center for Leadership in Education (2017) and Australian Survey of Student Engagement (1998). This section intends to measure the students' level of engagement in English classes as DI is employed. It composes of 18 items. The students used the following rating scale to indicate their responses: 1 (Always); 2 (Oftentimes); 3 (Sometimes); 4 (Quite Sometimes); and 5 (Never).

The interview guide was used to elicit the students' attitude and perception towards DI employed by their teachers in their English class. It is a 10-item interview guide used by the researcher in conducting the focus group discussion (FGD) with the students who were willing to participate in the discussion.

Prior to the conduct of the study, the researcher requested permission from the Schools Division Superintendent of Ilocos Norte. Upon approval of the request, the researcher also sought permission from the head or officer-in-charge of the chosen school to take part in the study.

To determine the level of engagement, the researcher distributed a modified survey questionnaire to the Grade 10 students of the chosen secondary school. The questionnaire was floated to students during their vacant time. Before they answered, DI was discussed to them in capsule for 20 minutes. Necessary instructions were given as to how they are going to answer the questionnaire which lasted for 10 minutes. After which, the questionnaire was retrieved from the students. The students' responses from the survey questionnaires were tabulated and analyzed.

In addition, the researcher also conducted a focus group discussion (FGD) to determine the effects of DI on the students' level of engagement in their English classes and to verify the result of the survey questionnaire on their level of engagement. In every FGD conducted, only five students were considered. The researcher was the one who interviewed them. Each of the three FGD sessions lasted for 5-10 minutes. The students were given enough time to answer the questions to avoid being pressured.

Meanwhile, the performance of the students was based on their final grades in English for the school year which were secured from their advisers. Their final grades on the said subject were interpreted.

To treat data on the students' personal factors which include sex, languages spoken and learning style were analyzed using frequency counts and percentages.

For the students' level of engagement in English class, the computed mean was used and interpreted using their corresponding range means and descriptive interpretations as follows: 4.20-5.00 (Very Highly Engaged); 3.40-4.19 (Highly Engaged); 2.60-3.39 (Moderately Engaged); 1.80-2.59 (Poorly Engaged); and 1.00-1.79 (Not Engaged).

Meanwhile, the students' performance in English was interpreted using the following grading scale and descriptors based on the grading system of the K to 12 Basic Education Curriculum: 90-100 (Outstanding); 85-89 (Very Satisfactory); 80-84 (Satisfactory);75-79 (Fairly Satisfactory); and Below 75 (Did Not Meet Expectations).

Moreover, the Point-biserial and Pearson *r* were used to compute for the correlations between and among the variables (personal factors, student engagement, performance).

Results and Discussion

Level of Engagement of the Students in their English Classes

Table 1 shows the Grade 10 students' level of engagement in their English classes. In determining the students' level of engagement, results were obtained through the survey instrument and focus group discussion (FGD).

It can be deduced from the table that the students are *moderately engaged* in their English class as shown by the overall mean rating of 3.31. This means that the students are somewhat engaged in class. However, the table shows that the students are highly engaged at some point in class when DI is used by their teacher.

Table 1. Students' mean level of engagement in their English classes.

Items	Mean	Descriptive Interpretation
When my teacher uses DI, I…		

1. ask questions during class or contribute to class discussions;	3.19	Moderately Engaged
2. work with other students on projects during class time;	3.06	Moderately Engaged
3. work with classmates outside of class to complete class assignments;	2.93	Moderately Engaged
4. tutor or teach the class materials to other students;	2.66	Moderately Engaged
5. write clearly, accurately, and effectively;	3.49	Highly Engaged
6. think critically and/or analytically;	3.32	Moderately Engaged
7. learn effectively, independently, and can identify, research, and complete a given task;	3.43	Highly Engaged
8. work effectively with other individuals;	3.39	Moderately Engaged
9. exhibit body postures that indicate paying attention to the teacher and/or other students;	3.44	Moderately Engaged
10. focus on the learning activity with minimum disruptions;	3.58	Highly Engaged
11. express thoughtful ideas, reflective answers, and questions relevant or appropriate to learning;	3.48	Highly Engaged
12. exhibit confidence and can initiate and complete a task with limited coaching and can work in a group;	3.34	Moderately Engaged
13. exhibit interest and enthusiasm and use positive humor;	3.36	Moderately Engaged
14. memorize facts, ideas or methods from the subject and readings to repeat them in almost the same form;	3.46	Highly Engaged
15. analyze the basic elements of an idea, experience such as examining situation or lesson in depth and considering its components;	3.30	Moderately Engaged

16. synthesize and organize ideas, information, or experiences into new, more complicated interpretations and relationships;	3.23	Moderately Engaged
17. evaluate the value of information, arguments, or methods; and	3.40	Highly Engaged
18. apply concepts to practical problems or in new situations.	3.42	Highly Engaged
Overall Mean	**3.31**	**Moderately Engaged**

Legend:	**Range of Means**	**Descriptive Interpretations**
	4.20-5.00	Very Highly Engaged
	3.40-4.19	Highly Engaged
	2.60-3.39	Moderately Engaged
	1.80-2.59	Poorly Engaged
	1.00-1.79	Not Engaged

It can be gleaned from the table that when the teacher uses DI, the students are *highly engaged* in class, particularly when focusing on the learning activity with minimum disruptions (3.58), writing clearly, accurately, and effectively (3.49), expressing thoughtful ideas, reflective answers, and questions relevant or appropriate to learning (3.48), memorizing facts, ideas or methods from the subject and readings to repeat them in almost the same form (3.46), exhibiting body postures that indicate paying attention to the teacher and or other students (3.44), learning effectively, independently, and identifying, researching, and completing a given task (3.43), applying concepts to practical problems or in new situations (3.42), and evaluating the value of information, arguments, or methods (3.40).

This goes to show that with the use of DI, the students' attention is glued on the academic activity and that they do not notice much other things happening around them during the class. They are challenged to involve themselves actively in class activities. Further, they exhibit favorable attitude and positive behavior towards the activities given to them in class. Importantly, they are highly involved at assessing and analyzing information given to them, particularly arguments that require them to problem solving and decision making.

The finding conforms to the claim of Astin (1999), Kuh (2009), and Nicolae (2014) that students engage to reflective thinking when DI is used. Moreover, the studies of Baumgartner, Lipowki, and Rush (2003), Beecher and Sweeney (2008), and Karagdag and Yasar (2010) confirm that DI makes students attentive in class. Remarkably, if students are highly engaged, they do activities rightly, completely and independently, the fact that each student is treated individually with precautions. As what Park (2003) found in his study, if the students are engaged, they learn successfully and do things on their own. They are very particular of their tasks and that they are determined to finish them. Thus, they learn better and enjoy the classroom experience.

Considerably, the table also reveals that when DI is used, the students are *moderately engaged* in class, particularly when working effectively with other individuals in their English classes (3.39),exhibiting interest and enthusiasm and use positive humor when DI is used in the English class (3.36), exhibiting confidence and can initiate and complete a task with limited coaching and can work in a group (3.34), thinking critically and or analytically (3.32), analyzing basic elements of an idea or experience such as examining situation or lesson in depth and considering its components (3.30), synthesizing and organizing ideas, information, or experiences into new, more complicated interpretations and relationships when engaged (3.23), asking questions or contributing to class discussions(3.19), working with other students on projects during class time (3.06), working with their classmates outside of class to complete class assignments (2.93), tutor or teach the class materials to other students (2.66).

Although the level of engagement of the students as revealed by the table only has a composite mean of 3.31 described as *moderately engaged*, positive perceptions and responses were gathered from the FGDs. Majority of the students perceived that when DI is used in class, learning becomes interesting, meaningful, relevant and productive, as reflected in the following statements:

> *With the use of DI in our class, learning has become more fun. Everyone is excited to take part in every activity in class. We didn't even notice that time has passed because we were so much focused on it (sic).*
>
> -
>
> *Student 108*

> *Every time our teacher uses DI in class, we get interested in paying attention to our teacher. Through DI, our interests and learning styles were considered so learning was fun and exciting (sic).*
>
> *- Student 23*

If DI was not used, I would have not finished the task assigned to me. I find every minute important. Learning has become more productive because I find my learning practical and relevant. Ang mga aralin ay mas lalong naging makabuluhan sa akin (The lessons have become more meaningful to me) (sic).

- Student 66

The activities given by our teacher are so challenging. The activities made me think critically and creatively. My mental ability is challenged every time we are given tasks to do. Hmmm… I appreciate my teacher for giving us engaging tasks (sic).

- Student 23

Dahil sa DI (Through DI), I found the tasks in the Grammar lesson helpful, useful and relevant to me… Soon, I will be able to use my learning with the tasks on identifying grammatical errors in a composition (sic).

- Student 17

The tasks given to us by our teacher have become simpler and more understandable. I didn't expect I was able to write a reflection paper. Dati ay nahihirapan akong magsulat ng reflection paper dahil feeling ko ay medyo mahirap sa akin ang gawain (Before, I find difficulty of writing one because the task seem to be difficult for me) (sic).

- Student 49

Before, I don't use to reciting. But when my teacher uses DI in class, I participate actively in class. I learn to express my opinions about the topics discusses in class (Natutunan ko na din magbigay ng opinyon tungkol sa mga paksang na pinaguusapan sa klase (sic).

- Student 31

Through the tasks, I was able to relate myself with the topics being discussed (smiled). I was able to contribute in the different group tasks. The presentations that we did in class were very enjoyable and exciting (sic).

- Student 91

The students' statements above only reveal that DI has made them engaged in class. DI has made them enjoy the learning process. The students have become more interested in working and accomplishing activities assigned to them. Their enjoyment in being engaged in the class has led them to realize the meaning and relevance of their learning. Through DI, they also realize that learning has become more productive.

Gunuc and Kuzu (2014) supported that when DI is used in class, students' attentions are focused in the tasks. Their attention is set on the activities and that they do not notice much other things happening around them while working on the activities. Through DI, students are actively engaged in class; they learn better and enjoy the classroom experience (Park, 2003). Similarly, Wan (2016) found tasks in DI as truly enjoyable to students. She further expounded that the approach is meant to stimulate creativity by helping students make stronger connections, understand relationships and grasp concepts in a more intuitive and exciting way.

Hence, Natividad and Batang (2018) posit that teachers need to present lesson content through a variety of teaching strategies to attract individual students' interests and to respond to their learning preferences. Further, Roy, Guay and Valois (2013) claim that when DI is used in class, teachers can determine ways on how to make any subject-matter relevant and related to the learners. DI aims to tailor the instruction to the needs of every learner, making learning more relevant and meaningful.

Hess (1999) clarified that in DI the teacher makes students feel worthy and empowered in the learning process. Rather than telling the weaknesses of the students, the teacher devised a way on how to help the students. For this, the strengths of students are recognized and encouraged. According to Valiandes (2015), with the use of DI, students feel good about themselves, and it can culminate in engagement and genuine interest in learning. To some extent, students can show improvement because they believe they could improve and that the teacher cares about their interests, learning styles and needs.

Performance of Students in English

Table 2 shows the performance of Grade 10 students which were drawn from the students' final grades in English. Out of the 151 students, it can be noted that *50 or 33.11%* of the students obtained grades ranging from 80-84, which is marked with *satisfactory level*, followed by *48 or 31.79%* whose grades range from *85-89*, which is interpreted as *very satisfactory*.

Table 2. Distribution of the students according to their grades in English.

Grades	**Descriptive Interpretation**	**Frequency (f)**	**Percentage (%)**
90-100	Outstanding	27	17.88
85-89	Very Satisfactory	48	31.79
80-84	Satisfactory	50	33.11
75-79	Fairly Satisfactory	26	17.22
Below 75	Did Not Meet Expectations	0	0.00
	Total	**151**	**100**
Mean= 84.62 (Very Satisfactory)			**SD= 4.65**

Moreover, *27 or 17.88%* of the students are within the *outstanding* level, whose grades range from *90-100*, while *26 or 17.22%* of them have final grades ranging from *75-79*, which are described as *fairly satisfactory*.

Obviously, none of the students obtained a final grade below *75* or those who *did not meet expectations* or those who failed in the subject area. Notably, the difference between the students within the *satisfactory level* and *very satisfactory level* is very small. Also, there are more students belonging to the *outstanding* level than in the *fairly satisfactory* level.

Overall, it can be gleaned from the table that the mean grade of the students is 84.62, with a standard deviation of 4.65, which is described as very satisfactory. The result indicates that most of the students are within the above average range of final grades in English. Further, it implies that the use of DI has yielded good performance of the students as reflected by their grades in English.

This finding corroborates to the findings of Koutselini (2006) which revealed that the use of DI produces better learning results. The more it is used or integrated, the more the learner is benefited. Performance of students is better as reflected in their final grades. Similarly, the results of the study of Koeze (2007) showed that DI had positive effect on students' performance; it improved the students' performance.

Konstantinou-Katzi, Tsolaki, Meletiou-Mavrotheris, and Koutselini (2013) finds DI effective in improving students' performance. Based on the results of their study, DI had positive impact on the students' learning and attitudes towards their subject. Specifically, the whole class was transformed into more interactive and livelier one due to the approach employed by the teacher. The students felt that they were given the chance to do and understand the lessons and not feel handicapped by any lack of prerequisite knowledge. Students felt they had constructive interaction with the teacher and their peers. Hence, DI was shown to be effective in improving the their performance.

Relationship Between the Students' Personal Factors, their Level of Engagement and their Performance in English

The study determined if the students' personal factors (sex, languages spoken and learning styles) have significant relationship with their level of engagement and their performance in English.

Table 3 shows a significant relationship between the students' learning styles and their level of engagement (*r*=.187) at the 0.05 level of significance. The indicated significant correlation coefficient implies a direct relationship between the students learning style and their level of engagement in English classes.

Table 3. Coefficients of correlation between the students' personal factors (sex, languages spoken and learning styles) and their level of engagement and grades in English.

Personal Factors	**Engagement**	**Performance**
Sex	0.049	.471**
	(p=.552)	(p=.000)
Language/s Spoken	0.013	.321**
	(p=.878)	(p=.000)
Learning Style	.187*	0.044

	(p=.022)	(p=.593)

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2- tailed).

In consonance, the finding is similar to the result of the study of Allcock and Hulme (2010) which reveals that students' learning style affects their engagement in class. Accordingly, Landrum and McDuffie (2020) emphasizes that individuals vary in their preferred learning style, thus pedagogy should value variety and diversity to heighten students' engagement in class. Moreover, Jilardi, Mahyuddin, Elias, Daud, and Shabani, (2011) suggests that teachers should be flexible and take into consideration students' learning styles when teaching. Hence, Baclayon (2019) recommended in her study that teachers should use students' learning styles as bases for differentiated instruction for the students to be fully engaged in the learning process.

Interestingly, the study of Koeze (2007) suggested that teacher who would use DI should first administer a learning style inventory to their students before implementing it because the learning style inventory will provide the teacher the necessary information on how to differentiate lessons according to the choice and interest of the students.

Notably, the table shows that the students' level of engagement is not significantly related to their sex (r=0.049) and the languages they speak (r=.013). This means that personal factors such as sex and languages spoken do not affect the students' level of engagement. Being male or female does not affect the students' level engagement in English classes. Thus, sex is not a significant contributor in the students' level of engagement. Further, the languages spoken by the students do not significantly influence their level of engagement in English classes.

Meanwhile, the students' performance is significantly related to their sex (r=.471) and the languages they speak (r=.321) at the 0.01 level of significance. This means that personal factors such as sex and languages spoken affect the students' performance in English.

The finding opposes the findings of Yao and Ours (2014) in their study which states that languages spoken by the students do not affect the students' performance.

Further, the table shows that the students' learning style is not significantly related to their performance, as indicated by the coefficient correlation of .044. This shows that the learning style of the students do not affect the students' performance in English class. The learning style of the students, whether it is extrovert or introvert, does not guarantee a high or low performance in the English subject.

In contrast, Guild (2001) believes that learning styles as determined by self-assessment instruments improve student academic achievement since the learner is able to discover his or her preferred way of knowledge acquisition and the learning process they employ in a learning situation.

Relationship between the Students' Level of Engagement and their Performance in English

Table 4 presents the relationship between the students' level of engagement and their performance in English.

Table 4. Coefficients of correlation between the students' level of engagement and their grades in English.

Variables	**Coefficient Correlation**	**Level of Engagement**	**Level of Performance**
Level of Performance	Pearson Correlation	.262**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	
	N	151	151
Level of Engagement	Pearson Correlation	1	.262**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.001
	N	151	151

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2- tailed).

It can be gleaned from the table that there is a significant relationship between the students' performance and their level of engagement in English classes as indicated by the obtained coefficient of correlation of .262 with a p-value of .001. This imply that the students who are more engaged in the English class tend to perform better in English.

Such result confirms the finding of Koeze (2007) that there is a significant relationship between students' performance and their engagement or participation in their classes. In fact, in the study of Robinson, Maldonado and Whaley (2014), they claim that students' engagement in class has high impact on the students' performance.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the Grade 10 students are moderately engaged in their English class when Differentiated Instruction (DI) is employed by their teacher. Although the students are moderately engaged, they students find learning interesting, meaningful, relevant and productive when DI is employed in class. Notably, the students' performance in the subject is very satisfactory as they are exposed to DI.

Likewise, it can be concluded that the students' level of engagement to their English classes is affected by the students' learning style, while the students' performance is affected by the students' sex and the languages they speak.

It is further concluded that the students' level of engagement and their performance are significantly related. Thus, DI has effects on the students' level of engagement and their performance in English class. The conclusion concurs with the Theory of Differentiated Instruction, which states that students learn best when teachers accommodate individual differences in their instruction.

Pedagogical Implications

In the light of the findings and conclusions, several recommendations are presented to English teachers, students, school administrators, curriculum designers, and other research enthusiasts.

Teachers in English should attend more trainings and workshops related to DI, so they can properly implement the said approach in their instruction. The extent of implementation of DI in classroom does not guarantee meaningful experiences and good outcomes, rather its the correct implementation. Teachers should restructure DI based on the students' personal factors (sex, languages spoken, learning style, etc.) and learning needs. By attending trainings and seminar-workshops related to DI, the teachers are able to reflect and learn by heart the benefits of DI to student engagement and performance.

Students should have faith on the capacity of their teachers. Students should give their teachers the opportunity to help them improve their performance. They should be open to the changes brought about by the K to 12 Curriculum, one of which is the use of DI. Students should follow and cooperate with their teachers in the tasks given to them for them to be more engaged in class and demonstrate better performance.

School administrators should work with their teachers to monitor the students' progress based on their performance and the results of national examinations. These can be their bases in allocating teaching and learning resources that can help in improving the students' performance. They should also conduct continuous relevant in-service trainings related to DI among teachers to strengthen their skills.

Material developers and designers should incorporate properly the use of DI in the curriculum, and integrate more DI-based classroom tasks in the learning materials prescribed to the teachers to effectively benefit from using it and to engage further the students in the learning process.

Other research enthusiasts are encouraged to conduct a related research to confirm and examine other factors that may affect the students' level of engagement and performance, more so that only few researches have been made to examine the effectiveness of DI. Moreover, they should investigate other issues concerning DI, particularly on the teachers' knowledge of DI and some other factors that may affect its implementation, not only in the English subject but also in other subject areas.

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The Implementation of Common ASEAN Tourism Curriculum (Catc) in Indonesia

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Abstract

Toursim has become a global business that it requires profesionals with globally accepted skills. Provision of such skills has been one of the major concerns of the ASEAN ministeries of tourism and in collaboration with the Australian government they have set up an agreement to train tourism workers in the same curriculum in order to attain *ASEAN Common Competency Standards for Tourism Professionals* (ACCSTP), *the Common ASEAN Tourism Curriculum* (CATC), and *Regional Qualifications Framework and Skills Recognition System* (RQFSRS). Out of six tourism sectors, housekeeping has been selected as the priority and all housekeeping-related English competencies have been collaboratively listed and tried out to tourism students in ASEAN countries. Studies at global-ASEAN and macro-national levels have reported that the trial was a great success and was suggested to be extended to other tourism sectors. However, studies at meso and micro levels have reported otherwise and a number of factors have hindered its success. This study contributes to this debate by explicating the views of the teachers and the students on the curriculum and their response to it when used in classroom.

Keywords: *Policy borrowing, teacher agency, student agency, CEFR*

Introduction

Tourism has been a promising industry since early 1980s. Initially, it was defined as the act of visiting places for pleasure but it then develops into a profession with knowledge and expertise relevant with confort and services during traveling. Great income from it has created tourism as one of the main pillars of a nation’s economy and Indonesia has also benefited from it as one of the sources for nation’s revenues. Located in the tropical areas and having countless numbers of islands, it offers numerous tourism objects at seas, on the beachers, on lands and at montains. Being tropical in its climate, it is open to be visited along the year. The latest startistics suggests that visits by international rourists have drastically increased from year to year. In 2014, for instance, the number of international visitors amounted to 9.44 milions, increasing 7% from the number of previous years (BPS, 2015). In 2018 and 2019, the numbers of visitors were 10.58 and 10.87 milion persons. Thus, the rate increases to 14% per annum. The central government has set as a target of 20 milion tourists in 2020 (BPS, 2019). According to World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2018), Indonesia is the most frequently visited countries in the Southeast Asia, number three in Asia after Singapore and Thailand and number nine in the world.

The revenue from tourism is annually high. In 2015, devident from tourism sectors was US$ 12.23 billions equalling to Rp 169 trilions. This source of revenue is the greatest second only to oil, coal, and palm oil. In 2019, the revenue from tourism was as high as US$ 20 billions and this was the greatest source of revenue defeating natural and palm oil as the export primadona. In 2020, the government has targeted 20 milion international visitors (BPS, 2019; Liputan6.com, 2019).

The increase in the number of visitors and revenue must be paired with that in the qulity of tourism services. The Indonesian government has closely worked together in an intergovernmental basis (Zapp, 2019) with ASEAN and Australian governments and set up lists of competencies to be acquired by tourism professionals trained in each nation and these competencies are accreditable in other member nations. The agreement was documented in a document called *Mutual Recognition Arrangement* (MRA) (see Fukunaga, 2015), implemented in (a) ASEAN Common Competency Standards for Tourism Professionals (ACCSTP), (b) the Common ASEAN Tourism Curriculum (CATC), and (c) Regional Qualifications Framework and Skills Recognition System (RQFSRS) (see Hikcman & Irwin, 2013). To a great extent, this is an ASEAN version of *the Common European Frame of Reference* (CEFR) and the identities, human rights, human capabilities and human capital of the people have been highlighted (Zapp, 2019). Expected to cover all six divisions of labour in tourism, i.e. (a) housekeeping, (b) food production, (c) food and beverage services, (d) front office, (e) tour operation, and (f) travel agencies, the policy has developed and implemented housekeeping CATC covering a set of housekeeping competencies and a set of language-related tourism competencies where English plays a major role as the official language of the ASEAN nations (Croco & Bunwirat, 2017).

Professional, social, and language competencies specified in the documents have been widely implemented in tourism educational institutitions in ASEAN countries including those in Indonesia and in West Nusa Tenggara Province. In general, as Mendoza and Sugiyarto (2017) report, the policy has been successfully implemented but there are gaps between nations that should be addressed so that common agreement can be achieved. Mendoza and Sugiyarto (2017) also mention that each ASEAN nations has different levels of readiness towards the implementation of the policy particularly in terms of facilities, instruments, and human resources. Some countries could not sufficiently implement it bacause they lack training facilities and apparati. Hickman and Irwin (2013) describe this gap as a “huge variance” between expectations and realities that the MRA can afford. Some nations (i.e. Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapure, and Thailand) have all completed setting up the training institutions, while some others (i.e. Indonesia, Myanmar, and Viet Nam) are nearly finished with the establishment although still in need of setting up tourism professional organization at national level. Others (i.e. Cambodia and Lao FDR) are not at all ready. In the Philippines, some universities already highlighted the importance of CEFR proficiency for students’ communication strategies (Ventura-Cauilan and Arellano-Tamayo, 2019; Batang, Egipto and Medriano, 2019).

The gaps that Hickman and Irwin (2013) describe above can also be found in reports of local implementation. In Vietnam, though claimed to be successful, gaps, as reported in Nguyen and Chaisawat (2011), exist due to these factors: trainers have no sufficient qualification, professional works, and trainings, (b) the education and the training curricula have never actually been evaluated, revised, and appropriated with CATC, (c) limitations in the proportions of practice and internship in the curriculum, and (d) limitations in collaboration between tourism institutions and industries. In Thaiand (see Fu, Kapiki, dan Mu, 2016), there is a mismatch in the skills required in tourism industries and those provided in tourism education institutions and there is an urgent need for curriculum re-engineering as to accommodate CATC, e-tourism and e-hospitality. In failed countries, following Mendoza et al., (2016) and Say (2019), the implementation was slowed down because the governments needed to restructure or invent institutions, rules and regulations managing the implementation of the policy.

In Indonesia, the implementation of MRA programs particularly CATC has been seen as a great success and numerous tourism education institutions have been assigned as accrediting agencies for the six sectors of tourism (see Hickman & Irwin, 2013): Bandung College of Tourism (STP Bandung), Bali College of Tourism (STP Bali), Medan Academy of Tourism (Akpar Medan), Makassar Academy of Tourism (Akpar Makassar), Sahid Institute of Tourism, Pelita Harapan University, and Dhyana Pura Hotel & Tourism Institute. These institutions have been known to have established *good practices* and they have been assigned to assist other local institutions to follow and develop their examples. Using local resources, the local institutions have attempted their best at implementing the policy but very limited studies, if any, have been reported examining the agency of these institutions. This study is expected to fill the gap by examining responses of local institutions, teachers, and students in West Nusa Tenggara to the implementation of CATC.

Moreover, even at the so-called accredited tourism education institutions, there are still wide gaps to be filled so as to ascertain that the products are qualifiable within ASEAN standards. Maulina and Khaerudin (2019) mention that even at STP Bandung the students' competencies, including English competencies, are still below ASEAN standards due to these factors: (a) the curriculum has not been appropriated with CATC, (b) the trainers and the training programs have not yet fulfilled th standards of CATC, and (c) the education and the training programs used are locally made. Suharlan (2017) reports that these local curricula were made and developed with helps from accredited institutions particularly in development of syllabus, materials and learning program with documents of CATC as the bases, but the results still fell short of the ASEAN targets. Note that CATC are simply written documents listing sets of competencies for the tourism students to acquire and no details of learning materials and programs. Development of these materials requires cooperation between teachers, students, practioners, and professional association, but cooperation like this is not really easy to materialize.

In West Nusatenggara, tourism education institutions also work collaboratively with accredited institutions in the implementation of CATC. Tourism Polytechnics of Lombok has worked together with STP Bandung, STP Bali, dan Makassar Tourism Academy in increasing the quality of teaching staff and the quality of the training services that they provide. The result of such collaboration has not been evaluated. Other tourism education institutes have also collaborated with each other in the implementation of the CATC either through self-funding or funded by the Indonesian ministry of tourism. The State Community Academy of West Lombok has similarly worked with The State Community Academy of Bali in this matter and the effect of this cooperation was impeded with macro and micro hinderance. Kurniarini (2019), for instance, has shown that the implementation of English CATC at the West Lombok institute was unsuccessful because the students' English competency and learning motivation was very low. Besides, the learning materials do not follow the CATC and the lecturers do not have the capacity to adapt the materials to the ASEAN standards. The curriculum has not also involved practioners and subject specialists and the learning environments do not support learning for the acquisition of the ASEAN competencies.

The West Lombok institute is one of such institution in West Nusatenggara. Yet, they are faced with the same challenges of providing quality tourism-related English competencies acceptable and accreditable by tourism practitioners in ASEAN countries. What actually happens at these institutions in the implementation of CATC need to be carefully investigated and this is the merit of the current study. It will dicuss how English CATC were implemented, what good practices are learned, what factors facilitated or inhibited its implementation, and how the institutions overcome those inhibitance. But, let us, first of all, clear the theoretical foundations before further discussion can be persued.

CATC as CEFR-Like Curricular Documents

As curricular documents, *CATC* are derived from *ASEAN Common Competency Standard* (ACCS) covering these fields of services: engineering, nursing, and tourism (Hickman and Irwin, 2013). The ACCS is then developed into curricula for education and training in each field and job-related English competencies are parts of the main menu.

In field of tourism, the ACCS has been developed further into *Common ASEAN Tourism Curriculum* (CATC) covering six tourism sectors: housekeeping, food production, food and beverage services, front office, tour operation, and travel agencies. Involving experts, practitioners, and stakeholders in tourism, the curricula are based on the standard competencies codified in *ASEAN Common Competency Standard for Tourism Professional* (ACCSTP) listing professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in each sector. As lists of professional skills, the documents are designed for uses as practical as tool boxes for fixing service problems in each sector in ASEAN countries. These CATC are still in need for contents, learning materials, and appropriate methods of delivery. In 2019, The CATC for housekeeping has been developed and tried out and the result was reported to be satisfying and plans have been made to develop CATC for other sectors.

In Indonesia, the CATC have been ratified since 9 November 2012 with a consideration that, for a greater influx of tourists, tourism requires quality sevices. Thus, skillful tourism workers must be provided and the implementation of the CATC has been viewed as a solution. The CATC are used as guidelines for Indonesian tourism education institutes to attain the ASEAN-standardized competencies in tourism sectors. As these competencies have been agreed upon by tourism ministers of ASEAN countries, the attainment certifies and accredited qualification and competencies of ASEAN tourism workers and enables them with flexible movement across ASEAN countries. For the six sectors above, thirty-two types of tourism jobs and thirty-two lists of competencies have been approved. While these jobs require specific professional skills, all of them require active and communicative English competencies. In this perspective, the implementation of English CATC at tourism education institutes will be the panacea for the gap.

Millar, Mao and Moreo (2013) report a great gap between the needs of tourism industries and the quality of skills that tourism education institutes can provide. The latter offer general skills while the former require more technically specialized skills (Weber et al, 2013). Hickman and Irwin (2013), for example, described that Indonesia faces a huge gap between English speaking ability of tourism workers expected to run confortable tourism English ecounters and the English competencies that Indonesian tourism institutes can actually provide with their aluni. They reported cases that tourists complained about Indonesian tourism workers: low English competencies, unable to communicate communicatively, unable to understand tourists' English, and, consequently, failing to fulfil tourists' expectations. Hickman and Irwin (2013) strongly conclude that complaints with tourism at developing countries are associated with poor English competencies of the service providers, unlike those in developed countries with unsatisfactory level of services.

Hickman and Irwin (2013) provide a 4-scale rating for the assessment of gaps in tourism English competencies. *Rating 1* indicates 'a big gap' where English is not integrated into tourism education, not a national language, and competency is very limited. *Rating 2* indicates a 'significant gap' where English is not integrated into the curriculum, not a national language, but the workers have imperfect English communication ability. *Rating 3* is a 'small gap' where where English is not integrated into the curriculum, not a national language, but the workers have sufficient English communication ability. *Rating 4* indexes an 'insignificant gap' where where English is integrated into the curriculum, one of the national languages, and the workers have perfect English communication ability. Hickman and Irwin (2013) have categoried Indonesian situations into rating 1 suggesting that the gap between expectations and realities in Indonesian tourisms is huge and English competencies of its tourism workers are still very low.

The need for high quality tourism workers prompted the massive emergence of tourism education institutions in the early 21st century. Butler (1999) mentions that public interest in establishing private and public tourism education institutions were very high prompting the massive emergence of such schools. The need for tourism workers could be accommodated by the institutions but the qualitfication and the quality were still unsuitable with the needs of the industry. This in turn created high rate of educated unemployment. However, according to World Trade Organization (2019), the balance between the need for and the provision of professional tourism workers had been reached in 1996 and 14,000 skilled workers were introduced to the field. Nonetheless, the number of institutions has drastically increased and in 1998 the number has doubled and the outputs outnumbered job opportunities. Giroux (1993) and Evans (1993) suggest tourism education institutions to aim at general tourism knowdlege without specialized tourism skills, but this solution runs into the danger of increasing educated but unskilled unemployment rate. Here, *CATC* can provide a genuinely comprehensive solution; the competency is based on ASEAN standards and trainees have the flexibility to work in either ASEAN countries where their skills are reguired.

The CATC has 242 standard competencies including tourism related English competencies. They were developed based *Competency-Based Training* (CBT) and evaluated with *Competency-Based Assessment* (CBA). The *CATC* for English has 8 competencies which are further elaborated into 32 sub-competencies and evaluation criteria. This list is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: List of English Competencies in CATC

No	Competencies	Sub-competencies
1	Communicate in English on the telephone	a. Take general enquiries by phone b. Respond to customer requests or orders c. Make calls to place orders d. Handle customer complains e. Make complaints
2	Converse in English at a basic operational level	a. Participate in simple conversations on familiar topics with work colleagues. b. Respond to simple verbal instructions or requests. c. Make simple requests d. Describe routine procedures e. Express like, dislike, and preferences f. Identify different forms of expression in English
3	Deliver short oral presentation in English	a. Prepare for an oral presentation b. Deliver a short oral presentation c. Evaluate a short oral presentation
4	Gather and present product information	a. Gather and organise information b. Research and analyse information c. Present information
5	Facilitate outgoing phone calls	a. Identify elements and facilities of the host enterprise telephone system. b. Demonstrate appropriate telephone communication skills c. Place outgoing calls on behalf of the enterprise d. Place outgoing calls on behalf of the guests
6	Use oral English to convey a complex exchange of ideas	a. Discuss problem solving strategies b. Respond to hypothetical questions c. Discuss abstract concept

		d. Express opinions e. Discuss preferred learning styles
7	Write a short message in English	a. Demonstrate the ability to take message from oral input b. Write short instructional mesaages c. Write short messages of appreciation, apology, and explanation for absence.
8	Coach others in job skills	a. Prepare for on job coaching b. Coach colleagues on the job c. Follow up coaching

Source: ASEAN. 2013. *ASEAN Mutual Recognition Arrangement (MRA) on Tourism Professionals Handbook*. Jakarta: Association of Southeast Asian Nations.

As a curricular document, the CATC for English above appears to be simple, but the criterion of attainment is very high. The attainment is certified from Certificate Level II to Advanced Diploma. Tourism workers in the six sectors must obtain each certificate for each sector because they have their own specified competencies and different levels of attainment. The certificate, the diploma and the degree are recognized in all ASEAN member countries and thus devotion to CATC and the CATC is essential.

Responses to CATC

Local responses to global policy documents are dependent upon teacher agency and student agency. The teachers and the students should take agentic actions due to discrepancies between what the policy makers at macro and meso levels expect to take place and what is actually performed by the teachers and the students at micro levels (see Baldauf, 2006). CATC as a form of language policy are explicated by people with authority and they usually have expertise, influence and bureaucratic power (Zhao & Baldauf, 2012). People with expertise are those with tourism education and expriences. People with influence usually have the power to influence other people due to their roles in the society: for example, hotel owners, travel agents, religion feagures, and community leaders. Those with power are usually political leaders and bureaucrats at tourism ministerial offices. In the case of CATC, the bureaucrats from Australian tourism offices are categorizable as those with power because they provide financial supports for the policy. With minimum, if any, involvement of lecturers and students in the formation, the policy is describable as a form of “policy dumping” (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016; Phan & Hamid, 2016) since they have no choice but to accept and implement them.

Contemporary analyses of policy have sifted away from analysing the policy-making processes at macro levels to the policy-responding processes at micro levels. Borg (2001) has analysed this matter and found that in the last three decades policy analyses focused on responses of policy implementers. These responses have becomes some sorts of ‘new policies’ at micro levels developed based on their own beliefs on the right processes of learning disregarding what is right according to the policy. In the current study, the beliefs of the teachers and the students about the contents, the competencies, the teaching strategies, and the methods of evaluating competency attainment are more important those in the global policy documents like the CATC. Several studies have shown that tutors will implement a policy if they have the expertise on the policy contents and the facilities to implement them (see Ng & Boucher-Yip, 2017; Harris, 2017). Otherwise, they will reject or resist them (Pessoa & Freitas, 2012) and this might be the case with tourism education institusions in Vietnam (Nguyen & Chaisawat, 2011), Indonesia (Premono, 2010; Rofaida, 2013), Cambodia (Say, 2019), Philippines (Mendoza & Sugiyarto, 2017) and other ASEAN countries. Other studies have actually hown that lecturers and students exercise agency by taking strategic actions to overcome problems (e.g. by taking extra English courses) and attain the targeted competencies (Molina, 2017; Chen & Goh, 2011).

In general, however, micro-level responses to a global policy like CATC can be described as dedication, accommodation and resistance responses (see Ali, 2013). The response is dedicative when the policy implementers devote themselves into adopting the policy as the only learning guideline. The response is accommodative when the lecturers and the students adapt the policy with their own conditions. The response is resistant when the micro-level implementers neglect the policy and appoint their own programs. Studies at Bandung Tourism College (Premono, 2010) and at Bali Tourism College (Rofaida, 2013) where CATC were implemented report that the lecturers used their own documents and neglected the policy, although the institutuons themselves are the Indonesian models of good practices. The responses of the lecturers and the students, however, are accommodative because they identified the gaps between the availabale competencies and the targeted competencies, the ways of narrowing them, and the capacities, facilities, and instruments required to fill them.

Tomlinson (2011) offers several criteria that lecturers can use when accommodating expectation of a policy document like CATC with local conditions. Firstly, the responses should facilitate students to attain the target competencies easily, comfortably, and convidently. Secondly, the learning materials and activities should be relevant and useful to students’ life in the short and in the long run so that they will invest in learning. Thirdly, the materials should be clear in purposes. Next, the materials and the activities should accommodate individual learning styles of the students and maximaze real and authentic language uses. If these fail to take place, the roles of the lecturers might shift from implementers to makers of policy at micro-levels (Baldauf, 2006) and, if this is the case, Holliday (2001) suggests the students' expectation should be the priority in the decision.

Methods

Research Design: The study is ethnographic in nature and the thoughts, actions, and strategies employed by the lecturers and the students implementing the CATC are observed and elaborated.

***Population*:** The study covers all the lecturers and the students at five tourism education institutions in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB), Indonesia, four belonging to the government (i.e. TDMU, MTP, SCMWL, and TAL), and one is run by a private organization (i.e. MTC).

Sample: Sample was selected in proportional, dimensional, and purposive techniques. The lecturers of Housekeeping English classes at each institution were purposively selected while the students were proportional selected: six male and six female, two for each category of high, average and low English competencies.

Data Collection: Data were collected from documents, observation, questionnaires, inteviews, and language skill assessments. Documents were in the forms of CATC, syllabi, student assignments, and learning materials. Observations were non-participant with video recording instruments. Likert-scale questionnaire with 5 options were also administered to teacher and students to collect information about their perceptions of English trainings that they had undertaken. Semi-structured interviews were administered to lecturers and students prior to and after observations. Assessment of language competencies were administered by certified assessors and procedures at the participating universities.

Data Analysis: Data were descriptively analysed by identifying, classifying, describing, and explaining the responses. Responses in the video-transcripts were colour-coded, classified as adoption, accommodation or resistance, desctibed with definition and examples, and explained by discussing them with findings from other studies.

Findings and Discussion

The study discusses how English CATC were applied, what good practices are observed, what factors enabled or subdued its implementation, and how the institutions solved those limitations.

Implementation of CATC

Implementation of CATC is inseparable with teacher factors, facility factors, and student factors. Table 1 shows teacher factors in education, trainings and TOEFL-based English competence. Only 58% of the lecturers have obtained master's degree which is the minimum level of education for lecturing at higher education level according to Indonesian law, while 42% still require further education, and none of them have a doctorate level. This indicates that the education qualitification of English teachers is still below the mational standard. Their competence in English based on documented TOEFL scores varied: low (300-400) 11%, (400-499) 58%, high (500-549) 24%, and very high (550 or higher) 7%. The majority (almost 70%) being low, teachers' English competence still requires improvement. All of them have acquired basic and advanced trainings in English, teaching, and assessment of English language skills as parts of education backgrounds, but only 44% have actually received CATC-related trainings obtained trainer, master trainer, and assessor qualification. As these are essential for competence as well as work and worker mobility as discussed above, the CATC-related trainings are highly and urgently needed. Similar situations have also been found in other parts of Indonesia (Premono, 2010; Rofaida, 2013), Vietnam (Nguyen & Chaisawat, 2011), Thailand (Fu, Kapiki, & Mu, 2016) and Cambodia (Say, 2019).

Table 1: Teachers' Background

COLLEGE	**EDUCATION**			**TRAININGS**		**ENGLISH COMPETENCE**			
	S1	S2	S3	TBT	OT	300-400	401-499	500-549	>550
TDMU	5	6	0	4	7	0	6	3	2
MTC	4	7	0	3	8	2	7	1	1
MPT	2	6	0	8	0	1	6	1	0
SCMWL	2	4	0	2	4	1	4	1	0
TAL	6	3	0	3	6	1	3	5	0
Total	19	26	0	20	25	5	26	11	3
Percentage	42.22	57.78	0	44.44	55.56	11.11	57.78	24.44	6.67

Other supporting factors come from the quality of learning facilities that trainers and institution can provide. Table 2 shows supporting facilities that teachers and institution have in order to equip students with the CATC competencies. The table indicates that only half (58%) of the lecturers have developed their own plans (LP) for the English lesson and plans for individual and group performances of the students (SP) and 68% of them have forms for assessing the performances (AF). This indicates that not all teachers are well equipped for the implementation. While all teachers have English textbook (TB), it is, nonetheless, irrelevant with CATC for Housekeeping English and the content is general. While all institutions have sufficient number of service (SV) (with a ratio of 1.09) and field (FD) (with a ratio of 16.8) laboratories for teacher of each class to train students with real-work English, they have limited language (LAN) (with a ratio .2 compared to the number of classes) and workshop (WS) (with a ratio of .16 to class numbers) facilities to better prepare them before the internship program. With a ratio of 5.2, each English class have more choices of business units where students can practice English, there is an urgent need for more partnership with other more institutions (INS), networks (NW) and stakeholders (SH) for internship programs. The need for more time, partnership and internship programs have been recommended in the studies of CATC implementation in Vietnam (Nguyen & Chaisawat, 2011), and other ASEAN countries (Mendoza, & Sugiyarto, 2017; Mendoza, Desiderio, Sugiyarto, & Salant, 2016).

Table 2: Learning and Supporting Facilities

	TEACHERS' KITS				**LABORATORY**				**BUSINESS PARTNERS**			
COLLEGE	**LP**	**SP**	**TB**	**AF**	**LAN**	**WS**	**FD**	**SV**	**INS**	**SH**	**BU**	**NW**
TDMU	5	5	1	10	2	2	10	8	4	6	7	8
MTC	5	5	1	8	1	1	12	4	3	4	3	4
MPT	8	8	1	8	2	2	29	20	5	5	7	7
SCMWL	4	4	1	1	2	1	23	12	4	4	5	4
TAL	4	4	1	1	2	1	10	5	4	4	4	4
Total	26	26	5	28	9	7	84	49	20	23	26	27
Ratio	.58	.58	1.00	.62	.2	.16	16.8	1.09	.44	.51	5.2	.6

There are problems with students in terms of learning motivation, English entry behaviour, and learning strategies. Unfortunately, as shown in Table 3, the students are not very motivated in learning English. While the majority of them see English as essential for their jobs, only 15% of them are motivated to learning English and the majority (68%) see it as difficult to learn. With simple grammar-based multiple choice English tests, we found that only 9% of the students are qualifiable as higher education students and the great majority (almost 90%) fall within basic and elementary levels. Such low competency in English was shared with Malaysia (see Ahmad Afif et al, 2019) but the students there took more active, communicative learning. In our study, we found with Likert-scale inventories that the students see passive strategies like morization (MEM) of words and grammars as the best learning strategy and cognitive (COG), compensatory (COMP), and social (SOC) strategies are rarely practiced. With low language competency at entry, low motivation, and mechanical learning strategies in play, it is not possible to the teachers and the students to arrive at the standard competencies set up in the CATC. In the works of Gursoy, Rahman and Swanger (2012) as well as King and Tang (2020), high English language proficiency is expected in tourism industry is part of both transferable and relevant subject skills (Stewart & Knowles, 2000) as it is essential to other skills such as communication, problem solving, and other team work and management skills (Raybould & Wilkins, 2005).

Table 3: Student Factors

College	**Motivation**			**English Entry Behaviour**				**Learning Strategies**			
	LOW	AVE	HIGH	BSC	ELM	PRIN	ADV	COG	MEM	COMP	SOC
TDMU	23	7	5	25	5	5	0	1	20	2	12
MTC	21	8	6	27	7	1	0	2	21	2	10
MPT	25	6	4	23	5	3	0	1	28	0	6
SCMWL	24	5	6	24	6	5	0	3	23	0	9
TAL	26	4	5	26	7	2	0	2	24	3	6
Total	119	30	26	125	30	16	0	9	116	7	43
Percentage	68.00	17.14	14.86	71.43	17.14	9.14	0	5.14	66.29	4.00	24.57

Poor quality of student input, teacher agency, and learning facilities leads to low attainment of English competencies based on the CATC. As shown in Tabel 4, only 39% of the students (68 out of 175) have actually qualified for high competency, while 53% of them (96 out of 175) fall within low category. Even when the average category is included in the statistics of success, the percentage is not higher than 45% indicating that the majority (55%) of student competencies in English is below target. In globalised world of hospitality and tourism, low English proficiency leads to unemployment (Ahmad Afif et al, 2019; Wang & Tsai, 2014) because hospitality industry, according to Millar, Mao and Moreo (2010), requires tourism professionals with competencies higher than those trained at tourism higher education.

Table 4: Students' Attainment of English Competencies

College	High		Average		Low		Very Low	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
TDMU	16	45.71	3	8.571	9	25.71	7	20.00
MPT	15	42.86	2	5.714	9	25.71	9	25.71
MTC	14	40.00	1	2.857	15	42.86	5	14.29
SCMWL	12	34.29	2	5.714	11	31.43	10	28.57
TAL	11	31.43	3	8.571	12	34.29	9	25.71
Total	68	38.86	1	6.29	56	32.00	40	22.86

Competencies being low, we need to identify which competencies and subcompetencies are below standard. Survey reveals, as shown in Table 5, that the students fail to obtain the competencies in oral presentation, orally exchanging of complex ideas, and orally coaching others on the job. In the oral presentation skill, the majority of the students fail miserably in preparing and evaluating short oral presentations although their ability to deliver the presentation is slightly higher. When involved in more intensive oral interaction, for example, in discussions of problems, concepts, and opinions, the students often lost words for relevant expressions due to limited English competence that they have. When coaching other on the job, the students were challenged with English and they failed to develop this communication skill while it is in itself essential in hospitality services (Lin, 2002) and essential soft skill of hospitality leadership (Sisson & Adams, 2013). When involved in less interactive actions, the scores are slightly higher but insignificant to assume difference. Other reading of the data might have something to do with students' perceptions of employability in hospitality and tourism industries. According to Wang and Tsai (2014), students place leadership and management skills at the bottom of competency list while internship programs were seen as the main modes of acquiring work-related competencies.

Table 5: Unattained Competencies

No	Competencies	Sub-competencies	Mean Score	Category
1	Deliver short oral presentation in English	a. Prepare for an oral presentation	1.93	Very Low
		b. Deliver a short oral presentation	2.09	Low
		c. Evaluate a short oral presentation	1.81	Very Low
2		a. Discuss problem solving strategies	2.11	Low
		b. Respond to hypothetical questions	2.16	Low

	Use oral English to convey a complex exchange of ideas	c. Discuss abstract concept	1.73	Very Low
		d. Express opinions	1.93	Very Low
		e. Discuss preferred learning styles	1.74	Very Low
3	Coach others in job skills	a. Prepare for on job coaching	2.00	Low
		b. Coach colleagues on the job	1.97	Very Low
		c. Follow up coaching	2.07	Low

Despite the weaknesses above, the students, as shown in Table 6, have fulfilled the minimum standards of competencies in making telephone call, conversation and messages as well as conversational operations and product presentation. However, all of the students obtained average scores in these competencies and, with a 2-hour session per week the time is far below intensive and rigorous English trainings. Wang and Tsai (2014) have shown that students have always placed more attention to skills related to specific jobs and English language skills in Table 6 are relevant with their jobs as housekeepers or front offciers. Again, acquisition of job-related competencies alone would not increase their employability if they have no management skills (Gursoy, Rahman & Swanger, 2012; Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2013; Sisson & Adams, 2013).

Table 6: Attained Competencies

No	**Competencies**	**Sub-competencies**	**Mean Score**	**Category**
1	Communicate in English on the telephone	a. Take general enquiries by phone	3.28	Average
		b. Respond to customer requests or orders	3.22	Average
		c. Make calls to place orders	3.12	Average
		d. Handle customer complains	3.03	Average
		e. Make complaints	3.14	Average
2	Converse in English at a basic operational level	a. Participate in simple conversations on familiar topics with work colleagues.	3.2	Average
		b. Respond to simple verbal instructions or requests.	3.12	Average
		c. Make simple requests	3.06	Average
		d. Describe routine procedures	3.04	Average
		e. Express like, dislike, and preferences	3.1	Average

		f. Identify different forms of expression in English	3.15	Average
3	Gather and present product information	a. Gather and organise information	3.22	Average
		b. Research and analyse information	3.13	Average
		c. Present information	3.14	Average
4	Facilitate outgoing phone calls	a. Identify elements and facilities of the host enterprise telephone system.	3.08	Average
		b. Demonstrate appropriate telephone communication skills	3.16	Average
		c. Place outgoing calls on behalf of the enterprise	3.14	Average
		d. Place outgoing calls on behalf of the guests	3.19	Average
5	Write a short message in English	a. Demonstrate the ability to take message from oral input	3.07	Average
		b. Write short instructional mesaages	3.1	Average
		c. Write short messages of appreciation, apology, and explanation for absence.	3.05	Average

Good Practices: Lesson Learned

Despite weakneses in the scope and quality of competency mastery above, several good practices can be found in political, institutional, and instructional practices.

At macro-national level, the CATC for English have been dedicatively responded to with strong political supports from the national government. The program has been made in line with the national qualification framework (see Hickman & Irwin, 2013) which is a national agenda where all Indonesian workers graduating from specialized training institutions should acquire a particular set of knowledge, attitudes and competencies (see Premono, 2010; Rofaida, 2013). The documents of the CATC for English have become the main content of the knowledge and competencies for tourism-related fields. There has also been a strong financial support from the Indonesian ministry of tourism by setting up associations of tourism-related professionals. Meetings, conferences, trainings, and assessment of such professionals at national and local levels have been conducted and funded by the ministry. Certification of the teachers and the professionals as trainers, masters, master trainers and assessors have also been executed by the ministry (see also Hickman & Irwin, 2013).

At meso-institutional level, dedicative responses to the CATC can be seen in the mission statements, educational expences, and institutional programs. In the vision statements of the institutions, commitment to quality output has been the main focus where quality is used to refer to the notion of alumni having professional work-related competencies. These visions have been delineated further into mission statements where quality teachers, processes, students, and alumni have been the main emphases. Not only have local teachers and students been funded to visit and learn at national and international tourism institutes, national and international tourism experts have been invited to train them at home institutions and this is essential to upgrade students' competencies as expected by hospitality industries (Gursoy, Rahman & Swanger, 2012; Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2013; Wang and Tsai, 2014).. Cooperation among local tourism institutes has enabled them to plan ahead which institute invites which experts when and where and there has been no need for unnecessary competitions. Cooperation is also apparent in mutual collaboration in student internship programs. Sharing of schecules and tourism companies as internship partners has been common because internship students usually outnumber the companies. Being actively executed in the last five years, these innovative actions were not mentioned in Hickman and Irwin's (2013) report.

At micro-instructional level, the quality of the teachers and the students, to a great extent, has accommodated all the basic qualifications that the CATC for English has expected. Having been nationally and internationally trained, 44% of the English teachers have national and international certificates as trainers, masters, and master trainers of tourism English competencies, while 56% of them have obtained similar certificates in other fields of tourism. More than 56% of them have involved in national tourism teacher exchange programs and more than 10% have experienced studying and teaching at other tourism education institutions in other ASEAN countries. With such expertise, tourism teachers are expected to adapt the curriculum and students' competencies with 'the ever-changing needs of [the] enormous [tourism] industry" (Gursoy, Rahman & Swanger, 2012, p. 41). Local, national, regional, and international professionals have frequently been invited to share their expertises to teachers and students and these have primarily been the sources of real-life English practices for them. Several students have also been sent to other tourism institutes in Indonesia and in other ASEAN countries for profession-based trainings and they have also obtained local, national, regional, or international certificates of particular tourism-related professions.

Facilitating and Inhibiting Factors

The political, institutional, and instructional practices above have been the facilitating factors in the implementation of the CATC for Tourism English. Recently, however, they have also become the inhibiting factors.

At the national level, the national agenda as well as the strong ministrial and financial supports have recently weakened as the national financial recourses have shifted from tourism to infrastructure and then to combat corona virus. The construction of local MotoGP infrastructure has also devoured the fund for other purposes including tourism education. This event, nonetheless, introduces a new form of tourism for the local institutions to respond to. New hotels and restaurants being built for the 2023 grandprix open up new hopes and job opportunities for the students but the history of workforce import particularly for China has devastating effects on the students' learning motivation. With motivation trainings, the students are expected to stay positive in the prospect of their own future (Christou, 2002).

At meso institutional level, tourism education institutions are facing problematic situations. The commitment to producing alumni with competencies expected by tourism industries (see Gursoy, Rahman & Swanger, 2012; Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2013; Sisson & Adams, 2013; Wang & Tsai, 2014) is recently questioned as the government and the community expect the students to graduate on time and the average length of tenure is also essential part to the institutional accreditation. As a result, low competencies have been compromised. The support to staff and student development has also been compromised resulting from annualy diminishing number of paying students. Educated unemployment has annually increased, prospective students have become very few, and the institutions lost the main sources of the revenue. The much-needed ASEAN internship and student exchange programs have also been conceded due to the financial losses. Some institutions solved the problem by recruiting sponsorship from their business partners.

At micro instructional level, the financial loss brings with it a price to pay. Some institutions have lost qualified trainers, masters, and master trainers and they can only freshly graduated English teachers with limited teaching experience, low English competence, and pedagogic skills. When participating in teacher exchange programs, they oftentimes become very passive. When invited to classes, expert teachers find difficulties working with the new teachers as they often loss self-confidence. Some students might be able to develop professional skills, but some others are unmotivated. While there are some opportunities for student exchange program for tourism trainings, the majority of the students cannot participate due to poor English. There are some certified trainings, but such trainings are incidental and unplanned so the students cannot accommodate the schedule with learning schedule. Online registration or online trainings have become a major mode of practice. Video recording the events have become another alternative and sharing them online through social media has been the most popular choice for spreading the skills.

Conclusion

Tourism, as a global business, requires personels with global competencies. The ASEAN ministries of tourism in collaboration with the Australian government have standardized common competencies in common curricula and common systems of competency recognition. The article has investigated how these systems have locally worked with housekeeping and all housekeeping-related English competencies. While success stories in the housekeeping trial have been widely shared at global-ASEAN and macro-national levels, studies at meso and micro levels have reported otherwise. While a number of factors are found to have facilitated and others have hindered the success story, local tourism education institutions have agentically exercised agency in solving those challenges.

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Is Face-to-face and Online Teaching Equal in Teaching Business English Course?: Evidence from the University of Kutai Kartanegara, Indonesia

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Abstract

Online learning has developed into a significant aspect of higher education in the last decade. Despite the substantial amount of work in this area, however, many educators are still uncertain about how successful use of online learning is feasible. This paper discusses the students' satisfaction in an online business English course for university students in Indonesia as compared to a face-to-face course. This study used survey design assigning 183 students to fill the questionnaire that see their response on the satisfaction of the online teaching program and a face-to-face teaching program. The key exploration of a student satisfaction in this study in an online vs. face-to-face business English course are explored, and concerns are answered about how much the online learning experience helps the student and what factors affect student satisfaction with the course. The results indicate that there are significant differences in student satisfaction rates between the study of business English as a foreign language online versus face-to-face. Students taking the course through the face-to-face were more pleased with several aspects of the course than their peers online.

Keywords: *student satisfaction; online course; face-to-face course; mastering the international language; company English; higher education*

Introduction

The area of English language education has experienced a fundamental change in the last few decades. All over the world, the dominance of English is well-established in the fields of international business (Valencia, 2019). Lin (2020) emphasizes that the globalization has demanded implementation of English in different ways, including the diffusion of individual language, bilingual, and multilingualism. While part of a wider paradigm shift (Tudor, 1996), schooling has seen the growth in instruction of communicative language along with a transformation in instructor and student positions (Richards, 2006). The focus in today's English language classroom is on learner-centered teaching, engagement and accurate target language use (Nunan, 1991). The learner is now an active participant in the learning process, a knowledge-builder rather than a passive receiver and the function of the instructor is to promote learning and provide learners with varied learning opportunities (Jones, 2007). As long as business English is concerned, which has been defined as 'simply English used in a business context' (Jones & Aleksander, 2005, p. 5), students are presented with a variety of business scenarios (e.g. meetings, negotiations) in which they can exercise and develop their realistic communication skills, thereby being more competent and fluent language users.

New trends in English education have marked recent years (Abrudan, 2012). Globalization and the influence of multiple technological advances, especially the expanded use of ICTs and the internet, have contributed to growth in various types of online courses (Solikhah & Assegaf, 2019). As stated by Geary (2012), online language courses are radically different from other content areas, in which students gain new skills through first language experience. In addition, electronic language learning produces a unique set of circumstances where students need to improve their language skills with relatively limited instructor feedback, which has little influence over the learning process (Hamid, 2001).

There are a number of challenges to bringing a Business English course online entirely. Digital teaching and learning is more than just placing traditional materials on the internet (Fry, Ketteridge & Marshall, 2009). For example, Ilsley (2009) advises when developing an online course that online resources need to be designed in an optimized manner and should include a range of interactive methodologies so that participants can participate. Certain things to address include developing a positive and supportive online learning atmosphere (Lucero, 2006) and establishing an online community (Rovai, 2002), which in turn increases user retention, participation and cooperation. There are other considerations as well, such as how to inspire students to engage and maintain them fully interested in learning, and how to take care of the affective aspect of learning (Bloom, 1956), which can often be difficult to deal with in an electronic educational environment. While foreign language teaching has seen unprecedented growth in participation in the online teaching/learning trend (see e.g. Otter et al., 2013; Weber & Lennon, 2007; Zhang & Cui, 2010), studies comparing online and conventional face-to-face teaching have produced inconsistent results, some suggesting that student satisfaction with traditional students is significantly higher. Hence the emphasis of our study was a measure of student satisfaction in a higher education course online vs. face-to-face Business English course. Specifically, the study sought to collect empirical evidence about the efficacy of the online teaching/learning environment for English as a foreign language and to examine student satisfaction with the nature of the course, course content, materials and other learning resources, instructor, teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction (Saraka, 2020). We have looked at the student performance results of the course, learning engagement and development, skills retention, and aspirations of the students. English is the most potential tool to gain power and resources, and it is believed a very effective measure to find workforce and local society in the global world (Lin, 2020).

In the following sections we first outline the online Business English course architecture, participant characteristics and tutor position. We will then show the study and instrument for student satisfaction assessment and focus on finding interpretations. Most notably, it illustrates and addresses significant differences in course satisfaction between online and conventional students.

Designing Enterprise Language online

In designing the online learning experience for Business English, some changes had to be made to the face-to-face course material, implementation methods and structure. One of the first moves was to develop a collection of immersive training exercises utilizing online learning resources and networking technology from Moodle (Conole, 2013; Pitman, 2011). The online course consisted of 20 modules, each addressing a specific subject and a different setting. All classes were equally organized, concentrating on improving language skills for the students. The students were expected to perform different tasks:

• listen to a transcript and address comprehension questions;

• read an document and write a brief analysis or description or answer questions about it;

• learn new company lexical things by numerous exercises;

• formulate a written text (e.g. a marketing proposal or a report);

• access a talk or debate group by uploading a comment.

The students were provided specific guidance by email and bulletin board regarding the tasks they were supposed to participate in and the supposed outcomes.

The programme was created for the planned learning outcomes of the business English course at the University of Kutai Kartanegara. The participants were intermediate-level students enrolled in the first year of the program of undergraduate in English language education. The same teachers instructed the students in both the online and face-to-face classes. In college, the key function of the teacher was to encourage the learning cycle and to foster an enjoyable learning environment. In addition, the teachers were also a learning room and behavior trainer, an analyst during group/pair training, monitoring learning and giving help and guidance, and a partnership maker, building positive interactions with and between learners. Meanwhile the teachers have served as guidance facilitator, reference, support, organizer, editor, and co-communicator during the online course. Through their online learning, they led and encouraged students, guided them through the tasks and assignments by giving them step-by-step guidance before each online session, provided timely input, promoted conversations among students during forum discussions and interacted with students in chats. The teachers adopted the principles set out in Salmon (2004) in doing so. The final tests for both online and face-to-face students were the same, measuring the language skills of the students (reading, listening, writing and speaking) and utilizing the English vocabulary for business.

Method

The work was carried out in 2019 at University of Kutai Kartanegara, Tenggarong East Kalimantan Indonesia. The students were programming e-learning course for business English at the university as a compulsory material. An interactive e-learning skills model (Tratnik & Jereb, 2013) was used to assess student interaction between the instructional settings online and face to face. We collected informative and t-statistics.

Sample

We surveyed 183 students to evaluate how successful online learning was relative to face-to-face teaching and business English classes, and to find out more about how happy the students were with the course. A total of 110 (60 percent) available responses were obtained, 56 came from students taking the face-to-face course and 54 from the online course students.

Instrument

Student input was gathered using a questionnaire composed of seven sections, each relevant to a specific element of the course: (1) overall satisfaction with the course, (2) student satisfaction with different aspects of the course (the outcomes of these two fields are discussed in this paper), (3) satisfaction with the e-learning paradigm (only applicable to online students), (4) satisfaction with different levels of student satisfaction. Every portion had questions from 6 to 27. The student satisfaction group was calculated on a Likert scale of five points varying from strongly disagreeing (1) to strongly accepting (5), with higher values suggesting greater orientation. Before the questionnaire was used to collect data, the questionnaire was piloting to 50 students to see the reliability of the items. The results of Cronbach Alpha to the items, indicated .820, showing that the items were reliable.

Results and discussion

It measured student happiness with the different facets of the course. The findings (see Table 1) indicate that the students demonstrated higher rates of satisfaction with the course in the conventional educational environment (N = 56) than their peers online (N = 54). This can be seen in the typical students who offer 15 out of 22 items higher ratings. A separate-sample t-test was conducted to evaluate the mean of the classes. Differences were identified for 14 out of 22 items between the resources of the two classes at a sense point of 5 per cent. The findings show that the students were more pleased with the total face-to-face experience (item 1) and the consistency of the experience (item 2). They have thought the face-to-face course satisfied more of their desires than did the course online (item 3). Classroom-based course members showed a higher degree of learning incentive (item 4) and peer participation (item 10). Similarly, the face-to-face workshop has done well to promote information exchange (item 11) and co-op learning (item 12). It also motivated students to think more creatively (point 13) and to inspire interest (point 14). With the face-to-face course the students have expected higher levels of knowledge acquisition (item 5). It was further clear that on their business English tests the conventional community scored better than the online group, with the difference in performance being statistically significant.

Table 1. Satisfaction rate on online course

		Online	Traditional	

	Item	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	p-value*
1	was satisfied with the course as a whole	4.2	1.0	4.8	.4	.000
2	I was pleased with the consistency of the course	4.5	.6	4.8	.5	.000
3	My expectations regarding this course have been achieved	3.8	1.0	4.6	.6	.000
4	My enthusiasm for studying had been strong	3.3	1.2	4.2	.8	.000
5	I have acquired useful knowledge of business English	3.6	1.0	4.5	.7	.000
6	The workload expectations is reasonable for that course	4.0	1.0	4.2	.8	.180
7	If I had a concern or wanted an answer, I could easily contact the instructor	4.7	.6	4.8	.5	.353
8	The teacher has received timely reviews	4.7	.5	4.7	.5	.919
9	I was pleased with the relationship of students–teachers	4.7	.5	4.9	.4	.072
10	I was satisfied with the connection between the students	3.2	1.3	4.3	.8	.000
11	The Course promoted knowledge sharing	2.9	1.2	4.2	1.0	.000
12	The course encouraged collective collaboration	3.3	1.2	4.4	.7	.000
13	The course promoted creative thinking	3.0	1.2	3.9	1.0	.000
14	The course sparked my interest	3.1	1.0	4.0	1.0	.000
15	Suitable learning tools	4.1	.8	4.1	.8	.734
16	Information on the course was helpful	4.5	.7	4.7	.6	.180
17	The tools and events on the course were well organized	4.4	.7	4.5	.8	.883
18	The material of the course was of concern	4.3	.8	4.3	.8	.749
19	The training necessitated self-discipline	4.4	.7	3.5	1.0	.000
20	The course demanded strict control of the times	3.9	1.0	3.2	1.0	.000
21	The training included detailed self-study	4.6	.7	3.5	1.0	.000
22	The course encouraged a sense of responsibility in my learning	4.2	.8	3.9	.9	.041

*significant difference at .05 level.

Online students demonstrated greater support relative to students taking a face-to-face lesson, with only four comments leading to the learner's predispositions (items 19–22). All four variations on these elements were considered to be statistically significant at the point of.05. Online learning therefore tends to require more self-study (item 21) and calls for a more accountable (item 22) and self-disciplined learner (item 19) with strong management skills (item 20). Such results are compatible with the statement that online learning requires more self-study and more self-discipline and time control (Macdonald, Stodel, Farres, Breithaupt, & Gabriel, 2002).

Our findings, as already stated, indicate that student satisfaction among the conventional students was significantly higher. This result confirms a variety of research that suggest students are usually more comfortable with face-to-face classes than their peers online (Roach & Lemasters, 2006; Tallent-Runnels et al., 2006). Via our analysis we find that presentation of the course, consistency of the course, aspirations of the students, inspiration, engagement with students and perceived degree of information acquisition are statistically significant drivers of student satisfaction. These results are comparable to those of Vonderwell and Turner (2005), who found that student satisfaction is closely related to the quality and execution of the course, peer and instructor engagement, teacher encouragement, timely reviews, clear instructions, and the complexity of student assignments. Similarly, a comprehensive study by Sun, Tsai, Finger, Chen, and Yeh (2008) identified seven factors affecting learner satisfaction with online courses: quality of the course, flexibility of the course, attitude of the instructor towards e-learning, perceived utility, perceived ease of use, computer anxiety, and diversity of assessment. A systematic analysis of the online learning aspirations of students by Paechter, Maier, and Macher (2010), meanwhile, showed that one of the most significant variables was the perceived academic success of students.

Therefore, our survey asked students to mention whether they considered acceptable or worse regarding the course in particular. Face-to-face student feedback research shows that students enjoyed the continuum of social, challenging and enjoyable learning experiences, small group games, quizzes, and field assignments. Meanwhile the online students rated the numerous fun activities, particularly the quizzes, crosswords and games, as satisfactory. As for the negative responses, the students on the face-to-face course reported that they would have preferred to have more explanations in their mother tongue, while online students showed a preference for more learning through quizzing (e.g. crosswords and games) and more tutorial explanation of the subject matter. These influences may also have had some impact on student satisfaction, as similar results have also been recorded by Huybers, Louviere, and Islam (2015), who described difficult and fascinating subjects, instructor description, aspirations of students, and acceptable tasks to be main drivers of student satisfaction.

First, our research findings indicate that students were typically less inspired to study online, given the fact that by utilizing a variety of various practices, we sought to involve them, offering prompt input and building a positive learning atmosphere. It seems rea-sonable to conclude that the lower degree of satisfaction with the online course might well have stemmed in part from the students' lack of enthusiasm for online learning. In support of this, Alderman (2008) and Dörnyei (2003) claim that inspiration in online language learning environments is commonly regarded as the most important element for performance. In the same way, Ushida (2005) provides evidence in her analysis of the function of student encouragement in an online language course that students who are more driven to learn consistently and productively take any opponent's melody to improve their language skills.

Our analysis indicates that the teacher-student partnership and contact with any category of students were not important factors. Nevertheless, it is important to consider the role of the tutor as instrumental in developing a more supportive learning atmosphere for typical students, who indicated that they liked the classes mainly because of the tutor, noticing her approach towards them, her passion for teaching and her excitement for the topic. Such findings may clarify why the typical students displayed higher levels of happiness and desire to learn. Wudthayagorn (2000) also observed that if students enjoyed their instructor, they seemed to enjoy lectures, to be pleased with their learning experience and to have good behavioral attitudes towards the analysis of the target language, while Ushida (2005) emphasizes the idea that each instructor generates a special class culture.

Through our research, we find that online students were typically less pleased with the implementation of the course, displayed lower rates of learning encouragement, and viewed the course needing more self-study and self-discipline, as well as tougher time management. A mixture of all these variables may seem to account for lower levels of knowledge acquisition experienced by students. This finding parallels that of R. Maki, Maki, Patterson, and Whittaker (2000), who find students will only succeed in their learning if they have a strong degree of self-discipline and encouragement. We also need to consider that some students choose to study in one medium over the other while explaining the difference in market Language skills between online and conventional students. This reflects the claim made by five students who complained before the online course that they had not felt confident studying online and wanted to turn to a face-to-face course. In the same way, Allen et al. (2004) propose that certain students can actually learn more efficiently in one format than in another "(p. 415).

Along with personality characteristics, affective, social and behavioral variables do need to be taken into consideration when considering student success, learning engagement, and skills acquisition. Significantly, 45 percent of the online course students claimed they lost inspiration because they skipped informal interactions and communication with the teacher and their colleagues. They also raised doubts about their own conduct, stating they were not the sort of learners who can build a research schedule or handle their time well, and they failed to deal with the demands of the course. Moeller and Catalano (2015) published related results, which showed that foreign language learning is a dynamic and multi-dimensional mechanism affected both by environmental variables and by the learner. A research by Shih, Chen, Chen and Wey (2013) investigating the relationships between the personalities of the learners, enthusiasm for online learning and happiness have showed that personality characteristics and enthusiasm are good predictors of contentment.

Another significant aspect that should be addressed is that in most European countries the pre-tertiary education program is historically based, with students typically missing electronic learning experience. The online community, not accustomed to online learning, may have been distracted by the unfamiliarity of the implementation format: a major gap was found in the answers to the questionnaire showing that, unlike the conventional course, the online course usually did not fulfill the standards of the students. This finding is close to that of Arbaugh and Duray (2002), who noticed more advanced online students were more pleased with their mode of distribution for the course. This means we need to tackle the problem of user engagement and tap into their online learning preferences before they enroll in a course. It will also be important to see whether comparable findings were derived from a sample of students who also had a prior online learning experience.

As regards interaction, Diekelmann and Mendias (2005) claim that the most important determinant of student satisfaction rates is teacher–student interaction. Nonetheless, our findings indicate that the absence of peer contact in an online course was a more important factor, while urging students to add to debates and participate in synchronous chats. This result is consistent with the research of online foreign language learning by Zhang and Cui (2010), which indicates that decreased contact between students as dialogue partners is one of the main barriers to learning an online language, rendering interacting habits and familiarity with others rather restrictive. In the case of online Business English being addressed here, the percentage of students regularly participating in web discussions was as small as 40% and the amount of chats concerned much smaller (10%). This can be remembered that the online community itself raised reservations regarding their peers' insufficient participation and the relatively limited engagement in discussion forums. There is scope to believe that the lower satisfaction with the amount of student-student contact and cooperation with peers may have arisen from the limited involvement of students and some students behaving as lurkers, i.e. watching only and not engaging actively with remarks. To order to resolve the problems of student attendance and online interaction, a future analysis will need to explore variables that lead to the enthusiasm and commitment of students and consider some changes to pedagogical approaches and implementation of classes, such as calling students whether they are not participating or refuse to participate entirely in the course.

Conclusion

Study results from contrasting student satisfaction with a Business English course that was delivered exclusively online and a face-to-face course found that although online learning and provide a variety of incentives, the standard course model is a superior mode of delivery for foreign language training. In brief, the online Business English course mentioned in this paper proved less satisfactory for the social science students being tested.

Based on our findings, teaching/learning company English online seems to have been difficult for both students and tutors alike. From our research, we find that the learning atmosphere contained in the online Business English course offers less appropriate conditions for teaching language learning communicative, emotional, behavioral, and affective aspects. Therefore, it is our opinion that more in-person training is required for students to completely adopt a foreign language, developing fluency and a variety of language skills. Our findings suggest that students get more out of a language class while they're fully involved in face-to-face experiences and events, i.e. learning from each other, exchanging information and working together to accomplish shared objectives. Furthermore, face-to-face language instruction enables the learning process to be more enjoyable and also unforgettable, because the subject matter is not just understood but often shown and felt. The individual-to-person dimension often provides the ability for students to communicate, connect informally with each other before class, during breaks or after class, and even develop friendships outside classroom.

Furthermore, as tutors, we will stress to our students that more strain is put on them in online learning, in other terms, they need to take more accountability for their studies, be able to devote time and energy in their self-study and improve their self-discipline. Not reacting to the challenge in this way may diminish their chances of success and language growth, contributing in effect to a lack of motivation and learning excitement, as our work has established. To enhance the online course results, we will also need to incorporate different strategies and spend more time in engaging with and encouraging students, particularly if they do not engage actively in online sessions. Therefore, attempts will be made to assess the instructional needs of the students and to build knowledge of specific learner characteristics. An examination of the personal characteristics and learning styles of the students coupled with needs-analysis prior to the course can help decide the needs of the students and the learning preferences.

As a final conclusion from the research provided here, it will appear that Business English as an online course can not completely substitute face-to-face learning which provides real-life learning experience, human interaction, and personal interactions with both tutor and fellow students. That said, a course combining online and face-to-face elements can be better received by students than a course that is purely online: online learning can therefore be used as a supplement to and enhancement of face-to-face learning, enhancing learning options for students, helping them become more empowered to take control of their own learning and giving them the freedom to choose when, where and how to do it.

Pedagogical Implications

This research has proved that the use of online teaching methods is prominent to motivate students' interest and achievement. For the ESP program this research contributes substantial results not only for the materials, participations and effective interactions in the classroom. Pedagogically, teachers can apply online teaching programs and teaching materials to improve students' interests and motivation for other courses other than business English. In addition, course programs, evaluation, and interactions can be increased using the online platform.

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Classroom Management Practices Employed by Pangasinan State University Faculty

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Abstract

This study was conducted to determine the classroom management practices employed by Pangasinan State University (PSU) Lingayen Campus to uncover its potentials and possibilities that may benefit the institution in the area of instruction particularly on the part of the faculty members and students.

The method of research used in the study is descriptive. The respondents were chosen through purposive sampling technique. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), frequency counts, percentages and mean were used in analyzing and interpreting the data gathered.

The majority of the faculty members of PSU Lingayen Campus are instructors with few years of experience in the university and have limited attendance to seminars related to classroom management practices. The degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on students' disruptive behavior is very high in cheating as unethical behavior while high on mental health challenges, incivility and plagiarism.

There is a significant relationship on the degree of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on students' disruptive behaviour and profile variables such as plagiarism and civil status; incivility, cheating and college affiliation; mental health challenges and academic rank; and incivility and number of seminars attended.

Faculty members should further enhance and uphold academic excellence in teaching by enriching their knowledge and skills in attending seminars or training related to classroom management on a regular basis. Faculty members should engage in activities or programs that would earn points to alleviate their rank higher than an instructor in areas such as research, extension, seminars, innovation, and others. The school should conduct in-service training relating to updates and innovations in classroom management practices particularly on students' disruptive behavior such as mental health challenges, incivility, and unethical behaviors.

Keywords: *Classroom Management, Classroom Management Practices, Disruptive Behavior, Classroom Unethical Behavior, Classroom Incivility, Mental Health Challenges, Plagiarism, Cheating*

Introduction

Classroom Management

McCreary (2006) defined classroom management as the methods and strategies an educator uses to maintain a classroom environment that is conducive to student success and learning. It is one of the most feared parts of teaching for new teachers. For the students, lack of effective classroom management can mean that learning is reduced in the classroom. For the teacher, it can cause unhappiness and stress and eventually lead to individuals leaving the teaching profession (Kelly, 2017).

Disruptive Classroom Behavior

Classroom needs teacher management because of disruptive behaviors of students caused by several internal and external factors which the teacher should be aware of. Disruptive behavior in the classroom can negatively affect the classroom environment as well as the educational experience for students enrolled in the course. Disruptive behavior is defined as any behaviors that hamper the ability of instructors to teach or students to learn (Clayton.edu, n.d.)

Sources and categories of Disruptive behavior include mental health challenges, incivility and unethical conduct (Ladeji-Osias & Wells, 2014).

Mental Health Challenges

Mental health challenges is the first category of classroom disruptive behavior. About 10% of the school population — 9 to 13 million children — struggle with mental health challenges, some of the most challenging students that educators face. In our inclusive classrooms, teachers are becoming skilled at working with children who exhibit learning, physical, and cognitive disabilities, as well as those on the autism spectrum while students with mental health challenges continue to mystify and frustrate (Minahan, 2013).

Many students with mental health challenges have difficulty regulating their emotions and behaviors, often becoming inflexible and oppositional, disengaged or disruptive. Classroom culture is often not supportive of these students, who have difficulty with expectations that are reasonable for most of the class. Traditionally in classrooms, we've emphasized and rewarded consistent and regulated behavior and performance — the exact skills lacked by many with mental health challenges (Minahan, 2013).

Mental health challenges and disorders have many different signs and symptoms and can look different in different people. They can impact how a person thinks, feels and behaves. Some common symptoms of a mental health challenge or disorder are changes in mood; changes in the way you perceive things; obsessions; fears; and feelings of anxiety (Keltymentalhealth.ca, n.d.).

Incivility

Another category of classroom disruptive behavior is incivility which is defined as the intentional behavior of students to disrupt and interfere with the teaching and learning process of others. This behavior can range from students who dominate and foster tension in the classroom to students who attend classes unprepared, are passively rude, or unwilling to participate in the learning process (Richardson, 1999; Sandora, 1998).

Uncivil student behavior is a problem for faculty, students, and university/college administration. Such behavior can directly impact faculty wellbeing, infringe on the rights and education of others, and involve university/college administration (Morrissette, 2001).

Unethical Behavior

YourDictionary.com defines unethical behavior as an action that falls outside of what is considered morally right or proper for a person, profession or industry. College students can behave unethically, as can businesses, professionals and politicians. This is the third category of classroom disruptive behavior. In the academe, unethical behavior, exam cheating, and illegal collaboration on assignments including plagiarism are very frequent (Center for Academic Integrity, 1999). It is important to deal with the methods and frequency of such behavior and also with the way it is perceived by the schools.

The other severe unethical activities by Park et al. (2013) are: studied exam questions collected from old exams without the instructor's knowledge; participated in collecting exam questions as a group for other students; provided your paper to another student although you know he/she would copy it; and collaborated on an assignment when the instructor asked for individual work.

Classroom Management Practices

Research suggests that teachers who are most effective in classroom management demonstrate an interest in and establish positive relationships with students can respond to the individual and group needs of students, are consistent in how they present themselves (Ladeji-Osias & Wells, 2014).

Moreover, by successfully managing your classroom, you can increase student success and create a productive and cooperative learning environment. Effective behavior management plans allow students to get the most out of their time spent in school and ensure that you maintain your sanity. While many fail to recognize it, learning to behave can be just as important as learning the academic lessons taught in school (Education.gov.gy, n.d.).

With this premise, it is high time to know the classroom management practices employed by faculty members of Pangasinan State University (PSU) to uncover its potentials and possibilities that may benefit the institution in the area of instruction particularly on the part of the faculty members and students.

In PSU, the administration invests most in the academic welfare of the students as manifested in two of its eight strategic goals namely, excellent student learning and career development and customer focused (Pangasinan State University, 2017).

Statement of the Problem

This study determined the classroom management practices employed by Pangasinan State University Faculty. Specifically, it identified the profile of the faculty members in terms of highest educational attainment, designation, number of years in teaching and seminars attended related to classroom management, the degree of utilization of the Classroom Management Practices employed by PSU faculty on the students' disruptive behaviour and the significant difference between utilization of the Classroom Management Practices employed by PSU faculty the across profile variables.

Methodology

The descriptive method of research was used in the study. The descriptive research describes the existing conditions to be investigated. Descriptive research can be explained as a statement of affairs as they are at present with the researcher having no control over a variable (Ethridge, 2004). Moreover, according to Ethridge (2004), descriptive studies may be characterized as simply the attempt to determine, describe or identify what is, while analytical research attempts to establish why it is that way or how it came to be. Good and Scates (1972) stressed that descriptive normative surveys frequently made ascertain the normal or typical condition, or to compare local results with a state of the national norm.

Survey questionnaire with two parts was used in the study. The questionnaire was validated by five experts in the field of classroom management such as deans and experienced professors. The said validators are anot part of the respondents. In the first part, the profile of the respondents was sought and the second part is the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by faculty members on student’s disruptive behavior. The descriptors used were collated from several internet sources. The respondents were selected by means of purposive sampling technique. According to Delos Reyes, De Vera, and Medriano (2018), purposive selection of the respondents account for balance in which the respondents are chosen on the basis of their knowledge of the information desired and on the judgment of the researchers who is best qualified to the objectives. For statistical analysis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), frequency counts, percentages and mean were used.

Results and Discussion

Profile of Faculty Members

Table 1

Profile of Faculty Members

Profile	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Male	44	45.4
Female	53	54.6
Civil Status		
Single	45	46.4
Married	50	51.5
Separated	1	1
Widowed	1	1
College/Department		
Teacher Education	30	30.9
Hospitality Management	10	10.3
Technology	15	15.5
Public and Business Administration	13	13.4
Arts, Sciences and Letters	12	12.4
Computing Sciences	17	17.5
Highest Educational Attainment		
Bachelor's Degree	29	29.9
Master's Degree	49	50.5
Doctorate Degree	19	19.6

Academic Rank		
Instructor	68	70.1
Assistant Professor	16	16.5
Associate Professor	12	12.4
Professor	1	1.0
No. of Years in Service		
5 and Below	44	45.4
6 – 10 Years	24	24.7
11 – 15 Years	13	13.4
16 – 20 Years	5	5.2
21 – 25 Years	5	5.2
26 – 30 Years	2	2.1
31 and Above	4	4.1
Number of Seminars Attended		
5 and Below	56	57.7
6 – 10	23	23.7
11 – 15	9	9.3
16 – 20	4	4.1
21 – 25	2	2.1
26 – 30	1	1.0
30 and Above	2	2.1

As could be gleaned from Table 1, out of 97 selected faculty members in the Lingayen Campus, there are 53 or 54.6% are female while 44 or 45.4% are male. More than half of them or 51.5% are married, and 46.4% are single while the remaining 2% were separated and widowed. Teacher Education faculty members had the most prominent participation as respondents with 31% followed by Computing Sciences with 18%, Technology with 15.5%, Public and Business Administration with 13.4, Arts, Sciences, and Letters with 12.4% and Hospitality Management with 10.3%. Moreover, 49 or 50.5% are master's degree holder, 29 or 29.9% with a bachelor's degree and 19 or 19.6% are Master's degree holder. Most of the faculty members hold instructor rank embracing 68 or 70.1%, followed by assistant professor rank with 16 or 16.5%, associate professor rank with 12 05 12.4 % and 1 or 1% professor rank. There are 44 faculty members, or

45.4% are in the teaching service for 0-5 years below, 24 or 24.7% have 6-10 years, 13 or 13.4% have 11-15 years, 5 or 5.2% have 16-20 and 21-25 years respectively while 2 of them or 2.1% have 26-30 years and the remaining 4 or 4.1% have 31 years and above. There are more than half of the faculty, 56 or 57.7.3% have a minimal number of seminars attended related to classroom management with five seminars and below and the least of them with 9 or 9.3% attended 16 and above seminars.

The degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Mental Health Challenges

Overall, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on mental health challenges is high with an overall mean value of 3.992.

In particular, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on student's disruptive behaviour is also very high in the following: *encourage positive and realistic goal setting* with 4.351 mean value: *encourage students' gradual social interaction* with 4.330 mean value; *ask questions to help understand how students feel and experience* with 4.320 mean value; *help students use positive statements about their performance* with 4.247 mean value, and *model calmness and self-control* with 4.237 with mean value. On the other hand, last three practices that were rated moderately high with3.423 and 3.278 mean values respectively, to wit: *include information on depression in your teaching* and *provide choices for students' assignments.*

Table 2

The Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Mental Health Challenges

Classroom Management Practices on Mental Health Challenges	Mean	Description
1. Encourage positive and realistic goal-setting.	4.351	Very High
2. Encourage students' gradual social interaction.	4.330	Very High
3. Ask questions to help understand how students feel and experience	4.320	Very High
4. Help students use positive statements about their performance	4.247	Very High
5. Model calmness and self-control.	4.237	Very High

6. Encourage students' involvement in extra-curricular activities	4.155	High
7. Ensure that students write down assignment instructions correctly.	4.134	High
8. Reduce students' classroom pressures.	4.103	High
9. Encourage accountability but not in ways that promote stress and discomfort to students.	4.083	High
10. Break students' tasks into smaller parts.	3.979	High
11. Post the daily class schedule of students to know what to expect.	3.753	High
12. Allow flexible deadlines for students' assignments and projects	3.742	High
13. Encourage physical activity that will assist students in getting daily exercise.	3.742	High
14. Include information on depression in your teaching.	3.423	High
15. Provide choices for Students' assignments.	3.278	Moderate
Total	3.992	High

The Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Incivility

Overall, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on incivility is high with an overall mean value of 4.016.

Table 3 Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Incivility		
Classroom Management Practices on Incivility	Mean	Description
1. Set a good example	4.423	Very High
2. Use effective communication skills	4.392	Very High
3. Re-engage students	4.196	High
4. Spell out academic and behavioral expectations in the syllabus	4.186	High
5. Establish a collaborative learning environment	4.175	High
6. Refrain potential conflict	4.155	High
7. Use back-to-the-basics approach to conflict resolution	3.897	High
8. Arrange mid-term teaching feedback	3.649	High
9. Establish students' grievance process	3.608	High
10. Arrange Peer Observations and Reviews	3.485	High
Overall Mean	4.016	High

In particular, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on incivility is very high in the following: *set a good example* with 4.423 mean value and *use effective communication skills* with 4.392 mean value. On the other hand, last three practices were rated moderately high with 3.649, 3.608 and 3.485 mean values respectively, to wit: *arrange mid-term teaching feedback; establish students' grievance process, and arrange peer observations and reviews.*

The Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Unethical Behavior (Plagiarism)

Overall, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on unethical behaviour (plagiarism) is high with an overall mean value of 3.795.

Table 4

Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Unethical Behavior (Plagiarism)

Classroom Management Practices on Unethical Behavior (Plagiarism)	Mean	Description
1. Create assignments that encourage originality and discourage plagiarism.	4.237	Very High
2. Give students a clear and explicit definition of plagiarism at the beginning of the semester, preferably on the syllabus.	4.144	High
3. Make a clear distinction between acceptable collaboration and plagiarism, preferably on the syllabus	4.000	High
4. Create assignments that are unusual or that take a different slant on the material, thus eliminating “canned papers” that can be easily purchased or even found for free on the Web.	4.000	High
5. Create writing assignments that have several parts (e.g., a proposal, an annotated bibliography, a first draft, a second draft).	3.495	High
6. Request photocopies of all sources used in a paper.	3.381	Moderate
7. Have students email a copy of their essays as well as hard copy.	3.309	Moderate
Overall Mean	3.795	High

In particular, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on unethical behavior is very high in creating assignments that encourage originality and discourage plagiarism with 4.237 mean value. On the other hand, first three practices were rated high with 4.144, 4.000 and 4.000 mean values respectively are the following: *give students a clear and explicit definition of plagiarism at the beginning of the semester, preferably on the syllabus; make a clear distinction between acceptable collaboration and plagiarism, preferably on the syllabus; and create assignments that are unusual or that take a different slant on the material, thus eliminating “canned papers” that can be easily purchased or even found for free on the web.* Moreover, the last two practices that were rated moderately high are *request photocopies of all sources used in a pape*r with 3.309 mean value and *have students email a copy of their essays as well as hard copy* with 3.309 mean value.

The Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Unethical Behavior (Cheating)

Overall, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on unethical behavior (cheating) is very high with an overall mean value of 4.342.

In particular, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on unethical behavior (cheating) is also very high in the following: *walk around the room during tests* with 4.691 mean value; *don't allow cellphones during tests* with 4.649 mean value; *remind the students in the consequences of cheating* with 4.619; *ask students to put everything away during tests* with 4.608; *require clear desks during tests* with 4.536 mean values; *arrange students' desks in neat rows and sit in the back of the room during tests* with 4.402 mean values; and *don't allow students to get out of their seat or communicate* with 4.371 mean value. On the other hand, the last three practices that were rated moderately high are *give tests that require short essay responses* with 4.103 mean value, *require cover sheets during tests* with 4.010 mean value and *prepare two versions of tests* with 3.433 mean value.

Table 5

The degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Unethical Behavior (Cheating)

Classroom Management Practices on Unethical Behavior (Cheating)	Mean	Description
1. Walk around the room during tests	4.691	Very High
2. Don't allow cellphones during tests	4.649	Very High
3. Remind the students of the consequences of cheating.	4.619	Very High
4. Ask students to put everything away during tests	4.608	Very High
5. Require clear desks during tests	4.536	Very High
6. Arrange students' desks in neat rows and sit in the back of the room during tests	4.402	Very High
7. Don't allow students to get out of their seat or communicate.	4.371	Very High
8. Give tests that require short essay responses	4.103	High
9. Require cover sheets during tests	4.010	High
10. Prepare two versions of tests	3.433	High
Overall Mean	4.342	Very High

The Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Students' Disruptive Behavior

Overall, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on students' disruptive behavior is high with an overall mean value of 4.036.

In spite of the results, Pangasinan State University started its subscription to the Premium Accounts of Grammarly (Ventayen & Orlanda-Ventayen, 2018) to ensure that unethical behaviour particularly in the engagement of plagiarism will be addressed properly by the faculty members. A similar study conducted by (Fernandez, et. al., 2019), disclosed that the faculty members of PSU have high level of utilization of both the brain-based and individualized instructional strategies.

Table 6

Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members on Students' Disruptive Behavior

1. Mental Health Challenges	3.992	High
2. Incivility	4.016	High
3. Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	3.795	High
4. Unethical Behavior: Cheating	4.342	Very High
Overall Mean	4.036	High

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Their Profile in Terms of Sex, Highest Educational Attainment and Number of Years in Teaching

Based on the result on Table 7, it shows that classroom management practices on mental health challenges and incivility have a relationship to sex of faculty members as reflected from the significant value of .016 and .007 respectively. However, these significance do not show a significant variation on the degree of utilization of classroom management practices in terms of sex as rendered by the value of significance of the effect sizes 0.128 and .066 respectively.

As a whole, there is no significant relationship in the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices on student disruptive behaviors employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members and their profile in terms of *Sex, Highest Education Attainment* and *Number of Years in Teaching* by their significant values which are above the set level of significance of 0.05.

The findings supported the study of Oktan & Kıvanç (2015) that gender or was not very related to classroom management strategies of the teachers. It also sustained the study of Zhang (2008) that there was the negative interaction between teachers possessing an advanced degree in science or education and years of teaching experience. Moreover, the study conducted by Ünal & Ünal (2012) suggests that the constant change of teachers' classroom beliefs over time indicates that there is a disconnection between education students' beliefs toward classroom management during their coursework and the time they begin to gain real experience in schools.

Table 7

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Their Profile in Terms of Sex, Highest Educational Attainment and Number of Years in Teaching

	SEX				HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT				NUMBER OF YEARS IN TEACHING			
Classroom Management Practices on:	CS	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.	CS	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.	CS	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.
Mental Health Challenges	42.568	.016	.584	.128	47.732	.565	.466	.778	117.356	.977	.490	.721
Incivility	38.853	.007	.558	.066	39.831	.478	.425	.690	94.717	.957	.418	.882
Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	27.794	.065	.478	.223	52.898	.034	.484	.133	81.981	.971	.426	.552
Unethical Behavior: Cheating	27.183	.055	.488	.146	38.777	.263	.424	.428	90.456	.786	.433	.294

Legend: CS – Chi-square Statistic Sig. – Significance

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Civil Status as Profile Variable

Based on the result on Table 8, it discloses that classroom management practices on mental health challenges, incivility and cheating have no relationship to civil status of faculty members as reflected from the significant values which are above the set level of significance of 0.05. On the other hand, there is significant relationship in the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices on plagiarism by .000 significant value which is below the set level of significance of 0.01.

Table 8
Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Civil Status as Profile Variable

	CIVIL STATUS			
Classroom Management Practices on:	Chi-square Statistics	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.
Mental Health Challenges	55.023	.960	.519	.369
Incivility	50.087	.816	.464	.385
Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	38.488	.945	.661**	.000
Unethical Behavior: Cheating	29.017	.994	.390	.740

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

This implies that faculty members whether single or married are so much aware of the influence of social media particularly of the internet resulting to high degree of utilization of the classroom management practices on plagiarism. Moniz et. al. (2008) stated that a variety of approaches was tried within a comprehensive information literacy program to improve students' functional understanding of plagiarism.

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and College Affiliation as Profile Variable

Based on the result on Table 9, it depicts that classroom management practices on mental health challenges and plagiarism have no relationship to college affiliation of faculty members as reflected from the significant values which are above the set level of significance of 0.05. On the other hand, there is significant relationships in the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices on college affiliation by .007 and .026 significant values respectively which are below the set level of significance of 0.05.

Table 8

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and College Affiliation as Profile Variable

	COLLEGE AFFILIATED			
Classroom Management Practices on:	Chi-square Statistics	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.
Mental Health Challenges	132.760	.301	.500	.584
Incivility	136.661	.009	.534**	.007
Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	106.333	.115	.451	.247
Unethical Behavior: Cheating	112.379	.025	.481*	.026

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

This implies that since the majority of the faculty members are from the college of education who are all licensed teachers as one of the minimum requirements of the university compared to other colleges and are responsible in molding future teachers, the degree of utilization of the classroom management practices on incivility and cheating are high. The Philippine Teachers Professionalization Act of 1994 also known as the Code of Ethics for Professional Teachers of the Philippines states that “teachers are duly licensed professionals who possess dignity and reputation with high moral values as well as technical and professional competence in the practice of their noble profession, and they strictly adhere to, observe, and practice this set of ethical and moral principles, standards, and values”.

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Academic rank as Profile Variable

Based on the result on Table 10, it exposes that classroom management practices on incivility, cheating, and plagiarism have no relationship to academic rank of faculty members as reflected from the significant values which are above the set level of significance of 0.05. Nonetheless, it exposes that classroom management practices on mental health challenges have no relationship to academic rank of faculty members as reflected from the significant value of .772. However, this significance shows a substantial variation on the degree of utilization of classroom management practices in terms of mental health challenges as rendered by the value of significance of the effect size .000.

This implies that since the majority of the faculty members hold instructor rank, most of them are young and new from the institution, show their idealism and dynamism in carrying out their professional objectives resulting to the high degree of utilization of classroom management practices in terms of mental health challenges. Jensen, B. et al. (2012) said that in general, new teachers had greater developmental needs compared with more experienced teachers, mainly to develop skills to create more teaching and learning time in class.

Table 10
Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices
Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Academic Rank as Profile Variable

	ACADEMIC RANK			
Classroom Management Practices on:	Chi-square Statistics	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.
Mental Health Challenges	65.619	.772	.710**	.000
Incivility	45.948	.909	.461	.407
Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	48.077	.741	.445	.341
Unethical Behavior: Cheating	47.600	.609	.399	.662

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

Significant Relationship in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Number of Seminars Attended as Profile Variable

Based on the result on Table 11, it displays that classroom management practices on mental health challenges, cheating and plagiarism have no relationship to a number of seminars attended of faculty members as reflected from the significant values which are above the set level of significance of 0.05. However, it displays that classroom management practices on incivility has no relationship to a number of seminars attended of faculty members as reflected from the significant value of .993. This significance shows a significant variation in the degree of utilization of classroom management practices in terms of incivility as rendered by the value of significance of the effect size .005.

Table 11
Significant Difference in the Degree of Utilization of the Classroom Management Practices Employed by PSU Lingayen Faculty Members and Number of Seminars Attended as Profile Variable

	NUMBER OF SEMINARS ATTENDED			
Classroom Management Practices on:	Chi-square Statistics	Sig.	Effect Size	Sig.
Mental Health Challenges	87.155	1.00	.486	.761
Incivility	85.359	.993	.529**	.005
Unethical Behavior: Plagiarism	81.286	.974	.445	.302
Unethical Behavior: Cheating	78.599	.959	.429	.341
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)				

This implies that in spite of the limited number of seminars attended of the faculty members, the degree of utilization of classroom management practices in terms of incivility is high, possibly this is because of high standard of professionalism inculcated by PSU as stipulated in their strategic goals (good governance) and core values (credibility, integrity, competence and commitment to achieve).

Conclusions

From the preceding findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

The majority of the faculty members of PSU Lingayen Campus are instructors with few years of experience in the university and have limited attendance to seminars related to classroom management practices. This would be a sound reference of the administration to conduct professional development activities regularly to maintain the teaching competence of faculty members.

The degree of utilization of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on students' disruptive behavior is high particularly on mental health challenges, incivility and plagiarism while very high in cheating as unethical behavior. In particular, the degree of utilization of the following practices by the faculty members are very high, to wit: encouraging positive and realistic goal-setting, encouraging students' gradual social interaction, asking questions to help understand how students feel and experience, helping students use positive statements about their performance, modelling calmness and self-control, setting a good example, using effective communication skills, creating assignments that encourage originality and discourage plagiarism, walking around the room during tests, not allowing cellphones during tests, reminding the students on the consequences of cheating, asking students to put everything away during tests, requiring clear desks during tests, arranging students' desks in neat rows and sitting in the back of the room during tests and preparing cover sheets during the tests. More innovation in terms of strategies in adressing discruptive behaviors of students should considered to secure a well-managed classroom.

There is a significant relationship on the degree of the classroom management practices employed by PSU Lingayen faculty members on students' disruptive behaviour and profile variables such as: plagiarism and civil status; incivility, cheating and college affiliation; mental health challenges and academic rank; and incivility and number of seminars attended.

Recommendations

Based on the above-mentioned findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are hereby presented:

Faculty members should further enhance and uphold academic excellence in teaching by enriching their knowledge and skills in attending seminars or training related to classroom management on a regular basis.

The school should conduct its in-service training relating to updates and innovations in classroom management practices particularly on students' disruptive behavior such as mental health challenges, incivility and unethical behaviors.

Sustain the high degree of utilization of classroom management practices on students' disruptive behaviors such as mental health awareness, incivility, plagiarism and cheating. In particular, faculty members should consider employing the following practices to achieve a high degree of utilization: provide choices for students' assignment; request photocopies of all sources used in a paper; and have students email a copy of their essays as well as hard copy.

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Exploring Classroom Speech Acts:
A case of Speaking Performs in Bandung Raya University

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Abstract

The improper use of the language act can lead to misunderstandings because of the distinct cultures between the language sources and users. The objective of the research is to identify the classification for speech acts that is mostly used by EFL teachers during teaching, the explanation for preference for certain classification and the effect on the teaching and learning system of the selected speech act classification. This thesis is a case study of an English teacher who teaches EFL classes. The analysis uses Searle's definition of speech act taxonomy as its tool. The results of the analysis indicate the level of each classification as follows: 70% for instructions, 21% for officers, 6% for verbal and 3% for commissives. Directive language activities are mainly used by teachers as the teacher adopts the concept of teaching the communicative language. The use of the guideline speech act obviously leads to an increase in the successful skills of the students. The study concludes that the classification of speech acts influences the approach to education and vice versa. English teachers who wish to help students develop communication skills are recommended for using more explicit speech activities.

Keywords: *Discourse; instruction; mandate; expressive; declarative.*

Introduction

The quality of the learning and teaching of English in the classroom depends on many factors, one of them being the teacher's language. Celce-Murcia (2000) found out that the use of language in a classroom influences the development of students and the learning progress. In the field of EFL, in an Indonesian background in which teachers are not English natives, it is difficult to teach and learn EFL when it comes to offering the course with English and to get the students to understand the instruction referred to in that language (Chen, 2018; Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto &Tarjana, 2019). Lin (2020) points out that language capacities is the key element of basic landscape of intercultural communication and interaction. Having no linguistic competency, communication will not occur in the global era.

There are, however, issues in the classroom in the use of English (as a foreign language). Throughout her study, Nuraini (2015) posed a question in the use of speech acts in the English classroom. She argued that in Indonesian EFL, the use of speech acts leads to a misunderstanding as a result of the incorrect usage of the speech acts. Students may have various perceptions of the teacher's clear utterance. This is due to the inability to use IFIDs (Illocutionary force devices) or to agree, in some cases, to use either direct or indirect language actions. The society refers to different expression forms used in utterances (Akram, 2008). For example, Seifoori and Emadi (2015) found that Americans and Persians are complimented in different ways. It is related to the way they perceive society, the ideals in it that include social isolation, prestige and the illusion that politics or directness can be achieved.

This research focuses on classroom speech acts by an English teacher in terms of classification of speech acts, as defined by John R. Searle's theory (1999). It is hoped that the report would fill the void in work on language recognition processing, which had previously been done primarily by analyzing political speeches.

The British psychologist J.L Austin was the first to develop speech theory. An American philosopher, John R, further developed Austin's research and his ideas regarding speech acts. Yule (1996) claimed that the word "illocutionary acts" is sometimes used in speech acts. Both words, speech and illocutionary acts have the same idea that the output of a statement is communicative. Medriano & De Vera, (2019) in agreement to Okoro (2017) viewed the speech acts distinctions and emphasized that the basic unit of linguistics is the speech acts (Okoro, 2017). Specifically, speech acts ideology put the most crucial distinction on three categories locutionary acts, the illocutionary acts, and the perlocutionary acts (Medriano & De Vera, 2019).

There are classifications of speech or illocutionary acts. Different scholars establish their own list of 73 speech acts taxonomy. One of the famous classifications comes from John R's job. Searle (1999) classed five different forms of acts of illocution; assertive force, force order, force commissive, force verbal and force declarative.

From his analysis Enyi (2016) concluded that various speech activities have different perlocutional consequences. He also said that the decision to use a classification of certain speech acts is affected by certain factors. For instance, government officials who give political speeches may decide to employ more aggressive, articulate and commissive acts to attract voters and convince people to achieve their goals. For general goal, Ghourchian (2012) emphasizes language can indicate specific use for the conversation or general form of words, people transform into speech acts that assign different messages both for speakers and hearers.

Hashim (2015) found in speeches in public expression that commissive expression activities are most common in both political speeches (John Kerry's Presidential Campaign 2004 and George Bush's Inaugural Address 2004). The next move is to be assertive, guideline and costly. The conclusion reflects that the overall speech act presented in the two lectures examined is intended to convince the audience to take sides.

In line with Hashim (2015), Enyi (2016) also established a group of persuasive citizens through his Maiden Coup address of 1 January 1984 by President Mohammadu Buhari and his opening address on 29 May 2015. Commissive takes 35%, 54% for the first last words and is followed by assertive ones (32% and 35%).

Vows, commitments and expectations are conveyed to draw the interest of people to vote for him. Unlike political discourses that underline more comissive speech acts, publicity emphasizes another form of speech act, that is to say, a directive speech act. In 95% of common commercials for soft drinks between 2000 and 2006, Chiluwa (2007) discovered the directive's speech rules. This attempts to get the consumer to purchase the advertised goods.

Facebook rank also has its own speaking acts. Ilyas and Khushi (2012) performed a Facebook Status Change Speech Act Study on 60 women and men. The study shows that expressive speech activities are the most important aspect of all forms of speech in the taxonomy of Searle since Facebook is primarily used to convey emotions and thoughts.

The previous work shows that each communication intent has its own pragmatic characteristics. Political speeches are distinguished by commissive speech acts, the use of directive language acts is reinforced by advertising and Facebook status changes often include more articulate speech acts (Ghourchian, 2012). This is the same thing in the EFL teaching and learning cycle. Classroom teachers also determine which group of speakers to use to achieve their teaching and learning goals. The decision to use such speech activities in the classroom teaching process can have certain consequences (Akram, 2008; Chen, 2018; Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2019).

Based on the previously established views, this study will investigate the classification of an English teacher's speech act in Indonesian EFL classrooms. Therefore, this analysis has three objectives. Firstly, the definition of the speech act is primarily used by an instructor in an EFL classroom. The second goal is to find out the reasons why the instructor chooses those classifications of speech acts. The third includes using the desired type of speech to support either the teaching method or students.

This study contributes potentially to fill the void in speech act research in terms of speech acts or classification of illocutionary acts. Most studies typically examine political speeches, advertising and the technique of such speech acts (e.g., praises, excuses, rejections, etc). This research would also ideally enrich the literature of the research of speeches used in Indonesian EFL classrooms by students (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2019).

Furthermore, this study also gives English teachers ideas and insights into how language choices (the classification of speech acts) can affect the classroom process, including the learners themselves, their scores or progress in learning. Finally, this study is intended to motivate teachers to enhance their teaching efficiency by first reflecting and analyzing how they use negative behavior in their teaching process.

Review of Literature

Teacher Talk

Teacher's talk is the conversation a teacher makes in the process of teaching and learning. Lei (2009) said that good communication in the process of education and learning depends on clear and efficient teacher discussions. Harmer (2007) seemed to suggest that students benefit from the teacher's chat. That is why the teachers should be able to talk to students and change their language as teacher speech allows students the ability to listen to the language that they understand more or less (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2018; 2019).

According to Lei, communication instructor talk has some features (2009). Some of them are questions of reference and input on content. Referential questions are questions in which the teacher does not really know the answer. The teacher invites students to answer the question and talk by asking these questions. Feedback on material means the teacher reflects on what the students think.

Harmer (2007) pointed out that too much discussion by teachers would lead to students missing the opportunity to talk and said that a good teacher maximizes time to communicate and minimizes time to speak for the students. Nevertheless, a research from Sadeghi, Ansari and Rahmani (2015) shows that the useful lecture by teachers has a positive impact on the motivation and attitudes of students. Adequate teacher discussion may lead either to the presence of politics or directness in teaching that affects the teaching process and students.

Pragmatics

In the field of linguistics, pragmatics is a broad term. Akinwotu (2013) has clearly described pragmatics as language analysis in use. Mey (2001) noted that pragmatics is based on the premise that language is used in the culture where the consumer resides and that the use of language depends on norms, laws and beliefs. This means that Pragmatics is a branch of linguistic knowledge which includes the combination of morphological, phonological, syntax and semantics knowledge.

Pragmatics has to do with the idea that people use language in sense and culture only. Grundy (2008) claimed that a context defines the sense and purpose of utterances uttered by users. He also added that the role of culture and context in communication. Since a listener does not understand, without meaning, what a speaker wants to mean by his/her words. Grundy's focus explicitly points to the fact that when users interact, culture can not be isolated from expression. Not every country has the same culture. The acknowledgement of each culture's law, traditions and values counts in the achievement of understandable and agreed utterances when one wants to communicate in a specific language in a particular culture (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2019).

Speech acts

The ideas about speaking can be traced back from J.L. Austin's research in his lectures, which later became codified in a book called How to Do Things with Words. After his death, the book was published in 1962. Austin (1962) said that it is not often to explain something even when people utter an utterance. Instead, they simply do something by uttering sentences (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2018).

The word "speech act" contains various theories. It includes performative verb theory, IFIDs, conditions of congratulations, classification of speech acts, direct and indirect speech acts, speech events, etc. Austin (1962) classified illocutionary forces of speech acts into five: verdictives, behavitives, expositives, commissives, and excertitives (Medriano & De Vera, 2019).

Speech acts are acts of declaration or request, demanding or requesting, denying, complimenting, excusing etc. Yule (1996) agreed that people do not always say something out of the blue with the language. Instead, they have motives and power behind what they say and such words will influence the hearer's behaviour.

Three types or aspects of speech acts exist. Grundy (2008) clarified that when people say something, they may include the three dimensions of locution, non-talk and perlocutionary actions.

a. **Language Actions**. Medriano & De Vera (2019) emphasize the locutionary acts as the acts of saying something. Language actions are important words spoken by people formed in the correct grammar and comprehensible vocabulary. From Yule's examples (1996) it is clear that he tried to suggest that one of the conditions to be complied with in the performance of locutionary actions is that both the speaker and the listener share the same language; otherwise the hearer will be confused or will not understand the meaning intended.

b. **Illocutionary Actions**. This indicates the acts to perform something while the speaker is to perform the acts (Medriano & De Vera, 2019). The word 'illocutionary actions,' Yule (1996), has also been closely linked to the term speech act. When people have the communicative force to say a word, they are performing an unpleasant act. For instance, "set it out" can have a different kind of force behind it. The speaker may tell, because he wants to stop a smoke-free lady or because he sees a window curtain being on fire. I want to say specific words lead to the concept of negative actions.

c. **Perlocutionary Actions**. Medriano & De Vera (2019) assert perlocutionary acts is the effect of performed acts, that show the effect of utterances to the psychological state of the hearer. Speakers carry out perlocutionary actions in expectation of influencing the conduct of certain people. Affecting actions does not simply mean that the listener makes physical motions; it also involves a shift of attitude or behaviors of the listener. This declaration is in line with Yule (1996) who suggested the so-called perlocutionary impact of perlocutionary actions. One example is when a speaker is sorry for being excluded, he says to a friend: "I'm useless." The hearer is disturbed by the utterance and is sorry. Sorry is the result of the perlocutionary actions "I'm useless."

Classification of speech acts

A number of scholars have revealed various classifications of speech acts which actually came from Austin. Oluremi (2016) found out that the classifications of Austin's speech actions include verdicts, exercices, commissives, activities and exhibitors. However, a famous American Philosopher, John R. Searle expanded his ideas and made his taxonomy a guide or classification of speech acts used by other scholars who studied the classification of speech acts.

Searle (1999) listed five different forms of illocutionary acts; assertiveness, force of order, force of mandate, force of voice, and force of declaration. Yule (1996) was a table of the Searle theory-based classification of the five speech events.

Table 1. Classification of Speech Act

Speech act type	**Direction of fit**	**S = Speaker; X = Situation**
Declarative	Words change the world	S causes X
Assertive	Make words fit the world	S believes X
Expressive	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directive	Make the world fit words	S wants X
Commissive	Make the world fit words	S intends X

a. Declarative Force

The idea that words transform the world is the Declarative Force. It means that a speaker's voice changes the environment or the situation. This is shown by the following words.

[1] Policeman: You're under-arrested!

When a policeman utters [1] to a person committing a crime, the utterance affects the crime. The person who commits the crime is put in prison from the role of a free man. If, however, the utterance [1] is uttered by a teacher to a pupil, it does not make any difference or alter the pupil at all, because only police officers are entitled to utterance[1].

b. Advocacy Terms

Suit the environment meaning that speech acts with assertive power to state what the speaker feels to be the case. Yule (1996) said that assertive force is used as the speaker believes to represent the universe. The following are examples of speech-related behavior with assertive force.

[2] Flowers smell good, the world is flat [3]

c. Assertive Force

As shown in table 1, speakers want to demonstrate what they feel about other circumstances by conducting speech actions with expressive force. Expressive power reflects psychological condition like likes and dislikes, joy, sorrow, pain, etc. Examples are [4] and [5].

[4] I'm so sorry. [5] Félicitations.

d. Directive Force

The speaker needs us to do something by making speech actions with directive force. Examples of speech actions with a commanding power are issued commands and orders. [6] is one example. One example.

[6] Go ahead! [6] Go home!

e. Commissive force

The speech force indicates the intention of the speaker. Yule (1996) claimed that speakers use comissive force to communicate their commitments, challenges, rejections or undertakings. It has something to do with the potential presentation of the purpose of the speaker as shown in [7]. [7] After school, I promise to buy you ice cream.

Method

Research Design

Since this study aims at examining lectures conducted by an English instructor in the context of speech activities established by John R. Searle's theory, this study is graded according to the concept of qualitative research design and in particular the case study. Geertz in Cohen (2007) noted that a case study is concerned with researching how a scenario is like by looking at the case closely and presenting a broad overview that describes the thoughts and feelings of the participants about a situation. A case study is ideal for this study, as this study seeks to show how an English teacher uses speech acts (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2019).

Participants

An English teacher participated in this study in a speaking class of EFL at Bandung Raya University. She is 35 years old and has been teaching English for 6 years. She teaches for about three years. The teacher was chosen for some reasons. First of all, she teaches in the classroom using full English. Second, the exposure of English is good enough as the place where she teaches or works regulates people to speak English both for teachers and students. Third, with a score TOEFL of 602, she is able to teach almost all levels of students in the English course. The class was chosen based on the highest average score among all in the English in the level of B1 in CEFR.

Material

Three forms of data have been obtained. First, a detailed video in one meeting of a teaching and learning cycle. The video has a length of 1 hour, 26 minutes and 34 seconds. First, the teacher's interview and the latter is the student ranking records.

Procedure

Observation was carried out during the collection of the data. The analyzed data were obtained by videotaping the teaching and learning process. Next, the teacher was interviewed to confirm several cases of speech incidents while teaching in the classroom. In addition, the instructor collected the student scores log.

Until review of the data and description of speech events, the videotaped data was transcribed. The lecture events conducted by the teacher during classroom instruction, were then evaluated in the context of Searle's five key classifications of speech acts: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, declaratives (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 201).

A structure based on speech act word clues or characteristics was established in order to determine the phrases to be categorized into the classification for Searle speech acts proposed by Qadir and Riloff (2011) and established word speech act clues identified by Searle (1976). Then the percentage of each type of speech acts was counted and interpretation was taken from the results and represented descriptively.

Findings and Discussion

This segment presents the results and their explanation, arranged in accordance with the order of the questions.

Classification of speech activities used by the teacher in a classroom with the EFL

Declarations (0%)

It is noted that in the classroom only four classifications of speech acts are used by the teacher. The instructor excludes the description of declarative speech acts. Obviously, it is because of the essence of the act of declaring speech in which Yule (1996) clarified that the act of declaring speech transforms the hearer's environment with the words spoken by the speaker. The speaker has a special institutional role to play in transforming the hearer's environment. The changing world of the listener means it is not easy to stop or split the circumstance that is shifted from the listener. The transition from a speaker to a listener is longer: e.g., if a priest declares someone else's wife or daughter. A mother or a doctor can not marry a couple. To sum up, in her teaching the instructor does not use declarative expressions.

Representatives (21%)

For 673 utterances, 141 of them are considered to have symbolic speech activities. In creating Searle's word act word clue lists, Qadir and Riloff (2011) developed a variety of speech act word clues in a representative way. The list includes hypothesis, determination, support, lament, assume, deduce, diagnose, assert, pick up and suspect.

The results related to representative speech actions extracted from data include the interpretation and repetition of students' response, in order to ensure or infer what is said as what it is (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2019).

Table 2. Representative Articulated Law

Utterance	Representative voice performance groups
"Hey, so 4" (in fact it means "yeah, so all four questions are together")	Concluding
"We are from Aurora"	Claiming
"I find that is such a difficult question"	Assuming
S :"Maybe meatball" T: "Oh... meatball, all right"	Concluding/stating
S : “20” T : “20 of February, alright”	

From the teacher's interview, the teacher apparently acknowledged that her repeating the response of students was one of the attempts to be heard. The essence of listening here is not "hearing;" rather, the professor sought to show that she was aware of what her students were saying. In addition, students are there to listen to what they say to their views are attempts to develop a healthy relationship. Harmer (2007) said that establishing a successful relationship, such as making students believe that the teacher views them appropriately, leads to increasing the intrinsic motivation of students. Therefore, if motivation remains with the students, it helps them to pay attention and to engage actively in the classroom teaching and learning process.

Expressive (6%)

39 utterances with an expressive voice act word indication are found in the results. Qadir and Riloff (2011) categorized verbal utterances by giving signals of gratefulness, apologies, gratitude, condolences, sorrow, appreciation and welcome. Among the 39 words spoken, the most articulate act of speech is mentioned below.

− thanks, • 'I'm sorry,' and · 'Oh my Goodness, I'm sorry! "The teacher often discusses utterances like" thank you "when she accepts items from students or when her students are trying to tell her something. "I'm sorry" is spoken of when the teacher makes mistakes like forgetting the name of the students or comments that she feels her students will hurt. In the interview, she acknowledged that her justification for doing so was simply a reflex, so people should say "thank you" when someone gives them something, say "sorry" if they think that someone else's feeling might hurt and say "oh, my God" if people be shocked. The other explanation is that the teacher wants to improve her students' basic habit by being a good example of a social human being. Therefore, whether they communicate inside or outside the classroom, the students do the same.

Directives (70%)

Directive speech activities control the teacher's utterance in the process of schooling. Of these 673 utterances, 70 percent have word hints for directives. Qadir and Riloff (2011) identified indices of the term 'speech act' Directive. The contents containing the force or intention to ask, order, direct, suggest, demand, request, pray, pray, invite, authorize, advise, threaten, challenge and challenge are divided into guidelines. Mostly, the teacher uses directions to ask the students something and to order and ask the students to do something. Table 3 displays several examples of directive speech acts delivered by the teacher.

Table 3. Directive Talked Rule

Utterance	Directive spoken word function groups
"And Uhmm... You know, hey, what does that mean? Some term instead of saying fine?”	Asking

"Will you introduce yourself then please?	Requesting
"I want you to ask me two questions and also people sitting next to you"	Commanding
"You could have a Lintang rest"	Inviting
"Talk to me, Lintang!	Ordering

Commissives (3%)

Commissive speech activities are the teacher's least reported during the teaching process. The instructor listed only 19 commissive words, indicating that the percentage is only 3% out of 100%. Table 4 lists examples of commissive speech acts.

Table 4. Method of Commissive Voice

Utterance
"Now, we'll have a chat, all right"
"Then I'll open this one"
"They're going to believe it"
"Okay guys, so we'll have a break"
"We'll start it after the break again."

The percentage of each type of speech acts is shown in Figure 1. It excludes declarative speech because the data do not contain it. To sum up, there are four classifications of speech acts found in the study. They are symbolic, advisory, articulate, commissive. The primary use of the teacher is the instruction speech act, which takes over 70 percent of the teacher's speech while teaching.

Study of the teacher's voice in an EFL classroom

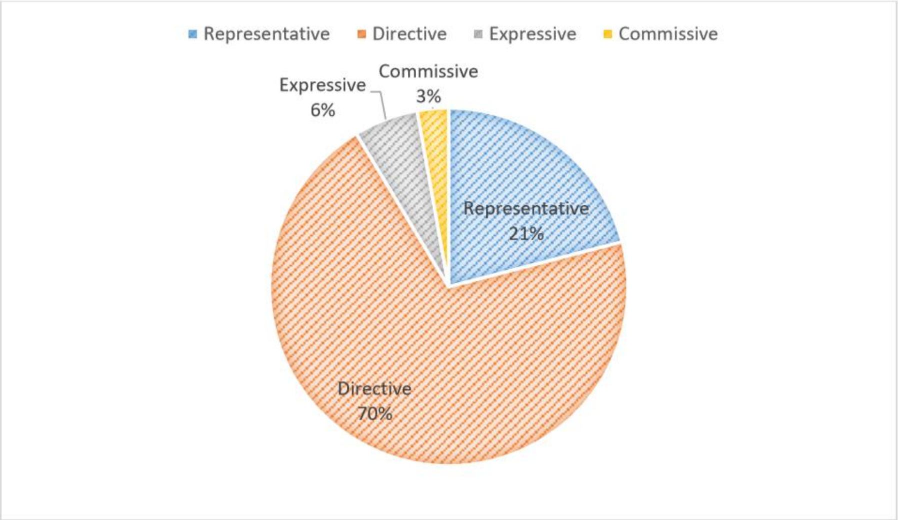

Figure 1. Classification of expression activities statistics

Teacher's reasoning for using the Communication Act Guideline

During a teacher interview, the teacher doesn't know that she always used the Directive speech while teaching. Below is the statement she pointed out concerning her conduct in teaching by using Directive Speech Act.

> "I preferred Directive Language Acts not because it was Directive Language Acts in my teaching. Until you told me, I didn't know that. So, uhm ... all right, I've used that because I just wanted to talk to my students. I gave them the opportunity to chat because, what is that?
>
> English is a communication device. It means that if it is not the language, you will express it. And I want my students to be involved not to speak English passively. What's that, then? If I ask them a lot of questions and then what, and then ... I guess it's the easiest way to teach English in a language if I ask them to talk to their friends too. And then also, what else ... uhm, since I use CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) as well. This means I want to talk and uhm to my students, and then give them an opportunity to reflect and share their own opinion.
>
> I don't want to teach all the time and then you don't even reflect on learning. If it is student-centered it means that I will give them the time they need. "Thus, the instructor is implicitly using the instruction speech acts for two key purposes. The first is because the teacher holds the CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) principle.
>
> Richards (2006) described CLT as an approach that values communication competence rather than grammar. It's because learners can learn the building blocks of sentences, but often language in substantive communication still doesn't work very well. The disclosure of communicative competence is therefore CLT's target. Secondly, the teacher requires students to engage positively in classroom activities. What the teacher seeks to do is get them to speak by giving them the opportunity to organize classroom activities around the CLT method. The video (data) shows that the teacher organizes a lecture and asks students to talk in pairs. These behaviors distinguish the CLT method. Richards (2006) stressed in a book that CLT exercises concentrate on pair or group study, and that they are conducted in a realistic way in which students are given the freedom to make rational choices while exercising.

Apparently good communication skills are the effect or consequences of the use of directive voice actions in the classroom, as Arani (2012) has pointed out. The study also shows that students reach high levels, particularly for two successful skills: speech and writing. The average score of 14 students taking the data from this study is 80 percent in speech and 81 percent in writing. The findings show that the use of a directive speaker act encourages constructive skills of students, and also helps to develop communication skills for students (Mukhroji, Nurkamto, Subroto & Tarjana, 2018). In agreement with Taghizadeh (2020) this study asserts that pragmatic competence as “the ability to use language appropriately in a social context” which involves both innate and learned capacities and develops naturally through a socialisation process (Taguchi, 2011), classroom conversation is required to develop by teachers.

Conclusions and Recommendation

The use of a correct description of speech acts when teaching is evidently dependent on the teaching method followed by the instructor. This research aims to examine the definition of speech actions of teacher expression in EFL classrooms, why teachers use these expression actions and what can be learned from the research.

Four classifications of speech acts are extracted from the data on the basis of the observations and discussion (teacher voice). The sum of the teacher's comments in one teaching and learning meeting is 673 utterances. Four classifications have different parts, with the dominant word for order, which takes up 70% of the words. The second dominant classification is the 21 percent representative speech act. Limited portions of the verbal and commissive speech acts are 6 percent and 3 percent respectively.

The teacher argued that her motives for using more instructions are just that students express more and fulfill the concept of communicative linguistic teaching according to their beliefs. The conclusion is that using Directive speech actions that require a lot of questions, requests, or commands contribute to the achievements of students, particularly in productive skills. This is because students are encouraged to respond to the question and keep talking by asking more questions. The use of language and language behaviour therefore affects both teaching and learning, instructor and students.

The suggestion is discussed in particular in the Indonesian sense for English teachers. The teaching of a language alien to Indonesian students is not an easy task. To introduce them to English more, the language teaching in the classroom that is best used is English.

However, teaching in foreign languages can cause difficulties and misunderstandings among teachers and students. English teachers would soon become conscious of their confidence in English teaching. If the method is deemed to be CLT, then the type of speech acts which they will use every day is a directive speech act, which allows students to talk more.

Pedagogical Implications

This study has identified that speech acts in the classroom interactions appear as the basic communication among teachers and students. The practices indicate that regulation by which teachers select the speech acts appropriate to students' level of proficiency, purposes and contexts are or prominent to emphasize. Therefore, this study has the pedagogical implications that speech acts in the classroom should be managed in a way teachers regulate their talks to students when explaining lessons; teachers should also consider their speech acts proper to students pragmatic competence; and teachers should make students aware to use speech acts, delivered with conscious intentions how a pragmatic act should undergo.

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Correlates of Working Conditions, Job Stress and Coping Mechanisms Among Working Mothers in an Urban Environment

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Biodata:

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Abstract

Numerous are studies about job stress and the factors that influence it but less are published among working mothers living in an urban environment. This study aimed to correlate job stress, working conditions, and coping mechanisms of working mothers living in an urban environment. Using an enhanced likert scale through a causal-comparative *ex post facto research design* among sampled working mothers living in an urban environment in the Philippines, it was found that the working mothers generally perceived their working conditions as 'good' and their job stress as 'moderate'. Significant findings of the study include a significant negative correlation between job stress and working conditions implying increasing job stress with worsening working conditions. Further, the study has found a significant multiple correlation coefficient establishing that job stress is influenced by working conditions and coping mechanism. Thus, are predictors of job stress level. Stress debriefing approaches and stress management programs are recommended to help working mothers in an urban environment enhance their coping mechanism to lessen the effect of job stress, especially when working conditions cannot be practically solved.

Keywords: *Job Stress, Working Conditions, Coping Mechanisms, Women, Urban*

Introduction

The world of work is changing rapidly but our concept about 'work' is not. Should we change a concept that is almost engraved in man's minds for quite a long time – that work is for men – needs re-evaluation at this present time. And one of the many ways to re-evaluate our perception is to involve research in the process. And involving research in the process is looking at all angles or variables that impact it in the first place. Women working in various types of labor force and the factors that affect their (women) working conditions are thus significant to understand.

According to Ford *et al.* (2007), it was originally believed that work and family are two distinct parts of life, but are not regarded by most societies as closely related, i.e. to balance work and to perform a role in the family have become a key personal and family issue. According to Smith as quoted by Ventayen (2017), a job is not only a main source of income but also an important component of life, and that work takes away a large part of each worker's day and also contributes to one's social standing. Further, according to Smith, because of the central role that work plays in many people's lives, satisfaction with one's job is an important component in overall well-being. Thus, this means that job satisfaction and working conditions are related.

Traditionally, according to Sevim, as quoted by Zarra-Nezhad (2010), the maintance of the family like home and childcare was the major responsibility of the women while to find food for the family (i.e. breadwinning) was the major responsibility of the men. He pointed out that with more and more women entering the workforce and pursuing careers, however, our clearly defined perceptions of gender roles were forced to change. This means that while working conditions and job satisfaction are generally held related by several studies in the past, to look into the conditions of women is another story.

Weston et al. (2018) found that there was a link between the increase of depressive symptoms of women and with the extra-long hours of work, while an association was found between increase depressive symptoms and with working during weekends for both genders, both of these were claimed to worsen mental health.

While several studies have already been conducted in job satisfaction, and several studies have already established correlations between job stress, working conditions and other variables, and gender has already been strongly used as one important factor in differentiating job stress, a gap in literature still exists – the literature is deplete of studies looking into women who are working in an urban environment, or in metro-city. In fact, one paper, Sharif and Nazir (2016) recognized that their research on job satisfaction level among working employees in a software industry that responses on their study were taken from only twin cities in Pakistan due to shortage of time, and acknowledged that results in other cities could be different.

Statement of the Problem

Generally, this study aimed to correlate the working conditions, job stress, and coping mechanisms of the working mothers in an urban working environment in one metro-city in the Philippines as well as identifying their personal profile and status to determine which is a predictor of stress in the workplace.

Specifically, it attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the profile of the working mothers with respect to
    a. age level;
    b. type of employment;
    c. occupation of the husband;
    d. family budget, and
    e. family size?
2. What is the status of the working mothers with respect to
    a. Working conditions in the workplace;
    b. Job stress, and
    c. Coping mechanisms?
3. Is there any significant difference among the working conditions, job stress level, and coping mechanisms with respect to:
    a. Age level:
    b. Type of employment;
    c. Occupation of husband;
    d. Family budget, and
    e. Family size?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the job stress experienced by the working mothers' and their
    a. Working conditions;

b. Coping mechanisms, and
c. Working conditions and coping mechanisms combined?

5. Which of the profile variables and working conditions are significant predictors of job stress in an urban environment?

Significance of the Study

The findings of the study would help open the eyes of family members to the sacrifices of working mothers make for the family and would enable them to make adjustments that will improve the welfare of the mothers. This will also make the employers of the working mothers more considerate, sensitive and supportive to the cause of their employees. The government may be enticed by the findings to legislate for the protection of the mother. To educators, the findings of the study could inspire curriculum revisions that will champion the cause of mothers as key members of society. To the working mothers themselves, the findings may boost their morale and motivate them to be more assertive in demanding for better working conditions, responsibility sharing, and respect in the workplace.

Methodology

The study employed causal-comparative or *ex post facto* research design. Stratified random sampling was utilized to determine the respondents of the study, whose population was determined through the Slovin's formula. The respondents were asked to accomplish the questionnaires which included the Professional Life Stress Scale (1989) design by Fontana of the British Psychological Society and Routledge Ltd in England to measure job stress and the Coping Scale design used by Bretner (1995) to measure coping mechanisms. Moreover, some indicators were derived from Liew, (2016) in the instrumentation. The use of indicators from studies and modification to fit te purpose of the study is similar to the work of Gamary & Batang (2019) which revised the instruments to fit the purpose of their study on textbook adaptation by teachers. The questionnaire was pilot-tested among a representative sample of respondents in one metro-city in the Philippines, similar to the protocol employed by Camara (2020). Data through the pilot-testing as well as expert validation on the questionnaire served as guide for the re-writing of the test instruments. The researcher personally administered the questionnaires to the respondents to ensure that instructions are personally read to them to avoid ambiguity in answering, as well as to provide assistance should the respondents request. The data were analyzed statistically through the SPSS with the help of a statistician.

Results and Discussion

Profile of the Working Mothers

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage of the Profile in Various Study Variables

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age Level	Young	46	22.4
	Middle	115	56.1
	Old	44	21.5
Total		205	100
Type of Employment	Support Staff	76	37.1
	Teacher	66	32.2
	Non-Teaching Prof	63	30.7
Total		205	100
Occupation of Husband	Manual/Non-pro	108	52.7
	Professional	40	19.5
	Managerial	57	27.8
Total		205	100
Family Size	Small	25	12.2
	Medium	152	74.1
	Large	28	13.7
Total		205	100

Table 1 generally shows that majority of the respondents are in their middle age (56.1%), are members of support staff (37.1%), have manual or non-professional occupation (52.7%), and with a medium-sized family (74.1%). Noting the huge number of mother-respondents who describe their employment as ‘support staff’, this suggests that they are helping their husband earn money for their daily living, and would prefer to not live with her family as plain wife only. In this context, ‘support staff’ refers to either non-teaching staff or non-professional, i.e. a support staff is not a teacher and not a professional, and perform other societal roles combined. While majority of women in their middle age are already working, Ventayen & Ventayen (2018) found that – as a support – majority of the students enrolled in one state university are women and are master’s degree holder, and are, in fact, pursuing their doctorate degrees.

Table 2

Mean and description of the Profile in terms of Sufficiency of Family Budget

Indicators	***Mean***	***Description***
1. Family budget is enough to provide for our daily needs.	2.2244	Sufficient
2. There is always room for unexpected expenses.	2.1463	Sufficient
3. After the month/week, there is still an amount left to save.	2.1463	Sufficient
4. It is the least of my worries.	1.8634	Sufficient
5. We can easily adjust the amount to accommodate un-programmed expenditures.	2.0829	Sufficient
Mean	**2.0380**	**Sufficient**

Table 2 generally reports that the family budget of the household as perceived by the working mothers is ‘sufficient’ for the family. This result in an urban environment is different when taken into the context of private higher institutions in which Ventayen (2017) found that the monetary concerns of the teacher-respondents are related to money, and that they said they are not happy with the monetary value which they are receiving monthly.

Status of Working Conditions of the Working Mothers

Table 3

Mean and description of the Status of Working Conditions of the Respondents

Indicators	***Mean***	***Description***
Good light and Ventilation	3.3171	Good
Sufficient working space	3.1756	Good
Complete working facilities	3.3268	Good
Clean and conducive to task Performance	3.3268	Good
Easily accessible from home	3.2537	Good
Friendly atmosphere	3.2098	Good
Assigned tasks are in accordance with educational qualification/technical skill	3.2049	Good
Worker participates in work Planning	3.1171	Good
Worker is given the opportunity to structure the place of work according to her	2.9707	Good
Worker is given the opportunity to participate in decision making	2.9610	Good
Worker is given vacation/sick/maternity leave benefits	3.3073	Good
Democratic and considerate Manager	3.3024	Good
Bonuses/other incentives Given	*3.3951*	*Good*
No life/health threatening Aspect of tasks	3.1024	Good
No discrimination in assignment of tasks	3.0585	Good
No discrimination in promotion/advancement	2.8488	Good
No discrimination in giving opportunity for professional advancement	3.0390	Good
Standard working hours	3.2732	Good
Holiday breaks	3.3366	Good
Supportive management	3.1463	Good

Medical services available	2.8782	Good
Sports/recreational activities held regularly	2.7024	Good
Briefing/orientation held whenever new tasks are assigned	2.9902	Good
Policies/information Properly disseminated	3.1415	Good
Salaries commensurate to position held/assigned task	*3.2341*	*Good*
Mean	**3.1319**	**Good**

Table 3 generally reveals that the working conditions of the working mothers in the urban environment is 'good'. This finding suggests that no problem generally exists in the workplace of the working mothers to merit any form of disappointment. As found in the table, indicators relative to monthly pay and bonuses ('bonuses/other incentives given' and 'salaries commensurate to position held/assigned task') are considered 'good' by the respondents. Recall that in Table 1, majority of the respondents are 'support staff'. To this group of respondents, bonuses and other incentives given refer to 'small tokens' of appreciation from their employers or bosses especially when profits are stable. This is to reward the workmanship and cooperation of the support staff, i.e. not teachers and not professionals, could be daily wage earners. This suggests that employers of working women in urban environment are generous and that business is generally profitable. However, Sharif & Nazir (2016) found that the most important factor that can impact job satisfaction, among others, is pay. They claimed that all employees work for money so that they can fulfill their desires. To support this differing scenario of Sharif & Nazir, and as earlier noted, Ventayen (2017) found that money is one primary problem among private higher educational institution. Monetary value was found to primarily motivate the college instructors to agree that they would look for a new job a year after as they quit their work. In viewing this sense of differing experiences among the working mothers of the study as respondents and that of Ventayen's, it must be noted that majority of the respondents of this study are support staff while those of Ventayen's are faculty members themselves.

The finding on the working conditions of the working mothers especially those indicators relative in terms of standard working hours and vacation are generally rated as 'good' because according to Weston et al. (2018) increased depressive symptoms were independently linked to working extra-long hours for women, and suggesting that these work patterns may contribute to worse mental health. This could be taken to believe that women working in urban environment start and end their work tasks according to prescribed time of their company or organization – they are time-bound.

Level of Job Stress of the Working Mothers

Table 4

Mean and description of the Status of Job Stress of the Respondents

Variable	Categories	Total No of respondents	Level of Stress	Interpretation
Age	Young	46	2.00	Moderate
	Middle	115	2.24	Moderate
	Old	44	2.18	Moderate
Employment	Support Staff	76	2.09	Moderate
	Teacher	66	2.26	Moderate
	Non-Teaching Prof.	63	2.19	Moderate
Family Size	Small	25	2.16	Moderate
	Medium	152	2.18	Moderate
	Large	28	2.18	Moderate
Occupation of Husband	Manual	108	2.13	Moderate
	Professional	40	2.23	Moderate
	Managerial	57	2.23	Moderate
Family Budget	Small	34	2.06	Moderate
	Average	124	2.19	Moderate
	Large	47	2.23	Moderate
Mean		205	**2.17**	**Moderate**

Table 4 reflects that the working mothers only have 'moderate' level of job stress in all variables measured and in all categories for each variable. This finding implies that the level of job stress experienced by, for example, the working mothers who are either young or old or in her middle age, are the same – moderate level. This is the same implication which could be inferred from the table in all other variables. The same result is found through the American Psychological Association in a 2016 survey, on a scale of one to ten, women described their stress levels as 5.1, compared to stress levels of 4.4 women, and while this comparative women-to-men stress level data show women to be more stressed out than men, it does still support (the 5.1/10) that the level of stress of women is suggestive to be 'moderate'.

Status of the Coping Mechanisms of the Working Mothers

Table 5

Mean and description of the Status of Coping Mechanisms of the Respondents

Indicators	**Mean**	**Description**
Confrontive Coping		
I did something which I didn't think would work, but at least I was doing something.	2.7317	Often
I tried to get the person responsible to change his/her mind.	2.8098	Often
I let my feelings out somehow.	2.8878	Often
I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem.	2.7659	Often
I took a big chance or did something very risky.	2.5512	Often
I stood my ground and fought for what I wanted.	2.7756	Often
Submean	*2.7537*	*Often*
Distancing		
I went along with fate; sometimes I just have bad luck.	2.4049	Seldom
I went on as if nothing had happened.	2.6341	Often
I looked for the silver lining so to speak; tried to look at the bright side of things.	2.9659	Often
I tried to forget the whole thing.	2.7317	Often
I didn't let it get to me; refuse to think about it too much.	2.6732	Often
I made light of the situation; refuse to get too serious about it.	2.7707	Often
Submean	*2.6967*	*Often*

Self-Controlling		
I tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat.	2.9024	Often
I tried to keep my feelings to myself.	2.7902	Often
I tried no to act too hastily or follow my first hunch.	2.8900	Often
I kept others from knowing how bad things were.	2.7707	Often
I tried to keep my feelings from interfering with other things too much.	2.8927	Often
I went over in my mine what I would say or do.	3.0488	Often
I thought about how a person I ad mire would handle the situation and used that as a model.	2.9951	Often
Submean	*2.8986*	*Often*
Mean	2.7830	Often

Table 5 establishes that the working mothers ‘often’ cope with the stress which they feel in their job – ‘moderate’ the stress may seem but the working mothers still look for measures to cope with it. The table reports that the working mothers ‘often’ use the three categories of coping mechanisms: confrontive coping, distancing, and self-controlling. This means that the use of coping mechanism is generally known to the respondents because they can ‘often’ use it to cope with stress. This suggests ‘balance’ between stress felt and coping measures among the working mothers.

Significant Difference with Working Conditions and Respondents’ Profile

Table 6

Means and Significance between Working Conditions and Respondents’ Profile

Variable	Compared Categories	No. of Cases	Means	Differences	Significance
Age	Young vs. Middle	46, 115	3.0157, 3.1896	.1739	.053
	Young vs. Old	46, 44	3.0157, 3.1027	.0871	.442
	Middle vs. Old	115,44	3.1896, 3.1027	.0868	.386
Type of Employment	Sup. Staff Vs. Teacher	76, 66	2.9732, 3.1970	.2238	.011*
	Sup. Staff vs. NT Prof.	76, 63	2.6432, 3.2552	.2821	.002*
	Teacher vs. NT. Prof.	66, 63	3.1970, 3.2552	.02582	.516
Occupation of Husband	Manual vs. Professional	108, 40	3.0785, 3.2000	.1215	.196
	Manual vs. Managerial	108, 57	3.0785, 3.1853	.1067	.210
	Professional vs. Managerial	40, 57	3.2000, 3.1853	.0147	.883
Family Size	Small vs. Medium	25, 152	3.0496, 3.1518	.1022	.326
	Small vs. Large	25, 28	3.0496, 3.0971	.0475	.732
	Medium vs. Large	152, 28	3.1518, 3.0971	.0547	.431
Family Budget	Large vs. Ave.	34, 65	2.957, 3.1094	.1517	.189
	Large vs. Small	34, 47	2.9576, 3.3174	.3598	.006*

Ave. vs. Small	124, 47	3.1094, 3.3174	.2081	.014*

Table 6 evidences the idea that no significant difference exists between the working conditions and the profile of the working mothers among the categories of the following variables: age, occupation of husband, and family size. A significant difference, based on the table, was found in the following variables: type of employment of the working mothers, and the sufficiency of the family budget. In terms of type of employment, the working mothers who are support staff are generally different in their view of their working conditions than the teacher-respondents and the non-professional respondents. In terms of sufficiency of family budget, those working mothers who have 'small' (or least sufficient) family budget differ in their view of their working conditions compared to those working mothers who either have 'large' (or sufficient) or 'average' (or less sufficient) family budget. While Table 3 generally reports 'good' perception of working conditions, still a significant difference exists which basically means that 'good' differs already considering type of employment and sufficiency of family budget.

Significant Difference with Job Stress and Respondents' Profile

Table 7

Means and Significance between Job Stress and Respondents' Profile

Variable	***Compared Categories***	***No. of Cases***	***Means***	***Difference***	***Significance***
Age	Young Vs. Middle	46, 115	23.0000, 20.1896	2.8174	.008*
	Young Vs. Old	46, 44	23.0000, 20.1955	2.7045	.023*
	Middle Vs. Old	115, 44	20.1896, 201955	.1128	.913
Type of Employment	Sup. Staff Vs. Teacher	76, 66	22.1184, 19.3182	2.8002	.005*
	Sup. Staff Vs. NT Prof.	76, 63	22.1184, 20.8889	1.2295	.264

	Teacher Vs. NT Prof.	66, 63	19.1382, 20.8889	1.5707	.182
Occupation of Husband	Manual Vs. Professional	108, 40	21.3796, 20.6000	.7796	.804
	Manual Vs. Managerial	108, 57	21.3796, 19.9825	1.3972	.196
	Professional Vs. Managerial	40, 57	20.6000, 19.9825	.6175	.651
Family Size	Small Vs. Medium	25, 152	21.6400, 20.8355	.8045	.535
	Small Vs. Large	25, 28	21.6400, 201429	1.4971	.348
	Medium Vs. Large	152, 28	20.8355, 20.1429	.6927	.563
Family Budget	Large Vs. Ave.	34, 124	21.1471, 21.3629	.2158	.877
	Large Vs. Small	34, 47	21.1471, 19.2340	1.9130	.223
	Ave. Vs. Small	124, 47	21.3629, 19.2340	2.1289	.042*

Table 7 accounts for no significant difference between job stress of the working mother respondents and their persona profile in terms of the following variables: occupation of husband and family size. Further, the table evidences a significant difference among the working mothers in the level of their job stress in terms of the following variables: age, type of employment, and family budget. In terms of age, this implies that those who are young differ in the level of their job stress compared to those who are middle-aged or already old. In terms of type of employment, those who work as support staff differ in their job stress compared with the teachers. Finally, in terms of family budget, those with small (or least sufficient) family budget differ in their level of job stress compared with those who have average (or less sufficient) family budget. According to

Yusuf (2016), gender, among other variables, has no significant influence on attitude to work, and conclude that demographic factors should be effectively managed in work organizations because they are important factors in work management.

Significant Difference with Coping Mechanisms and Respondents' Profile

Table 8

Means and Significance between Coping Mechanisms and Respondents' Profile

Variable	**Compared Categories**	**No. of Cases**	**Means**	**Difference**	**Significance**
Age	Young vs. Middle	46, 115	2.9024, 2.9131	.0007	.991
	Young vs. Old	115, 44	2.9024, 2.9103	.0079	.928
	Middle vs. Old	115, 44	2.9031, 2.9103	.0072	.928
Type of Employment	Support Staff vs. Teacher	76, 66	2.9057, 2.8705	.0352	.587
	Support Staff vs. NT Prof.	76, 63	2.9057, 2.9386	.0329	.636
	Teacher vs. NT Prof.	66, 63	2.8705, 2.9686	.0682	.295
Occupation of Husband	Manual vs. Professional	108, 40	2.8737, 2.9375	.0638	.399
	Manual vs. Managerial	108, 57	2.877, 2.9396	.0659	.274
	Professional vs. Managerial	40, 57	2.9375, 2.9396	.00221	.979
Family Size	Small vs. Medium	25, 152	2.9486, 2.9043	.0444	.533
	Small vs. Large	25, 28	2.9486, 2.8662	.0824	.432

	Medium vs. Large	152, 28	2.9043, 2.862	.0380	.671
Family Budget	Large vs. Ave.	34, 124	2.8476, 2.8615	.0139	.869
	Large vs. Small	34, 47	2.847, 3.0589	.2113	.043*
	Ave. vs. Small	124, 47	2.815, 3.0589	.1974	.008*

Table 8 discloses the idea of no significant difference between the coping mechanisms used by the working mothers in job stress and their profile in terms of the following variables**:** age, type of employment, occupation of husband, and family size. However, a significant difference was discovered in terms of family budget. Accordingly, there is a significant difference between how the working mothers cope with their stress by using the three categories of coping mechanisms among those with small (or least sufficient) family budget to both working mothers with large (or sufficient) family budget and average (or less sufficient) family budget. Comparing Table 8 and Table 5 (on coping mechanisms of working mothers), those with small (or least sufficient) family budget can 'often' use coping mechanisms.

Relationship Between Working Conditions, Job Stress, and Coping Mechanisms

Table 9

Correlates of Working Conditions, Job Stress, and Coping Mechanisms

Variables	***N***	***Job Stress***	
		Correlation	***Significance***
Working Conditions	205	-.264	.000*
Coping Mechanism	205	.058	.409
Working conditions and Coping Mechanisms Combined	205	R=.305, F=10.333, £=.000 *	

Table 9 firmly establishes that there is a significant negative relationship between job stress and working conditions at the 0.05 level of significance. It appears that if the working conditions are bad, the job stress is higher. The poorer the working conditions are of the working mother, the higher their job stress are.

The correlation of 0.058 between job stress and coping mechanism has a significance of 0.409. This indicates that there is no significant relationship between job stress and coping mechanism at the 0.05 level of significance. This could be because the job stress of the working mothers only moderate and thus, no conscious effort was probably exerted to cope with it.

The Multiple Correlation Coefficient of 0.305 produced an F-ratio of 10.333 with a significance of 0.000. This means that there is a significant relationship between job stress and the combination if working conditions and coping mechanisms. The job stress of the working mothers is significantly influenced by their growing conditions and coping mechanisms combined.

The significant relationship between working mothers conditions and job stress for working mothers accentuates the need to restructure or modify the working environment to compensate for their responsibilities in the home that they have to put up with aside from the working conditions prevailing in the workplace.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This paper concludes that, in an urban environment, the working conditions of working mothers are generally good and that their job stress is moderate. While statistical analyses have shown significant difference between the perception of working conditions among the working mothers in terms of their age, occupation of husband and family size – a significant negative relationship was still found which basically implies that as working conditions worsen, job stress increases. Further, while statistical analyses have shown that there is a significant difference among the working mothers in their coping mechanisms in terms of their age, type of employment, and family budget – no significant relationship was found between coping mechanisms and job stress which basically means that the difference basically does not result to any statistical relationship worthy of attention. However, the study found that, using multiple correlation, a significant relationship was found between job stress and the combined working conditions and coping mechanisms. This basically means that working conditions and coping mechanism both influence the job stress experienced by working mothers in an urban environment. Thus, predicting job stress level.

With all these conclusions, the researcher recommends to ensure that stress debriefing approaches are available to working mothers living in an urban environment. Stress management programs could be instituted to help working mothers reduce the effect of stress in their job. Wellness activities could be installed as well to help working mothers be on track in maintaining a healthy lifestyle.

Implications of the Study

Considering the findings, the study could impact future policies in labor employment in both government and non-government agencies or instrumentalities by ensuring that anti-stress protocols are formed part of their employment procedures, or that debriefing approaches would consider gender differences in its implementation.

Note on limitations of findings

The study's findings limit itself to working mothers living in an urban environment. While the researcher ensured that all range of 'working' mothers are represented in the study, the support staff, which generally excludes 'teachers' and 'other professionals', all other types of working conditions of working mothers are included in this catergoy including daily-wage earners. Future studies are encouraged to ensure that this category could be sub-divided to increase clarity among the parameters. Nonetheless, this study has very well represented the findings as regards to other types of working conditions.

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Rewriting *A Passage to India*: A Study of *Burnt Shadows*

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Abstract

The present research attempts to explore and analyse how the technique of intertextuality is employed in novel Burnt Shadows to interact with E.M Forster's novel A Passage to India. Intertextuality in literature pertains to a reference to a literary text within another literary text. While basing on the idea of interdependence of texts, it underscores the interrelationship between two literary texts and showcases how two texts interact or enter into a dialogue with each other through the medium of one of the literary texts which uses the reference of another text. A text does borrow ideas, allusions, phrases, references, themes, or characters from a prior text and transforms itself by either building on it, interrogating it, challenging it, altering perspective, showing interdependence or acclaiming it. Postcolonial writers effectively employ intertextuality in their texts or discourses by borrowing references or allusions from the "canonical Western" texts and thereby challenging and questioning the hegemony and supremacy of the Western writers and discourses by modifying or by subverting it, or both. This paper shall analyse the intertextual relationship between Kamila Shamsie's Burnt Shadows and E. M. Forster's A Passage to India

and it shall be attempted to establish how Burnt Shadows is an intertextual rewriting and reinterpretation of A Passage to India, in order to offer a postcolonial reading of the colonial times, sketched by Forester in his text.

Keywords: *Carnival, Dialogism, Intertextuality, Post-colonialism*. *Subversion*.

Introduction

> No poet, no artist of any art, has his complete meaning alone. His significance, his appreciation is the appreciation of his relation to the dead poets and artists. You cannot value him alone; you must set him, for contrast and comparison, among the dead. I mean this as a principle of aesthetic, not merely historical, criticism." (Eliot, 1992, p. 15).

The concept of sign propounded by Ferdinand de Saussure in his seminal work *Course in General Linguistics* bases the many modern literary theories(Al-Ghamdi, 2019). Saussure proposes that 'linguistic sign' is composed of dyadic aspects- the signifier and the signified. He claims that the signified is the concept that is understood through the signifier, which is a linguistic form. Saussure finds the relation between the two as essentially arbitrary which is underlined within social conventions. Therefore, he says that language is non-referential, which means that meaning of a text depends, not on the thought process of the writer or encoder but, on the interpretation of the decoder, who understands a literary text in relation to her/his surrounding linguistic structural patterns, cultural contexts, and the special literary systems. In this manner, Saussure leads one to hold that meaning of a text is materialized through, what Bakhtin says, relational processes and practices or "relational becoming" (**Robinson 2012**). This relational process becomes very important and unavoidable when a postcolonial readers or writers decodes a text to understand it or counter its colonial narrative, while relating it to their local "narratives which reflect their culture, history, myths, idioms, proverbs, heroes and ideological roots" (Yousafzai, 2018, p. 212). It creates, what Bakhtin says, carnivalesque state in "which diverse voices are heard and interact, breaking down conventions and enabling genuine dialogue. It creates the chance for a new perspective and a new order of things, by showing the relative nature of all that exists" (**Robinson,**

2011). The new perspective is not necessarily a deconstruction of the dominant culture. Rather, it's a positive alterative vision.

The Saussurian concept of sign is more explicated further by Bakhtin. He contends that there is a diversity of voices in a literary work that save it from the tyranny of "authoritative discourse" which limits the meaning of a text to the hegemony of the speaker/writer, who makes the addressee look at things the way the former wants the later. He says this raises the conflict. The conflict limits the diversity of meaning language of a text can offer if it's exposed to what he calls "heteroglossia", which means the diversity of voices, a text can offer in a social setting, based on the intentions, accents, tastes, professions, parties, generations, places and time:

> At any given moment of its historical existence, language is heteroglot from top to bottom: it represents the co-existence of socio-ideological contradictions between the present and the past, between differing epochs of the past, between different socio-ideological groups in the present, between tendencies, schools, circles and so forth, all given a bodily form. These languages of heteroglossia intersect each other in a variety of ways, forming new typifying languages" (Bell and Gardiner, 1998, p. 176).

Explication of a text on the bases of the preferences, kind of mentioned above, allows a text, he argues, to inexhaustible voices against the limited authoritarian discourse of the addresser. He says that "word is a two-sided act". It is "the product of the reciprocal relationship between" an addresser and addressee". He adds the concept of "social orientation" of an utterance and claims that the meaning is determined by who the addressee is and who is addressed. In this regard, he says that "[O]rientation of the word towards the addressee has an extremely high significance" (ibid, p. 127). Proprietorship of a word is partly that of the "undoubted possessor" (addressor) who speaks it. Then he adds that in "purely psychological terms…… possession doesn't apply". Because when "we take the implementation of a word as sign, then the question of proprietorship becomes extremely complicated as "[T]he immediate social situation and the broader social milieu wholly determine…… the structure of an utterance" which is implemented from human consciousness, formed by the social enterprise of a person. He emphasizes that "[T]he structure of the conscious, individual personality is just as social a structure as is the collective type of experience**"** (Denith, 1995, p. 127-9). The concept of meaning an utterance or a sign conveys through the participation of addresser, addressee and the social surrounding that gives a sign a particular meaning is the theory of dialogism by Bakhtin. It's later explicated rather disinterred by Julia Kristeva. She describes it as "as an open-ended play between the text of the subject and the text of the addressee" (1986, p. 34). She formulates the theory of Intertextuality while analyzing Bakhtin's dialogism.

Inseparability of a text from the larger cultural and social 'textuality' out of which the former is constructed forms the focal insistence of her theory. To her all texts do harbor the ideological patterns, structures, thought processes and struggles exhibited by a society through discourse. She elaborates Bakhtin's dialogism to emphasize the semiotic dual pattern and nature of language. She explains the production of meaning of a literary sign in terms of a horizontal dimension and a vertical dimension, as turns out to be a mediator and a link for them. In the horizontal dimension "the word in the text belongs to both writing subject and addressee". In "the vertical dimension 'the word in the text is oriented toward an anterior or synchronic literary corpus" (Kristeva, 1968, p. 38). The communication between author and reader is always partnered by communication or intertextual relation between poetic words and their prior existence in past poetic texts. Authors communicate to readers at the same moment as their words or texts communicate the existence of past texts within them. This recognition, that the horizontal and vertical axis of the text coincide within the work's textual space, leads on to a major re-description of Bakhtin's theory of the dialogic text which culminates in the new term, intertextuality. It's described as the communication in which the addressee with her/his social setting and cultural understanding is "included within a book's discursive universe only as discourse itself" (Kristeva, 1986, p. 38). The meaning of a text is the fusion of the discursive interaction of the two texts imbedded in two axis: "horizontal axis (subject–addressee) and vertical axis (text–context)". They do "coincide" in order to bring to "light an important fact":

> each word (text) is an intersection of word (texts) where at least one other word (text) can be read…… any text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation of another. The notion of intertextuality replaces that of intersubjectivity, and poetic language is read as at least double (Kristeva, 1968, p. 37-38).

Kristeva vociferously emphasizes the dialogic nature of a literary text. She considers that different social and cultural contexts of a text lend its language scope of being double-voiced. In another sense, it lends the text open to considerations of the reader with his understanding of the text in its relation to other texts and the social setting in which the text is produced and received. The 'text becomes independent of the author, who is rendered irrelevant as the culture and time contained in the text become independent of the subject matter' **(Robinson, 2012**). This idea is central to the classical definition of intertextuality.

Intertextuality brings forth how the two texts are inter-connected and that no text can have an independent meaning. Every text borrows ideas, references, allusions, phrases, themes, or characters from a prior text and transforms it by either building on it, interrogating it, challenging it, altering perspective, showing interdependence or acclaiming it. Postcolonial writers effectively employ intertextuality in their texts or discourses by borrowing references or allusions from the "canonical Western" texts and thereby challenging and questioning the hegemony and supremacy of the Western writers and discourses. "Postcolonial fiction writers deal with the traditional colonial discourse, either by modifying or by subverting it, or both" (Ashcroft, B., Griffiths, G., & Tiffin, H., 2002). Using intertextuality strategically, the postcolonial writers attempt to assert themselves by foregrounding the tension with the imperial power, and by emphasizing their differences from the assumptions of the imperial centre. Edward Said (1993), one of the most notable Orientalists expounds how a postcolonial writer responds to the imperial dominance through their texts:

> The postcolonial (*sic*) writers of the Third World therefore bear their past within them – as scars of humiliating wounds, as instigations for different practices, as potentially revised visions of the past trending toward a postcolonial future, as urgently reinterpretable and redeployable experiences, in which the formerly silent native speaks and acts on territory reclaimed as part of general movement of resistance, from the colonist." (Said, 1993, p. 212).

Through their texts, postcolonial writers show a resistance to the colonial marginalisation and interrogate, subvert and counter imperial oppression in a western text by rewriting and retelling their version of the text. Shamsie being a British-Pakistani writer makes her novel *Burnt Shadows* instrumental in turning Forster's canonical text *A Passage to India* upside down to represent a rebellion against the hegemony.

As it's established that a text is inseparable from the larger cultural and social context that serves as 'textuality' out of which the text is constructed and in which it's received forms the focal point of the arguments put forward above, this paper attempts to make intertextual reading of *Burnt Shadows* by Kamila Shamsie as an intertextual text of *A Passage to India* by E. M. Forster. It aims to re-read the two texts to underline the ideological patterns, structures, thought processes and struggles exhibited by society through the two texts. It is going to underline the semiotic dual nature of language in time. It's an analysis of a text that is oriented toward an anterior or synchronic literary corpus to underscore a new cultural landscape the two text try to offer. In this manner, it's going to be a communication of a meaning which is authored in partnership by a reader and an intertextual relation between textual words and references and their prior existence in past literary texts. Because a "text is a dynamic site". And it's understood "not as self-contained systems but as differential and historical, as traces and tracings of otherness, since they are shaped by the repetition and transformation of other textual structures". (Alfaro, 1996, p. 268).

In *Burnt Shadows,* Shamsie employs the technique of obligatory intertextuality, which is defined as the writer's self-conscious, deliberate and intentional attempt at invoking a comparison between the two texts. It refers to the ways in which the production and reception of a given text depend upon the participant's knowledge of other texts. John McLeod analysed some postcolonial literary texts that re-read and re-write the received literary texts in a new light. McLeod (2000) points out that, "The re-interpretation of 'classic' English literary works has become an important area of postcolonialism" (p. 139). He concludes that the postcolonial re-writing does much more than merely filling in the gaps perceived in the source texts. Rather it enters into a productive critical dialogue with the source text. The postcolonial writers take on the language of the imperials and modify it by inducting their native dialects and versions and thus use the imperial language as a tool to expose the misrepresentation of the subaltern people and their culture.

Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths, and Helen Tiffin address the issue of employment of language in *The Empire Writes Back* (1989). Ashcroft, et al, explore the ways in which postcolonial writers encounter a dominant, colonial language. They describe a two-part process through which writers in the post-colonial world displace a standard language (denoted with the capital "e" in "English") and replace it with a local variant that does not have the perceived stain of being somehow sub-standard, but rather reflects a distinct cultural outlook through local usage. The terms they give these two processes are "abrogation" and "appropriation". Abrogation is a rejection of the categories of the colonial culture, "its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or 'correct' usage, and its assumption of a traditional and 'fixed' meaning 'inscribed' in the words".

Appropriation is the process of reconstructing, capturing and remoulding the language of the centre without the marks of colonial privilege, by which it is "made to "bear the burden" of one's own cultural experience … Language is adopted as a tool and utilized to express widely differing cultural experiences" (p. 38-39). As a post-colonial text, Shamsie's novel employs urdu/vernacular words to represent cultural practices and objects with no correspondents in English. She deliberately inducts urdu references to clothes like *Shalwar Kameeze, Kurta- Shalwar,* locations like *moholla,* and emotional terminologies like *ghum-khaur, udaas, uljhan,* and *manhoos,* etc. the intertextual aspect of the book is made emphatically hoarse, as it attempts to "make a sense of cultural difference". It "creates a sense of foreignness in the text" (Nyman, 2011, p. 112) as it paints a new emotional landscape different from the one, presented normally by the imperial text. *Burnt Shadows* covers a wide space of history from the Second World War to Guantanamo Bay. It traces the final days of the Second World War in Japan, and India before Partition in 1947. It also talks about Pakistan in the early 1980s, New York in the aftermath of 11 September and Afghanistan in the wake of US bombing spree. All this is set around the stories of two families who join individuals of several different nationalities and several cross- cultural relationships. (Duce, 2011, p. 6). Shamsie's section dealing with India before Partition in 1947 will be specifically discussed in this paper for its usage of Forster's *A Passage to India* as an intertext. The paper will analyse how Shamsie uses variations as well as continuities in her novel *Burnt Shadows* vis a vis Forster's canonical text. It will be studied as to how the perspective of a Western author (E.M. Forster) differs in projecting India in its colonised setting from that of an Asian writer (Kamila Shamsie), and how Shamsie's dealing of colonised-coloniser dialectic or East-West encounter poses a challenge to Forster's relationship of colonised and the coloniser.

Shamsie like Forster in the initial section of her novel begins by describing the Indian city of pre-independence era. While Forster opens his novel by describing an imaginary city Chandrapore, Shamsie talks about the real place – Delhi. Forster's Chandrapore is cited as capable of "presenting nothing extraordinary" "except for the Marabar Caves" (Forster, 1952, p. 9). In Chandrapore as Forster describes "[T]he streets are mean, [T]emples ineffective", "Chandrapore was never large or beautiful", "houses do fall, people are drowned and left rotting, but the general outline of the town persists, swelling here, shrinking there, like some low but indestructible form of life". The outline sketch of the imaginary Indian city of Chandrapore is described by an omniscient narrator who is probably echoing the Western author's point of view, thereby giving a foreigner's view to the place, labelling it as a very mundane place where no beauty exists except that of a "few fine houses" of imperial people living there. Shamsie uses Forster's novel's intertext in her initial section and undercuts Forster's version of the Indian city by celebrating the description of the real Indian city - Delhi of pre-independence era, which is seen and described through Sajjad's - a native's- perspective. Sajjad is no outsider unlike Forster's omniscient narrator who holds no attachment or sense of belonging to the city. Sajjad proudly emphasises his belongingness to the city by describing it as "his city", which he describes as "the rhythmically beating heart of cultural India". At the same time Sajjad is also aware of the demarcations and separations that have occurred in the city owing to the presence of the divisive British imperial rule. He cycles his way through the city and looks for a "celestial point" where Dilli becomes Delhi, the city of the British Raj (rule):

> Yes, there, there was the boundary of Dilli and Delhi. There, where the sky emptied – no kites dipping towards each other, strings lined with glass; and only the occasional pigeon from amidst the flocks released to whirl in the air above the rooftops of the Old City where Sajjad's family had lived for generations (Shamsie, 2009, p. 21).

This reference to demarcations and separations is something that Shamsie lifts directly (without questioning) from Forster's text and uses this theme in continuation with Forster's text. Forster's Chandrapore like Shamsie's Delhi is divided into two sections, one for the natives and the other for the imperialists. The Anglo-Indians or the English live on the higher grounds of the city and have an elite and refined infrastructure, which is "sensibly planned", "it has nothing hideous in it" and the "view is beautiful" and it shares nothing with the section of the city where the natives live except for the overarching sky (Shamsie, 2009, p. 10). Shamsie plays on this theme of demarcations and separations between the native Indians and the British, sometimes interrogating Forster's perspective and at other times complying with his version. Like Forster, Shamsie also tries to explore the question of possibilities for any true cross-cultural friendship between the coloniser and the colonised.

The beginning scenes in both the novels show the native protagonists cycling their way to meet their English masters. Forster shows Dr. Aziz summoned in the middle of his meals by Surgeon Major Callendar. Dr. Aziz rides his bicycle furiously, in a foul mood to civil lines to meet Callendar and on mid-way clumsily leaves aside his cycle when its tyre goes flat. He then takes a tonga and reaches Callendar's bungalow, fearing a "gross snub" and humiliation for walking in late. Shamsie portrays Sajjad as the native joyfully cycling his way through "his city" Dilli, his ancestral land, which is "the rhythmically beating heart of India". Shamsie empowers Sajjad to don the role of a surveyor or an investigator as he paddles his way from his homeland Dilli to the imperial Delhi to check how things have changed under the British Raj. He states: "At home in Dilli but breaking free of the rest of my flock to investigate the air of Delhi" (Shamsie, 2009, p. 21). Unlike Dr. Aziz who is angry and scared of his master Major Callendar, Sajjad is confident and optimistic about his relationship with Delhi and his master James Burton: the confident air of a man of twenty-four who has never known failure – and instead fixed his attention on the beige cashmere jacket from Savile Row, running his hands along its length with sensuous pleasure (Shamsie, 2009, p. 22). Whereas Dr. Aziz finds his master gone, Sajjad receives a warm reception by James Burton. "James smiled at the sight of the young man in his perfectly fitted jacket." (Shamsie, 2009, p. 23). Forster's portrayal of Dr. Aziz's relationship with Major Callendar is harsh and full of rigid disparities. Shamsie on the other hand, attempts at portraying Sajjad's relationship with his imperial master to be slightly more flexible, less rigid, dynamic and friendly. Sajjad indeed becomes "priceless" and "invaluable" for his master who holds immense admiration for him for their engaging chess sessions and conversations on books, poets, writers and life.

> 'Don't believe me?' James said. When Sajjad merely smiled and shrugged, James put a hand on his arm. 'I don't know any man more capable.' …... It was not so much for the compliment itself – Sajjad had no need of those from anyone – but for James's way of compressing a complicated matrix of emotion, one that encompassed the relationship of ruler–subject, employer–employee, father–son, chess-player–chess-player, into the word 'capable'. (Shamsie, 2009, p. 26)

Forster's Bridge Party, which is organised to bridge the gap between the West and the East only works to widen the gap. Mr Turton, the Collector reinforcing the disparities, says: "I refuse to shake hands with any of the men, unless it has to be the Nawab Bahadur." (1952, p. 41). And in the same line, Mrs Turton reminds Mrs Moore: "You are superior to them, anyway. Don't forget that. You're superior to everyone in India except one or two of the Ranis and they're on an equality." (1952, p. 42).

The City Magistrate – Ronny Heaslop's mother Mrs Moore and his fiancé Miss Quested display relatively pleasant and open-minded disposition towards Indians and take initiatives to build friendly bond with them in the bridge party. Shamsie likewise portrays Hiroko Tanaka, a Japanese woman who comes to Delhi to start a new life post Nagasaki bombing trauma. Hiroko is a liberal, gentle and kind-hearted woman who has no prejudices or any preconceived notions about cultures, religions or race. If there are any prejudices, misunderstandings or notions of discrimination, they are practiced by the characters of the West – James Burton and Elizabeth Weiss. Shamsie has brought a kind of alternative view. She has introduced an outsider, Hiroko, to look at the things which are native. As she is not from a colonial relationship to India she doesn't treat Indians as low or inferior. She is from the East, rather than the West, the colonial world. She embraces the culture on the basis of equality, rather than on binary relationship.

In another sense, it can be inferred that Shamsie seems to be trying to highlight the East/West colonial encounter, in which the Eastern people were discriminated and looked down by the Western colonial masters, through the presentation of Hiroko, an Eastern one, as a foil to underscore the unjust colonial system. She seems to be sometimes endorsing Forster's view that the East and West can't be friends. Because of their colonial relationship, which is primarily based on inconsiderate discrimination, injustice and inequality. Shamsie very subtly and ironically underscores the wryness about the situation when Sajjad replies Elizabeth about the picnic information to a historical place in India, Qutb Minar, "[M]y history is your picnic ground" (2009, p. 58). Shamsie rewrites Forster's tale of expedition to see the real India, undercutting several aspects as projected in the canonical text. Just as Adela Quested of Forster desires to see the "real India" and asks Dr. Aziz to take them to Marabar Caves, likewise Shamsie's Hiroko conveys her desire to Sajjad "to see your Delhi…. Would you take me there some day?" (2009, p. 56). Sajjad though acquires much better treatment than other subordinate natives in the Burton house but because of race or social class or his status as an employee, he can never be a true friend or equal.

> Last evening, when James Burton had whispered, 'Tomorrow morning we're all going to see Sajjad's Delhi,' she had felt her face stretch into a smile that didn't seem possible. His world wasn't closed to outsiders! The Burtons weren't entirely resistant to entering an India outside the Raj! And she, Hiroko Tanaka, was the one to show both Sajjad and the Burtons that there was no need to imagine such walls between their worlds. Konrad had been

> right to say barriers were made of metal that could turn fluid when touched simultaneously by people on either side. (Shamsie, 2009, p. 58)

Shamsie's female protagonist Hiroko functions as a binding force in the novel, able to develop amicable and meaningful relationships with people across all cultures and races. After arriving from Japan, the words of her dead fiancé remain her guide and inspiration in her environment. Konrad warned her against trusting anyone in Delhi except Sajjad. Her trust and admiration for Sajjad invites resistance from the British couple – James Burton and his wife Elizabeth. The contemporary thinker Huntington comments on the tense and unfriendly treatment the British use in dealing with their Indian subjects as " Second hand citizens on their own Land." (Huntington, 1993, p. 22). Shamsie shows how the expedition to Qutb Minar is an enriching experience wherein Sajjad apprises Anglo-Indians and Hiroko with pride, eloquence and confidence about the glorious history of Qutb-ud-din Aibak's dynasty (intertwining his family history with this grand history) and the valour of Razia Sultan. Sajjad even mocks his foreign companions for treating his 'history as their picnic ground'. Shamsie bestows Sajjad's character with a sense of empowerment, which comes from the pride, the knowledge and the sense of belongingness he has of his nation's cultural history. This makes him take complete control of the expedition.

Postcolonial writers have been particularly very effective in disinterring the history and culture they belong to. Not only do they give a fine portrait of their societies, but they also de-mythicize their culture and society which has been presented by the colonial writers as dumb and backward. Forster offers his central character doctor, who ironically, is oblivious of his own surroundings and culture. Forster, implicitly seems to imply that this doctor needs to be 'educated' and taught the importance of once culture, which Indians, like Dr. Aziz, although qualified enough to be doctor, don't know. Dr. Aziz, who takes Mrs. Moore and Adela Quested on an expedition to Marabar Caves hardly has any potent knowledge of the historical significance of the place. Moreover, Aziz has never himself visited the caves and he seems to be as clueless about the historical place as the Westerners. The cave is depicted as an incomprehensible and mysterious place of which no clear history is interpreted by Dr. Aziz. His elaborate preparation (elephants, chairs, breakfast, drinks, etc.) for the comforts and pleasures of the Westerners makes it more like an affair of sycophancy rather than a tour which could have glorified Indian cultural history for the Westerners. Forster's depiction of Dr. Aziz, during the expedition, is that of a subordinate to the English who is simply serving them to suit their whims and fancies. Dr. Aziz's status by the end of the trip is reduced further, with his reputation tarnished due to the false allegation of sexual molestation by Adela Quested.

On the contrary, Shamsie depicts the expedition to Qutb Minar as the point that ends up intensifying love between Hiroko and Sajjad, though after a brief misunderstanding cropped up by Elizabeth who brings in the topic of Sajjad's marital plans hurting Hiroko. However, it is the very next morning after the expedition that Hiroko's trust and love in Sajjad strengthens as she unbuttons her blouse and shows Sajjad the scars on her back and with emotional proximity confides in him her own apprehensions and life. Though the expedition ultimately results in bringing Sajjad close to Hiroko, this episode also depicts heightening of tensions between the coloniser and the colonised. The intimate scene is inappropriately misunderstood by the Burtons who think Sajjad as a rapist just as Dr. Aziz was misunderstood in *A Passage to India*. Here, Shamsie draws a parallel between the Western view of the local people. Forster mystifies the incident of cave, in which he delineates natives as uncivilised and capable of sexual predation. At the same time the court acquits the doctor for being innocent. But yet Forster presents the incident in a way that doesn't unequivocally acquits the local culture of the ambiguity and mystery with which he glosses the whole incident.

Orientalism by Edward Said, argues that, Western literature, exoticized and mystified the East almost always. Indeed, it, Barry says, becomes "the repository or projection of those aspects of themselves which Westerners do not choose to acknowledge". The East is represented as savage and 'seductive', carrying all the dark traits of humanity, such as cruelty, decadence, and unbridles sensuousness, as opposed to the West being portrayed as civilized, rational and reasonable, therefore superior. (Barry, 2009, p. 192; Walder, 1990, p. 236; Said, 1993, p. 11). Sajjad being utterly disillusioned with mind-set and behaviour of the English couple towards him decides to leave his job, as he was falsely suspected to have sexually predating Hiroko. Summarising all frustration at the wrong opinion the English couple developed about him, he states with much self-respect "I am done with the English" (2009, p. 105). He would be seen to a great extent equal to the English people. However, he would continue with them as a kind of subordinate at the Burtons because of a dream that he would one day practice law as an apprentice to the advocate Burtons for having no academic degrees required for a barrister, or an advocate independent of Burtons with the experience and knowledge attained at the Burtons.

The novel culminates the misunderstood intimate moment between Sajjad and Hiroko with two outcomes. Firstly, it does reinforce what Forster argued in *A Passage to India* that friendship or intimacy between the coloniser and the colonised is impossible. It exposes the underlying tension, mistrust and prejudice between the English colonisers and the Indian colonised. Secondly, the episode strengthens the relation between Hiroko and Sajjad undercutting and challenging the view and the will of the English colonisers who do not support mingling of people of two different races to an extent of getting married. Taking the second outcome further, Shamsie empowers Sajjad and Hiroko to take control of their lives, without succumbing to any colonial pressure, challenging the hegemonic ambitions of colonialism of subduing the colonised or the other. Here Sajjad and Hiroko being Asians are "other" or "colonised" for the English and they emerge powerful enough to voice their feelings, and take practical steps to resist colonial perspectives and oppression. In the representations of imperialism, Western values are often contrasted against the hostile environments in the colonies (Ashcroft, et.al, 2002, p. 19). This has been shown as an "encounter between the civilized and the wild" (Marrouchi, 1999, p. 29), something that Sartre calls "racist humanism". Sartre argues that Europeans have been able to become men through the creation of slaves and monsters in other cultures. That's what Said says that through the misrepresentation of the orient, the West was able to define itself good and human, while as the Orient is presented opposite to all that positive what for the west is shown to be standing for. Sartre says that the West has always portrayed that there is "a race of less-than-humans" on the other side of the ocean, who will reach the West, culturally and morally, in thousands of years. There was a resistance from those 'less than humans' of these native lands. And the native populations of those countries revealed their true nature. This made the Western "exclusive 'club' reveal its weakness….. Worse than that: since the others become men in name against us (the West), it seems that we are the enemies of mankind………… nothing more than a gang" (2015, p. 13).

Forster's expedition to the Marabar Caves ends up tragically and completely ruins the relationship between the natives and the imperials. Adela Quested's hallucinatory experience makes her falsely blame Dr. Aziz of molesting her inside the cave. Adela's hallucinatory experience in the cave is so intense that she loses sense to understand what exactly happened to her inside and what caused her to become physically bruised and psychologically wrecked. Her assumption that she must have been sexually molested by Dr. Aziz comes from her prejudiced and racist mind-set against the native Indians whom Westerners think as inferior race, capable of vulgarity and depravity. The cave being a site specific to the natives, becomes associated with “otherness”. Forster’s presentation itself owes to the perception, typical of the West, of the ‘East as exotic and mysterious place. Adela is unable to relate to its incomprehensible, complex and closed atmosphere and thus accuses Dr. Aziz for her condition. The English policemen McBryde feels Dr. Aziz should not be forgiven for his deed. He, so quickly blames the Indians as all the colonialists did. “Quite possible, …. when an Indian goes bad, he goes not only very bad, but very queer” (Forster, 1952, p. 177). He claims he has never been surprised by Indians. For him “the unfortunate natives (Indians) are criminal at heart” because they “live south of latitude 30”. He adds that they shouldn’t be blamed as “they have not a dog’s chance” and the English would be like them if they settle in India (Forster, 1952, p. 148). It’s is in no way surprising when he proselytises that Indian culture with such base analogies. Mr. Burton states that he has “never known anything but disaster result when English people and Indians attempt to be intimate socially” (Forster, 1952, p. 182). Dr. Aziz’s trial makes him repulsive towards the English. This accusation of rape on Dr. Aziz brings strong resistance from the Indian masses towards the English. Said in his *Culture and Imperialism* propounds that Forster “intended the gulf between India and Britain to stand” and “we are entitled to associate the Indian animosity against British rule that is displayed during Aziz's trial with the emergence of a visible Indian resistance” (Said, 1993, p. 201)

The portrayal of power relations, mistreatment of the colonised by the colonisers and the misrepresentation of the native culture is a typical feature of colonial literature. Postcolonial literature has been serving as a foil to it. Shamsie’s is a good example in this regard. It brings her fiction in line with post-colonial writings. In her presentation of the colonizer- colonized dialectics in *Burnt Shadows* she reinterprets several instances and episodes from Forster’s *A Passage to India* through a post-colonial’s lens. The episode of false allegations of sexual molestation is re-written by Shamsie. In *Burnt Shadows*, it is again the Westerns – Elizabeth Weiss and James Burton – who misinterpret a moment of tenderness as an act of sexual molestation by Sajjad, owing to their resistance towards a mixed-race relationship and prejudice towards a native Indian. This echoes Forster’s episode of all whites reinforcing that Adela was surely raped by the Indian native, Dr. Aziz.

In *Burnt Shadows* however, an Asian, Hiroko is the one to trust Sajjad without fail and willingly develops a loving relationship with him. Shamsie has ingeniously shaped the character of Hiroko who is an outsider as well as an insider for India. She is an outsider because she does not belong to India and is a Japanese woman. But the fact that she is an Asian and hails from a background of tragedy of Nagasaki, thus she shows affiliations and regard for the Indian – Sajjad undergoing the tragedy of colonial oppression. She deals with Sajjad without doubt and suspicion, believing the advice of her dead fiancé Konrad who had told her when he was alive that the only person to whom she could see and meet in Delhi was Sajjad Ali Ashraf. Hiroko comes to India with open mind, takes a deep interest in the Indian culture and adapts well to it. Though dissuaded by Burtons, she expresses her desire to learn the native language – Urdu and successfully learns to speak and write it. She grows fond of Sajjad, is not doubtful to trust him and shares her most personal memories with him. On the contrary, it is Elizabeth, the Westerner who is full of suspicion with regard to Sajjad and thinks he has raped Hiroko. Hiroko's refusal to join Burtons to England after India's independence and her marriage with Sajjad comes across as the candid act of resistance and subversion of the imperial notions of superiority, racism and civilised. Hiroko chooses to stay with Sajjad, shares his pain of partition, relates her victimisation of Nagasaki bombing to Sajjad's victimisation of partition, which like the former tragic incident is the making of the West. Her oriental affiliations further strengthen Hiroko's stand to be with him. *Burnt Shadows* offers a counter-narrative to the colonial text by Forster.

In his research work, "Narrative and Counter-narrative in Pakistani English Novel", Gulzar Jalal Yousafzai (2018) submits how the psychological phenomena like hysteria, claustrophobia, hallucination, inferiority complex and superstition have been used in Forster's narrative. Yousafzai states that *A Passage to India* focusses on the age Occidental attitude and percentage about the Orientals as "lazy", "slack" and "victims of superstitions". Yousafzai is actually elaborating what Edward Said argues that the West is describing the Orient with negative and derogatory epithets because it helps it to define itself as positive. Forster while describing the Orient as with negative qualities, has ironically, inserted hallucination as a psychological phenomenon, to expose the western colonial enterprise. The behaviour of Adela is ascribed due to Hallucination. It's a phenomenon caused by extreme stress, which once experienced through criticism, derogation and rejection is again experienced externally in a paranoid manner, even though "no one is there" and "nothing has happened" (Yousafzai, 2018, p. 20282). Shamsie presents a psychologically whole and healthy self through Hiroko in sharp contrast to the schizophrenic self of Adela Quested. She doesn't feel contradictions and paranoid. Shamsie invests in Hiroko the capabilities and qualities to accept and withstand the tough times of Partition in India. Hiroko is inclined to embrace the culture to which Sajjad belongs by happily making adjustments and compromises and does not feel claustrophobic in the new atmosphere. Shamsie projects Hiroko (an outsider in India just like Adela Quested) as a competent woman who is strong and sensible enough to handle the Indian environment and traumas like Partition and dislocation with perseverance and strength. Hiroko overcomes psychologically disturbing events of the time, without being critical or without responding in any damaging way as Adela Quested does in Forster's novel. She learns Urdu quickly and uses it to communicate with Sajjad, besides communicating in English. This multilingual form of communication implies her ability and willingness to compromise and adapt. She speaks in English to James and German to Elizabeth, demonstrating the ability of language to forge bonds of understanding between divergent groups, an indication of how women are able to prove themselves in any community despite all difficulties. Adela and Mrs Moore on the other hand are the English women in *A Passage to India* who can't speak any native language. This is reflective of their social distance and cultural indifference for Indians, whom they consider as "other".

While the colonial texts highlighted the polarised world of discrimination and victimization, postcolonial texts do often subvert this trend. They do often serve as a counter narrative to the former one. They do present an inclusive society in which people do suffer not because of forced polarization but because of the usual complexities and difficulties of life. *Burnt Shadows* foregrounds a very positive picture of society of human endeavours who try to make sacrifices for each other and defend each other like shields. Hiroko is constructive and nurturing as she makes a home with Sajjad, gives birth to a child, earns a living by being a teacher and carries forward a family life with composure. Whereas Adela Quested comes across as a fragile, idiosyncratic and incompetent woman, who not only ends up destroying Dr. Aziz's reputation, but also brings upon self-mockery after admitting Aziz's innocence in trial, thus lowering her self-esteem and fleeing to England after Ronny Heaslop breaks marriage with her. Hiroko is Shamsie's portrayal of the Orient, whereas Adela belongs to Forster's Occident. What we understand in *Burnt Shadows* is that Shamsie projects Orient as endowed with superior qualities and strength of character, capable enough to handle psychologically disturbing situations sensibly and with determination, without being escapists. To sum up, Shamsie's Hiroko blatantly challenges Forster's imperial character of Adela and this is how in one of the many ways that Shamsie successfully turns Forster's text upside down.

It needs documentation that both the texts are replete with annoying and unpleasant scenes. What makes the postcolonial text of *Burn Shadows* different from the Colonial text of Forster is that it foregrounds the positive relationships. Otherwise we do have some characters in *A Passage to India* also who throw the polarising and exclusive demarcations and consideration to the dogs, without any consideration in favour of humanity. But that’s not foregrounded. It has, apparently, made it a kind of political document. While *Burnt Shadows* foregrounds the relationships between the people of the different cultures and has put the destruction and politics in the background. It presents the East and the West co-existing and living together with much understanding and consideration for each other though Ashrafs of the East and Burtons of the West. Whereas Forster keeps it black and white by showing the English colonisers as the oppressor, ‘superior’ and full of racial prejudices against oppressed and ‘inferior’ Indians, Shamsie paints her picture of the Eat and the West as complex and grey without and fixed divisions. Shamsie explores the complexities between the colonised and the coloniser and at several instances attempts to show the relationship between the two full of flux, sometimes friendly and trustworthy whereas at other times bitter and full of suspicion. By doing so, Shamsie tries to make scope for reconciliation and solidarity between the English and the Asians, something which Forster’s novel completely fails at. The experience between the two families - Ashrafs and Burtons - is extended beyond India’s partition (goes on from 1947 to 2001 and further) and in course of that as Adriana Kiczkowski expounds, “throughout different countries and by means of diverse geopolitical transformations, each of the families ends up being essential for the other, sometimes as support and at other times as a genuine burden and punishment.”. “The bonds of solidarity and friendship between the two families constitute a basic structure that allows them to subsist and survive the vicissitudes they have to endure” (2016, p. 129). So here Shamsie is trying to posit that the relationship between the colonised and the coloniser, which changes into the neo-colonised and the neo-colonised later is rather complex, it not only about oppression, suspicion and subjugation, but the relationship also hints at situations of cohabitation, cooperation, and companionship in globalised spaces.

The ending of Forster’s novel highlights the failure of reconciliation and solidarity between the colonised - Dr. Aziz and the coloniser - Fielding. The two men contemplate and make attempts on the possibility of a lasting friendship between them. But Forster prefers to go against this possibility by symbolically showing how the horses, the sky and the earth make way for the parting of Aziz and Fielding. Shafique and Yaqoob interpret it as “the very spirit of the Indian earth, Forster believes, tries to keep men in compartments, and in the final sentence of the novel the sky and earth together are pictured as conspiring against mutual understanding". (Shafique & Yaqoob, 2012, p. 483).

The novel, as Malcolm Bradbury points out, "… ends on a discouragement to the human relationships" (Bradbury, 1970, p. 19). Shamsie rewrites this last scene of Forster's novel in the middle of her novel and makes James Burton critical of Forster's ending. She depicts James Burton missing Sajjad after Sajjad leaves his work on account of being held falsely suspicious by Burtons for sexually molesting Hiroko. Thereafter a long gap, James Burton feels elated to see Sajjad entering his house and calling his name. Burton moves forward to see him, addresses him as "dear fellow" and enquires why he has not brought a chessboard with him. Sajjad still upset over his treatment and false accusation by the Burtons clarifies he has not come to return to his duties. Sensing Sajjad's repulsion, Burton says,

> I just read *A Passage to India* . . . Ridiculous book. What a disgrace of an ending. The Englishman and the Indian want to embrace, but the earth and the sky and the horses don't want it, so they are kept apart (Forster, 1952, p. 111).

The statement by James Burton reflects his personal guilt as well as condemnation of Forster's presentation of the unworkable gaps between the British and the Indians. James Burton makes a quick apology after this statement and accepts him and his wife Elizabeth being wrong in implicating Sajjad falsely in relation to Hiroko. Sajjad is amazed at how Burton took many months to realise this and apologise. Sajjad emphasises that the problem between them is not a matter of racial differences. There are other factors that deepen and feed the differences. Sajjad puts the matter as follows, " You are right. It's not a question of nation. It's one of class. You would have apologized if I'd been to Oxford" (Shamsie, 2009, p. 111). Sajjad's statement introduces new facets into colonised- coloniser relationship and indicates its deepening complexities. This aspect highlighted in this sentence is something which is practically universal in its scope, not specific to the East and West. Shamsie seems to be working on practicalities rather fantastical presumptions of racial and political boundaries.

To sum up, as a postcolonial writer, Kamila Shamsie uses the intertext of Forster's *A Passage to India* to bring in the perspective of the marginalised to the mainstream and depict a version of Indians and Asians which was never depicted by the earlier text. Shamsie's *Burnt Shadows* exposes the biased representation of the Asians by the Western authors, denounces colonialism and racism, and makes attempts to reclaim the past of the colonised, retrieve their lost voice and identity. Through the novel, she tries to erode the colonialist ideology by which the past of the colonised has been devalued. Shamsie has remained successful in putting forth the episodes of colonised-coloniser relationship, rape accusation, portrayal of pre-independent India, expedition to an Indian cultural space, and Forster's novel's ending through an unprejudiced perspective that restores the self-esteem and identity of the colonised. The coloniser in *Burnt Shadows* has been given a voice, a standpoint and a command over the situations and through his/her acts the coloniser poses challenge to the opinions and actions of the coloniser. This was something that Forster had invariably denied in his text by depicting the status of the coloniser as superior and oppressive against the colonised who was delineated as a, victim of suppression and subjugation and sexual predator. She re-writes Forster's novel with a new understanding and insight to answer back every mis-portrayal and the mystification by Forster. This intertexting has not only given a new insight and understanding of the two texts, it has, through a dialogical process, enabled a reader to question and reinterpret the texts. It has helped the reader to deconstruct, disrupt and change the fixed patterns of a meaning of a text. The reader is demanded to be an active producer of meaning to come up with new perspectives, new insights and outlooks.

Pedagogical Implications

Colonial encounter brought various cultures in confrontation to each other. Although, a division is quiet clear, but the schism is often irrelevant when the interconnectedness of various cultures is focussed, in a postcolonial setting. On the one hand, the importance of the colonial legacy is stressed. On the other hand, the indigenous space which has been transformed into a postcolonial culture "offers a rich site for the study of both influence and intertextuality" (Trivedi, 2007). Creative writers are tasked to weave 'their native rhymes of a culture and a society of one's own, in a language and medium that's not one's own' (Nayak 2004), to refute the colonial projection, that has disfigured a native image for some reason. In this manner, the postcolonial writing, rewrites the colonial text to exercise a literary influence on the colonial masters, in order to reverse the essentializing discourse (Tilwani 2013) of the West. The postcolonial writers through an intellectual approach document their response in a more complex manner not only to highlight the inner sense and sensibility of the local culture but the intertextuality of colonial texts. This paper has aimed to highlight this idea with the proper explication of the deep thematic patterns of the novel, *Burnt Shadows*, in order to underline how a postcolonial texts offers a different hermeneutic value to a native setting or a cultural space, which is unidentifiable in a colonial text.

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An Analysis of Teachers' Proxemics in Bahdini EFL University Classrooms

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Abstract

The present study investigates the effect of gender differences on the proxemic behaviors manifested by teachers in Bahdini EFL university classrooms, showing the learners' attitudes and opinions toward these behaviors. In reference to teaching, much uncertainty still exists about the state of proximity of teachers and students at university level in Kurdistan Region of Iraq; this paper tries to address that. For conducting the study, a sample of 12 male and female teachers and 100 male and female EFL learners from the English Department, School of Languages, University of Zakho, was selected. By adopting Hall's proxemic zones (1959), a descriptive observation method was utilized to collect data from the teachers and a questionnaire to obtain data from the learners. By using Excel sheets and tabulations, the results showed that the majority of male teachers were in the public proxemic zone while most female teachers were in the social proxemic zone. However, the learners had different views, expressing that teachers should move around the classroom from time to time and stay either social or personal, but not public. Also, the majority of EFL learners had male-male and female-female proxemic attitudes. Finally, the results of this study will help making university teachers and learners be aware of proxemic zones in EFL classrooms because the way teachers and learners behave certainly has influence on the teaching and learning processes.

Keywords: *gender differences, Hall's proxemic zones, nonverbal communication, proxemic cues*

Introduction

English language is becoming more important as a universal means of communication, particularly after the recent advances in technology that have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020;). Communicating with others is essential in leading a normal life. We all communicate in our own way but we need to learn how to do it effectively in a social context (Al-Ghamdi & Alrefaee, 2020). Most people are born and endowed with a kind of physical ability to talk. However, not all can communicate well unless they make special efforts to develop and refine this skill. Communication is either verbal (i.e. using language) or non-verbal (i.e. using gestures, postures, facial expressions and body movements). For the purpose of our study, only proxemics, as non-verbal cues, in EFL university classrooms are focused. The in-class distance between teachers and students has its effects on the teaching and learning processes in one way or another.

Aims of the Study

The current study aims at answering the following questions:

1. Do gender distinctions have influence on teachers' proxemics in Kurdish EFL university classrooms?
2. What attitudes do EFL learners express toward teachers' proxemics?

Value of the Study

Although many studies have been conducted on communication, the current study, which tackles the use of proxemics in Kurdish EFL classrooms at university settings, will be valuable for making communicators (i.e. university teachers and students) be aware of the different non-verbal cues and ways of communication. Also, teachers in a way or another will be aware of their proxemic behaviors managing classrooms.

Theoretical Background

Non-verbal communication is very important to be tackled because human beings live with it in their everyday life situations. Simply, human beings are not robots; they have gestures, postures, facial expressions and body movements. As stated by Markovic (2017: 4-5), the most influential study of non-verbal communication appeared in the Charles Darwin's book entitled The

Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals in 1872. Darwin was the first to systematically explore and compare the expression of emotions in humans and animals. He asserted many frequent modes of expressions which are almost universal. Good examples of universally recognizable emotions and behaviors are happiness, sadness, fear, anger, surprise, and disgust. In this section, communication as a general term and non-verbal communication are defined. Also, the main characteristics and functions of non-verbal communication are taken into consideration.

Non-Verbal Communication

Communication (from Latin *communicare*, meaning *to share*) has been defined differently from different perspectives because it has been considered a complex concept (Priori, 2005: 4). Communication, as a very general concept, is the exchange of thoughts, ideas, feelings, information, opinions and knowledge (Williams, 1967: 17). It involves the mutuality of understanding between participants. As a social process, it refers to acknowledging and performing specific social functions and group memberships" (Peters, 1999: 7). This definition reflects the idea that communicating participants live in societies where these participants have social relationships. So, communication between them is inevitable. As a process of exchanging symbols, communication can be defined as a transaction whereby participants together create meaning through the exchange of symbols (Fielding, 2006: 110). This definition stresses four major points: 1) communication as a transaction, 2) people working together, 3) creating meaning, and 4) exchanging symbols. According to Fielding (2006: 111), these symbols are either verbal (i.e. using language) or non-verbal (i.e. using gestures and body movements).

Non-verbal communication is expressed through non-linguistic means. In other words, we communicate with much more than words (Knapp and Hall, 2002: 13). This fact is focused by Mehrabian (1971: 20), saying that nonverbal communication comprises up to 70% of our communication. When we interact with someone, our body has a language of its own. Hence, the way we sit, the gestures we make, the way we talk, how much eye contact we make, and so on, all are non-verbal ways of communicating. All these actions and attributes of humans impact the messages conveyed. Non-verbal communication is actually related to people's behaviors. In this case, non-verbal behaviors can either be true or ambiguous. According to Navarro (2011: 40), they can be true (and they are called *tells*) because they tell us about a person's true state of mind. On the other hand, they can be very ambiguous because it is not easy to read people's minds. Harrison et al. (1972: 462) suggest that “in the development of each human being, non-verbal communication precedes and perhaps structures all subsequent communication.” This means that all humans exhibit some natural or innate expressions.

As a general definition of *non-verbal communication*, it involves the sending and receiving of messages without the use of words. This means that this process is the principal means by which feelings and attitudes are conveyed.

Non-verbal communication and behaviors can connect and build stronger relationships with those around us. The following are some important characteristics of non-verbal communication (Guthrie, 1976: 30; Argyle, 1988: 101; Dickson and Hargie, 2003: 43, 50):

1. Non-verbal messages primarily communicate emotions, attitudes.
2. Non-verbal cues substitute for, contradict, emphasize or regulate verbal messages, where it may be impossible or inappropriate to talk.
3. Non-verbal cues are often ambiguous, continuous, reliable, culturally bound, powerful, and communicatively valuable.
4. Non-verbal cues regulate conversations by helping to mark speech turns.
5. They enhance negotiating relationships in respect of many social occasions such as liking, disliking, congratulating, thanking, praying, etc.
6. They convey personal and social identity through such features as dress and adornment.
7. They contextualize interaction by creating a particular social setting.

Non-Verbal Communication Cues

Human beings communicate with each other by using different intentional or unintentional cues of non-verbal communication. They include kinesics (gestures, postures, facial expressions, body movements), paralanguage (variations in the voice), proxemics (how space and distance are used), haptics (touching), chronemics (using time), and physical appearance (clothing, color, smell). All these provide information to the hearers (Markovic, 2017: 3). Though the focus is on the use of proxemics in EFL university classrooms in this study, non-verbal cues are interrelated to each other’s and they are all present in participants’ communication. Hence, it was found necessary to give brief explanations to these cues in the current study.

According to Markovic (2017: 11-12) and Thakur (2013: 3), kinesis, which is context-dependent, includes such variables as facial expression, eye movement, gestures, postures, and walking speed. This is what Birdwhistell (2010:45) talked about, saying that “no position, expression, or movement ever carries meaning in and of itself”. Since the human body is very flexible and can perform various movements, Krauss et al. (1996: 393), Ekman (2004: 39-50), Borg (2009: 20), Hans and Hans (2015: 47), classified kinesics into five wider areas: 1) emblems, i.e., agreed-on gestures, 2) illustrators, i.e., body movements that go with words 3) manipulators (or touching movements), 4) regulators (or organizing the flow of speech), and 5) emotional expressions (or generally facial expressions).

Paralanguage (also called *vocalics*) is the study of non-verbal cues of the voice. Houston (1984: 185) defines paralanguage as the “study of those aspects of speech communication that do not pertain to linguistic structure or content”. Examples like *uh huh* (yes), *uh uh* (no), *aha* (understanding), *ah ah* (warning), gasping, sighing, changing tone, emphasizing, frowning, smiling, laughing, crying, among others are given by Austin (1965: 36), claiming that when we use these vocalics, it means that we “resorted to paralanguage”.

Paralanguage is non-verbal in nature and depends on voice, intonation, pitch, pause, volume, stress, gestures, and signals (Lewis, 1998: 84 and Agnus, 2012: 2). Through these prosodic elements, one’s voice can convey enthusiasm, confidence, anxiety and the speaker’s mental state.

Another important non-verbal cue is the use of haptics. It is broadly defined as the study of human touch sensing (Okamura and Hannaford, 2008: 719). It has a vital role in showing non-verbal behaviors such as hugging, kissing, hand-shaking, embracing, tickling, patting on the back, and touching one’s own body (Markovic, 2017: 10). This cue is also culture-dependent. That is, in some cultures touch is considered “to be threatening because of its connection to sex and violence” (Hans and Hans, 2015: 48).

Time plays a vital role in social interaction. “Time talks. It speaks more plainly than words.” This is how Hall (1959: 22) starts the first chapter of his book *The Silent Language*. Some of us are preoccupied with time, while others regularly waste it. Some of us are typically early, while others are late. Some of us approach life with a sense of urgency, while others prefer to be in more leisure times. Some of us are early birds, functioning best in the morning, while others, night owls, staying awake to late times at night (Wainwright, 2010: 136).

According to Markovic (2017: 11), the physical appearance of people may include clothing, wealth, culture, nationality, ethnical identification, social class, marital status, hairstyle, make-up, accessories, etc. Eunson (2008: 263) states that the physical appearance is also an important non-verbal cue because (1) it protects the wearer in the environment he/she lives in, (2) it indicates modesty or immodesty, and (3) it manifests group identification including wealth, poverty, education, religious affiliation, and so on.

Finally, the non-verbal cue understudy is proxemics. As a term, it is defined by Hall (1963: 122) as the "The spatial dimension of non-verbal behavior". In other words, proxemics refers to whether parts of the body come into contact during interaction. The space and distance between speakers and hearers are considered very significant signals of showing non-verbal behaviors of communicators. According to Leather (1978: 87), the term *distance* is regarded as a "relational concept, typically measured in terms of how far one individual is from the other". When interacting with one another, the distances of people show different patterns. Hence, such distances vary from one context to another.

Importance of Proxemics in EFL Classrooms

Alongside with verbal communication, all the nonverbal cues and behaviors are important in making the process of interaction between people more successful and more effective. According to Hismanoglu and Hismanoglu (2008: 168), proxemics "plays a vital role in establishing a successful interaction between the teacher and the students in the classroom". However, the position where teachers take in EFL classrooms vary from one culture to another.

For example, some cultures such as the Arabs, Turks, French and Italians are considered high-contact cultures because they usually keep small distances in their interaction. In contrast, communicators from China, Japan, Germany and Netherlands present low-contact cultural attitudes because they stand further apart (Vargas, 1986:106).

Since there have been no similar studies conducted to show the effect of proxemic cues (i.e. teachers' distances according to learners inside the classroom) in Kurdish settings, it is seen important to observe and analyze (1) Bahdini teachers' proxemic zones in EFL classrooms, (2) the effect of gender differences on proxemics, and (3) the learners' impressions and attitudes toward the teachers' proxemics. Hence, the way teachers and learners manifest different proxemic zones in EFL classrooms certainly has effects on the ongoing teaching and learning processes from various perspectives: teachers' awareness of proxemics, teacher-learner social relationships, classroom management, teaching materials, sex distinctions, and so on, (Arias, 1996: 35; Ningrum, 2017: 72).

Some Previous Studies

Many research papers have been conducted in order to investigate the different forms of nonverbal communication cues and behaviors achieved by study participants (teachers or students) in EFL classrooms. Some studies compared verbal and nonverbal cues to each other's, while some other studies focused on how the various nonverbal behaviors (especially proxemics) are affected by gender differences. The following are some previous studies about teachers' proxemics in EFL classrooms.

In his dissertation, Miller (1978) assessed the effects of four proxemic zones (intimate, personal, social, and public) on the performance of 120 randomly selected students from East Tennessee State University. This study focused on sex differences in different proxemic patterns quantitatively and qualitatively. Dividing the participants into treatment and control groups, statistical significance was calculated for the mean differences of scores obtained from pre- and post-tests. The results showed that the teachers' instruction presented in the intimate proxemic zone proved to be the most influential compared to other proxemic zones. It was concluded that the closer teachers are to students, the more effective teaching instructions will be. Also, the obtained results presented that proxemic behaviors were remarkably influenced by sex differences.

In their study, Budiartika, Myartawan and Agustini (2017) described and analyzed the forms of verbal and nonverbal communication used by teachers in providing positive reinforcement in EFL classrooms at Mengwi, Indonesia. Based on a descriptive qualitative method, the subjects selected for the study were two English teachers and 140 EFL. The instruments used for collecting the data included the researchers themselves, observation sheet, video recorder, and questionnaire. One of the most significant results was the use of kinesics, haptic, and proxemics when used by teachers to provide positive reinforcement in EFL classrooms. From the total of all nonverbal cues and motions shown by teachers inside the classrooms, 8.82% was recorded for proxemic cues. Such form of nonverbal behaviors was observed at times where the teachers wanted to give guidance and feedback to their students when doing tasks.

Gulnaz and Ismail (2017) conducted a study on the significance of using non-verbal communication cues in Saudi EFL classrooms. Using a mixed methodology for collecting the data, the sample consisted of Saudi EFL learners (100 males and 100 females). They compared the results obtained from both a questionnaire and interviews. The results showed that the participants in the study were motivated by teachers' paralinguistic behaviors and interpersonal proxemics inside the classrooms. Concerning the use of proxemics, the results indicated that both males and females significantly differed in their opinions about the use of proxemics.

Ningrum (2017) conducted a qualitative study to utilize some teachers' proxemic behaviors for achieving classroom management. The selected participants of this study were two high school teachers (one male and one female). Adopting classroom observation and interviews, the results showed that teachers notably utilized various proxemics in managing their classrooms. The study results were based on respondents to some previously prepared questions about (1) nonverbal communication, (2) teachers' proximity and mobility inside EFL classrooms, and (3) classroom management. It was found that teachers should apply appropriate distance in certain situations. Also, it was found that teachers, whether male or female, standing in the middle position of the classroom are best suited. This is to make all the learners get the same attention from the teachers.

Method

In order to calculate the participants' time allocated for the proxemic zones inside EFL classrooms, the researchers used both quantitative and qualitative mixed method in the current paper. Hall's proxemic zones (1959) was found very helpful to determine the different proxemics manifested by the participants. Research design, participants, sampling procedures, instruments, study context and Hall's proxemic zones are tackled in the following sub-sections.

Research Design

In an attempt to study the different proxemics, as non-verbal communication cues and behaviors within EFL classrooms, the researchers utilized the descriptive observation method using qualitative and quantitative approaches for collecting information and data, that is, how much time is devoted for the participants' positions inside the class. The amount of time calculated for each teacher's proxemic zone (i.e. distance from the learners) was recorded by using the calculator of a smart phone. The participants were male and female teachers, who were giving lectures in EFL classrooms during the academic year 2019-2020 at the School of Languages, University of Zakho. Furthermore; the EFL learners' impression toward the teachers' proxemic behaviors was interpreted by a previously prepared questionnaire. Finally, interpreting and analyzing the obtained data by Excel sheets made finding the statistical results easier.

Participants and Sampling Procedure

The participants chosen for the current study were of two types: teachers and learners. First, 12 teachers (6 males and 6 females) from the English Department, School of Languages, University of Zakho, Kurdistan Region, Iraq. Gender differences were considered the most important variable in this study. It was very significant to show whether male and female teachers' proxemics have influence on the teaching and learning processes in general, and on the students in particular. Second, 100 EFL learners (50 males and 50 females) from the same department were targeted. For research purposes, EFL learners' impressions toward the teachers' proxemics were of great importance.

The researchers consulted simple random sampling. This means that from the total of 26 teachers, who are all staff of the English Department, approximately a half of the teachers were selected. The sample size percentage is shown in the following formula (Utts & Heckard, 2007):

$$\text{Sample size} = \frac{No.of\ participants\ in\ sample}{No.of\ participants\ in\ population} \times 100$$

According to the above formula, the sample size percentage can be calculated as: 12/26 × 100 = 46.1%. Such percentage is high enough to conduct a study for a target population. In other words, 46% is a percentage that makes the sample size valid and acceptable for processing analyses in research studies (Neuendorf & Skalski, 2010). Also, from the total of 255 EFL learners from the English Department, 100 male and female learners were randomly selected. The sample size percentage was calculated as: 100/255 × 100 = 39.2%, which is again enough to represent the whole population.

Instruments and Data Collection Procedure

The instruments that were used for the purpose of gathering and measuring the data were the following:

1. Hall's proxemic zones (1959) were used to discover whether gender differences have effect on the way EFL teachers behave differently or take different positions in the class. For the

purpose of our study, only the proxemic relations between teachers and learners were considered. Those relations between learners and learners were excluded.

2. A smart phone for recording the participants' time allocated for each proxemic zone in EFL classrooms. While giving his/her lecture, the target participant was observed by one of the students, recording the time (in minutes) devoted for each proxemic by the smart phone used. Then, this amount of time was written on a table, which was previously prepared for the purpose of study (see Appendix I). The participant did know about such observation. It is worth noting that the standard amount of time devoted for any university class is 45 minutes. Such standard has been put by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Kurdistan Region, Iraq. In the current study, it was noticed that some classes lasted for more than 45 minutes, and some others' time was less than this default duration of time. However, the researchers used a 45-minute time for their calculations.
3. A questionnaire of three questions was used to collect the learners' impressions toward the teachers' different proxemic zones (see Appendix II). One hundred questionnaire samples were distributed on the EFL learners from the English Department, School of Languages, University of Zakho. The target learners chosen were from all the first, second, third and fourth grades. However, the main focus was on gender. That is why, males and females were given an equal number of questionnaire samples (50 copies for males and 50 for females).
4. Excel sheets were used to convert the amounts of time allocated for the teachers' proxemic zones and learners' respondents into percentages.

Hall's Proxemic Zones

A description of Hall's interpersonal distances of people is given in the following figure:

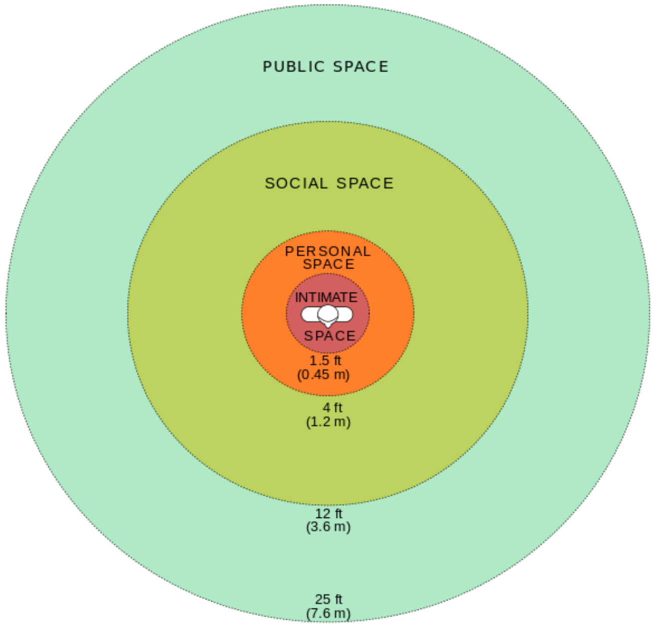

Figure 1: Hall's Proxemic Zones

Adopted from Hall (1959: 116)

According to Figure (1), the non-verbal special communication has four distinct zones:

- Intimate space (around 50 cm) between family members and close friends,
- Personal space (around 1 m) between friends and coworkers,
- Social space (1 to 2 m) between strangers and business meetings, and
- Public space (more than 2 m) in public interaction.

The above proxemic zones are very suitable in the Western culture (Hall, 1959: 117). In other words, reacting to different distances in everyday communication is basically determined by cultural differences. According to Arias (1996: 32), "While North Americans usually remain at a distance from one another, Latin Americans stay very close to each other". That is, proxemic zones are cultural-dependent. For the purpose of our study, the above proxemic zones were used to be observed and analyzed in EFL university classrooms where Kurdish cultural norms are predominant.

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

Based on the literature review and aims of the study, the obtained data were analyzed and discussed according to two areas, namely, 1) the effect of gender on teachers' proxemics, and 3) the learners' impressions toward teachers' proxemics. For the purpose of data analysis and discussion, the researchers used Hall's proxemic terms that include public, social, personal and intimate to refer to those terms mentioned in the questionnaire, i.e. Very Far, Far, Close and Very Close, respectively.

As mentioned earlier in the methodology, a total of 12 teachers (6 males and 6 females) voluntarily participated in our study. No prior instructions were given to them; they gave their daily lectures habitually. Counting the teacher's time allocated for each proxemic zone in the classroom, the results showed that there were different frequencies (in minutes) of the proxemic zones understudy. From the total of 540 minutes of lecturing, the highest percentage was calculated for the public zone. However, it was noticed that males (36%) stayed in public distance (i.e. very far) more than females (20%) did. Also, it was found that female teachers (23%) had more social proximity than what male teachers had. Such a high percentage of social proximity is seen as a good mark for achieving the teaching and learning outcomes in EFL classrooms. Further, such results were not surprising because "males maintain greater distances" than females do (Miller, 1978: 22). A good reason for showing public proximity is that teachers at very far distances from the learners control the classroom easier, and teachers should not be "too personal by the learners" (Gulnaz and Ismail, 2017: 54). That is why, both the personal and intimate proxemic zones were calculated to have the lowest percentages for both males and females. The percentages of the amounts of time calculated for teachers' proxemic zones are presented in Figure 2 below:

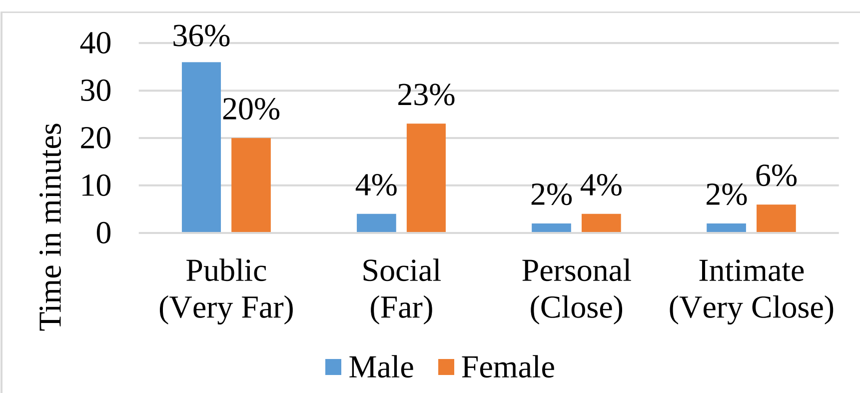

Figure 2: Percentages of Time Amount Calculated for Teachers' Proxemics in EFL Classrooms

In contrary to measuring the different proxemic behaviors achieved by teachers, the target EFL learners in this study expressed their opinions toward these behaviors. According to the first question of the questionnaire, the highest percentage (26%) was ranked for females, saying that teachers should be far from them when giving lectures. That is, teachers should stay social. In contrast, from the total of 100 respondents, 13% of males chose “Public”. The percentage of learners who wanted their teachers to have more intimate proximity was 6% for male and 4% for females. These results were not supported by Ningrum (2017), who came to the conclusion that the best distance teachers, whether male or female, should have is the middle of the classroom. The percentages of respondents obtained are shown in the following figure:

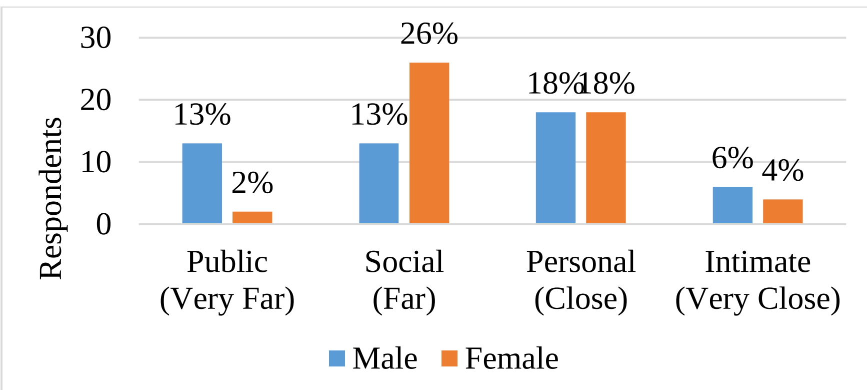

Figure 3: Percentages of Respondents’ Impressions toward Teachers’ Proxemics in EFL Classrooms

When asked to express whether the participants (i.e. learners) were with or against the teachers’ movements around the classroom, the majority of respondents, 36% females and 31% males, answered “Yes”. The reason behind such high percentages is that maybe the selected EFL learners do not want to see themselves as if they are in traditional classrooms. Furthermore, moving around the classroom is very necessary “to send positive signals that reinforce students’ learning” (Azeez and Azeez, 2018: 38). That is why, the learners want their teachers to actually be within reach, achieving teachers’ visibility and class coverage in a better way. The general significance of varying proxemic zones is “to monitor and check the students in doing the tasks” (Budiartika et al, 2017: 8). However, the teachers’ movements around the classroom should not exceed the limits to annoy the learners. For this reason, 17% males and 5% females chose “No”, and 2% males and

9% females selected “I don’t know”. The results of this study were in line with those obtained by Gulnaz and Ismail (2017: 54). They came to find out that teacher’s movements inside the classroom had statistical significance, influencing learners’ intimacy remarkably. The percentages of respondents to the second question of the questionnaire are presented in the following figure:

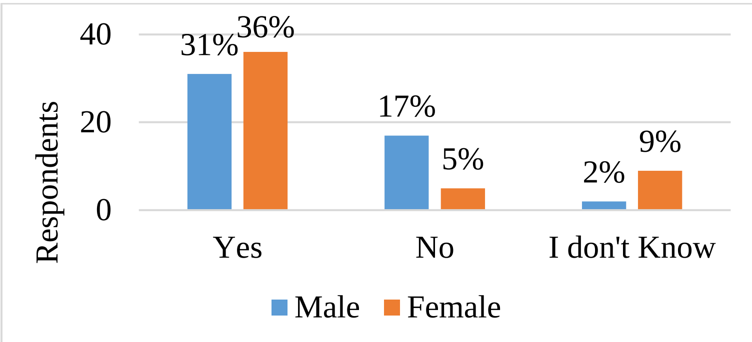

Figure 4: Percentages of Respondents’ Impressions toward Teachers’ Movement in EFL Classrooms

When answering the third question of the questionnaire, which was “Which teacher do you feel to have more intimate proximity with?”, the participants showed different frequencies. The percentages of obtained results are presented in the following figure:

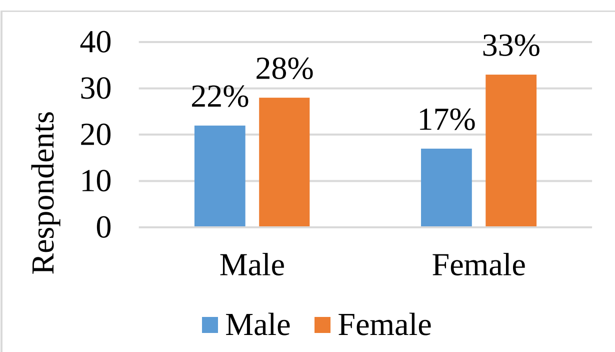

Figure 5: Percentages of Respondents’ Impressions toward Teachers’ Gender in EFL Classrooms

As it is shown in the above figure, the majority of females (33%) tended to have more intimate proximity with female teachers. It can be said that the highest percentage was ranked for a female-female intimate proxemic relation. Hence, it was surprising that 28% of female respondents also chose male teachers to have closer intimate distance. With regard to males, the highest percentage (22%) was for intimate proximity with male teachers. This also designates that males want to have a more male-male intimate proxemic relation. These results were in line with those obtained by Miller (1978: 47), who claimed that female-female pairs required more personal and intimate proximity. Such a variety of respondents' impressions and attitudes toward very close or intimate distances is considered natural in EFL classrooms. In fact, through the process of communication, similar genders feel to be more comfortable with each other. Hence, avoiding traditional methods of teaching, the learners want to have "extensive contact of the bodies" with their teachers (Hall, 1959: 116).

Conclusions

On the basis of the results, the current paper attempted to answer the main objectives of the study, that is, observing and interpreting the teachers' proxemic zones in Bahdini EFL classrooms, tackling the effect of gender differences on these zones, and presenting the learners' impressions toward the teachers' proxemics. This study was conducted because proxemic zones within Kurdish settings have not been assessed before. The main points of conclusion that are arrived at throughout the study are the following:

1. Male teachers stayed in the public proxemic zone longer than female teachers did. In contrast, the female teachers had more social proximity than what male teachers had. This means that female teachers are considered more social than males. Thus, being more social in EFL classrooms will make the teaching and learning outcomes more successful.
2. When responding to the questionnaire, the majority of the female EFL learners showed that teachers should be far from them or somehow close to them when giving lectures. That is, teachers should stay either social or personal.
3. The majority of male and female EFL learners agreed that teachers move around the classroom. That is, teachers should actually be within reach, achieving teachers' visibility and class coverage in a better way. However, the teachers should not be too intimate to annoy the learners.

4. Although male and female learners showed proxemic tendencies toward the different genders of teachers, the majority of EFL learners had male-male and female-female proxemic attitudes.

Recommendations

For further research on showing the presentations and illustrations of non-verbal communication in different fields and domains of life, the researchers suggest the following:

1. Assessing the effectiveness of teaching materials in the public, social, personal and intimate proxemic zones.
2. Exploring the performance of EFL learners in group discussions where intimate proximity is predominant.
3. Investigating the effect of other nonverbal attitudes such as kinesics and haptics on teaching and learning processes in Bahdini EFL university classrooms.

Pedagogical Implications

Taken together, these findings suggest a role for the university lecturers, in Kurdistan Region, to be aware of the issues involved in teaching and tutorial concerning proximity and gap zones, as a significant number of them might lack such important awareness.

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Appendix I

Table for recording the amount of time (in minutes) allocated for teachers' proxemics in EFL classrooms

Teacher: Male ☐ Female ☐

Time in Minutes

Intimate (Very Close) 50 cm	Personal (Close) 1 m	Social (Far) 1-2 m	Public (Very Far) more than 2 m

Appendix II

Questionnaire

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

Dear participant,

We are currently conducting a study on analyzing teachers' proxemics in Bahdini EFL university classrooms. Therefore, we humbly request you answer the following questions. Please put a tick (□) inside one square below each item. Your participation is of great importance to our academic endeavor.

1. Where do you like the teacher to stand from you?	Very far (Public: at the whiteboard, more than 2 meters) ☐	Far (Social: before the whiteboard, 1-2 meters) ☐	Close (Personal: in the middle of class, 1 meter) ☐	Very close (Intimate: beside you, less than a half meter) ☐
2. Do you like the teacher to move around the classroom?	Yes ☐	No ☐	I don't know ☐	
3. Which teacher do you feel to have more intimate proximity with?	Male ☐	Female ☐		

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Feedback and Speaking Skills in Task-Based Language Teaching: Proposed Corrective Measures for EFL Learners

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Abstract

This is a quasi-experimental study which aims to investigate the extent to which Corrective Feedback (CF) is most effective in Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) of speaking skills (in terms of grammatical elements) of tertiary EFL learners at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Three Corrective Feedback measures viz. recast, prompt and explicit correction (Golshan, 2013) were tested over a period of 28 days (three ninety minute sessions per week), with 21 undergraduate male participants and direct observation, pre- and post- speaking tests used in order to evaluate changes in learner performance in speaking English accurately and fluently using correct grammatical elements. A perceptions questionnaire was also used to gauge participants' attitudes

to preference for any one CF measure. A few earlier studies have focused on the role of CF in TBLT, some of these being placed in Saudi Arabia; yet, there is a dearth of literature about the effectiveness of TBLT concerning grammar in speaking fluently and accurately. This study fills this knowledge gap by specifically assessing these aspects of speaking preoficiency. Findings indicated that

Keywords: *Fluency, Accuracy, Speaking, TBLT, Corrective feedback, language teaching*

Introduction

Language is an essential tool for communication, more so in the 21st century when globalization has interwoven survival in different contexts, situations, and societies with the knowledge of an international language for communication, the majority choice for which is English. Proficiency in English allows people to have access, process and update on the information to engage with diverse communities and learn different cultures of the world. The challenge for education, now, is on how to prepare learners with the rapidly-changing world so as to be able to compete in the global economy, establish understanding and application of various complex communication and information systems via communicative proficiency in this language.

In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), the focus is greater on Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) to prepare students for the global village. The ability of the students to speak with fluency and accuracy needs further focus in the EFL teaching context since EFL learners are not fully given the opportunities to practice the use of English outside the classrooms (Samaranayake, 2016; Albino, 2017; Sun, Lin, You, Shen, Qi, & Lou, 2017; Wei, Siriyothin, & Lian, 2018; Menayni, & Merabti, 2020). Consequently, among the speaking problems encountered by the students are the result of inhibition, lack of topical knowledge, and native language orientation (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017; Abugohar et al. 2019; Namaziandost et al., 2019).

Task-Based Language Teaching Intervention

Task-Based Language teaching (TBLT) is, in reality, an offshoot of the Communciative Language Teaching approach. This has also been progressively incorporated into the Saudi EFL scenario. However, it poses a new and difficult challenge for the language teachers, as they need to adapt their role from the principal conductor of the learning process to that of a communication mediator providing corrective feedback.This is a relatively new area of study in Saudi Arabia, as is the gradual but sure shift from one way communication as the preferred teaching strategy to two way communication with greater learner participation, if not complete learner autonomy and learner centredness.

TBLT is an approach to teaching a second/foreign language that aims to facilitate language learning by way of engaging learners interactively, deploying authentic language use, which stems from performing and executing series of tasks. TBLT is appropriate with a learner-centred educational practice and philosophy (Nunan, 2005; Ellis, 2005). It has the following components: goals, objectives, procedures, and outcomes while advocating content-oriented meaningful activities rather than the linguistic form (Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2005; Beglar & Hunt, 2002). Studies in the Asian setting confirmed that TBLT is effective in enhancing the language competence of students. Murad (2009) investigated the effect of task-based language teaching on developing speaking skills of Palestinian students, and found out that after the use of the intervention, the speaking skill of the students in the experimental group significantly improved and positively increased their level of attitude towards English. Subsequently, Kafipour, Mahmoudi & Khojasteh (2018) studied the effect of task-based language teaching in writing in the EFL classrooms in Iran, and showed significant improvement in the learners' writing skills, especially with enough exposure to TBLT techniques.

Moreover, Albino (2017) assessed the use of TBLT in enhancing the speaking fluency of EFL learners in Angola, and found improvement in the students' ability to produce speech, grammatical accuracy, and interactional language. In much the same vein, Ibrahim and Khater (2016) reported that Task-based Instruction developed the English language speaking skills of Egyptian primary pupils. Ding (2018) also concluded that the Task-based Approach improved the English speaking skill of adult Syrian learners. In the Saudi EFL context, Zhu and Shu (2017) found the advantage of TBLT in the primary classrooms of China. Likewise, Zhang (2019) observed the marked improvement in the language skills of Chinese EFL using a wiki-enhanced TBLT approach. While Yang (2017) explored the applicability of TBLT in the education of English at Chinese colleges, Ju (2017) proves that Task-based teaching promotes the English language skills of Chinese college students. However, TBLT – though theoretically and intellectually appealing – continues to have a limited impact on the teaching of English as a second language in many contexts (Ogilvie & Dunn, 2010).

Speaking Fluency

Fluency Development has been supported by theories and researches in different contexts, including planning, task repetition, and language teaching. De Jong and Perfetti (2011) investigated the role of speech repetition in the oral fluency development of students in the course *Teaching English as Second Language* (TESL) in a university in the United States. The study concluded that fluency improved remarkably with the use of TBLT. Hence, linguistic knowledge proceduralization improved fluency. In addition, Lambert, Kormos and Minn (2017) examined the correlation between immediate gains in second language fluency and oral monologue tasks. Results showed that aural-oral same tasks repetition is related to oral fluency gains regardless of the level of proficiency, or the tasks designed to the students. In sum, research shows that speaking fluency can be achieved by means of language practice and repetition.

Corrective Feedback for Accuracy

Teachers' corrective feedback (CF) on the learners' second/foreign language acquisition has motivated interest and research. Most of the studies have, nevertheless, been carried out in controlled settings and language classrooms, thus implementing activities without the framework of the TBLT approach. Sato's (2013) investigation of the belief of ESL learners on peer interaction and peered corrective feedback (CF) indicated positive social relationships between learners and collaborative learning environment emerging as variables for effective language development. In relation to writing skills, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) reported that, CF helps advanced second language learners' level of accuracy. Similarly, Hartshorn, Evans, Merrill, Sudweeks, et al (2010) reported that heightened writing fluency is observed with the use of corrective feedback in writing. Moreover, Chu (2011) examined the effectiveness of teachers' corrective feedback on accuracy in Oral English of college students in China, and found that teacher's corrective feedback is important in foreign language teaching. OZturk (2016) scrutinizes the implications of feedback in Turkish EFL classrooms, asserting that recast and explicit correction were the most commonly used CF types. As is thus quite apparent, corrective feedback enhanced English language speaking and writing skills alike.

Problem Statement

Difficulty with speaking English is considered a challenge not only in the Saudi EFL educational system but around the world (Al-Ahdal, 2020). Chinese EFL learners encounter multilevel difficulties in speaking English fluently and accurately, the obstacles being attributed to their linguistic, cognitive, and emotional factors (Wang, 2014; Yao, 2019; Lei, Weiwei, & Di, 2016). This calls for necessary interventions by language teachers. They need to use appropriate methods and strategies to address the emerging speaking problems of EFL learners and to use the language appropriately in a social context (Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi, 2019).

The value of communicative competence transcends speaking fluency and accuracy. Speaking accuracy means the extent to which a speaker produces language which conforms to the norms of the target language (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). It involves proper pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Speaking fluency, on the other hand, is the ability of the speaker to produce spoken language without undue pausing or hesitation (Skehan, 1996; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Hence, too many hesitations and pauses hinder fluency of speaking. Helping learners to improve their speaking with fluency and accuracy is a core concern of the EFL contexts (Nakatani, 2010). In the new Curriculum Standards of KSA, it is stipulated that teachers must be facilitators of knowledge with the learners through TBLT. Saudi EFL language teachers are encouraged to reflect on their teaching practices, and advance their frontiers of knowledge towards the teaching of English as a Foreign Language through TBLT.

Context and Gap

While TBLT has shown wide adoption in the Asia-Pacific region, conceptual misconceptions and classroom constraints are the impending factors of implementation (Butler, 2011). Iizuka (2019) recently confirmed that, despite the popularity of TBLT, professionals often skipped the potential benefits of TBLT. It may be highlighted that Needs Analysis is essential for curriculum development with the integration of TBLT.The speaking skill has been investigated by numerous language experts. However, there is still a dearth of literature about the effectiveness of TBLT concerning fluency and accuracy which are retarded for lack of grammatical proficiency. This study hopes, therefore, to contribute to addressing the research gap by looking at the actual experiences of Saudi EFL learners with the use of TBLT with corrective feedback.

Research Purpose and Significance

This paper investigated the effectiveness of TBLT in enhancing the speaking fluency and accuracy of EFL learners in the educational context of Saudi Arabia by using the Traditional Language Teaching Approach with Corrective Feedback. It specifically aimed to: (1) Describe how TBLT with corrective feedback enhanced the speaking fluency and accuracy of EFL learners of Saudi EFL education; (2) Ascertain the significant differences on the perceptions and attitudes of the students before and after the implementation of TBLT with corrective feedback towards speaking; (3) Verify which CF is most effective in improving learners' grammar and, thereby, adding to the fluency and accuracy of oral output.

Methods

Research Participants and Setting

The study was set in the second year EFL class (intact class has 42 students) with voluntary participation sought from a maximum of 21 learners. Sample size was calculated using the G*Power T-test Mean difference between two independent sample means (matched pairs) with A priory Type of power analysis set into a two-tailed test, showing an actual power of 0.90, and effect size of 0.5. Participants were all males with the median age falling at 19.8 years, with a continued EFL education background of eight or more years. It may be noted that, by the time students enter the sophomore year in Saudi universities, they have already had exposure to a standardised English proficiency test and a brief orientation course in English. Thereafter, on the basis of their performance, they are grouped into classes. However, to gauge the more recent proficiency of the participants, the researcher (a trained IELTS examiner) conducted the IELTS speaking test which comprises three sections: Answers about self and family; extempore speaking about a topic; and a one to one discussion with the examiner on the speaking topic. The entire section lasts about thirteen minutes. The IELTS speaking band descriptor tests the examinee's fluency. grammatical accuracy, lexical resourse and pronunciation. For the purpose of the study, since the focus is specifically on fluency and grammatical accuracy, the researcher tested the participants on all descriptors but recorded fluency and accuracy in table 1 for comparison to scores in the post-test.

Research Design

Western movies and TV shows are extremely popular amongst Saudi university students. Linking an activity to these immediately ensures greater learner engagement and participation. In the present study, the speaking activity was directly connected to the contemporary Netflix original series *Anne With an "E"* and *Atypical*, a series about an autistic teenager. Both the shows are a great draw for those leaving or recently departed their teen years, and touchingly address issues that attract young minds. The participants were given an option to watch an episode of either of these shows, and to come prepared and take their peers through the storyline. They were free to use less than ten snapshots of scenes if they felt it added to their narration, with the rider that the shots must not carry any written cues. This was done to ensure maximum speaking output from the participants. The exercise was scheduled for 90 minutes every Monday, Wednesday and Sunday during the regular English slot in the timetable. Every participant was required to speak extempore for a minimum of eight minutes, (and in no case more than eleven minutes), and speakers could volunteer for turns. It was, however, clarified to them that each one of them was required to undertake the speaking, and one cycle lasted for four teaching days. The teacher's role was well-charted:

At an orientation session lasting half an hour, the participants were familiarised with the aims and objectives, significance and purpose of the study. They were also duly assured of the confidentiality of their responses, identity and other personal information sought as part of the demographic homogenisation of the sample. Finally, they were familiarised with the concept of in-class corrective feedback, the three types of CFs to be used in the study, and the purpose of CF in an EFL classroom were also discussed. In the first cycle, participants were briefed about the corrective measure that the teacher would adopt to help them rectify their grammar mistakes and errors. These were as follows:

1. Recasts: Ellis and Sheen (2006) define recasts as a rewording of, or a reformulating of, an incorrect or erroneous production without explicitly pointing out the error, or explaining the grammar rule that goes into correction. For Goo (2012), it is the method most frequently used in language classrooms.
2. Prompts: According to Tedick and Gortari (1998), prompt involves clarification, metalinguistic cueing, and elicitation of alternate response.

3. Explicit correction: As explained by Lyster and Ranta (1997), explicit correction is a kind of feedback that is done immediately by the teacher, and that may include an explanation of the grammatical rule the learner does not abide by.

Thereafter, the CFs were taken up in a short speaking task by engaging participants in a question-answer task on a poem they have recently been taught in the EFL class, an exercise that was continued till the researcher was satisfied that, the participants were well-adjusted to the new methods, and could also distinguish between the CF measures being used.

As a post-test instrument, a questionnaire on learners' perceptions of task-based EFL learning and their attitudes to Corrective Feedback was administered. The instrument carried twelve items with an equal number of statements on positive and negative attitudes, and included statements to isolate the CF most favored by the participants. The questionnaire is simply worded in English, and responses were sought on the classic Likert Scale rubric of Strongly agree to Strongly disagree. Table 2 shows the frequency scores of the responses.

Data Analysis and Results

The following Table 1 shows the comparative scores of each of the 21 participants (coded SEFL22.1 through SEFL22.21, for Sophomore English as Foreign Language class of 2022) in the pre test and post test IELTS Speaking Component.

Table 1: Comparative Scores of Participants in IELTS Speaking Test before and after the Intervention

	Pre-test score	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Post-test score
Participant	Accuracy: Max score 9	Fluency: Max score 9	Accuracy:Max score 9	Fluency:Max score 9
SEFL22.1	3.5	2	3.5	4
SEFL22.2	3	2	4	3.5
SEFL22.3	3	2.5	4	4
SEFL22.4	2.5	2	3.5	4
SEFL22.5	3.5	2	4	3
SEFL22.6	3.5	3	4	4
SEFL22.7	2	2	3.5	3

SEFL22.8	3	2.5	4	3.5
SEFL22.9	3	2.5	3.5	3.5
SEFL22.10	3.5	2	4	4
SEFL22.11	3	2	3.5	3
SEFL22.12	3	2	4	2.5
SEFL22.13	2.5	2	3.5	3
SEFL22.14	2	1.5	3	2.5
SEFL22.15	3	2	4	3.5
SEFL22.16	3	3	4	3
SEFL22.17	3.5	2.5	4.5	4
SEFL22.18	3.5	2	4	2.5
SEFL22.19	3	2	4	3
SEFL22.20	3	2	3.5	3.5
SEFL22.21	2	2.5	3.5	3

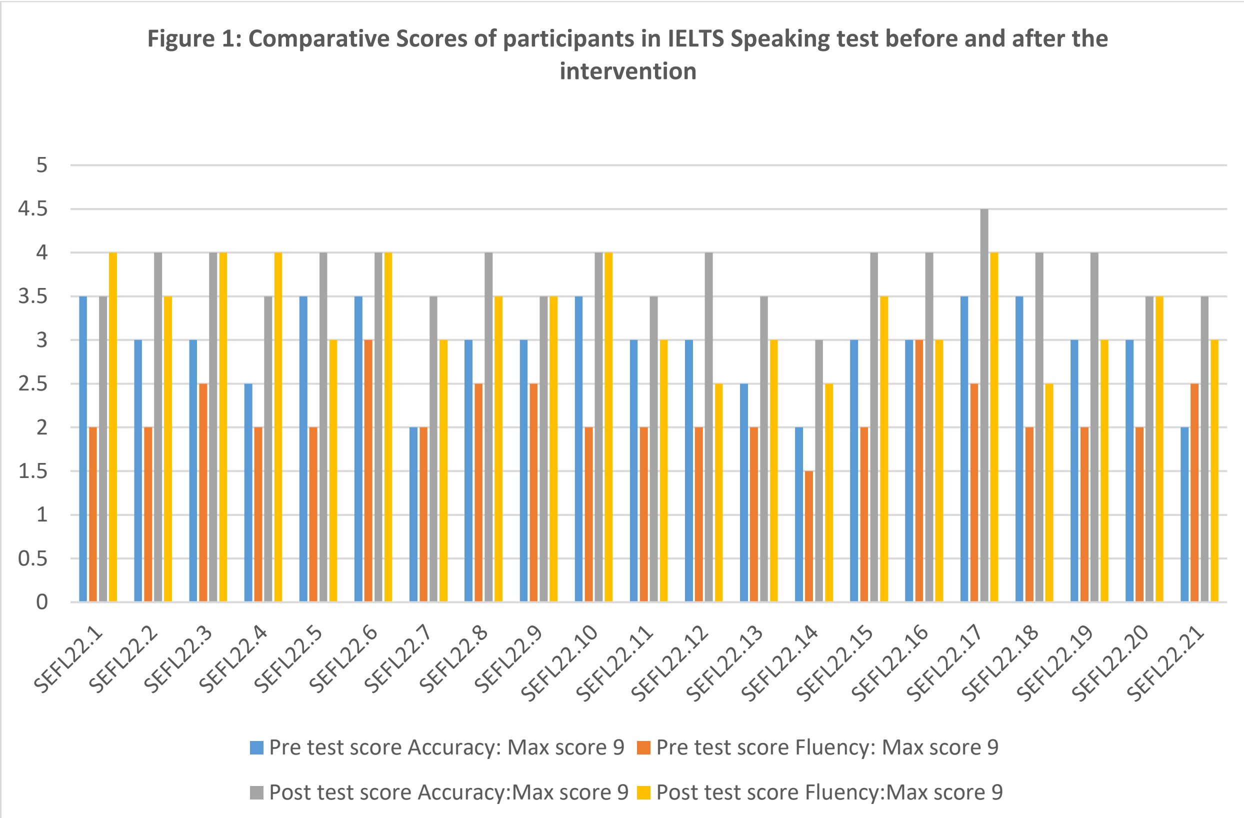
Statistical analysis was performed to arrive at the t and p values in order to check if the change in the pre- and post-test accuracy scores is significant. For this parameter, the$t$-value is -6.34792 and the p-value is < .00001. Interprestationfotehse values indicates a statistically significant change in the participants' performance from the pre- to the post-test at $p < .05$.

Similar analysis was also carried out for the other parameter in the study, viz, fluency. On calculating the t and$p$ values for fluency scores in the IELTS pre- and post-tests, the following values were obtained:

p- value is < .00001 and t-value is -8.07893. In other words, the result is significant at $p < .05$.

The comparative scores are depicted in figure 1 for ease of use.

Figure 1:



The graph clearly indicates an increase in grammatical accuracy between the pre and post test scores which needs to be interpreted with the participants' feedback at the end of the intervention period summarising their views about corrective feedback and the method most preferred by them for this purpose. In Figure 1, the pretest accuracy measures are indicated in blue and the post test in grey bars. For all the participants, except SEFL22.1 whose performance is constant through the two phases, there is better performance on the count of accuracy. Similarly, fluency shows enhancement in all the participants by the end of the intervention. It may be noted that the increase in the participants' band scores in the two tests appear negligible or, at the very best, small. However, the extremely low *p and t* values rule out the possibility of the marginal increase as being attributable to chance alone.

Secondly, though increase in scores may appear to be marginal, it is to be noted that eighteen of the twenty one participants demonstrated a change in the IELTS band after exposure to the intervention, though the overall score is the sum of performance in all the four parts, for our limited purpose the study has used only the sum of two parts. In other words, when a participant moves upwards from a band of '2' to '3', in real terms as a language user, he/ she graduates from ‘intermittent user’ who ‘has great difficulty understanding spoken and written English’ to ‘extremely limited user’ who ‘conveys and understands general meaning in very familiar situations’ albeit with frequent communication breakdowns. Similarly, the difference between a band score of ‘3’ to ‘4’ is from being an ‘extremely limited user’ to ‘limited user’.

Questionnaire

Table 2 below summarises the responses to the perceptions and attitudes questionnaire. The questionnaire has twelve items, and is designed to elicit the following information:

1. What are the participants’ attitudes to CF in a TBLT environment?
2. Which of the three CF measures used in the study are seen by the participants as most favorable to learning?

An initial twenty item questionnaire was designed, and three teacher-trainers were requested to validate the statements. Based on their feedback, the questionnaire was compressed to fifteen items and after a pilot study, redundant items were further weeded out to bring the instrument to twelve statements ensuring reliability of the instrument. The Likert Scale gradient from Fully Agree to Fully Disagree was used to obtain the feedback.

Table 2

No	Statement	Fully agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Fully disagree
1	I feel upset when the teacher corrects my mistakes in the EFL speaking class.	0	1	1	11	8
2	I prefer the teacher to simply restate the corrected version.	2	1	2	7	9
3	It is tiresome when the teacher cues me in to elicit the right answer.	9	5	1	3	3
4	I need corrective feedback to know my mistakes.	14	4	1	2	0

5	I think I will be more proficient in English if I understand the grammatical rules.	10	4	2	4	1
6	When I make a mistake in speaking in English, I remember the grammatical rule if the teacher explains it right then.	13	5	2	1	0
7	It is useless for me to try to relate my speaking with grammar as I cannot remember the rules all the time.	2	2	1	9	7
8	Explicit and direct correction of my mistake backed with the grammar rule in the speaking class is helpful to me.	15	2	0	2	2
9	If the teacher asks me to rephrase what I said incorrectly, I am able to come up with the right version.	0	0	1	10	10
10	The teacher's roundabout cueing to help me arrive at the correct grammatical construction is a helpful technique.	0	0	1	11	9
11	In a task-based speaking activity, immediate feedback is important as then I remember the grammar rule and the correct construction.	12	5	1	2	1
12	I feel my speaking improved with the corrective feedback exercises.	14	3	0	2	2

Statements 2, 3, 9, 10 elicit participants' feedback on recast and prompt as CF methods. Recast is a CF method most favored by EFL teachers in the Saudi classrooms. However, the responses demonstrate that, learners do not see recast and prompt as ideal for their situation. The reason can be that when the teacher gives them the correct answer, the grammatical rule is neither conveyed to them, nor is it reinforced by the task at hand. Similarly, when prompt via indirect questioning or hints is used, learners cannot still come up with the desirable answer, as they do not have sufficient grammatical footing to think of other, viable constructions. Statements 1, 4, 12 elicit the participants' attitudes to the very idea of CF in EFL class. It is heartening that, the participants demonstrated a positive attitude to the idea of CF as they perceive that, without the requisite grounding in grammar, they will not be able to raise their proficiency level. Statements 5, 6, 7, 8, and 11 relate to the participants' attitudes to direct explicit feedback in the TBLT speaking class. This is clearly the most popular choice for CF in TBLT in the Saudi context and should be the preferred choice o the EFL teachers.

Significance of the Study

Results of this study present implications for language teaching not only in the context of Saudi EFL classrooms but also in the global context in the search of improving the communicative competence of ESL learners. The use of TBLT may be widely adopted by language teachers to provide better language learning opportunities to students. The following are possible implications: (1) language teachers should be able to properly integrate CF in TBLT not only in language subjects but also in other content areas since it provides a scaffolding for helping learners overcome the barriers of speaking; (2) there is a felt need for sustained professional development of language teachers through the alignment of correction strategies and TBLT; (3) It is urgent that Saudi language classrooms turn to learner-centred approaches, wherein mistakes and errors are perceived by both the students and teachers as learning opportunioties.

Conclusion

The paper attempted to investigate the effectiveness of Corrective Feedback in enhancing the speaking fluency and accuracy of EFL learners of Saudi EFL using Task-Based Language Teaching. The findings showed that, the use of explicit corrective feedback in TBLT is an effective student-centered approach that helps enhance the speaking fluency and accuracy of Saudi EFL learners, particularly in terms of speech flow and grammatical correctness. The use of active CF significantly improved learners' perceptions of, and aptitudes towards, English language speaking and writing skills.

TBLT is an efficient method in the development of the EFL learners' communication skills. Not only does this method aid in enhancing the learners' speaking and writing skills, but it also helps them gain a key to language profiency: self-confidence. The need for highly-qualified citizens is all the more pressing, particularly in the context of Saudi Arabia; simply because, the country is moving steadily towards a more promising future with tremendous challenges ahead. TBLT helps cater for such a need, and therefore, is a step in the right direction.

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A Linguistic Study of ''and'' (و) in Arabic and English

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Abstract

The conjunctive "and" and its Arabic counterpart "و" are discourse markers that express certain meanings and presuppose the presence of other elements in discourse. They are indispensable aids to both the text writers and readers. The present study aims to show that such cohesive ties help the writer to organize his main argument and communicate his ideas vividly and smoothly. They also serve as explicit signals that help readers unfold text and follow its threads as realized in the progression of context. The researcher has utilized the Quirk Model of Semantic Implication for data analysis. A total of 42 (22 for English and 20 for Arabic) political texts selected from different elite newspapers in both Arabic and English for the analysis. The results of data analysis revealed that "and" and و [wa] are necessary discourse markers that provide surface clues for the interpretation of text and the absence of such clues may cause ambiguity and result in incoherent

discourse. In conclusion it was confirmed that the approach of semantic implications of "and " adopted by Quirk, et, al. suits the characteristics of Arabic text.

Keywords: *and, و, connectives, discourse markers, cohesive ties, conjunction*

Introduction

English language is becoming more important as a universal means of communication, particularly after the recent advances in technology that have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree, Hasan, 2020; Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi, 2019). For a better understanding of discourse, the reader needs to recover the relations between the discourse elements as intended by the writer. Writers can help the reader along by providing explicit lexical signals of the intended discourse relations with connectives.

According to Halliday (1994, p. 17) Conjunctions are “coordinators, subordinators, prepositional phrases, or linguistic expressions that may directly and explicitly mark the structure of discourse, they are transitional expressions that are indispensable to both the text producer and receiver”. These cohesive ties help the former organize his main lines of argument and communicate his ideas and expressions vividly, smoothly and forcefully. It also serves as signposts that help the latter unfold the text and follows its threads as realized in the progression of context. The thematic conjunctions express certain meanings, which presuppose the presence of other elements in discourse and extend the meaning of a sentence to a subsequent one (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). The crucial question that arises in this respect is “Are conjunctions necessary to identify the presence of text relations?” Some linguists like Mann and Thompson (1987) take the position that “the absence of signals does not mean that the relations are not present, just like zero anaphora does not mean that an anaphoric relation is not present”. By comparison, other linguists like Bishop (1993) and Blakemore (1989) would definitely dispute the claim that a “connective is never a necessary signal for text relations”. In Blakemore’s example, *John is a Republican, but he is honest*. She mentions the failure of *John as a Republican* to generate the implicature "*Republicans are not honest*". “The deletion of the conjunctive "*but"* makes it not at all clear and the reader might never understand the contextual assumptions of the implicature” (Cited in Nicholas, 1994: 6). They confirm, among others, that failure to recover such links can result in a text that does not hang tightly together and that may ultimately lead to misinterpretation. Conjunctions are said to provide surface clues for the interpretation of text. In case no such clues are given, relations between text spans remain implicit and often ambiguous, and may result in incoherent discourse (Zebari, Ali & Mohammadzadeh, 2018).

After all, the text is understood to be coherent by virtue of its semantic implications relational structure rather than by virtue of the overt markers signaling relations among its pairs. That is, an increase or decrease in the number of the cohesive ties does not necessarily correlate with an increase or decrease in the reader's ability to understand the intended meaning. A reader can contribute meaning, not provided by the text, to link propositions that seem to be unrelated. This is based on his knowledge of the function of juxtaposition, the physical proximity of textual elements. it is thus better to regard conjunctions in terms of guides for the reader to interpret the text rather than in terms of the necessary signals of text relations.

Conjunctions in English

There is a general consensus that the main cohesive category is ‘conjunction’ since it involves the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses and paragraphs to each other. Conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is said to what has been said before. This kind of cohesive relation is different in nature from the other cohesive relations; i.e. reference, substitution, and ellipsis. In this context, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 226) say “Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primary devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse”.

It should be noted here that several attempts have been made to set up a classification of conjunctions in English. Yet all face the same difficulties in that each classification highlighted only different aspects of the facts. This is due to the broadness of the conjunction relations. Halliday and Hassan for example, in their model, classify conjunctions in terms of their cohesive relations in discourse. They claim that this classification could handle all the possible sub-categories. They believe that a conjunction in discourse is additive, adversative, causal, or temporal (Zebari, Ali & Mohammadzadeh, 2019).

1 '' and '' in English

Halliday and Hassan (1976) stated that “group the conjunctives 'and' 'or', and 'nor' under the heading 'additive' and they state that these discourse markers are all used cohesively, as conjunctions and all of them are classified as additive”. Halliday and Hassan (1976: p.213) also added that "all three, ‘and’, ‘or’, and ‘nor’, may express either the external or the internal type of conjunctive relation then in the additive context there may be no very clear difference between the two; but when ‘and’ is used alone as a cohesive item, it often seems to have the sense of ‘there is something more to be said’, which is clearly internal", as in:

A. Pentagon officials said getting troops to that level could take some time. And U.S. troops probably will return as part of a "gradual process. The internal ‘and’ is of a different kind. Text producers use it to link a series of questions, as in

B. Who knows which way the Abrams tank barrels will swivel next? And who in Damascus, Tehran or Riyadh is entirely sure that the Iraqi people's release will not find willing emulators there?

It is believed that the typical context for the conjunctive ‘and’ is one in which there is a total shift in the participants from one sentence to the next. Yet the two sentences are very definitely part of a text, as in:

C. No foreign policy is sustainable without the support of the American people, and it's clear that support is waning," Kennedy said in a statement.

Note that ‘and’ in the above indicated examples is perhaps on the border line. It links two different facts which makes it external, still at the same time it may serve to convey the writer's intention that they should be regarded as connected in some way. The negative form of the additive relation is expressed simply as ‘nor’, as in ‘nor can I’.

In addition, there are specific forms of the ‘and’ relation occurring only in an internal sense, for instance, that of ‘there is yet another point to be taken in connection with the previous one’. There are a large number of conjunctive expressions that have just this meaning, e.g.: further, furthermore, again, also, moreover, what is more, etc. These expressions are said to give rhetorical flavor, as in:

D. It must not be left to the generals in the field. Further, it must assume, based on experience from Germany to Korea to Afghanistan that a U.S. commitment, once embarked upon, will not soon be over.

By way of comparison, Quirk, et al. (1985, p.257) state that “***and*** denotes a relationship between the contents of clauses, in other words, the coordinator ***''and''*** can express several semantic implications as inerstructural conjunctive”. These semantic implications can be explicitly illustrated by the use of "and". They classify such semantic implications as follows:

1. The event in the second clause is a consequence or result of the event in the first one :
   "He heard an explosion and he (therefore) phoned the police."
2. The event in the second clause is chronologically sequent to the event in the first one as in:
   "She washed the dishes and (then) she dried them."
3. The second clause introduces a contrast and "and" could be replaced by "but" :
   "Robert is secretive and (but) David is candid."
4. The second clause is a comment on the first one:
   "They dislike John and that is not surprising."
5. The second clause introduces an element of surprise in view of the content of the first:
   "He tried hard and (yet) he failed. Note here that *but* could replace *and*."
6. The first clause is a condition of the second one:
   Give me some money and (then) I will help you escape. This implication means Give me some money. If you do, (then) I will help you escape.
   According to Quirk, et al. (1985, p.257) stated that "the conditional implication, a. The second clause has a modal auxiliary. b. the verb of the first clause is an imperative or contains a modal auxiliary."
7. The second clause makes a point similar to the first one:
8. The second clause is a pure addition to the first one
   He has long hair and (also) he wears jeans

Conjunctions in Arabic

Generally, Arab grammarians showed the conjunctions according to their different significance as أدوات الربط [’adawātū al-rabṭ] or حروف العطف [hu:rūfū al-‘aṭf], i.e. connective particles. Occasionally Arab grammarians treated under the headings عطف نسق [’aṭf nasaq] "conjunction of sequence" and عطف بيان[‘aṭf bayān] "explicative apposition". For most of the Arab grammarians, "conjunctions are treated as linking devices, and their function is mainly to coordinate units such as words, phrases, clauses, sentences, etc". Old classical Arab grammarians were basically interested only in أعـراب [al-’i‘rāb], i.e. case or mood inflection, in their descriptions of the conjunctions. That is, the textual function fulfilled by the conjunctions in discourse has been completely neglected or overlooked.

However, recently, "the textual function of conjunctions in Arabic has attracted the attentions of many discourse analysts (e.g. Beeston 1968, Wright 1974, Cantarino 1975, Williams 1989 and Holes 1995, etc.)". In his book *The Syntax of Modern Arabic Prose* published in (1975), Cantarino puts forward a full account and detailed analysis and description of the syntactic and semantic features of the cohesive category "conjunctions" in Arabic. He investigates "the different functions a single connective may perform in different contexts. The most commonly used connective particles in Arabic are: و [wa] ‘and’, ف [fa] ‘and/then’, ثم [thumma] ‘then’, أم [’am] ‘or’, أو [’aw] ‘or’, لكنَ [la: kinna] and لكن[la: kin] *but*". Consider the following example

وكما هو معروف فقد تشبثت ايران بالاستمرار في الحرب **و**رفضت وقفها بعد ان استعادت توازنها العسكري

5. As everybody knows, Iran dug in pursuit of war **and** refused to stop it after it gained its military balance.

In the same vein, Aziz (1989), and Mathkour, et al., (2008) revealed that “Arabic makes frequent use of conjunctions to build texts. It is to be emphasized here "that the phenomenon of "implicit conjunction" is rare in Arabic, where the general tendency is to express explicitly the relationships between the sentences of a text”. As it is indicated above, the most commonly used connective particles in Arabic are: و [wa] ‘and’, ف [fa] ‘and/then’, ثم [thumma] ‘then’, أم [’am] ‘or’, أو [’aw] ‘or’, لكنَ [la:kinna] and لكن [la: kin] ‘but’.

3.1 و [*wa*] ‘And’

The conjunctive و [*wa*] ‘*and’* is the most common cohesive device in Arabic. “It is used to connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Unlike the English *and*, the Arabic *wa* is repeated before every item coordinated with the one before, no matter how many items are listed”. However, the fact of the matter is that the Arabic و *wa* is not one but several particles, each having a different function. Holes (1995, p. 217) notes that:

> "[wa] is the primitive conjunctive particle: it is the most commonly encountered sentence connective and has the widest variety of uses, analogous in these aspects to English "and". Unlike English "and", however, [wa] regularly functions as a textual, as well as a sentence-connective."

The conjunctive وَ [wa] in Arabic, like its equivalent in other Semitic languages, often serves to connect two clauses, the second of which describes the state or condition of an element (i.e. the subject or one of its complements) in the preceding clause. Aziz (1989, p. 211) confirms that "the Arabic و has generally the meanings of English "and". He list the following semantic relations expressed by و"

1. It can join two clauses in a general way (X and Y).

The conjunctive [wa] tend to *Joint* two adjacent clauses, the unit that contains the marker with the unit that comes before. Both units are intended as equally important in the text for the reader", as in:

فهناك من يجد في مغادرة القوات الأمريكية فرصـة سـانحة للاعتماد على الذات **و**النأي بالعراق بعيدا عن الاعتماد على الولايات المتحدة,

Some people find the US Forces pullout as an opportunity for self-defense and ***wa*** *for taking Iraq away from depending on the USA.*

2. The second clause may be subsequent or a result of the first one.

ولكن المصالحة الاهم التي وعد الرئيس اوباما بتحقيقها بين امريكا والعالم الاسلامي في عهد ادارته هي التي اجهضت، و ظلت نطفة ولم تتطور حتى الى جنين,

During his ruling phase, the most important reconciliation, which Obama has promised to achieve between America and the Islamic World, is, however, the one which has been aborted. And the reconciliation remained a cell and has never been developed into an embryo.

3. It can express chronological sequence (X then Y)

The conjunctive وَ [wa] can also be used to express sequence between the clauses that it connects, i.e. it links successive episodes in a discourse, as in:

صـــبّت 33 دولة عربية وإســـلامية وأجنبية أكثر من مليون جندي في الأراضـــي وأحكمت البر والبحر والجو، **و**بدأت حرب قوى التحالف 377 جندياً و75 طائرة، كان عدد منها بـ "نيران صديقة", استمرت نحو 40 يوما تكبدت خلالها

*Thirty-three Arab, Islamic and foreign states poured more than a million troops in the Gulf land, sea and air and **wa** launched a war that lasted about 40 days.*

Here, the cue phrase وَ [wa] is used to signal the successive relationship between the two clauses.

4. To express simultaneous action (X at the same time as Y)

The conjunctive particle [wa] can be also used in Arabic to express simultaneous action without giving particular topical prominence, i.e. it does not explicitly indicate which happens first, as in:

وفي نفس الوقت عبرت الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية عن رضـــا عميق تجاه نتيجة هذه الحرب **و**عن مباركة غير مباشـــرة للدور الذي قام به النظام العراقي لتحجيم ايران

*At the same time, America expressed its deep relief concerning the result of that war and **wa** indirectly blessed the role played by the Iraqi regime to curb Iran.*

5. The relation between the two clauses may be one of concession.

The conjunctive particle و [wa] is used also in Arabic to express an adversative relation between the clauses it connects. Holes (1995:219) notes:

Without any adverbial support, wa may link two sentences which are overtly or implicitly mutual inconsistent or when the second implies a restriction or concession of some kind on the first.

وبدلا من تحقيق العدالة و نظام ديمقراطي مســـتقر وآمن , كما وعدت الحكومة العراقيين , يواجه العراقيون الموت والقهر كل يوم في الشارع والعمل وداخل بيوتهم.

And instead of achieving peace and establishing a democratic, stable and safe regime, as government has promised, Iraqis face death and oppression every day on the streets, workplaces and homes

6. The second clause may be a comment on the first one.

قد تصل المفاوضات الى طريق مسدودة وهو مايحاول ان يتجنبه الطرفان.

The talks may reach deadlock **and [wa]** that is what both parties are trying to avoid.

7. It may express contrast.

لجنة التحقيق البريطانية برئاسة اللورد شيلكوت هي لجنة سياسية **و**ليست محكمة قضائية

*The British Commission of Inquiry chaired by Lord Chilcot is a political commission, and **wa** not a court of law.*

It must be noted here that وَ [wa] has various types in Arabic like [wa:w l-ma‘i:ya] or [wa:w l-muSa:Haba], both of which mean the [wa:w] of simultaneous actions and [wa:w al-luzu:wm], i.e. [wa:w] of adherence. These do not concern us here as they occur below the sentence level. However, they do illustrate the dynamism of the connective [wa]. In terms of functions, the connective و [wa] has subtle and other varied functions; it may express circumstantial relations (X in CIRCUMSTANCE Y). consider the following example:

وَقَد أغتَدِي **وَ**ٱلطَّيرُ في وُكُنَاتِهَا

*and sometimes I go forth early, **wa** while the birds are still in their nest*

(Wright, 1974:330)

Here, the discourse markerوَ [wa] is used to connect the two clauses to indicate the surrounding circumstances in which the main action ‘going’ occurred. In this context, it must be pointed out that this usage of [wa] in Arabic is called وَاوُ الـحَـالِ [*wa:w al-Ha:l*] ‘when/while’ which is a circumstantial [wa]. As the name implies, [*wa:w al-Ha:l*] introduces a circumstantial clause that “ has the function of describing a situation which is represented as simply an attendant circumstance to the main statement, or an intention present at that time” (Beeston, 1968:81).

Similarly, Wright has also noticed the [wa], which introduces a circumstantial clause, is called by the Arab grammarians either وَاوُ الحَالِ [*waw* l-Ha:l], the *wa:w* of the state, condition or circumstance or وَاوُ الِأبتِدآءِ [wa:w al-ibtida:’], the *wa:w* of the commencement" (1974: 332-3).

Cantarino (1975) upholds a similar point of view. He considers “the connective وَ [wa], which introduces circumstantial clauses, as a coordinating conjunction, despite the fact that it always introduces circumstantial clauses, i.e. subordinate clauses”(p.45). He states that “the two sentences connected by the conjunctive و *wa* are frequently in an adversative relationship, such as ‘but’, ‘yet’ especially when one of the statements is negative” (p. 46).

Research Methodology

Data collection

The researcher uses the semantic implications of "and which is "proposed by Quirk, et al. (1985) to analyze (42) texts chosen randomly from high Standard Arabic and English newspapers. The corpus has different communicative goals, domains, and intended readers.

Data description

As a genre of political language, an editorial is a piece of writing in a newspaper that expresses the editor's opinion about something rather than reporting facts. The role of editor is to comment on the news, not reporting them. He can usually assume that “readers have some familiarity with the topic under discussion and his purpose is to provide his own assessment and skilled opinions of current issues, giving whatever basis or evidence he feels necessary to convince readers to accept his point of view” (Jordan, 1984, p.98). The main purpose of editorials is to influence the opinion of readers on some controversial issue.

An editorial has to be looked at differently since its content is different from the rest of the newspaper or magazine items. An editorial is an inward looking page while a newspaper or any other publication discloses the outside events. It gives an editor the chance to express judgments, forward a new different look about the future, make pronouncements and warn of impending doom.

Editorials are usually organized along three schematic categories:

1. Definition of the situation: what happened? This category subjectively summarizes the recent news events.
2. Evaluation: This category provides the evaluation of the news events.
3. Conclusion: This final category features expectations about future developments, or normative opinions, viz., recommendations about what specific news actors should do, or should not.

Data Analysis

English Data Analysis

1. The event in the second clause is a consequence or result of the event in the first one:

“That was the line taken last night by Iraq, which claimed it had "forgotten" the munitions, ***and*** *thus omitted them from its 12,000-page declaration on its arms programmes made to the UN in December.*

More than 3,000 Al Qaeda leaders, agents and supporters have been arrested in 98 countries in the last 15 months ***and*** *this has reduced the threat of terrorism significantly.”*

The CIA and administration officials have said they were surprised by the advanced state of Iraq's pre-1991 nuclear program, which was discovered after the war, ***and*** *therefore were more prone to overestimate Iraq's capability when solid proof was unavailable.*

2. The event in the second clause is chronologically sequent to the event in the first one as in:

“The assault would not be aimed at them (Iraqis), ***and*** *US troops would bring food and medicine*,

He said that only a "small number of Iraqi security forces are taking on the insurgents and terrorists by themselves," ***and*** *he estimated that one-third of the Iraqi army's battalions are capable of counterinsurgency operations with coalition support and two-thirds are "partially capable."*

Success in Iraq is also closely linked with ongoing political and economic processes. The Pentagon expects a draft constitution to be ready by Aug. 15 ***and*** *hopes the nation will be able to vote on the document in October.”*

3. The second clause introduces a contrast and "and" could be replaced by "but":

“Sometimes war proves unstoppable ***and*** *(but) it is seldom OK.*

Sen. Edward M. Kennedy (D-Mass.), a member of the Armed Services Committee, said it is "obvious that the training program is in trouble" ***and*** *argued that the readiness evaluations of Iraqi forces should made be public.*

The risks of war with North Korea or Iran are evident ***and*** *the cost of leaving nuclear weapons in the hands of a Mahmoud Ahmadinejad or a Kim Jong IL may not become evident until the price has been paid.”*

4. The second clause is a comment on the first one:

“But many others will see it as the "smoking gun" amounting to a "material breach" of the United Nations resolutions on disarmament, ***and*** *proving the lie of Iraq's claim not to have any banned weapons.*

"No foreign policy is sustainable without the support of the American people, ***and*** *it's clear that support is waning," Kennedy said in a statement.*

If reconstruction works ***and*** *that is an enormous "if", a resource-rich, democratic Iraq may become the throbbing engine of the Middle East”.*

5. The second clause introduces an element of surprise in view of the content of the first. Note here that "but" could replace "and".

“Iraqi security forces are not yet ready to defend their country on their own against a stubborn insurgency, ***and*** *most of the nation's army battalions are able to fight with help from U.S. and coalition forces,*

Pentagon officials said getting troops to that level could take some time, ***and*** *U.S. troops probably will return as part of a "gradual process".*

Even now, though, many of the lessons that others draw from Iraq do not strike us as obvious. Unquestionably, for example, the experience has shown the risks of preemptive war. ***And*** *it remains true in an era of ruthless, suicidal terrorists and easily smuggled weapons of unimaginable destructive power that not acting also can be dangerous.”*

6. The first clause is a condition of the second one:

“In a televised address to the nation, Mr. Bush urged Iraqi soldiers not to fight for a "dying regime" ***and*** *said they would be given instructions on what to do to avoid being "attacked and destroyed.*

This implication means *if Iraqi soldiers don’t fight for a dying regime, they would* avoid *being "attacked and destroyed".”*

7. The second clause makes a point similar to the first one:

“The Security Council would then meet to consider the situation ***and*** *the need for full compliance with all the relevant council resolutions in order to secure international peace.*

The 23-page report was presented to Congress as a detailed review of where the war in Iraq stands, ***and*** *much of the document argued that economic, political and security indicators are heading in the right direction.*

But the picture today is dire, and very different from what we would have hoped or predicted four years ago. The cost in lives, injuries and dislocations, to Americans and Iraqis, has been tragic;"

8. The second clause is a pure addition to the first one

"A number of key Muslim countries in Asia, such as Malaysia, Indonesia and Pakistan, have cooperated with the United States in countering terrorism.

An invasion that lacks a broad base of support in the Islamic community is likely to cause severe disruption and damage to the security, intelligence, law enforcement and judicial cooperation that the U.S. government has built in Muslim countries since 2001.

Iraq has allowed inspectors to work with unprecedented freedom, entering Saddam's palaces, visiting the bases of Iranian dissident groups)[1] *(and searching the homes of Iraqi scientists."*

Arabic Data Analysis

The conjunctive particle [wa] "وَ " is the most generally used connective in Arabic. It is multi-functional; it can be coordinating and adversative to signal many semantic implications as indicated in the following texts:

1. The event in the second clause is a consequence or result of the event in the first one:

كما ينبغي اعادة النظر في بناء المؤسسات الديمقراطية وتحديد مسؤولية السلطات الثلاث , وعند الخلاف تكون المرجعية الى الشعب.

Reconsideration should be made towards the building of democratic institutions, in determining the responsibility of the three legislative authorities, ***and [wa]*** *in case of dispute, the people are to be the judge.*

حاول بلير أن يبريء نفسه، فأكد أن قراره كان صائبا، **والعراق** الآن أفضل مما كان تحت قيادة صدام حسين، الذي كان يهدد سلام العالم.

Blair tried to clear himself by emphasizing that his decision was correct ***and [wa]*** *Iraq now was better than it used to be under the reign of Saddam who tried to threaten the international peace.*

بل ويطالب البعض من زعماء العراق من أمريكا البقاء إلى حين ,سوف نسمع الكثير من التفجيرات ونعد الكثير من الضحايا ونجمع المئات من الأشلاء في بغداد وغيرها من مدن العراق.

*In fact, some Iraqi leaders ask America to stay in Iraq for a period of time. We will hear a lot of bombings, count numerous casualties, **and [wa]** collect hundreds of body parts in Baghdad and other Iraqi cities.*

2. The event in the second clause is chronologically sequent to the event in the first one as in:

وكما هو معروف فقد تشبثت ايران بالاستمرار في الحرب **و**رفضت وقفها بعد ان استعادت توازنها العسكري

*As everybody knows, Iran dug in pursuit of war **and [wa]** refused to stop it after it gained its military balance*

اجدادنا قالوا: متى استعبدتم الناس وقد ولدتهم امهاتهم احرارا؟ **و**من ثُـــم جاء الفيلسوف الفرنسي العظيم جان جاك روسو وقال: يلد الأنسان حر فيكبل بلقيود.

*Our forefathers said: how could man enslave people, when they were born free? **And [wa]** then the great French philosopher Jean Jacques Rousseau came afterwards to say: Man is born free but only to be chained with shackles.*

وفي نفس الوقت دعمت العراق ووفرت له فيما بعد خريطة دقيقة اطلعته على المنافذ التي أدت الى اسـتعادة الفاو على يد القوات العراقية،

At the same time, America supported Iraq, and then provided it with a precise map that showed the ports that led to the restoration of Fao by the Iraqi Forces.

3. The second clause introduces a contrast and "and" could be replaced by "but":

في المقابل هنالك من اعتمد على اســـتراتيجية جديدة في العراق , المزيد من الهجمات والخســـائر الفادحة في صـــفوف الجيش الأمريكي **و**طرف آخر إعتمد على التصعيد الأمني في شوارع بغداد ,المزيد من السيارات المفخخة

*Conversely, others depend on a new strategy in Iraq: more attacks and, then, heavy losses in the ranks of the US Army. **And [wa]** another party depends on the military escalation on the streets of Baghdad: more car bombs.*

لجنة التحقيق البريطانية برئاسة اللورد شيلكوت هي لجنة سياسية **و**ليست محكمة قضائية.

*The British Commission of Inquiry chaired by Lord Chilcot is a political commission, **and** not a court of law,*

4. The second clause is a comment on the first one:

المصالحة الوطنية في العراق لم تتم، **و**فرص اتمامها المستقبلية باتت اكثر تعقيدا.

*In Iraq, the national reconciliation has not been achieved, **and [wa]** its future achievement has become more complicated.*

حذر بلير من الخطر الذي يهدد العالم الآن من إيران ومحاولاتها تـــــطوير أسلحة نووية والنظـــام الايراني القائم أخطر من عراق صدام حسين.

*Blair warned against the danger that threatened the world represented by Iran and its attempts to develop nuclear weapons. **And [wa]** that the present Iranian regime is more dangerous than Saddam Hussein's Iraq.*

في الجانب الآخر يقف الســاســة العراقيين بين مؤيد أو معارض, حيث تباينت الآراء بشــكل يدعو الجميع إلى التمعن بجدية الانســحاب الأمريكي المزعوم وما ســوف تترتب على هذا القرار من إســقاطات على المشــهد العراقي.

*On the other hand, the Iraqi politicians are divided into supporters and opponents. The viewpoints vary in a manner that invites everybody to think of the seriousness of the alleged announced US pullout **and [wa]** the consequences of this decision on the Iraqi view.*

5. The second clause introduces an element of surprise in view of the content of the first:

جرائم صــدام ليضــعه في مصــاف الشــهداء والصــالحين فقط لأنه أعدم بطريقة لا تخلو من وعودة الانقســام بين من تناســى البشر التساؤلات واختلاف التفاسير، **و** بين من عدّه مجرماً يجوز فيه ما لا يجوز على غيره من

*Dissection returned back: between those who forgot Saddam's crimes and consider him a righteous and martyr only because he was executed in a questionable manner that had different justifications, **and [wa]** others who considered him a criminal who deserved to be treated in a manner that no other human deserved.*

وفي عام 2005 عاد العراق الى النظام الديمقراطي عبر دسـتور 2005 الذي لايخلو من الارباك لاسـباب محاصـصــاتية. ومن المضحك المبكي , ان تصبح واردات النفط هي ايضا ديمقراطية!!

*In 2005, Iraq turned to be a democratic system through the passing of the 2005 Constitution that is not free of confusion for sectarian allocations. **And [wa]** it is ludicrous that even oil imports are to become democratic!*

وبدلا من تحقيق العدالة و نظام ديمقراطي مســتقر وآمن , كما وعدت الحكومة العراقيين , يواجه العراقيون الموت والقهر كل يوم في الشارع والعمل وداخل بيوتهم.

And [و]*instead of achieving peace and establishing a democratic, stable and safe regime, as government has promised, Iraqis face death and oppression every day on the streets, workplaces and homes*

6. The second clause makes a point similar to the first one:

عن مباركة غير مباشرة للدور **و** وفي نفس الوقت عبرت الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية عن رضا عميق تجاه نتيجة هذه الحرب الذي قام به النظام العراقي لتحجيم ايران

At the same time, America expressed its deep relief concerning the result of that war ***and [wa]*** *indirectly blessed the role played by the Iraqi regime to curb Iran.*

وانحجبت أخبار العنف والقتال، وأخبار القتلى والجرحى التي تقع يوميا والمواجهات: "مقاومة" أو "إرهاب" أو غيرها.

The news about the violence and fighting was overshadowed ***and [wa]*** *the news of the daily killed or wounded or the daily confrontations, "resistance," "terrorism," etc, was also overshadowed.*

والمرامي لما وجدنا ما يشفع لكل هذا الخراب والانشطار العربي الذي لازم الأمة لعقد ولو عدنا للتساؤل عن الأسباب والأهداف من الزمان تقريباً ،

If we go back to questioning the causes, objectives and intentions, we would not find satisfactory answers that would justify all that destruction ***and [wa]*** *Arab dissection that accompanied the nation for nearly a decade*.

7. The second clause is a pure addition to the first one

فلا بأس, نحن علمنا بلأ مس , ولا بأس ان نتعلم من البشرية درساً جديدا قد يطور درسنا في الماضي التليد .

Thus, there is nothing wrong, in being learned yesterday, and there is no harm learning a new lesson from our honoured past.

فهناك من يجد في مغادرة القوات الأمريكية فرصة سانحة للاعتماد على الذات والنأي بالعراق بعيدا عن الاعتماد على الولايات المتحدة،

Some people find the US Forces pullout as an opportunity for self-defense ***and [wa]*** *for taking Iraq away from depending on the USA.*

وكشف بلير عن أن الكثير من القادة العرب أعربوا عن ارتياحهم لإسقاط نظام صدام, وأضاف أن صدام الذي وصفه بالسفاح كان يمثل خطرا على عملية السلام

Blair uncovered the fact that many Arab leaders expressed their relief for ousting Saddam's regime. And he added that Saddam, who was described as a blood thirsty, represented a threat to the peace process.

Results and Discussion

1. Similarities and differences

The examination of the structuring system of both corpora has revealed drastic similarity between the two languages in using "and" و to express many semantic implications. Yet, Arabic و lacks the semantic implication of "condition" as the analysis of the data reveals that. In accordance no significant differences between the two languages are found in the use of "and" "و" to express the semantic implications proposed by Quirk, et al. (1985).

Table 1. The frequency of occurrence of and "و" in Arabic and English Articles

Semantic implications	English Arts.	Arabic Arts.	Total	Percentage
Result	3	3	6	14.28%
Sequence	3	3	6	14.28%
Contrast	3	2	5	11.90%
Comment	3	3	6	14.28%
Concession	3	3	6	14.28%
Condition	1	0	1	2.38%
Similarity	3	3	6	14.28%
Addition	3	3	6	14.28%
Total	**22**	**20**	**42**	**100%**

2. Text Segmentation

This proved to be one of the most problematic areas of the research. The problem arises because of the difficulty of formally defining the written Arabic sentence in Arabic. In English, the written sentence always begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. However, even if a text is unpunctuated, sentences can usually be picked out. This is because English has a clear distinction between subordinating and coordinating conjunctions on the one hand and discourse adjuncts on the other.

None of these criteria is applicable to Arabic. There are no capital letters in Arabic, and punctuation is used very erratically. Furthermore there are other three factors which make the formal definition of the Arabic written sentence impossible, if not misguided. Firstly, there is no clear distinction between subordinating and coordinating conjunctions on the one hand and discourse adjuncts on the other. Secondly, Arab grammarians use "و" [wa] as a coordinator and a subordinator, and in places to hold clauses apart rather than to draw them together. Thirdly, in Arabic the indefinite relative clause is structurally independent of its containing clause. Thus, asyndetically linked clauses may be structurally related whereas syndetically related clauses need not be structurally related.

For the purpose of this research paper, the articles are segmented into distinct units of rhetorical relations. Generally, following Mann and Thompson (1987), independent, subordinate, and non-restrictive clauses are considered distinct units whereas embedded clauses are kept with the embedding phrase and sub clausal constituents are not considered separate units.

In addition to unit segmentation stipulated above, we report here on a technique to segment the Arabic texts while respecting their semantic implication. The technique is based on connecting words (discourse markers) between sentences and clauses as Arab writers in known literature usually use them (Touir, et al., p. 2008).

A point to be noted here is that the researcher sometimes deviates from purely clausal unit segmentation when appropriate. Following Marcu (2000, p. 410) who states that "in the texts that I analyzed, I did not use an objective definition of elementary unit. Rather I relied on a more intuitive one: whenever I found that a rhetorical relation held between two spans of text of significant sizes …, I assigned those spans an elementary unit status, although in some cases they were not full-fledged clauses". Many linguists discuss problems of unit segmentation at length. Taboada and Mann (2005) point out that "one method of unit segmentation may not be appropriate in all instances".

Conclusion

This paper arises several fundamental results. The conjunctive particle and [wa] "وَ" in both Arabic and English languages prove to be one of the most significant discourse markers that help readers to understand the semantic implications of text relations. And this clearly confirms that conjunctions in general and "and" [wa] in particular are necessary connectives to provide surface clues for the interpretation of text. By contrast, if such clues like "and' is absent, relations between text units remain implicit and may cause ambiguity and result in incoherent discourse.

The analysis of the data under study confirms that the approach of semantic implications of "and " adopted by Quirk, et, al. suits the characteristics of Arabic text. It is an approach which is flexible enough to be adapted to Arabic to deal with text coherence of the text and avoid the disadvantages of previous approaches.

In addition, the data analysis reveals that the segmentation of texts into their units is a problem in Arabic rather than English and this is due to the fact that Arabic does not have clear distinction between subordination and coordination.

Pedagogical Implications

Conjunctions are flexible and useful tools that help native and non-native students improve their writing skills in terms of using such discourse markers like "و " in Arabic and "and" in English . However, there is a fallacy, which assumes that because a student writes an adequate essay in his/her native language, s/he can necessarily write an adequate essay in the second language. This assumption is fallacious and has become more and more apparent as teaching English as a second language. Non-native learners who have demonstrated syntactic structures have still demonstrated inability to compose adequate essays, themes, term papers, etc. Whenever you read SL learners' essays, term papers, etc., you could easily come up with the conclusion that "the material is all here, but it seems somehow out of focus", or "lacks organization", or "lacks cohesion". Thus, in teaching paragraph writing, the teachers must be aware of these facts and must make them overtly apparent to their students. A teaching approach based on conjunctions can help students, as lexical realizations of certain clusters of features, handle clauses, sentences and texts within a uniform framework. Yet, the mapping between form and function of them is not one-to-one, but many-to-many.

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Critical Discourse Analysis and Its Potential for English Language Teaching: A Study on Beauty Advertisement Products in Indonesia

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Abstract

Language is one of the essential features in beauty product advertisements as it is used not only to disseminate the products but also to approach the psychology of the target customers. In this study, the researchers aimed to analyze how language is implemented in three prominent beauty product advertisements in Indonesia (Wardah, Inez, and Sariayu) posted on YouTube by using Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) model by Fairclough (1995a). To uncover advertisers' strategies, the researchers used three interconnected dimensions in analyzing the advertisements: text dimensions (micro), discourse practices (meso), and socio-cultural practices (macro). A table of discourse practices combined with the socio-cultural practices was provided to gain more evidence of the words and phrases used in the advertisements and social life reality affected by the advertisements. Findings from this study showed that the advertisers used an intimate approach and personalised word choices to attract target customers. Figures of beautiful women were also presented to direct audiences' perception of beautiful women. Also, the advertisements strongly suggest their products serve as potential answers to meet the intended appearance needs of the consumers. Further, this study suggested some pedagogical implications to shed light for English teachers to implement the potential benefits of CDA for the language classroom, for it can serve as a bridge between language teaching and phenomenon happening in the society.

Keywords: *Beauty Advertisement, Critical Discourse Analysis, English Language Teaching, Linguistics, Sociocultural Practice*

Introduction

The advertising world today has proliferated from the artistic sides to methodology and media innovation. A large number of fascinating advertisings were brought into the world from startling imaginative idea, but simultaneously was executed with advanced last touch or creating.

Nowadays, advertising is additionally utilized for an increasingly significant reason, which is building the brand and attaching values so that the consumers become steadfast and even love or have a sense of belonging with the brand (Wijaya, 2012). Simply put, modern advertising is a crucial connection that plans to achieve something – to make an influence, by which we indicate a specific customer reaction, for example, getting data or convincing somebody to accomplish something (Moriarty et al., 2009).

Lane et al. (2011) expressed that advertising is a message paid for by distinguished support and, for the most part, conveyed through some mode of mass correspondence (Wijaya, 2012). The primary guideline of acceptable advertising is that it must work around the general showcasing design and execute the correspondence components of a progressively extensive advertising program. Another expert, Egan (2015), characterized advertising is a non-individual type of mass correspondence with a high level of control over design and arrangement yet conceivably a low level of influence and credibility. It is rarely either neutral or fair. Edwards (2008) stated that advertising drives the economy, raises the standard of living, and rewards us with information and entertainment. Besides, advertising also demonstrates and adds to forming the bigger society. Nonetheless, advertising can do and ought to accomplish more. Therefore, to uncover the motives behind an advertisement, we need to have a closer look at how language is utilized to have an impact in the society, for example, by directing our view to the advertisements on the social media. Nowadays, it is common that millions of people are easily connected through social media and influenced by the contents they view on the platform. For example, many women are affected by cosmetic beauty advertisements and have made a physical appearance as one of their absolute needs to confidently perform in the society (Kaur et al., 2013). In other words, advertisements can gradually change the lifestyle of consumers with the products they offer. To persuade their prospective customers, advertisers should indeed make an effort to ensure their products are competitive in the market so that their customers could shift from other brands to their brand. Jhally (1995, cited in Yousefi & Farzad, 2019) contended that in modern society, advertising serves as the most influential institution of socialization. This method has been proven effective in changing women's perspectives. Zuraidah and Ling (2010) believed that consumers could be consumptive with advertising (Yousefi & Rostami, 2019). Simply put, advertisements do not only sell their products but also attract consumers to buy the products.

Having described how advertisements could significantly affect the lives of most women, this study viewed the importance of uncovering the motives in beauty product advertisements in Indonesia and of understanding how language is utilized in the advertisements. In the field of Applied Linguistics, such investigation has typically been conducted under the critical discourse analysis (CDA), a unification of text analysis, process analysis, and cultural society analysis, which include three elements, such as representation, relations, and identity (Fairclough, 1995a). The overall analysis emphasizes that particular language use is usually motivated by the situation surrounding where the language is used to convey the meaning (Mulyana, 2005, cited in Zulianto, 2019).

Scholars who used the CDA framework in their research broaden in various fields of social issues, gender issues, feminists, ideology, politics, policy, and other issues. In the context of CDA, these issues are examined through the approach of reality between language, context, text, and research issues as objects of study (Gee & Handford, 2013 in Salahudin, 2019). Meanwhile, Ulinnuha et al. (2013) put more emphasis on analyzing CDA used in social studies approaches and frameworks. Meyer and Wodak (2001) state, "CDA aims to investigate critically social inequality as it is expressed, signaled, constituted, legitimized, and so on by language use or in discourse (p. 2)." Therefore, the CDA approach is suitable for this study because advertisements, in this case, are created as a social practice in the form of text and talk (Abcha, 2016), which are inserted to persuade, attract and change the mindset of consumers (El-Daly, 2011).

In the discourse practice section, the analysis is centered on how the language is utilized and is interpreted by the society (Fairclough, 1992, 1995b). Based on the abovementioned discussion, this article aims to critically analyze beauty product advertisements appearing on YouTube. Since beauty products are aimed to gain the public's perception of buying their products, we focused on how language is utilized by the advertisers. In social practices, CDA has combined different branches of learning, such as economics, politics, and education. In the field of education, especially language teaching, CDA techniques are applied to develop learners' critical thinking and attitudes about learning the English language. Hence, another purpose of this study is to explore the potential of CDA and investigate the effect of teaching CDA in English Language Teaching on the increase of students' critical language awareness (CLA) of advertisements.

Methods

This study applied the qualitative method in analyzing the advertisement text of beauty products. The study focused on how text makers string words so that they persuade and attract people to buy them and form certain realities. Accordingly, the researchers used the CDA model offered by Fairclough (1995a), where he developed the analysis to seek the relationship between a language and a wider society. However, the big point of concern still sees a language as a tool of mindset shaping. Therefore, the concern of this study was to analyze how language is formed and forms certain realities.

The researchers utilized three interconnected dimensions of CDA to analyze the advertisements (Fairclough, 1995a). The first analysis used text dimensions analyses, which was intended to see how the advertisements and their related content were displayed. To obtain an in-depth analysis, the study then analyzed the objects using a table of discourse practices combined with the last dimension, socio-cultural practice, to gain more evidence about the words and phrases used in the advertisements and social life reality affected by the advertisements.

This study examined three advertisements for "Sariayu, Inez, and Wardah" beauty products as a corpus of data downloaded from the site www.YouTube.com in April 2020. This data was chosen because it has text that is the identity of the products. Besides, these advertisements have unique characteristics because the texts arrange sentences in such a way as to attract people, especially women, to shape the reality of society.

Results and Discussions

The researchers analyzed the data using the theory that has been stated in the previous section. The advertisement text product data for beauty products was analyzed using Fairclough's CDA theory in three dimensions, namely text dimensions (micro), discourse practices (meso), and socio-cultural practices (macro).

Analysis of Text Dimensions (Micro)

In this analysis, we would like to discuss how a person, group, and activity are described in the text. In this section, we discussed our analysis in terms of analysis of representation in clauses, analysis of relationship and identity

a. Analysis of Representation in Clauses

In this level of representation analysis, we were focusing on how advertisers arrange the vocabulary and grammar to represent their products. In particular, we analyzed the word choices that the advertisers choose in their beauty products advertisements.

Advertisement 1: Sariayu

Bahasa Indonesia Version

Eksotika keindahan Sumba
Menginspirasi perempuan Indonesia untuk berani bereksplorasi
Baru! Sariayu Color Trend Inspirasi Sumba
Multifungsi make up, lip and cheek untuk lipstick dan blush on
Ringan dan lembut dengan inovasi staymoist avocado lock
Sekali usap, warna langsung on dan menutup sempurna
Jadikan wanita Indonesia auto cantik sepanjang hari
Di setiap eksplorasi dirinya
Auto Cantik dengan Inspirasi Sumba
Dari Sariayu Martha Tilaar

Translated Version

Exotic beauty of Sumba Island
Inspiring Indonesian women to be brave for an exploration
New! Sariayu Color Trend, Inspiration of Sumba Island
Multifunctional makeup, lip and cheek for lipstick, and blush on
Light and soft with stay moist avocado lock innovation
Once applied to the face, the color is immediately visible and blends perfectly
Making Indonesian women look auto beautiful all day long
In every exploration they perform
Auto Beautiful, inspired by Sumba Island
From Sariayu Martha Tilaar

From all the clauses presented above, the metaphor was revealed as we bolded clauses. The metaphorical phrase "Auto Beautiful, inspired by Sumba Island" is used to refer to women, especially in its use, “Auto Cantik” or auto beautiful is a phrase that can ensure Indonesian women and can change their thoughts especially in a broader perspective, so Sariayu is one of Indonesia's high-selling beauty products. The broader impact in the reality of the Indonesian people the word “auto cantik” has changed the broader perspective. The text “auto cantik” was inspired by Sumba Island, which is famous for its beauty. If it is equated with women, then women who use Sariayu cosmetics will have a face as beautiful and as exotic as Sumba.

It is not only promoting Sariayu cosmetics, but also promoting Sumba Island. The beauty of Sumba Island is believed to attract a lot of visitors. However, the persuasive words were more dominant, inviting viewers to use Sariayu cosmetic products. At the same time, the visual display was more dominant in promoting the beauty of the island of Sumba associated with the beauty of a woman when using Sariayu cosmetics.

Advertisement 2: Inez

Bahasa Indonesia Version

Mau tau rahasia wajah cantikku?
Lustrous Pressed Powder
Bedak halus yang kaya nutrisi
Membuat wajahku jadi lembut alami
Dengan warna-warna pilihan
Mengandung UV Protection
Dan membuatku tampil cantik sepanjang hari
Lustrous Pressed Powder Inez 900

Translated Version

Do you want to know the secret to my dazzling face?
Lustrous Pressed Powder
A fine powder rich in nutrition
Turning my face soft naturally
With various colors to choose and UV Protection

Makes me look dazzling all day long

Lustrous Pressed Powder Inez 900

From the text above, “makes me look dazzling all day long" in the text implies a message not to hesitate to buy this product because this product will make women beautiful all day. Furthermore, this product makes women more straightforward because they do not need to make up repeatedly throughout the day. With the appearance of advertisements that were so organized, supported by a model giving the message that women could be beautiful all day long, the message was supported by Inez products that convinced women to appear more optimally and increase their confidence. This advertisement was reinforced by the display that presents a model who performed activities from morning to evening, but still looked beautiful. The main point of the advertisement is to encourage women to use Inez cosmetic products.

Advertisement 3: Wardah

Bahasa Indonesia Version

Alhamdulillah, masih bisa menghirup udara pagi ini

Bersyukur, atas berkah yang diturunkan

Bersyukur, bisa merasakan kebahagian orang lain

Dan hangatnya kebersamaan

Jalani Ramadhan lebih bermakna

Dengan selalu bersyukur

Wardah, cantik dari hati

Translated Version

Thank God for allowing me to breathe again this morning

Grateful to the blessings given

Grateful to feel the happiness of others

and the warmth of togetherness

Facing a meaningful fasting month (Ramadhan)

By always feeling grateful

Wardah, beautiful from within

In the clause whose writing is bold above, there is the use of metaphor. The metaphorical phrase “Wardah, beautiful from within” is used to refer to women, especially in its use. The “beautiful from within” phrase reflects that Indonesian women are beautiful not only in their looks, but also in their hearts. With the “beautiful from within” text, Wardah can change Indonesian women's thoughts because this beauty product company is one of the most influential and leading companies in its niche. Though Wardah’s products mainly focus on beautifying physical appearance, their word choice indeed aims to promote another perspective of beautiful.

b. Analysis of Relationship & Identity

In this analysis, our discussion deals with how the relationship among participants in the video is created. Enterprise (2013) stated that YouTube is a video sharing site that gives users the freedom to upload to the site, stream or watch videos, and share videos with other users for free (Arista & Lasmana, 2019). The statement is following the concept of new media spoken in interpersonal communication books by Liliweri (2015) that YouTube, which is one of the new media that has the ability to be able to access content anytime and anywhere, thus providing an opportunity for anyone to play an active, interactive and creative role in message feedback (Safira et al., 2019). There are three main categories of participants in the text; journalists (text-makers), media audiences, and public participants (Fairclough, 1995a).

Advertisement 1: Sariayu

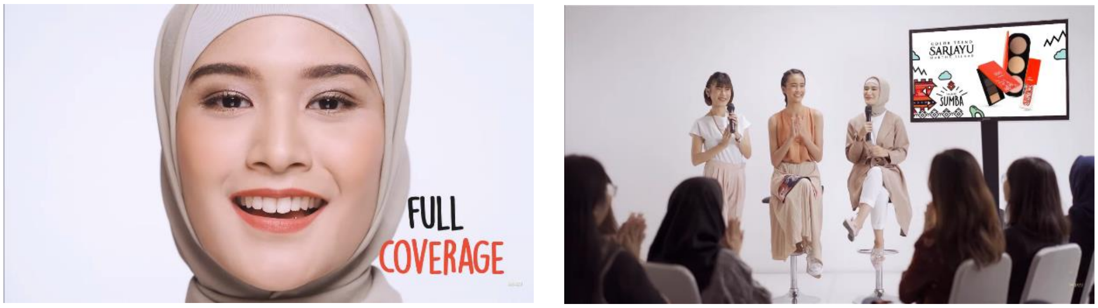

Figure 1. Models in Sariayu advertisement

As could be seen in the figure above, participants included in the video were interacting with one another happily. It had been viewed by 2,462 viewers by April 1st, 2020. Advertisers attracted public sympathy by using audiovisual and text aspects.

Visually, the advertisers aimed to convey the purpose of their products, which contains a message of “auto beautiful”. Specific criteria were taken into consideration. The artists who wore either hijab or not were intended to portray that they are always helpful, full of enthusiasm, creative, and of course, beautiful. In terms of identity analysis, the creator of this advertisement text understood the concepts conveyed in the sense that the advertisements can attract people with different styles of appearance.

Advertisement 2: Inez

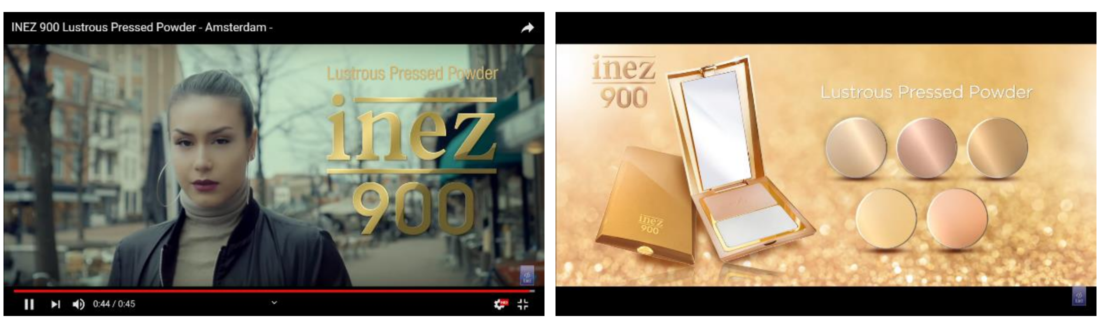

Figure 2. Model in Inez advertisement

This advertisement presented a single model. She acted as a career woman who was doing her daily activities from morning to afternoon while she was still beautiful without putting any makeup again. It seems to support the theme, "makes me look dazzling all day long." This advertisement is slightly different from the first example of Sariayu. Inez only used one model, perhaps due to promoting a single cosmetic item.

The advertisement text-maker was a representative of the Inez cosmetics team having the task to create a theme-based advertisement "makes me look dazzling all day long". This was fully supported by a model who played several jobs according to her daily activities, then disseminated it to the audience through electronic media, in this case online (YouTube). Since its launch in May 2018, it had attracted 24,404 viewers by April 1st, 2020. On average, it attracts more less 1,061 viewers monthly or 35 viewers daily.

Advertisement 3: Wardah

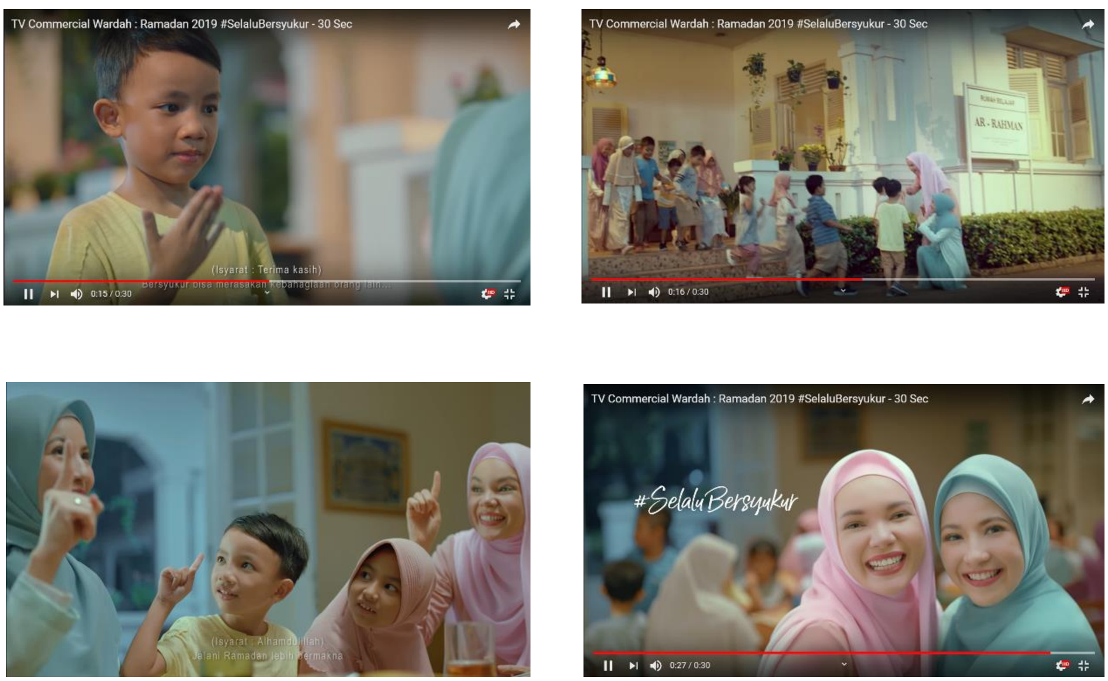

Figure 3. Models in Wardah advertisement

In this advertisement, it can be seen that the participants: text-makers, media audiences, and public participants (artists who became the primary model natural in this advertisement) were actively socializing with each other. By April 1st, 2020, the viewers reached 7,559,251 viewers on YouTube. It means that this advertisement has attracted a tremendous public sympathy by using audiovisual and text aspects.

In the context of this study, beauty models interpreted as role models succeeded in influencing the audience to change their behavior. Thus, beauty models currently play a role as the most significant driver for consumers in terms of decision making to buy products, namely as an agent to convince consumers that the products they are talking about are worth buying (Febriani & Yulianto, 2018; Lee & Watkins, 2016; Verhellen et al., 2000; Martawilaga & Purwanegara, 2016; Erkan & Evans, 2016; Rahmi et al., 2017).

Analysis of Discourse Practices (Meso)

This level of analysis examines how the relationship between the strategies used and the language means used in advertising. In this study, various strategies were used in the advertisement to attract consumers. The following table outlines the strategies used.

Table 1. Discourse Strategy

No	Strategy Used in Advertisement	Linguistic Means
1	Manufacturing consent through implication	- New! Sariayu Color Trend, Inspiration of Sumba Island - Multifunctional make up, lip and cheek for lipstick, and blush on. - Do you want to know the secret to my dazzling face?
2	Invoking inadequacies	- Once applied to the face, the color is immediately visible and blends perfectly. - Turning my face soft naturally.
3	Positive self-representation	- With various colors to choose and UV Protection, makes me look dazzling all day long. - Light and soft with stay moist avocado lock innovation - Making Indonesian women look auto beautiful all day long, Light and soft with stay moist avocado lock

		innovation, make Indonesian women auto beautiful all day long.
4	Puffery	- Auto Beautiful, inspired by Sumba Island - It makes me look dazzling all day long. - By always feeling grateful, Wardah, beautiful from within
5	Model endorsement	- Dewi Sandra is the face for the collection, and is an icon of the Wardah product.
6	Emotive Words	- Light and soft, fine powder, various colors, multifunctional makeup.

Women become the main object of the beauty products advertised on YouTube. Advertisers stimulated women by promoting the facts about their beauty products. They also started the advertisement by giving a puzzle to make women curious. For example, “Do you want to know the secret to my beautiful face?”

A headline of an advertisement plays a crucial role in capturing women’s attention. For instance, in this study, the taglines in the advertisements are “Auto Beautiful”, “Beautiful from the heart”, “Beautiful all day long”, “secret of beautiful face”, “Multifunctional make up”, “exotic beauty of Sumba”. The phrases deliberately make women curious about their beauty products. In the last few decades, to refer to excessive advertising claims, the concept and use of verbal puffery—terms expressing to which the truth related to the quality of the product remained unmeasurable (DeFrancis, 2004)—in advertising have been broadly observed. For example, Haan and Berkey (2002) argued, “if puffery does not work, salespeople and advertisers will not use it” (p. 245). They added that there are other convincing factors about a product besides verbal puffery, yet those factors are less significant. Simply put, verbal puffery plays a role in determining the success of the sales.

Language use is a useful tool to ensure the viewers that the beauty products are worthy of use. It is a case of “auto beautiful”. Every woman should think that they will be beautiful once they use the product (Sariayu). In another advertisement, Wardah has a different approach to attract their viewers. Wardah is not only a beauty product, but it is more like a beautiful attitude that is associated with the face. For those who have a beautiful heart, they should have a beautiful face. Wardah takes advantage of this. It is the same as the two others that use emotive words to attract the consumers. Emotive response refers to the extent to which viewers' emotions are involved in an advertisement. In previous studies, narrative advertisements succeeded in getting viewers involved, both character and situation. (e.g. Escalas et al., 2004). Moreover, van Laer et al. (2014) believes that the narration and character in the advertisement allow viewers to experience the main character in the ad. Narrative advertising, thus, generates a more significant positive response than non-narrative advertising.

The advertisements seemed to imply that women who wish to look attractive should have soft skin, blushing lips, and kind-hearted. Their skin should be soft, fresh and perfect all day long. Besides, commercial advertisements on YouTube are also the propagandists who provide a beautiful celebrity model (Dewi Sandra in Wardah advertisement). They use well-known models to attract women's attention to have beautiful skin as the models. Beauty models are someone who makes and uploads videos about beauty (Widodo & Mawardi, 2017). Several studies have focused on the fit between the model endorsement and the brand (Fleck et al., 2012; Salmones et al., 2013). Fit, which means similarity and relevance, has its market that refers to the level of similarity and consistency between the parent brand and brand extension. (Aaker & Keller, 1990). The fit of an endorsement usually refers to the fit of the brand and models. Hence, this is undoubtedly very specific to certain endorsement conditions. Some model endorsement studies have proved that fit has a beneficial impact on a brand (Amos et al., 2008; Choi & Rifon, 2012). Several studies have proved the same results, such as sponsorship (Erik L. Olson, 2010; Speed & Thompson, 2000), CRM (Lafferty et al., 2004), and brand alliances (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Theoretically, the lack of fit between the model and the brand can lead to negative attributions to a brand (Lafferty, 2009) Simonin & Ruth, 1998). That is one of the reasons why exposure to low-fit model endorsement can affect consumers' views of the products being advertised.

Analysis of Socio-Cultural Practices (Macro)

This degree of analysis justifies the vast cultural flows affecting advertisement and intertextual understanding that helps with understanding the vast cultural flows. This comprises views on beauty by individuals worldwide and explicitly Indonesian women's situation within these practices. Previously, the myth was that women had additionally utilized different customary items to enhance their look.

The idea of "The Beauty Myth" has been given by Wolf (1990, cited in Ashfaq et al., 2017). Her fundamental opinion was 'the images of beauty are used against women'. According to her, the outstanding quality and social intensity of women have expanded today. Women are performing their different jobs in the economy, legislative issues, organization of their separate social orders. In this case, commercial influence on social media stands as social standards of beauty (Burcar, 2017). For example, women in the past used to paint their face using many kinds of traditional and natural cosmetics, such as clay, leaves, mud. Nowadays, women prefer to use branded beauty products to enhance their looks. For this reason, the cosmetics industry has grown fast to fulfill the demands of beauty products for women in order to look attractive.

Intertextuality happens in advertising when advertisers use words from different talks to attract viewers, such as words from science, when publicizing cosmetic items. Brands of beauty products play an essential role. Keller (2013) defined three benefits that play a role in decision making, namely learning advantages, consideration advantages, and choice advantages (Rayat et al., 2017). For instance, the Sariayu advertisements " Light and soft with stay moist avocado lock innovation", and "Contains UV Protection", "A fine powder rich in nutrition" in Inez advertisement. They also build identities. The advertisement cause women to feel that to be 'ingroup' as opposed to 'outgroup', and they should buy the item. They will be much the same as the big names or renowned individuals who look great by utilizing the item. Thus, this is one of the strategies applied to make women feel that having a good appearance is essential.

Furthermore, the presence of attractive models in Wardah advertisement, for instance, deliberately reduces the confidence of women, indeed. In any case, an unsatisfied feeling of women is likewise connected with the beauty products publicized as it guarantees that the issue can be settled through the utilization of them. Simply put, advertisers bring up women's dissatisfaction as a primary strategy to encourage them to purchase the beauty product or called purchase intention. Purchase intention is a practical tool in predicting the buying process (Jaafar et al., 2013).

A related report by Trampe et al. (2011) showed how this beauty advertisement lower female buyers' confidence. They guarantee that the beauty products advertisement has the ability to change typical products into profoundly alluring products. Beauty enhancing products such as compact powder, blusher, anti-aging serum affect women so much on how women see themselves. Vanessa et al. (2011) asserted that beauty products advertisement worked by bringing down women's confidence and afterward delivering help from this negative inclination as an enthusiastic advantage through the brand.

In socio-cultural practice, religion influences the consumer's ways of life, which indeed influence dynamic consumer practice (Delener, 1994). Religion either improves or declines a specific decision. Few studies showed that religion gives impacts on customer mentality and behavior (Pettinger et al., 2004). An investigation by Ireland & Rajabzadeh (2011) revealed that individuals who apply halal items have high steadfastness to the halal item brands. El-Bassiouny (2014) suggested that Muslim customers will have diverse consumption patterns and will expend halal items. In this matter, Wardah beauty products are famous for products with Muslim women wearing a hijab. This is proven by various types of Wardah advertisements that always bring up the hijab models. Wardah has made a setting where it consistently enhances and remains innovative to meet Muslim women's cosmetic needs with products.

Besides that, there is a moral message to convey in Wardah advertisements. For example, the researchers viewed that Wardah aims to embrace women to use the hijab and Wardah products. In doing so, they look beautiful and elegant, like the hijab model in the advertisement. In this way, market specialists should structure their showcasing efforts concentrating on making awareness in regards to their consistency with halal items. If consumers in certain areas are increasingly religious, then the new beauty products promoted should be set up based on the profound religious and impacts that those customers recognize (Rehman & Shabbir, 2010).

Nowadays, the choice of using beauty products depends more on who recommends it. That can be friends, relatives, or parents. Sometimes, even without advertising, most women just try and read the labels listed on the beauty product. Besides, the price of a product is also a consideration for consumers in buying a beauty product. For those who have more money, it is possible to buy relatively expensive products. Women often tend to ignore advertisements. Nevertheless, like it or not, the advertisements influence the choices women frequently make (Babaii & Ansary, 2005).

The three advertisements discussed earlier have their respective characteristics in capturing their respective consumers. Women, in this case, must be able to determine and choose beauty products that suit their daily needs. Many factors can distract their mind in choosing beauty products. Besides, these beauty product advertisements gave messages to them that by using the beauty products, the level of confidence of women would increase. This triggers the nature of women's dissatisfaction with themselves. This consumptive nature can then spread not only to beauty products but also to other products.

Finally, the beauty products discussed in this study already have their respective reputations. With attractive and engaging advertisements, some consumers perhaps switch to other beauty products. Another factor that may follow is due to dissatisfaction with beauty products. The products in advertisements can sometimes captivate consumers in an instant. However, consumers sometimes neglect that not all beauty products match their needs.

Conclusion and Implication

This study has provided in-dept analysis in three different levels of analysis, micro-, meso-, and macro-analysis on three beauty product advertisements in Indonesia. In this section, we aimed to provide our conclusion based on our analysis and disseminate some possible pedagogical implications generated for the field of English learning and teaching.

Conclusion

The results of our analysis, which follows Fairclough's three-dimensional analysis, have generated several major findings. The first findings relate to certain words, vocabulary, phrases, or slogans that are emphasized to persuade and invite people’s interests, especially women. Then, from the visual side, advertisements also display beautiful models to arouse and convince women. When they use the advertised cosmetics, they will be as beautiful as the advertisement models.

Meanwhile, on the analysis of discourses practices, advertisers feature how their beauty items are answers for women’s issues. Simply put, the most evident subject in the notices is the perfect appearance for women. The discoveries demonstrated that women looked progressively beautiful with wrinkle eyes, great eye, reddish cheek, and so on. In this case, advertisers utilized a variety of designs to shape women to invest in their products. Thrassou and Vrontis (2009) accepted that advertisements had a strong effect on consumers to buy an item they had never used.

It is certainly not easy for women to ignore a persuasive advertisement of beauty products since women are frequently exposed by the advertisement. Physical appearance, for women, is one of the essential aspects to get a successful career in life. Kaur et al. (2013) stated that women’s physical appearance determines social perceptions. Some people do not consider advertisements of worth. However, it must be remembered that advertisements "create the ultimate standard of worth, so that women are judged according to this standard".

Based on the analysis of beauty product advertisements, Tehseem and Hameed (2015) inferred that in order to get the consideration of women, different sorts of strategies and etymological examples like influence methods, technical vocabulary, and slogans are utilized by the advertisers. It seems to matter when Wardah has successfully attracted so many viewers that may be interested in purchasing their beauty products. However, the most excellent strategy in the three advertisements is the use of pronouns 'you'. It makes an intimate and provocative relationship between advertisements and their viewers. Based on the scaling hypothesis, consumer choices are legitimately influenced by brand choices (Hu et al., 2012 in Moghadam et al., 2015). Image of brand appropriateness is characterized by the comprehended distinction between a genuine brand's image and the normal of the consumer from the brand.

Lastly, capitalists target their buyers through a fascinating advertisement. Advertisers advance their items as well as outline social order benchmarks of beauty, social qualities, and ways of life today. Schudson (1984) considered advertising as unofficial indoctrination. It seems that purchasing beauty items is the only solution to all women who have a desire to look beautiful (Malefyt, 2012; Sandıkcı, 2011). Simply put, it is worthy of allocating some cash to show their attraction to others. Henceforth, language in an advertisement performs a significant part in this matter. It is likewise a powerful device in shaping and persuading women into purchasing beauty products.

Implication

This study has attempted to contribute to the body of research in the field of CDA. Specifically, this study has delivered three layers of CDA to uncover the motives underlying the advertisement of beauty products and the impacts in the society. Nevertheless, this study also highlighted some pedagogical implications beneficial for the field of English teaching and learning.

Vocabulary enrichment through authentic materials

English teachers having students at the intermediate level can maximize the analysis process to encourage students' critical thinking skills. The analysis on text level can be useful for the students to understand the language features, such as grammar or vocabulary, in authentic materials. To this point, we understand and agree that authentic materials are any learning resources which are not specially created for pedagogic purposes, but can generate real-life context where language is typically used in daily conversation (Harmer, 2002). By enabling advertisements available on YouTube, English teachers can practically utilize learning materials from authentic resources relevant to students' life. Studies have shown the benefits of utilizing authentic materials in language classroom, such as; a) increased motivation; b) close relationship to students' life, and; c) meaningful lessons for their life (Dudeney, 2007).

To make it clear, teachers could lead their students to enrich their vocabulary since the word choice in the advertisement has been designed for marketing purposes, which focus on attracting their target customers while at the same time selling their products. These advertisements can be a potential source of teaching materials about advanced vocabulary, especially the use of high-level adjectives that will enrich the students' vocabulary. Some of the examples are 'multifunctional', 'lustrous', 'grateful', 'immediately', 'dazzling', and so forth. Vocabulary is an essential component in foreign languages because students can easily open their ideas using adequate vocabulary (Kuśnierek & Kalisz, 2016). Szpotowicz and Szulc-Kurpaska (2009) claimed that students were interested in learning new vocabulary, not only the sound, but also its meaning. Students learn new vocabulary faster than learning grammar because the words have more apparent meanings, while grammar is less useful (Demircioğlu, 2010). As a comparison, Yu (2006) found positive impacts on authentic materials in group discussions as well as presentations. Using articles from The New York Times, Yu also found a significant increase in vocabulary, cultural understanding, and higher motivation from students. Simply put, there is a general consent that mastery of vocabulary consists of various aspects, and that higher word exposure often leads to better retention (Alanazi, 2019).

Due to its complexity in vocabulary and structures, especially for lower-level students, the utilization of authentic materials has been strongly addressed in some studies (e.g., Guo, 2012). However, Baleghizadeh's study (2010) showed that the concerns could be reduced by sufficient help. The use of authentic materials online is notably valuable beneficial (Guo, 2012). It could be meaningful to boost prominent enthusiasm among educators, students, and even publishers than do customarily organized materials (Gilmore, 2007). Floris (2008) stated that the need to incorporate authentic materials in the course plan since they are all the more motivating, connecting with, and applicable to students' lives. Other experts claimed that authentic materials give chances to language use in a more openly and adequately (Sánchez et al., 2010). Lastly, authentic material has assisted students in learning a foreign language and encourage them to produce better languages (Chamba et al., 2019).

More meaningful translation

It is similar to vocabulary that translation is viewed as a pedagogic means in an English program (Avand, 2009). The text presented by the beauty advertisements is arranged like a poem. Students can identify this pattern and then translate it into a narrative flow of an advertisement. Tudor (1987) firmly stated that translation could describe the function of words in learning languages. The translation is a very communicative activity so that translation can be considered in a variety of foreign language teaching. Varzgar (1990) fully supports using translation in English teaching. She confirms that "as translation should be a subsidiary activity in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL), it should be an essential activity in English for Specific Purpose (ESP)." Moreover, as students involved in authentic materials to their lives, the translation process may not only cover the surface level such as terminological translation but also arrive at deeper level of translation by involving their soco-cultural experiences when chosing the suitable expressions both in their own language and the target language.

YouTube as a potential learning resource

Lastly, English teachers could also promote YouTube as available learning resources which students could make use of its potential benefits to complement their English learning process. Some studies have also noted some strengths of YouTube in the language classroom, such as access from anywhere and anytime, easy to operate, productive and meaningful learning resources (Fleck, Beckman, Sterns, & Hussey, 2014; Sherman, 2003; Terantino, 2011). Fleck, Beckman, Sterns, and Hussey (2014), for example, stated that YouTube could be useful in a way that it increases comprehension, discussion, and involvement. They added that millions of available online learning resources could generate fluid discussion as students can compare different resources for their discussion. Therefore, while previously English teachers are burdened with making non-authentic materials, thousands of YouTube videos could be seen as an opportunity to make English learning and teaching more interesting and engaging to students as it does not only involve textual information but also audiovisual information to which students can also listen and see.

Understanding the use of language in social practices

This study has provided an example of how the advertisements were analyzed not only in micro-level but also meso- and macro-level. The analysis in meso-level could help students understand how the advertisers make use of the language to deliver their strategies. Students can also learn how advertisers view the language as the power to influence or convince their customers that their product is the best for their customers. Moreover, through guided learning, English teachers can also lead their students to understand the socio-cultural phenomenon happening in the society. The advertisements always pay great attention to customer behavior; In this matter, Indonesian women as their target customers. By analyzing the language used in the advertisements, students could involve in critical language classroom where they observe and become sensitive to what is happening in the society surrounding their lives and to what leads the advertisers to promote their product in that way. When established, it is expected that students could perceive their learning process as meaningful and closely related to their life.

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Syntactic Analysis of Grammatical Mistakes in English Writing among Iraqi EFL Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the grammatical errors in writing among Iraqi undergraduates of the University of Baghdad; this study has also investigated the types of errors committed by the students. The study employed a fully quantitative research design. The random sampling method of 75 writing compositions was collected from third-year undergraduate students in the academic year of 2019-2020. The researcher used the model of Brown's (2000) taxonomy James' (1998) and Corder's (1967) framework of grammatical errors and model error analysis to analyze the data gathered from the participants. Furthermore, the findings of the study have revealed that Iraqi EFL undergraduate students experience various issues regarding the utilization of prepositions, articles, and verb tenses. It was also found that addition and omission occurred as the most frequent types of errors. Moreover, data revealed that the dominant cause of errors was interlanguage. The results of the study can enlighten Iraqi students on the importance of correct grammar use for writing efficacy.

Keywords: *Syntax, writing, grammatical errors, EFL students, learning, and teaching English, Iraqi Students*

Introduction

The English language is becoming more important as a universal means of communication, particularly after the recent advances in technology that have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020; Al-Ghamdi & Alrefaee, 2020). Writing is one of the productive skills that worries many EFL students in schools or universities and makes them incompetent when they try to achieve their course requirements. Iraqi undergraduate students have to master writing in English before they move to college where they need to be fairly proficient in producing written form. Students who are at an advanced level in writing are confident and able to convey their thoughts in words. Their linguistic competence helps them present their messages to their teachers properly and accurately. Writing in a foreign or second language is not an effortless activity. It demands a lot of mental work to convert the meaning to words and structures. Salem (2007) argued, "Writing is a challenging task requiring much mental effort. To communicate our opinions and ideas, we engage in many conscious cognitive processes simultaneously". Moreover, writing is considered a hard competency for all learners both foreign or native, because it involves conscious mental efforts (Abu Shawish & Abdelraheem, 2010; Naethel, 2020). This sophisticated skill needs to be improved and developed by students paying attention to it, which ultimately leads them to progress. Osman (2015) argued that Saudi EFL learners communicate with each other in a country where English is not a means of communication, so English is not required to survive in a job or to enter one. Therefore, EFL learning occurs in a very low acquisition environment except in a few businesses or organizations. This lack of need to use English as well as a lack of knowledge about the importance of learning English prevents students from writing properly; which ultimately renders some students unable to write a single grammatical sentence.

The failure of Iraqi students to express themselves accurately or to convey their messages correctly may prevent them from succeeding in their assignments or examinations (Elaf & Hussien 2020). This concern may thwart their success after joining college where it is supposed that students can build a composition. Ansari (2012) said, "More than 50% of students do not know how to write English". Consequently, half of the students have no adequacy to write in English. However, errors are natural indicators of understanding. According to Gorbet (1979), errors are an integral part of the process of learning (Mohaghegh et al, 2011). Saudi EFL students have little ability to write English properly. Although they may have studied English for a long period, most of them are unable to produce a single grammatical sentence. Thus, this research aims to analyze and classify syntactic errors made by Iraqi undergraduate students and the reasons behind them.

Although the curriculum and recent methods of teaching mainly concentrate on syntax, how to form sentences, after a long period of learning, still commit some syntactic errors in writing. These types of errors affect the quality of their writing. These errors represent an obvious problem that is made frequently by students through producing written form. It was found through the researcher's experiences that the program provided by the (MOE)focuses on teaching grammar and the good formation of sentences as well as four skills (reading, listening, writing and speaking). However, in most cases, students still exhibit many syntactic writing problems. Thus, the current study aims to analyze and classify syntactic errors in students' writing among Iraqi EFL undergraduate students to be identified and categorized depending on the types of these errors. Also, it aims to investigate the reasons behind these syntactic errors to provide appropriate recommendations and implications.

Literature Review

Writing in the Foreign Language Classroom

Writing is considered as a means for transmitting thoughts and messages. the generality of the researchers deemed that the skill of writing as difficult expertise which requires many processes. Javid (2014) talked about the essentials writing skills, demonstrating that "students are required to apply this skill as the main tool to show what they have learned". The generality of the learners in a high school going to join colleges, so, they are required to utilize writing as a thinking tool.

Bjork and Raisanen (1997) claimed, "that the researchers highlight the significance of writing skill in all university curricula not only because of its immediate practical application, i.e. also, as an ability or isolated skill but because we believe that, seen from a broader perspective, writing is a thinking tool". Although, Tahaineh (2010) noted that writing skill is and important skill for undergraduate students. Besides, the students need to utilize it for essay writing, note-taking, composition writing, etc. Writing skills, as a process requires several processes, which is a concept that needs to be perceived by teachers and instructors. As a result, they will deal with each stage of the method differs from other stages. Barnett (1989) stated "Writing as a Process

criticized common instructors' expectations of the scholar writing skill. She argued, " that as a researcher We seem at what the writer-student has constructed and treated it as
a closing copy".

Corpuz (2011) in his study stated that "many L2 instructors feel the want to supply written corrective remarks to help tutor to learn English language learning". While Bitchener (2008) argued that errors corrections are high-quality and helpful to amplify and enhance L2 accuracy of writing. anyways, studies showed that errors correcting is negative to English learners. however, Truscott (1996) stated that errors corrections have to be deserted due to the fact it is regarded now no longer solely ineffective, on the other hand, it additionally harms L2 progress. Grammar is the sound, shape, and which means gadgets of language. All languages have grammar, and every language has its personal grammar" (Beverly, 2007). Through grammar, humans are able to speak with every difference and bring their ideas and thoughts. As to Azar (2007), the foremost function of grammar is to "help college students find out the source of language, i.e., that language included predictable patterns that make what we read, say, write and hear intelligibly". then, the acquainted pattern in language ease verbal exchange and assist to distinguish between predicate, object, and the subject in a unique structure. Even though syntax and grammar overlap sometimes, grammar is regarded as a syntax umbrella. According to Hasa (2016), grammar is " a group of structural guidelines that dictate the construction of clauses, sentences words and terms in a language" even as syntax is "the set of rules, ideas, and techniques that govern the structure of sentences in any language". She compiled that, accidence, syntax, and orthography (spellings) all fall under the class of grammar" at the same time as syntax deals specifically with the words order in sentences (Hasa, 2016). Cobbett (1818) stated that: " the word Syntax which sources from the Greek language. It way, in that language, the joining of several things collectively; also, as utilized by grammarians, it method those standards and regulations which teach us how to put words collectively to shape sentences.

It manner, in brief, sentence-making. Having been taught by using the regulations of Etymology what are the relationships of phrases, how words grow out of every different, how they're various in their letters to correspond with the variation inside the circumstances to which they follow, Syntax will teach you the way to deliver all your words their proper scenario or region, when you come to place them together into sentences". However, some scientists keep in mind that grammar can also avoid the system of studying. From their component, most language textbooks give attention to writing as a grammar rather than as a message that is an approach for verbal exchange. Dvorak (1986) stated, inside the final 25 years, textbooks of overseas language have connected written composition with superior grammar or communique. He introduced, "writing upgrades are unrelated to grammar observe. Also, the instructor's idea of writing an emphasis on grammar that considered as an obstacle for the progress of writing. Irvin (2010), the concept that "desirable grammar is good writing" is a myth that results in writing issues. Irvin stated that writing is extra than grammatical correctness and argued that "suitable writing is a matter of achieving your preferred impact upon a meant target audience".

Methodology

The study employed a fully quantitative research design where the frequency and percentages of the students writing errors were calculated (Elaf & Hussien 2020). The samples of the study were 75 descriptive composition writing written by Iraqi undergraduate students in the College of Education for the Women/ University of Baghdad. The average of words counted in each piece of writing was 150 words, the students are undergraduate students in the third year. The researcher collected the data from the students' assignment, the lecturer asked the students to write a writing assignment about two topics (Climate change, Professional success). All the students submitted their assignments, so the data was collected from 75 composition papers. The researcher used the software program AntConc3.2.4w to analyze the data. The author converted the data into Microsoft word files. This program was used as it helps in coding the grammatical mistakes categories like "Tenses, prepositions..etc. The software was used as it helps to determine the frequency of the grammatical errors and classify them in categories.

Framework of Analysis

The study used the framework of James (1998), this framework includes the grammatical categorizations into nine types (Tenses, Possessive case, Prepositions, Concord, Adjective Singular/Plural, Articles, Passive/Active and Irregular verbs). The pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of the results, the researcher analyzed 10 students writing, those students were not included in the sample of the study. The findings of the pilot study confirmed the categories of the framework except one category "possessions". Therefore, this category was excluded from the study.

Findings and Discussion

No	Category	Frequency	Percentage
1	Prepositions	120	20.2
2	Articles	200	38.2
3	Singular/Plural nouns	90	15.7
4	Adjectives	35	4
5	Possessive case	45	4.9
6	Irregular verbs	35	10.5
7	Tenses	135	15.5
8	Concord	75	4.5
9	Total	735	100

Table 1 the frequency and percentage of grammatical categorise

As shown in the table, in total, 735 errors were found in the assignment. Data shows that the article category of mistakes were the most frequent mistaked done by 38.2%. This percentage was followed by the errors of the preposition category with a percentage of 20.2%. The students also committed a high percent of errors regarding the category of tense 15.5%. This result agrees with results reached by Sawalmeh (2013), Althobaiti (2014). These studies have found that Arab EFL students most committed errors were “tenses, articles, prepositions". In the current study with the previous studies of Sawalmeh (2013), Althobaiti (2014) demonstrated that Arab EFL experience challenges in writing English sentences without committing errors (tenses, articles, prepositions). Moreover, the students committed 15.7 of mistakes were in plural/singular nouns 10.5% of errors were made regarding irregular verbs. This result contradicts the results of Sawalmeh (2013) as they found the errors of this category were the less committed errors among the students. This demonstrates that Iraqi syntax lecturers need to focus more on the teaching of the grammar rules of singular/plural to the students to avoid committing these errors. On the other hand, the least frequent mistakes were made by the students were the categories of the adjective (4%), concord (4.5%), and possessive case (4.9%) in the students’ composition writing. The results go in line with the findings of Abu Shihab (2011) and Al-Zoubi and Abu-Eid (2014). These studies found that the adjectives and possessions were the least committed errors by Arab and Jordanian EFL students. Based on the data of the current study, the errors of adjectives and possessions occurred around 30 each, this means the students still lack the fundamental rules of grammar in the English language.

Types of Errors

This part of the study presents frequencies of the category of the error committed by the students. In the current study , which is explored the error types in all the grammatical categories as shown in the table 3 the percentage of error types .

Types of errors	Preposition %	Article%	Singular/ plural nouns %	Adjective%	Irregular verb %	Tense %	Concord%	Possessive case %
Omission	6	37	65			17	28	61
Addition	27	46	35		70	29	16	
Substitution	61	17		30.	30	54	56	39
Permutation	6			70.0				
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 2 frequencies of the category of the error committed by the students

As shown in table 2, the four categories of grammatical error categories. The data shows the most occurred category was the omission error category, within this category, the most occurred error was in singular/plural with a percentage of 60%, this percentage was followed by the category of possessive category 56%. However, the error category of the addition has occurred. Within this category, the error of irregular verbs was the most committed error by the learners 70%, the learners tended to add ed to the irregular verbs as they are aware of the rules of the regular verbs. Moreover, errors of substitution type were found as the most frequently occurred errors committed by the students in their writing. This was clearly shown as the students used to misplace the preposition with the wrong one with a percent of 65%. In this category, 55% and 54% of the categories of errors fill in the categories of Tenses and Concord. On the other hand, findings showed the least category of errors committed by the students was the Permutation errors. This error was detected in the categories of adjectives and prepositions 10.5% and 65.5%. in the following sections, these categories will be explained in detail with examples.

Omission

A- Omission in Possessive Case

Regarding this type of error, it was found that 655 of the errors belonged to the omission in the possessive case. The most occurred error was the deletion of the “S” of possession as explained in example 1 below.

This relays on the *teacher position that…… (1) (the wrong*).

This relays on the teacher's position that…… (2) (correct).

In this case, the possessive "s" was omitted, the sentence didn't declare "whose the situation was it". This can be traced back to the fact that in the Arabic language, which is the mother tongue of the participants, the possessive case is different wherein Arabic the definite "لا" to indicate the noun to generate the possessive case.

B- Omission in Singular/Plural Nouns

Regarding the error of plural/singular nouns, the omission errors were found to be higher than the error of addition. In the composed writing of the students, the omission of the "S" morpheme of plural occurred most frequently. Arabic language interference did not occur as in the mother tongue plural rules should be applied in both sentences written in the Arabic language.

I have sisters and two brothers ……………….…. (4) (correct)

I have five *sister and two *brother………………. (3) (wrong).

Addition

A- Addition of the Definite and Indefinite Article

In this category, the most occurred error was the additional article error. The most added definite "the" with a percentage of 25% of the total errors. This was followed by the error of the omission of the definite articles of "a, an" 25%. In the following example, the students tended to add the definite article "the".

I have traveled to India in * 2019……….… (5) (wrong).

I have traveled to India in time in 2019………...(6) (correct)

The students have added the article "the" before the date 2019 which is not supposed to add it. The explanation of this error can be traced back to the Arabic language as the definite article is widely used in the Arabic language. on the other hand, the findings showed the students used to omit the definite articles "a, an" as these article doesn't exist in Arabic language grammar.

B- Addition in Irregular Verbs

75% percentage of the total errors was the addition of the inflection "ed" of the regular verbs to the Irregular verbs' category. In the following examples, the students "*sleep" and "* swam" to express the past tense.

She * slept for more than eight hours……………(7)(wrong)

He skimmed in the swimming pool yesterday…….(8)(correct)

Substitution

A- Substitution of Preposition

The use of prepositions was revealed the most common errors committed by the students with a percentage of 65%. This could be because of the interference of the Arabic language. as explained in the following example. Instead of the use of “in, of” the students tended to use the preposition “by”. These articles have a parallel preposition in Arabic, the meaning of “by” in Arabic is “bel, بال, and the meaning of “in” in Arabic is “fee,في” these two prepositions in the students’ mother tongue have the same meaning. thus, the process of changing the semantics of the word (meaning) from Arabic to English found in the utilize inappropriate prepositions.

Baghdad is famous *by its welcoming people………… (9) (wrong).

Baghdad is famous for its welcoming people………… (10) (correct).

B- Substitution in Tenses

Regarding the errors of Tenses substitution, the findings show that 65% of the errors were committed in this category. The students tended to interchange the use of the tenses in the sentences as shown in the following examples. At the start o the sentence the students seemed aware that the events that happened in the past should be written in the past but then the students tend to use the verb in the present tense.

They talked to him and ask to *stay night over…. (11) (wrong).

They talked to him and asked to stay the night over……. (12) (correct).

as explained in the examples above the students used the past tense (talked) to express the action and then moved to use the present tense in the second verb of the sentence (ask).

In sum, the students in these two examples are now fully aware of the functions of the two tense which indicate they focus more on the content rather than the function of the tense. Therefore, the errors made in this type can be due to the false concepts hypothesized. False concepts hypothesized happens when learners of language do not understand a distinction in the target language.

C- Substitution in Concord

In the category of Concord, the substitutional error occurred the most with a percentage of 53% of the total errors of concord in the written assignment. In the following examples, the student misused the verb to “Be”

My exams grads*was not high………(13) (wrong)

My exam grades were not high…………(14) (correct)

In the first example, the student used the singular verb "was" instead of "were" where the subject is plural and required plural form of the verb "be".

Permutation

A- Permutation in the use of Adjectives

The permutation errors occurred the most frequently in the adjectives' category. This can be described also the misordering of the words. permutation errors were 65.5% in the category of adjectives. This can be because, in the Arabic language, the word order is different from the English language as stated by Lamtabbet (2010).

The adjective in Arabic comes after the noun, but in English, the adjective comes before the noun. In the following examples,

The place *biggest in Iraq………… (15) (wrong).

The biggest place in Iraq…………. (16) (correct).

The student tended to write the adjective after the noun. In sum, it can be said the interference of students' mother tongue caused this kind of mistake.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the results of this study, the following pedagogical implications could be put forward: Instructors need to spend more time practicing productive skills particularly writing. The teachers also are required to adopt group work or small group strategy to provide more opportunities for students to practice writing.

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The Rhetorical Structures of Educational Concepts in Nursery Rhymes

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Abstract

Nursery rhymes that refer to the kingdom of children have been considered an instrument for children to learn. Children nursery rhymes are a form of entertainment, even though they are used to build a child's cognitive ability, literacy, communication skills, physical development, and musical congregation. They provide a rhythmic pleasure to the child who keeps on repeating them to get more of them. Nursery rhymes are without doubt, types of literature which belong to children, and they are an educational medium to teach children various moral, social, and ethical values and educational concepts. These educational concepts are realized throughout the rhetorical structures proposed by Hoey's (1983) Problem-Solution Patterns Theory which consists of four patterns: situation, problem, response, and positive/negative evaluation. The main aims of the present study are to reveal that the rhetorical structural patterns represent the narrative structures in the rhymes, to detect the educational concepts delivered by these rhymes, and finally to discover which educational concepts register higher frequency. This current study hypothesized that nursery rhymes consist of narrative structural patterns; they deliver educational concepts; and certain educational concepts register higher frequency. The results of the analysis show that the nursery rhymes consist of narrative structural patterns and there are various educational concepts delivered by these randomly selected rhymes and (kindness, cooperation, and cleanliness) score the highest frequency among other educational concepts.

Keywords: *Nursery rhymes, educational concepts, rhetorical structure, Problem-Solution Patterns Theory*

Introduction

In the last few decades particularly after advances in information and communications technology, there has been a growing interest in English. The importance of English cannot be denied as a global means of communication which have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). The current study is geared primarily towards focusing on nursery rhymes and exploring the educational concepts as well as the moral and social values these rhymes convey since they are seen as a tool for both entertaining and educating children. As it is obviously clear to the readers that nursery rhyme is a literary genre and it is a composition of "short poems or songs that are often made up of trivial musical verses" (Dunst et al., 2011, p. 1). They are "poetic texts full of rhymes that entertain children. They can be easily memorized due to the rhymes involved" (Dinçel, 2017, p. 234). These rhymes play a pivotal role in teaching children their language as well as in teaching them their moral values and ethics, for instance; loyalty, pride, respect, love, keeping a promise, being merciful, and correct social behavior. They enhance their imagination, their linguistic skills, and, furthermore, their conceptual world. In addition, they foster a feeling of national identity and independence (Dinçel, 2017).

Walton (2014) illustrates that nursery rhymes are short poems and songs that help children learn new vocabularies, help them develop concepts and skills of fluency and pronunciation and facilitate memorizing. He adds that using rhymes through songs, picture books, and chants is a beautiful way that develops the language and literacy of children.

What is a Nursery Rhyme?

According to Kroupova (2014), nursery rhymes are without doubt, types of literature that belong to children's literature. Bobulova (2003) states that nursery rhymes belong to children's folklore that is considered one category of children's literature which consists of three categories: international literature for children, non-international literature for children, and children's folklore (cited in Kroupova, 2014, p.14). According to Collins Dictionary (online), nursery means "a place where children who are not old enough to go to school are looked after." Nursery is not compulsory in terms of education like school, it includes children aged three years until they are grown enough to enter school.

Kelsy (2016) goes on talking in the same vein about the kinds of these rhymes saying that:

> There are different kinds of rhymes like lullabies that parents sing to their children at bedtime to soothe and calm little babies, there are numbers of counting rhymes, rhymes for a little grown up children like riddles or rhymed fables, clapping songs, finger and toe games and so on (p. 2).

History of Nursery Rhymes

The reason behind initiating nursery rhymes particularly in Britain is that people at some times in the past abandoned speaking speaking frankly or showing their opposition to the royal family and if they do so, they were punished to death. As a reaction to this oppression and to convey feelings and thoughts, people who were not able to read or write. Therefore, they originated "rhymes to parody British politics and royal persons as there was no other medium for spreading gossips or rebellious messages"(Kulshreshtha, 2017, p. 13).

Nursery rhymes appeared first in the 13th century in a recorded form until the 18th century where they have appeared in written books. They are seemingly first originated in France and then in Britain and America (Kelsy, 2016). In very ancient times, nursery rhymes were passed only orally from generation to another. There weren't any written books or collections. Later on, they were collected, classified, and written to maintain them for next-generation (Kroupova , 2014).

They are well known in the United States and Great Britain. But, because of the difference in culture among countries, there is a difference in the terms that are used to refer to those rhymes. So, in Great Britain, rhymes are called “nursery rhymes,” while in America, rhymes are called “Mother Goose songs” (Iona and Opie, 1969, p.1).

The book entitled "Mother Goose Nursery Rhymes" is believed to be the first book of nursery rhymes which was published in 1780 by John Carnan, and the first collection known as “Tommy Thumb’s Song Book” published in 1744 (Kelsy, 2016, p.2) .

Charles Perrault's collection entitled "Histories and Tales from Long Ago, with Morals" is believed to be published nearly fifty years later. This collection is an anthology of eight fairy tales. Later, it was translated into English language and this paved the way for the publication of John Newbery's “Mother Goose’s Melody” or “Sonnets for the cradle” in 1765 which contain various rhymes. Many editions of this book have spread in America and England, and this makes him to be the person who popularized the name of “Mother Goose” starting from “Mother Goose tales” to “Mother Goose rhymes.” John Newbery became “the father of children literature” since he was the first one who made children’s literature a gainful part of the publishing market (Kelsy, 2016).

Later on, and particularly in the 19th century, a printed collection was released containing Robert Chambers' "Popular Rhymes of Scotland" and "Mother Goose's Melodies". A series of changes in the titles of these rhymes occur throughout the history of their publications. For instance, in (1744), the term "Mother Goose" was used to refer to songs and alike while “Mother Goose Tales” which is published in (1729) refers to the collection of stories (Alchin, 2013).

In England, nursery rhymes were recorded early in the 13th century and originated in Britain, France, and North America. Some nursery rhymes like “Thirty Days Hath September” were recorded in French in the 13th century, while most of the nursery rhymes of English were not recorded or written down before the 16th century. They were based on the oral convention of these countries (Kelsy, 2016).

The term "Mother Goose" has witnessed a change in the title of children literature. It became "nursery rhymes" in the 19th century in the third decade and before this time. They were known as “Songs” or “ditties” with the publication of nursery rhymes. The first book was printed probably in 1744 which is called “Tommy Thumb’s songs” or as “Mother Goose”. The last term was known in America (Iona and Opie, 2011).

Alchin (2013) states that nursery rhymes have been printed in England in early 1950s and this refers to that these rhymes have gone through various generations which started by using the oral tradition, then by using the written form. Printing helped the production of books and Chapbooks (pamphlets). A chapbook is a small book or pamphlet containing (24) pages or less without a hardcover. It contains poems, ballads, stories, or religious tracks, and they are anonymous or undated. It increased during the 1600s, 1700s and 1800s, but only a few of the ear copies have survived.

Linguistic Features of Nursery Rhymes

Nursery rhymes actually have the potentiality of feeding children in the preschool age with knowledge in various fields of language specifically. That's because they are written by means of standard and highly selected language devices that come in parallel with the children's mentality and their ability of comprehension, understanding and acquisition as well. These rhymes play an important role in developing children's language skills. Therefore, and for the sake of covering all linguistic levels, it is seen to study this type of language according to their levels:

On the Semantic Level

The semantic field shows references to "people, animals, vehicles, body parts, clothing, toys, furniture, household items, utensils, properties, states and activities"(Dinçel, 2017, p. 233). These semantic fields, using Aksan's (1989, p. 254) words, "affecting the world of children." They provide children with knowledge about the concepts associated with each other and their synonyms and they have the potentiality of enriching children's language reservoir at the age of language acquisition.

On the syntactic level

Generally, short sentences are the most familiar and most common linguistic feature of the nursery rhymes. These short sentences play a very important role in enhancing children's language acquisition and production. Young children are expected "to learn new vocabularies and recite their first sentences through nursery rhymes due to the fact that these nursery rhymes are composed of short sentences with interesting rhythmic music which enhances the children's abilities to imitate and build up short sentences of their language as well as the second language(Fatini and Nur, 2016, p. 3).

On the Rhetorical Level

The term 'literary devices' is a technique which is used by a writer to convey messages or ideas. It helps the readers to connect with the themes and characters and to interpret and analyze literary works. It is very important for the authors in literature and literary techniques make the text more interesting as well. It helps readers to understand the motivation behind the author’s choice (Muniz , 2020). Authors use literary devices to clarify certain concepts or points, to captivate and engage readers, to increase the reader’s experience, to motivate readers, to interact deeply with the story , to draw attention to the significant segment of the topic or story, to illustrate the story, and to convey the abstract information (Hartgers, 2020)

On the Phonological Level

Phonological devices used in the nursery rhymes are very common in this context. At the very early stage of children's learning to read and write, phonological devices are heavily used in the composition of poems.

Dowker and Giuliana (1990, p. 393) confirm that "there is indeed evidence from a number of studies that informal play with words, often involving the creation of chants and verses, is common to young children." In their research, they find out that rhyme and alliteration are the highly used features in composing these nurseries as well as the "highly inflected morphologies."

Nursery Rhymes' Educational Concepts

Education starts at home and continues in the schools and preschool institutions. Education, as Kaur, (2015, p. 21) says "is the combination of literacy and moral values." Nursery rhymes and schools should carry on their job properly to create moral citizens and "responsible individuals who are capable of undertaking any challenge in life. Kaur, further adds that:

> If the citizens are healthy, patriotic, honest, and sincere, the nation will progress at a much faster pace. For this reason, it is very essential to have moral education in schools and

colleges. To impart moral education to students, there can be many ways – telling stories, preaching, group discussions, Yoga, and Meditation.

Educational concepts and morality have been variously defined by various scholars. Almost all of them agree on one definition. It is what is perceived by different societies to be the highest good behavior that is admitted by society's conventions (Kaur, 2015).

Smetana, (1997, p. 162) confirms that morality is a "system of rules that regulate the social interactions and social relationships of individuals within societies,". Frankena (1973), on the other hand, and in agreement with Armon (1984) divide moral values into five categories: they are the deontic, teleological, aretaic, intrinsic, and extrinsic(cited in Kaur, 2015, p. 22).

Tillman and Diana (2000, p. 20) propose another group of moral values that should be included in the nurseries and schools curriculum prepared for children between age 3-7. They are:

Peace, Respect, Love, Responsibility, Happiness, Cooperation, Honesty, Humility, Tolerance, Unity, Freedom, Gratitude, Cleanliness, and Friendship.

Kuehn (2017: online) proposes seven moral values to be taught in the schools and nursery rhymes. They are:

• Unconditional love and kindness.

.Honesty.

• Hard work.

• Respect for others.

•Cooperation.

• Compassion.

• Forgiveness.

After searching many references about teaching moral values, the researchers found a combination of Tillman and Diana's and Kuehn groups are the most proper groups to be used in the analysis of nursery rhymes.

They collectively will be as follows:

Peace, Respect, Love, Responsibility, Happiness, Cooperation, Honesty, Humility, Tolerance, Unity, Freedom, Gratitude, Cleanliness, and Friendship, Unconditional love and kindness, Hard work, and Forgiveness.

The compatibility of these educational concepts, moral and social values are surely expected to be found in the nursery rhymes selected for this study while analyzing them according to the model of the analysis. As such, counterparts of those educational concepts are inevitably found within the data of the analysis.

The Linguistic Theories of the Analysis

The analytical framework can be engineered for the purpose of this study out of two theories; first: Hoey's (1983) Problem-Solution Theory and, second: Van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory of Macrostructures.

Hoey's theory is significantly used to show the rhetorical structure of the educational concepts and shows at the same time the narrative structure, i.e. the story that is told in each one of the selected rhymes.

Therefore, narrative structures and the rhetorical structures of the educational concepts are found while applying this theory.

The researchers found it proper to add another theory as a supporting and a completion part of the analysis of educational concepts in nursery rhymes. The purpose behind this extra step is that researchers found that telling the educational concepts depending on researchers conclusions may tend to be subjective conclusions throughout applying Hoey's (1983) rhetorical structures only. In order to support their conclusions and verify them, researchers searched for a suitable theory that can give the readers, by deleting, generalizing, and constructing the texts themselves and elicit the lesson out of the words of the rhymes themselves. Finally, the decision was made to adopt van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory which set itself to the task of showing the educational concepts included in each of the selected rhymes through following the deletion, generalization, and construction macrostructure rules. This will serve the purpose of not being subjective in eliciting these concepts.

Hoey's (1983) Problem-Solution Theory

Or what is called the rhetorical structure which was first initiated by Winter (1968) who used the term 'clause-relations' to denote a limited set of 'predetermined semantic relations'. Winter, in collaboration with Hoey, has widened the scope of his relational approach by considering a clause relation the “shared cognitive process and the product of that process” from the point of view of the reader’s interpretation of the writer’s choices of grammar, lexis, and intonation” (Hoey and Winter,1986, p. 123).

By using Winter’s previous model of clause relations as a point of departure, Hoey (1979, 1983, 1986, 1993 and 1994) proposes a new model for discourse analysis in terms of rhetorical relations. He broadens the scope of Winter’s model by showing how certain lexical items can signal the narrative structure of whole texts instead of confining the role of lexical items to the signaling of clause relations alone.

Hoey (1979, p. 33) identifies two ways to detect the presence of a narrative pattern. The first is by projecting the discourse under analysis into a dialogue involving questions and answers and he proposes a noteworthy thesis and a new model for discourse analysis in terms of rhetorical relations. This theory is called "The problem-solution pattern". It is considered as a typical way to treat discourse fruitfully in a rhetorical structure. Hoey puts a great emphasis on understanding "clause relations". He claims that 'relations' go beyond the clause level; they include sentences, paragraphs and a group of paragraphs. Thus, he drops Winter's "clause relations" and substitutes it with the term "relations". He moves on classifying the surface structure signaling devices which mark clause relations. He classifies the types of signaling into:

1-Subordinators and conjuncts 2-Lexical Signaling 3-Repetition.

From these three divisions, lexical signaling will be the correct choice of the present study. Hoey (1979) identifies two ways to locate the presence of a rhetorical pattern. The first is by projecting the discourse into a dialogue involving questions and answers. To explicate this method, he (1986) proposes the following example:

(1) Charles was a language teacher. (2) His students came to him unable to write coherently. (3) He taught them discourse analysis. (4) Now they all write novels.

Projecting this text into a dialogue, the result can be as follows:

1.D(iscourse): Charles was a language teacher

Q(uestion): What problem arose for him?

2.D: His students came to him unable to write coherently.

Q: What did he do about it?

3.D: He taught them discourse analysis.

Q: What was the result?

4.D: Now they all write novels.

Such interrogative method helps establish the relationships between the sentences in the text. Thus, in Hoey's text, sentence (1) can be identified as the situation, sentence (2) as the problem, sentence (3) as the solution, and sentence (4) as the positive evaluation.

The second method of identifying patterns in the text is by means of lexical items that are found within the body of the discourse itself. The text could be rewritten as follows:

(1)Charles was a language teacher. (2) His students came to him unable to write coherently. (3) His way of dealing with this problem was to teach them discourse analysis, with the result that (4) Now they all write novels.

In the above, the way is a two-way signal: it signals that what follows is a solution and what proceeds is a problem. Similarly, the result is a two-way signal indicating that what follows, i.e., sentence 4, is the result and that what proceeds, i.e., sentence 3, is the solution. He names this pattern as a Problem-Solution Pattern.

The Problem-Solution Pattern is commonly used in literature. Hoey shows how this pattern can be extended, embedded or layered. He says that "the Problem-Solution Pattern is of considerable importance in discourse analysis and, as we have seen, is a popular form for a wide range of types of written discourse" (Hoey, 1986 p.14).

The emerging pattern could be illustrated graphically in the diagram below:

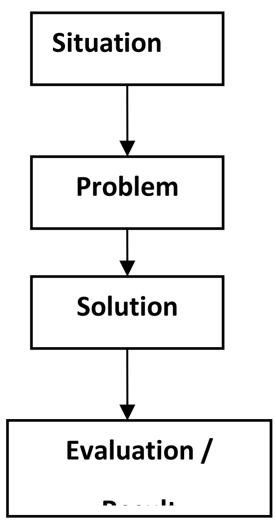

Figure (1): The Rhetorical Pattern of Hoey's Text (1979)

But his (1979)'s model may fall short of analyzing complex texts. Therefore, in his model of (1983), Hoey modifies this pattern by considering *evaluation* as either *positive* or *negative*. Figure

(1) shows the *positive* evaluation, but if the evaluation is *negative*, it signals another problem that leads to another evaluation as in figure (2):

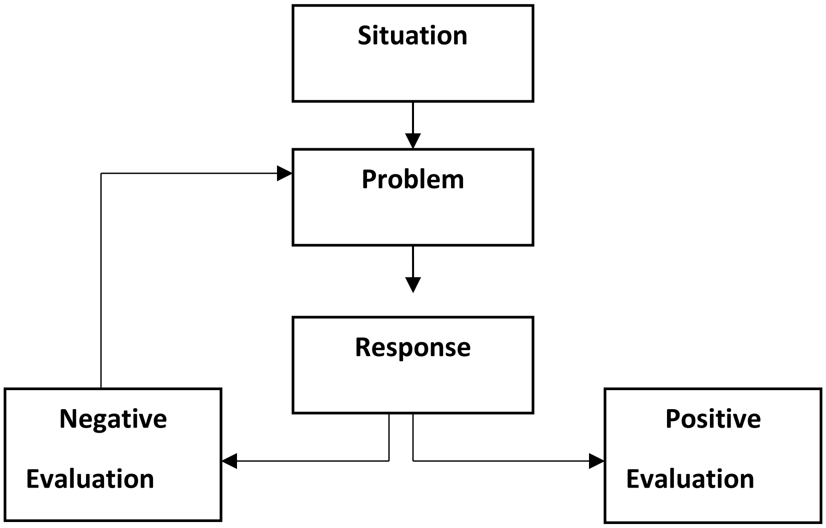

Figure (2): The Multi-layered Pattern of Hoey's (1983) Model

van Dijk and Kintsch (1983)'s Theory of Macrostructures

The educational concepts of the nursery rhymes are fetched in this study throughout van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory of macrostructures. It is felt that these concepts are best to be shown throughout the application of the macro rules of deletion, generalization, and construction in order to reach the end of determining the educational concept of each rhyme.

Narrative Macrostructure Analysis of Nursery Rhymes

This theory is proved to be applicable on various types of texts such as written text, films, and pictures. The main aim is to show that the construction of macrostructures is suitable for "characterizing information structure in a variety of symbolic representation". The idea of this theory is that macrostructure has a recursive nature. It is evidenced that text can be "represented by multiple macrostructures that vary in level of abstractedness and generalization" (Ulatowska, et al., 1999, p. 4).

Van Dijk and Kintsch state the following macro rules:

1. DELETION: Given a sequence of propositions, delete each proposition

that is not an interpretation condition (e.g., a presupposition) for another proposition in the sequence.

2. GENERALIZATION: Given a sequence of propositions, substitute the sequence by a proposition that is entailed by each of the propositions of the sequence.

3. CONSTRUCTION: Given a sequence of propositions, replace it by a
proposition that is entailed by the joint set of propositions of the sequence.

By these three processes: deletion, generalization, and construction, the language users can perform the following: The first two rules are selective or deletive, while the third is substitutive. Without the application of these rules, no macrostructures could be obtained, and no global coherence could be defined.

Methodology

Data Description

The data consists of four nursery rhymes. Those nursery rhymes are British songs that contain educational concepts exclusively prepared and written for the children at the preschool age.

Procedures of Analysis

The analysis of the data is accomplished by the following steps:

a. identifying the lexical signals for the four components: situation, problem, response, and positive/ negative evaluation which identify each one

b. Determining whether the evaluation of the poems is positive or negative.

c. Eliciting the educational concepts from each rhyme depending on the researcher's judgment.

d. Applying the levels of macrostructures by using the macrostructure's three steps of deletion, generalization, and construction in each level of the data to support the findings in the previous step.

e. Tabulating these results for the sake of statistical analysis and discussing them.

The Model of the Analysis

The analytical elected framework can be engineered for the purpose of this study out of two theories: Michael Hoey (1983) “Problem-Solution Pattern”; and, Second: van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory of Macrostructures.

Hoey's (1983) Problem-Solution Theory is significantly used to show the rhetorical structure of the nursery rhymes which shows at the same time the plotting structure, i.e. the story that is told in each one of the selected rhymes by recognizing the lexical signals that are related to each layer of the rhymes.

Whereas van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory set itself to the task as a supporting theory for showing the educational concepts included in each of the selected rhymes through following the deletion, generalization and construction macrostructure rules.

Data Analysis and The Results

Preliminaries

This chapter is primarily devoted to analysing the data collected by means of the model developed for the purpose of this study. On the basis of the results of the analysis, the findings will be presented statistically in tables and then discussed at the end of this chapter.

The Data

This section is mainly allocated to analyse four nursery rhymes as very good examples of proposing moral, social and educational concepts to children.

Rhyme(1)

Brush Your Teeth

Brush, Brush, Brush your teeth
Every morning Every night
Brush, Brush, Brush your teeth
In the morning in the night

Take the brush and add some paste
Brush your teeth without any haste
Brush the teeth from left to right
Till the cleaning feels so right
Brush it up brush it down
Move the brush round and round

The secret of having healthy teeth – Is
To carefully brush every tooth

Brush, Brush, Brush your teeth
Every morning every night
Brush, Brush, Brush your teeth
In the morning in the night
(ChuChu TV, 2016)

Situation

The situation is determined by the lexical signals ‘Brush’, ‘teeth’, ‘morning’ and ‘night’. These words refer to the children who wake up early in the morning to go to school, but their parents want them brush their teeth every morning and every night.

Problem

The problem is determined by the lexical signals ‘secret’, ‘healthy’ and ‘carefully’. Here, parents tell their children that the secret of having healthy teeth, is to carefully brush the teeth, but children do not know the correct way to brush their teeth.

Response

The parents teach their children the way to brush their teeth correctly by following many steps. The first step is to take the brush and add some paste. The second step is to brush their teeth from left to right and the third step is to brush their teeth up and down and then, move their brush round and round, but they brush their teeth without haste, till their cleaning feels so right. The response is determined by the lexical signals ‘take’, ‘add’, ‘haste’, ‘left’, ‘right’, ‘up’, ‘down’, ‘move’ and ‘round’.

Evaluation

It is a positive evaluation which is determined by the lexical signals ‘Brush’, ‘night’, ‘morning’, ‘healthy’, and ‘carefully’. Because children listen to the advice of their parents which says that the secret of having healthy teeth, is to carefully brush every tooth every morning and every night and by following the correct way of brushing which is considered a good habit.

Educational Concepts

The lessons here are: cleanliness, health and good habits.

By using the macrostructure's three steps of deletion, generalization and construction, as follows, the educational concept appears in the last level:

First-Level Macrostructures

(1) (parents say) Brush, Brush, Brush your teeth (2) Every morning every night (3) (and) In the morning in the night (4) take the brush and add some paste (5) (but) brush your teeth without any haste (6) (and) brush the teeth from left to right (7) Till the cleaning feels so right (8) (and then) Brush it up brush it down (9) (and) Move the brush round and round (10) (so) The secret of having healthy teeth is to carefully brush every tooth.

Second-Level Macrostructures

(1) The parents say brush your teeth every morning, every night and in the morning in the night (2) Take the brush and add some paste but, brush your teeth without any haste (3) And brush the teeth from left to right and then brush it up and brush it down and move the brush round and round (4) So the secret of having a healthy tooth, is to carefully brush every tooth.

Third-Level Macrostructures

(1) Brushing the teeth for children every morning and night by taking the brush and adding some paste and then brushing the teeth from left to right and up and down then, moving the brush round and round (2) so the secret of having healthy teeth is to carefully brush the tooth.

Fourth-Level Macrostructures

Taking care of cleaning and brushing the teeth twice a day in the morning and evening by following all the steps correctly to maintain healthy teeth, indicates cleanliness, healthy and good habits.

Rhyme (2)

Humpty Dumpty

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall
All the king's horses and all the king's men
Couldn't put Humpty together again.
Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall
All the king's horses and all the king's men

Couldn't put Humpty together again.

They tried to push him up

They tried to pull him up

They tried to patch him up

Couldn't put him back together again.

(Collins, 1990, p. 10)

Situation

The situation is determined by the lexical signals ‘humpty dumpty', which means a fat baby, 'sat' 'wall', and 'fall'. These words give an image of a fat baby who sits on the wall and then falls.

Problem

The problem is determined by the lexical signals ‘fall', 'couldn't put humpty dumpty together again'. Because he is fat, all the effort of the King's soldiers goes in vain to push him and put him back together again.

Response

All the king's soldiers couldn't put him back together again which means that great efforts have been done to push him, pull him, and patch him. The response is determined by the lexical signal ‘push', 'pull', and 'patch'. This refers to the fact that being fat is so difficult to be helped by others.

Evaluation

It is a negative evaluation which is determined by the lexical signals ‘couldn’t’ 'patch' and 'back together again'. The king’s horses and men couldn’t put him back together again because he eats too much that leads him to be fat. As well, sitting on the wall refers to bad behavior which leads him to fall down and no one can help him get back as he was before.

Educational Concepts

The lessons here are : health by not eating much in order not to be fat and heavy.

By using the macrostructure's three steps of deletion, generalization and construction, as follows, the educational concept appears in the last level which verifies the above results:

First-Level Macrostructure

(1) Hampty Dumpty sat on the wall (2) (and) Had a great fall. (3) All the king’s horses and all the king’s men couldn’t put Hampty together again (4) (because) They tried to push, pull and to patch him up (5) (but) Couldn’t put him back together again.

Second-Level Macrostructure

(1) Hampty Dumpty sat on the wall and had a great fall (2) All the king's horses and men couldn't put Hampty together again (3)(because) They tried to push , pull and patch him up but they couldn't put him back together again.

Third-Level Macrostructure

Hampty Dumpty falls because he sits on the wall. Because of the fatness, all efforts went in vain to help him and patch him up to put him back together again.

Rhyme (3)

Jack and Jill

Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water
Jack fell down and broke his crown
And Jill came tumbling after
Jack got up, and home did trot
As fast as he could caper
To old Dame Dob, who patched his nob
With vinegar and brown paper
Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water
Jack fell down and broke his crown
And Jill came tumbling after

(Collins, 1990, p. 22)

Situation

The situation is determined by the lexical signals 'Jack and Jill', which indicates two children, a boy and a girl, 'up the hill' and 'pail of water'. These words give an image of two innocent children who perform domestic chores to fetch some water.

Problem

The problem is determined by the lexical signals ‘fell down’, ‘broke his crown’, and ‘tumbling’. Here, there is an accident occurred, Jack stumbled and fell down then his head was injured. As well Jill lost her balance and fell down the hill after Jack.

Response

The response is determined by the lexical signals ‘Jack got, and home did tort’, ‘to old Dame Dob’, ‘with vinegar and brown paper’, which are found in the second stanza and this indicates that Jack is adequately intact as to get himself home at a reasonable speed (trot). He went to the old Dame Dob to treat his head with a blend of vinegar and brown paper to reduce his pain to go back to fetch the water.

Evaluation

It is a positive evaluation which is determined by the lexical signals ‘fell down’, ‘got up’, ‘trot’ and ‘patched’. Jack never gives up when he fell down, but he gets up and goes to old Dame to treat his head to fetch water from the hill again.

Educational Concepts

The lessons here are: never give up , and cooperation .

By using the macrostructure's three steps of deletion, generalization and construction, as follows, the educational concept appears in the last level:

First-level Macrostructure

(1) Jack and Jill went up the hill (2) To fetch a pail of water (3) But Jack fell down and broke his crown (5) And Jill came tumbling after (6) (then) Jack got up and home did trot (7) As fast as he could caper (8) To old Dame Dob who patched his nob (9) With vinegar and brown paper.

Second – level Macrostructure

(1) Jack and Jill go up the hill to fetch a pail of water (2) (but) Jack fell down and broke his crown (3) (then) He got up (4) he went to old Dame Dob to patch his nob with vinegar and brown paper.

Third – level macrostructure

(1) Jack fell down and broke his crown (2) Then he got up and patched his nob with vinegar and brown paper.

Fourth-level Macrostructure

Jack is falling down and getting up to patch his nob. Never gives up.

Rhyme (4)

The Itsy Bitsy Spider

The itsy bitsy spider
The itsy bitsy spider
Climbed up the water spout,
Down came the rain
And washed the spider out.
Out came the sunshine
And dried up all the rain,
So the itsy bitsy spider
Climbed up the spout again.
(MyVoxSong Nursery Rhymes, 2013).

Situation

The situation is determined by the lexical signals "spider", "climbing up" and "spout". These words point to itsy bitsy spider who fails to climb up the spout to reach the rooftop.

Problem

The problem is determined by the lexical signals "the rain", "washed" and "out". Here, the rain came down and washed the spider and pushed it out. So, the spider could not reach to the rooftop.

Response

The sun came out and dried up all the rain. Thus, the spider succeeded to climb up again and reached to the rooftop. The response is determined by the lexical signals 'sun', 'dried' and 'again'.

Evaluation

It is a positive evaluation which is determined by the lexical signals ‘climbing up’, ‘rain’, ‘washed’, ‘out’, ‘sun’ and ‘dried’. The spider could not reach to the rooftop through the spout because the rain comes down and washes the spider out, but the sun comes up and dries up all the rain, so the spider could reach to the rooftop.

Educational Concepts

The lessons here are: never give up and the weather conditions.

By using the macrostructure's three steps of deletion, generalization and construction, as follows, the educational concept appears in the last level:

First-Level Macrostructures

(1) (There was) The itsy bitsy spider (2) (who) Climbed up the water spout (3) (but) Down came the rain (4) And washed the spider out (5) (then) Out came the sunshine (6) And dried up all the rain (7) So the itsy bitsy (8) Climbed up the spout again.

Second-Level Macrostructures

There was the itsy bitsy spider that climbed up the water spout (2) But down came the rain and washed the spider out (3) Then out came the sunshine and dried up all the rain (4) So the itsy bitsy spider climbed up the spout again.

Third-Level Macrostructures

Climbing up of the spider through the spout of water and falling the rain down lead the spider to wash out (2) And the shinning sun led to dry all the rain and to the spider being able to climb the spout again.

Fourth-Level Macrostructures

Climbing and falling of the spider many times indicate that the spider never gives up and the falling of the rain and shining of the sun indicate the changes of weather.

Results and Discussion

As it is obvious in the analysis, these nursery rhymes play an essential role in delivering educational concepts to the children. They, throughout these rhymes, learn their language as well as their ethics, their language structures, colours, names of jobs, titles of the daily house routines and so on. Furthermore, these rhymes, as literary pieces, enhance their imagination, their linguistic skills, social values, moral values. In addition, they help foster the feeling of national identity and independence.

As writers and educators confirm, these rhymes have the power of literature to influence national progress and growth as a particular strength of the literature consumed by young readers. That's why all global educational institutions focus on children's literature due to its important impact on children's education. Those institutions confirm that at a certain age, the influence of the literary material is supposed to be greater than other ages. That's why children's literature proves to be a communication act of an aesthetic nature and has, as a medium, the creative and playful abilities of the language.

Therefore, the ultimate aim of the analytical framework of the present study is geared to certain goals. It does not set itself to find out the rhetorical structures of the educational concepts in the nursery rhymes per se, but to show up the narrative structure and the plot of each rhyme. The components of Hoey's (1983) theory: situation, problem, response, and positive/negative evaluation function as a sequence of the events in the story of the rhyme. As a result of the analysis, the nursery rhymes prove that they are constructed out of these structures in the same way of any literary narrative text. The rhetorical structure of each rhyme represents the plotting techniques of the story intended in the rhyme. By using Hoey's words, the lexical items in the rhymes signal the narrative structure of whole texts.

As far as the educational concepts are concerned, they are manifested in this study via, firstly; Hoey's (1983) rhetorical structures theory. It appears that each rhyme consists of one or more educational lessons. The manifestation of these lessons depends merely on the researcher judgment. In order to avoid subjectivity and self-judgment, the researchers geared their direction towards adopting a neutral theory that gives neutral results, therefore, they, secondly, adopts van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory of macrostructures, as a second manifestation for the purpose of verification and supporting the results of the first theory of analysis, i.e. Hoey's (1983).

The results of the analysis of the first part of the theory, i.e. Hoey's (1983) come in accordance with the results of the analysis of van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) theory. The application of macrostructure rules are set for the avoidance of subjectivity and for backing up the results appeared in the first part of the analysis and as shown in the table below:

As table no. (1) shows, six educational concepts appeared to be delivered throughout these rhymes.

Table no. (1): The Frequencies and the Percentages of the Educational Concepts

Educational concepts	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Health	2	50%
Never give up	2	50%
Good behavior	1	25%

Good habits	1	25%
Cooperation	1	25%
Weather conditions	1	25%

Starting with the higher frequency that is scored by health , never give up with (2) times, equal to (50%). Next are good behavior , good habits , cooperation and weather conditions . They score (1) time, equal to (25%).

Referring back to the group of the following educational concepts which are collected from various references which are previously discussed , show a highest compatibility of these educational concepts with the results of the analysis shown in table no, (1) above:

Peace, Respect, Love, Responsibility, Happiness, Cooperation, Honesty, Humility, Tolerance, Unity, Freedom, Gratitude, Cleanliness, and Friendship, Unconditional love and kindness, Hard work, and Forgiveness.

Some of these educational concepts are one hundred percentage match the results of the analysis by using the macrostructure rules.

These findings are surely expected to be found in the nursery rhymes selected for this study while analyzing them according to the model of the analysis. As such, counterparts of those educational concepts are inevitably found within the data of the analysis.

Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of the analysis conducted in the previous chapter, the following conclusion can be made:

1.Each rhyme selected to be analyzed in the current study shows narrative structural patterns, i.e. situation, problem, solution, and positive/negative evaluation. These patterns represent and tell the story of each rhyme. They are equivalent to the plotting techniques utilized in novels or dramas.

2.The analysis of the rhymes shows (6) educational concepts. These rhymes which are selected randomly, seem to be deliberately full of educational lessons to serve as a medium of education for children to teach them various ethics.

3.The analysis of the rhymes shows that there are various educational concepts that have been used by rhymes writers. Among them, some score the higher frequency: health and never give up with (2) times, equal to (50%). Thus, the third hypothesis which says that "Certain educational concepts register higher frequency." comes true.

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Using DIALANG in Assessing Foreign Language Proficiency: The Interface between Learning and Assessment

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Abstract

The current study offers a case study that attempts to reinforce an existing language testing system. To be more precise, this study investigates the suitability of an online diagnostic assessment system (DIALANG) for tracking the English language proficiency of undergraduate university students in four skills. Every learner is unique and different from other peers on the basis of one or the other reason. So, to assess the phenomenon, the population of the study is chosen from Department of Economics at the University of Lahore where English is taught to ameliorate learners' language skills. The study utilizes DIALANG tool developed by Lancaster University UK to assess the performance of language skills. The study reports learners' level of skill for language learning. We demonstrated the dominant effect of metacognitive strategies and the low effect of memory strategies. In addition, metacognitive strategies also influenced foreign language marks. The effect of foreign language marks on learners' achievement was also remarkable. There was a strong impact on the learners' attitudes through these variables.

Keywords: *Learning Strategies, ESP, Diverse approaches, Pedagogical Implications*

Introduction

Teaching and learning a language has gone through a tremendous change in the last ten years (Al-Ghamdi & Alrefaee, 2020; Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi, 2019). Language tests are traditionally categorized into achievement, progress, placement, proficiency, and diagnostic. Scores generated from language tests are used in decision-making processes, which in turn, define the purpose of a test (Fulcher & Davidson, 2009). Second language learning is an important element when an individual wants to gain more exposure and skills in his/her professional career. The time frame and difficulty level during the learning process vary from person to person. The characteristics of the learner predict the duration in which he/she becomes the master of the language. The differences amongst the characteristics of learners are much appealing and an important subject for the researchers and language therapists who are always in search of effective strategies that can make the learning process simple and easy. In this paper, two main language skills grammar and vocabulary are investigated as to how they affect the learning process and, the term *strategies* have been examined to differentiate similar terms like techniques, tactics, and process. Where a lot of factors are discussed, one factor Language Proficiency has been examined deeply from two points of view and influencing factor as the outcome of the strategy in use. The advantages and disadvantages of various learning methods and strategies are also discussed briefly in this research.

Within the field of second/foreign dialect educating and learning, the interface of professionals and researchers have been equipped to the dialect learning methodologies (LLSs) choice and adoption of fruitful dialect learners. The proposal that a great dialect learner may have some special procedures that others may learn from was at first presented by Rubin (1979). Using a blended strategies approach counting classroom perception, self-observation, and interviews, Rubin proposed a list of seven characteristics of great dialect learners. They incorporate the ability to create great surmises, communicate in numerous ways, endure botches, pay consideration to form and communication, hone the dialect routinely, screen one’s possess dialect use, and get it and go to meaning.

These early investigations have set the scene for a developing intrigued in how language learners themselves go almost learning and what instructors can do to help learners amid that process. Rubin (1975) recognized the impact that numerous factors, such as target language capability, age, circumstance, social contrasts and learning styles, may have on the deployment of LLSs. As such, Naiman et al. (1978) focused that there were no “predetermined in general characteristics” among great dialect learners due to the various individual pathways that might lead to effective dialect learning. This accentuation on individual variation in LLS utilize has gotten to be a rule for most investigate endeavors within the field. On the one hand, it highlights the issue of person contrasts and underscores the flexibility in the dialect learning technique arrangement. On the other hand, it puts confinement on the generalizations to any target populace past the test of any investigation of almost the good dialect learners.

Statement of Problems

English language learners observe that content area i.e vocabulary often becomes barriers in comprehending the concept. ELL students mainly struggle with science and social studies vocabulary, and consequently they encounter difficulty to grasp critical concepts. Traditional methods of vocabulary instruction are ineffective with ELL students. So, this research aims to teach about the role and different strategies of English learning.

Objectives of the Study

- To examine the frequency and pattern of LLS University of Lahore student of Economics department
- The relationship between LLS use and self-rated English proficiency
- The specific aim here was to investigate and evaluate the use of LLS among University of Lahore EFL students and staff

Research Questions

The current research endeavors to find out answers of the following research questions;

1) What are the learners' strategy use preferences and how these are connected with their foreign language attitude and achievement?
2) How does Dialang test help teachers to gauge performance of language learners?

Literature Review

LLS became a point of discussion in late 1970s for those who were trying to learn a second language. Learners got awareness about the need of language learning strategies as the time scale was varying amongst various learners. Earlier on, a list of strategies was created to use by all the learners but later on experts formulated a classification system that categorizes different people on the basis of individual skills like their abilities, memorizing power, keenness, efficiencies etc. A lot of research is done on LLS but still there is no consensus of researchers on one universal definition of LLS as Ellis put it in (1994) “Definitions of learning strategies have tended to be ad hoc and a theoretical” and this still holds today. The issue is to differentiate between ‘Strategic Learning’ from ordinary learning. As for ‘Vocabulary’ just looking into a word and memorizing is ordinary learning while making a set of similar words and underlining or coloring the major ones or the one used frequently is making it strategic learning used differently by different people.

The most regularly utilized scientific categorization was created by Oxford (1990). She recognized three immediate and three roundabout system types. Direct techniques are explicit methods for language use: memory, intellectual and compensatory (or pay) methodologies. Backhanded systems, for example, metacognitive, full of feeling and social procedures, support LLS by implication. As of late, Oxford returned to her system classifications and built up a model with four diverse methodology classes: intellectual, full of feeling and sociocultural-intuitive just as an ace classification of "metastrategies." Metastrategies contain metacognitive, meta-emotional and meta-sociocultural-intelligent procedures (Griffith and Oxford, 2014; Oxford, 2016). In any case, she didn't expound on this technique characterization, and along these lines our investigation depended on her unique scientific categorization.

Different investigations have concentrated on LLS use and planned to distinguish the procedures most every now and again utilized by language students (Chamot, 2004; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Wu, 2008; Chen, 2009; Al-Qahtani, 2013; Charoento, 2016; Alhaysony, 2017; Dawadi, 2017; Abdul-Ghafour & Alrefaee, 2019; Nhem, 2019). In general, it very well may be reasoned that the most ordinarily utilized LLS in these investigations were metacognitive, pay and subjective systems. Notwithstanding, Chamot (2004) brought up that diverse methodology inclinations were accounted for by understudies in various social settings. Chinese and Singaporean understudies announced a more elevated level inclination for social procedures and lower utilization of full of feeling methodologies than European understudies. A few investigations have managed the execution of the SILL with an attention on school-matured understudies (Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Chen, 2009, 2014; Gunning and Oxford, 2014; Platsidou and Kantaridou, 2014; Pfenninger and Singleton, 2017). The general finish of these examinations has been that youthful students, for the most part, utilized social, full of feeling and remuneration procedures. The utilization of memory methodologies was moderately low (Doró and Habók, 2013). The perspectives of students at this age toward language learning are especially significant since they can enormously decide inspiration, learning results and later accomplishment in language learning (Platsidou and Kantaridou, 2014; Platsidou and Sipitanou, 2014).

As the motivation behind exploring LLS is to cultivate learning forms and improve language level, look into ventures frequently manage LLS use according to language learning capability (Khaldieh, 2000; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Wu, 2008; Chen, 2009; Liu, 2010; Al-Qahtani, 2013; Platsidou and Kantaridou, 2014; Charoento, 2016; Rao, 2016). The thought of capability has been characterized and engaged with an examination in a large number of ways by different scientists. Charoento (2016) included self-appraisals, Wu (2008) utilized the outcomes from language capability and accomplishment tests, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) consolidated language course reviews into their investigation of their outcomes. Most examinations have indicated a positive connection among LLS and capability, yet the course of their association was regularly extraordinary. A few analysts have focused on that system use was for the most part indicated by capability. Increasingly capable understudies occupied with LLS all the more much of the time and furthermore utilized a more extensive scope of methodologies generally speaking contrasted with less capable understudies (Khaldieh, 2000; Wu, 2008; Rao, 2016). Al-Qahtani (2013) and Charoento (2016) showed that fruitful understudies for the most part utilized intellectual procedures, while Wu (2008) underscored noteworthy usage of psychological, metacognitive and social methodologies among increasingly capable college understudies. Chen (2009) highlighted the utilization of less correspondence methodologies among capable students, however, they noticed that they utilized them more productively than less capable students. Furthermore, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) additionally settled that the essential contrast in LLS use among capable and less capable students was that increasingly effective understudies utilized certain LLS fundamentally more frequently, but at the same time had the option to choose the most sufficient techniques relying upon the objective of their errand.

A few investigations have managed the impact of LLS use on language capability. Both Liu (2010) and Platsidou and Kantaridou (2014) brought up that learning technique impacts language use and that it assumes a huge job in foreseeing apparent language execution. Wu (2008) noticed that subjective methodologies have the most predominant effect on capability. Rao (2016) found that understudies' English capability altogether influenced their learning technique use and furthermore saw that elevated level understudies profit themselves of a bigger number of systems more as often as possible than low-level understudies.

Another basic zone of LLS looks into is the investigation of system use corresponding to emotional factors, for example, demeanor and inspiration (Shang, 2010; Jabbari and Golkar, 2014; Platsidou and Kantaridou, 2014). A large portion of these examinations has discovered that students with an inspirational disposition utilized LLS all the more as often as possible contrasted with students with a negative demeanor. Platsidou and Kantaridou (2014) announced that perspectives toward second language learning impact both immediate and circuitous methodology utilizes and that changing students' mentalities toward language learning would thus be able to cultivate their technique rehearses. Jabbari and Golkar (2014) built up that students with an uplifting demeanor utilize subjective, pay, metacognitive and social procedures all the more much of the time.

It very well may be presumed that LLS use has been concentrated broadly in late decades. Most research has discovered that LLS can't be investigated independently; it must be analyzed comparable to certain different elements, among which unknown dialect perspectives and capability assume a focal job (Griffiths and Incecay, 2016).

Classification of Learning Strategies

The classification system for the language learning strategies became the need of the time when a study started on these strategies which resulted in making lots of practical/theoretical, vocabulary related, cognitive strategies etc. Rubin distinguished between learning strategies, communication strategies, and social strategies Rubin (1987).

Learning Strategies: Those strategies which directly help the learner to grasp the language system are termed as learning strategies. These strategies can be either direct strategies like clarification, verbal and non-verbal reasoning, memorization, monitoring, verification etc. Indirect strategies contain ways to create opportunities for practice as well as production tricks Hsiao and Oxford (2002).

Direct Strategies: As per the research done in Oxford (1990) the direct strategies include cognitive, memory-related and compensation, these are direct strategies since they involve in the mental process which is essential in the language learning process.

Indirect Strategies: metacognitive effective and social strategies are indirect strategies as these strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means” Oxford (1990).

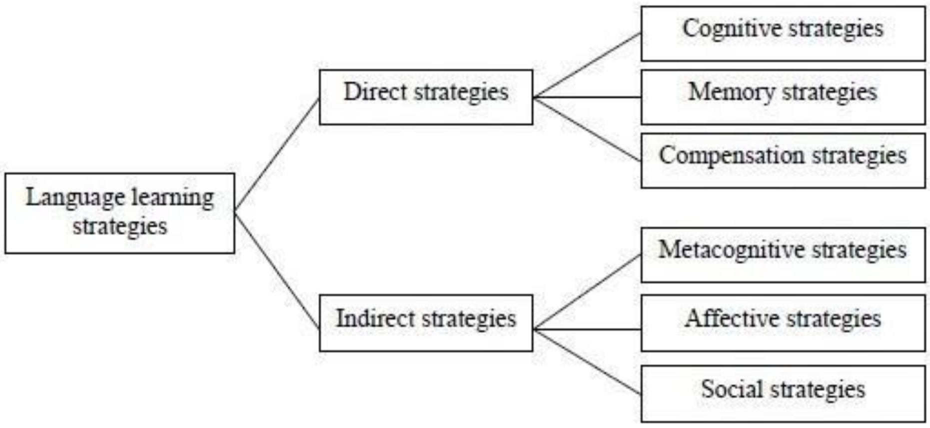

Figure 1: Diagram of the strategy system: overview Oxford (1990)

Cognitive Strategies: These strategies are based upon the information provided and require the manipulation of that information. Preparation, inferencing, descriptions, elaboration and summarizing techniques are used here for information manipulation.

Memory Strategies: Memory strategies are defined as a subclass of the cognitive strategies which help in memorizing words, increasing the vocabulary and also learning grammar rules.

Compensation Strategies: These strategies are not defined properly, besides the language learning process; the use of a language in different ways is included. Lastly, Oxford (2001) pointed out that the boundaries between the different categories of her classification are fuzzy since learners can employ more than one strategy at a time.

Metacognitive Strategies: These strategies are considered as a high-level skill that requires deep attention, organizing information and evaluation of that information.

Social/Affective Strategies: "broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over effect", consists of cooperation, questioning for clarification, and self-talk 1990.

Factors Influencing Strategy Choice

Language learning strategy directly impacts on the frequency of the number of learners due to its effectiveness or inefficiency. Different people chose different strategies as per their ease, but research has been done on the factors which influence directly/indirectly the learners. But no agreement can be found covering the type/nature of these factors. Oxford has mentioned almost 16 factors which affect the learner’s choice of any specific learning strategy but after some time another list came covering only 8 factors given below

- Cultural background
- Attitudes
- Gender
- Motivation
- Learning style
- Age
- Tolerance of ambiguity
- Type of task

This is not an exhaustive list, later research resulted in few more factors like career orientation, proficiency, aptitude etc. These factors will be discussed below with a bit of details, but language proficiency will be discussed in a separate section.

Social and Situational Factors

Gender is a social factor that will be widely used and there are evidences that gender differences also affect the choice of learning strategy. Overall, women are found to have higher overall language learning strategies use than men. This despite Oxford’s (1994) remark that women can be surpassed by men when it comes to the use of a learning strategy and Green and Oxford’s (1995) claim that individual strategy use may differ from that of the general group. The use of social strategies varies amongst men/women depending upon the vicinity they are living. Social strategies used by the women in western culture are different than eastern culture due to some traditional and cultural restrictions. Furthermore, the use of rule-based strategies by women is clear by the women’s will to achieve higher grades and their need for social approval.

Finally, the classroom setting and the environment also adds value to the learning process. A second language learning LL2 requires different environments and procedures than learning a local language. In short, the choice of a learning strategy and the frequency with which learners choose a strategy depends upon various factors. These factors can be summarized or discussed based on social and situational context. The learning strategy doesn’t merely depend upon one or two factors instead a lot of factors affect the overall learning process.

Research Methodology

A group was selected at random from the Economics department of the University of Lahore who were the participants of an English language course. This study focused primarily on the strategies used by the students to learn English as a second language and the investigated variable was 'English Proficiency'. Other variables like learning interest, memory, gender and motivation were not studied in this research. Bi-directional relation is studied between strategy and proficiency as per the suggestion of Green and Oxford (1995). When student uses a strategy, their English becomes proficient, as proficiency increases more strategies can be used in return. In this study, we will focus on the results of using language strategies and their effects on language learning by conducting tests on vocabulary and grammar. The interview questions for students were designed to focus on their general attitudes and their own lived experiences of LLSs. Similarly, the interview question for the engineering staff was structured around their general attitudes. Open-handed questions beginning with "what", "how", or "have you ever" were mainly used to probe for meaning–rich responses.

Research Instruments

A survey was carried out followed by the two tests sessions in order to investigate the effects of strategy used by economics students. At the start of Academic year (2018-19) the learners were asked to complete the Dialang Test to assess their proficiency level and below skills were evaluated from the test

- Reading
- Writing
- Listening
- Grammar
- Vocabulary

The results were given back to the students with the six levels of Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR) Alderson (2005). By the end of the same academic year, students were asked to appear in an online test of Oxford's ESL/EFL versions of SIIL to get the detailed information about the language strategies used by the learners. In total, 30 strategies were examined through the above tests and these strategies were sub-divided into 6 categories. Before the end of the term, another test was taken before the term-end where English proficiency was examined. This test was based on simple multiple-choice questions to test the vocabulary, Grammar, spellings and use of the resources. This last part contained questions to test the knowledge of communicative functions like Idioms to show agreement/disagreement and expressions used in applications/letter writing tasks. The ability to use a dictionary was also tested. The grammar that was examined in the second test was specifically tested under the domain of Economics and results were compared with the first test where the domain was not strictly an Economics domain.

Dialang

European higher education institutions have developed an online diagnostic language assessment system named ‘Dialang’ back in October (2006) which is free of charge. This tool offers diagnostics not proficiency tests, which means it predicts a speaker’s competency and highlights the strengths and weaknesses by giving feedbacks. Apart from English, this tool works for major 14 European languages where native speakers and second language learners both can evaluate their language skills. Four language skills, grammatical structures and vocabulary are the main areas that can be tested using ‘Dialang’. In the start, a ‘Vocabulary Size Placement Test’ (VSPT) is presented to the student which contains 75 verbs where student distinguishes between existing words and pseudowords. Results are categorized into six bands from very low to ‘indistinguishable from native speaker’. After this test, a language competence test is conducted which comprises 18 statements of each skill. These self-assessment tests also contain grammatical structure tests.

Language competency tests usually come in three levels of difficulty, easy, intermediate and difficult levels. The result of any difficulty level is in the form of two types of feedbacks, self-assessment feedback comes with the results/outcome whereas advisory feedback comes up with the tips/techniques to enhance a skill.

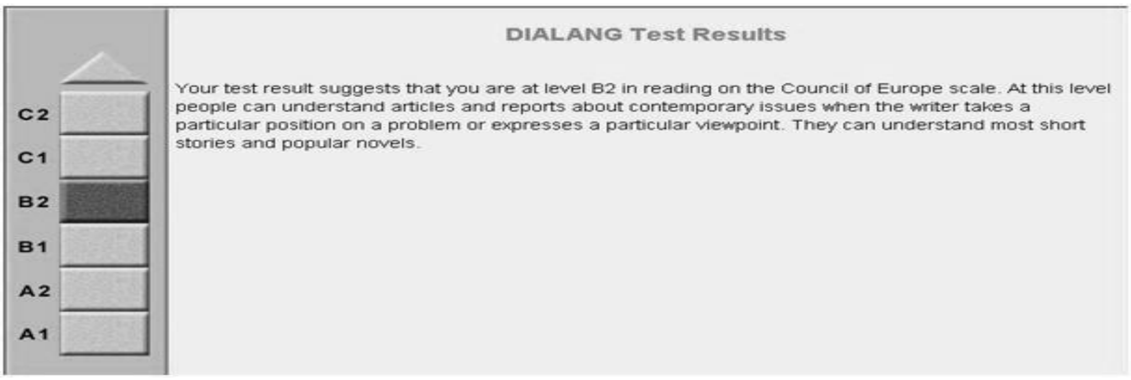

Figure 2: Example of a description of the abilities related to a score of B2

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

'SILL' Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was created in 1986 by Rebecca L.Oxford to assess the frequency by which students use strategies during language learning process. It consists of two questionnaires, one for the native speakers and the other for those learning English as a second/foreign language. For this study, we used EFL (English as a Foreign Language) version, the questions and instructions of SILL were given to the students to check the level of English knowledge students have got.

Participants

The participants of this research are the 1st year students of Economics Department at the University of Lahore. All the students are native Urdu speakers but studied English throughout their schooling. A subject named 'English for Business Studies' is also a compulsory subject their 1stprofessional year. This course named as ESP which means English for a specific purpose was taught. This course was designed to provide essential job-related skills amongst Economic studies. All the 50 students of year 1 completed the 'Dialang' test at the start of the first term. 10 students took the test quite a few times and got a different score each time. These students were excluded from the results of this study. 7 students who completed the test could not fill in the SILL therefore, their results were also no included for this study. 5 students completed the survey more than twice, so their last entry was used. Finally, the intermediate test of this Economic English class was conducted in which almost 60 students participated. After getting the results, a comparison was made. In this comparison, only 26 students were selected who successfully passed the test. Their results are used to investigate further in this paper.

Data Sets and Analysis of the Tests

Out of 60 students who took part into the testing sessions, the data-set or our sample set comprised of 24 students (N=24) of this study. SILL is digitalized which most of the students have done at home on their convenient time frame, within the two weeks bracket. One teacher of the Economic department and the researcher urged the students to observe truthfulness in using the habitual language strategy. Data analysis was done with the help of the head teacher who made the statistical figures in Ggplot 2 including his interpretations also. A detailed discussion on the results and the comparison with other studies was a major part of the studies conducted by me. Throwing light on the results; Grammar and Vocabulary are discussed separately at a later stage. The learners used diverse strategies which are discussed later in this report. The comparison was made for the above two tests to see the impacts/benefits of this course and to draw out a conclusion about the beginning till the end skill level of the participants. A possible correlation will also be looked at between these end results and between the six categories of learning strategies used in this study which are social/effective strategies, cognitive/meta-cognitive strategies, compensation and memory strategies. Lastly, we will look at the average number of language strategies used by the students and to find out any correlation between the strategies used overall.

The student's reported use of individual statements will be looked briefly, to see the use of unfamiliar words and will make an average of this, also the responses of six categories of strategies used in learning. The interpretation of these averages will be done according to the scale provided by the Oxford (1990) i.e.

- An average between 1-1.4 = the strategy group is 'Never applied/used'
- An average between 1.5-2.4 = the strategy generally 'Not used'
- An average between 2.5-3.4 = the strategy is'Partially used'
- An average between 3.5-4.4= the strategy has 'Higher percentage of the usage'
- An average over 4.5 = the strategy is 'Always used'

Results of these tests or the statistical findings of the study will be mapped with the initial hypothesis i.e. proficiency of the use of learning strategy contains a bi-directional relationship with each other. Positive correlation between a strategy use and a higher test result shows that proficiency relates closely with the strategies use in learning language. Each strategy develops a unique skill in language learning. Memory strategies aid the students in memorizing/enhancing the vocabulary but not learning Grammar.

The results of Dialang test are represented in CEFR levels (from A1-C2) but results of Economic English test are represented in numeric (from 1-10) for vocabulary and up to 20 for Grammar. The statistical analysis and comparison of the result was a bit difficult task due to format/nature differences of the results. A contrast exits between categorical results (Dialang) and a continuous result (Eco-English Test) which results in using different statistical comparison methods used in similar studies.

Results

There exists a different analysis on the results which will be discussed in different sections of this chapter with a separate section for Grammar and Vocabulary results. Dialang test results will be discussed initially where vocabulary results will be followed by the grammar results. SILL survey results will be looked at a second stage while on the last stage, we will look at Economic English test results and again vocabulary will be first here followed by the Grammar results. Section 4.1 will summaries the results of the tests while in section 4.3, an investigation will show the possible relationship between the two elements, the strategy used versus the proficiency gained. And this is the main aim of this study. We will also try to find a relationship between variety/quantity of the learning strategy with the proficiency gained whereas, implications of the results will be studied in next section 5 of this report.

Test Results and SILL

In this section we will start with the Dialang test results for the vocabulary and the grammar Dialang Vocabulary and Grammar Tests

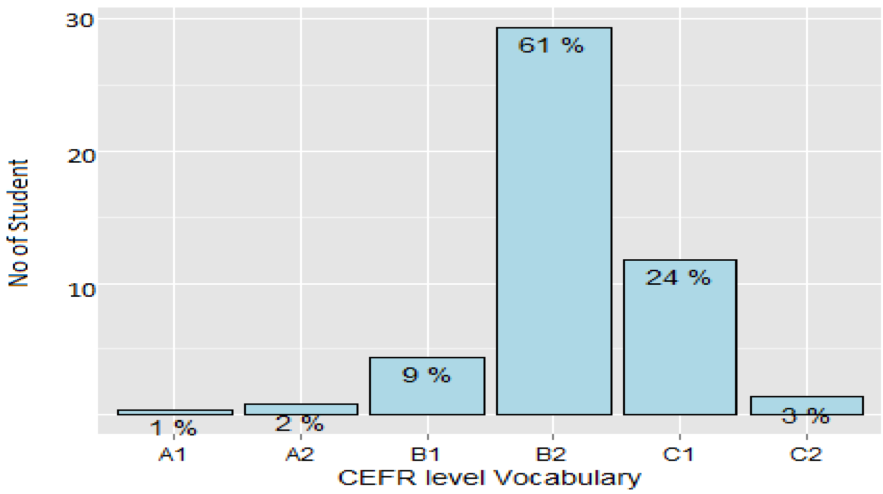

Figure 3: Vocabulary scores of the Dialang test

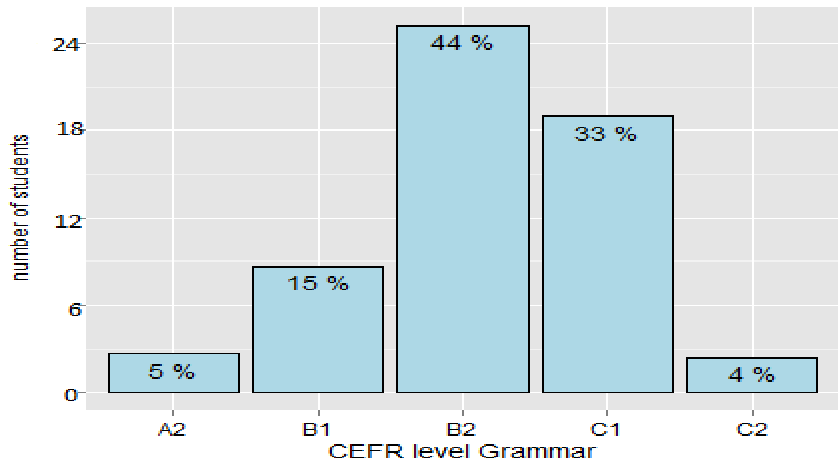

Figure 3 is a graphical representation of the results according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) for Dialang vocabulary test. Percentage of participants is shown on Y-axis of the graph while CEFR level results are on X-axis of the graph. Almost 61% achieved B2 which is quite higher score while 24% shown even more better results and got C1. Only 3% of the students couldn’t do well in vocabulary test and remained in A1 and A2 levels. More distributed data can be seen in Grammar test in Figure 4. 44% students got B2 which is quite good result which is followed by 33% of the participants who are on C1 level. No even 1 student was on A1 level which showed most of the learners scored well in Dialang grammar test. If we compare these two tests, we can see that 9% increment is for C1 which means in grammar, a higher percentage of the students have shown excellent result. C2 level result is again better for grammar than vocabulary. B1 which is a bit lower scale in Dialang test, but still grammar students have shown a higher percentage of 6% in this part of the graph.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Results

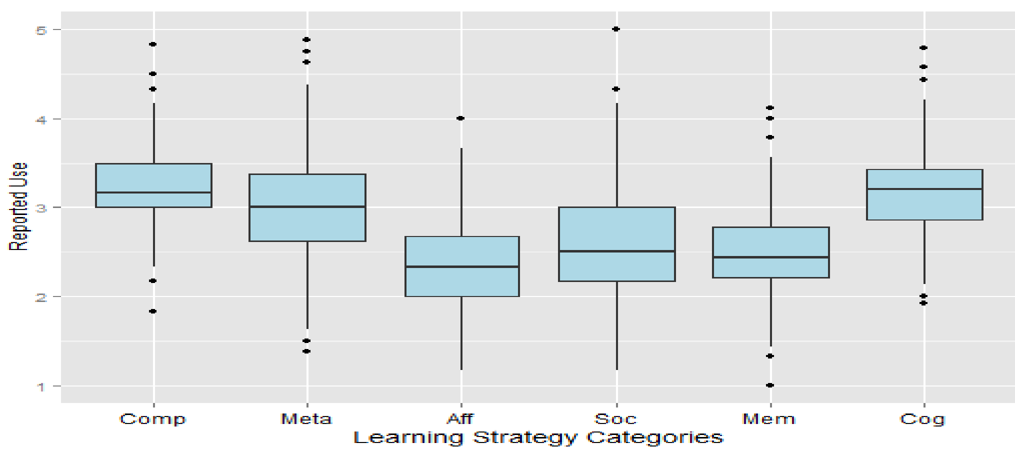

Figure 5: Reported use of each of the 6 learning strategy categories

The student's reported use of the six types of language learning strategies are shown above in figure 5 using a box plot. Scale ranges from 1-5 means from never used to always used which is mentioned above in the study in detail. This graph shows the average of the strategies used by the students. One dot at level one shows that a very few students fall on level one which results in not using any language strategy. Also, level 5 shows similar results as level 1which means very less students have always been using learning strategies.

- I make summary of the information I hear or read = Least preferred cognitive strategy with the value 2.31
- I watch English language TV shows and movies without sub-titles = Most preferred cognitive strategy with the value 3.76
- If I can't think of an English word, I use another word or phrase with similar meaning = Highest preferred compensation strategy with the value 4.2
- I encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid of making mistakes = High preferred affective strategy with the value 3.6
- I write down my feelings in the diary of language learning = Least affective learning strategy with the value 1.24

Economic English Grammar and Vocabulary Tests

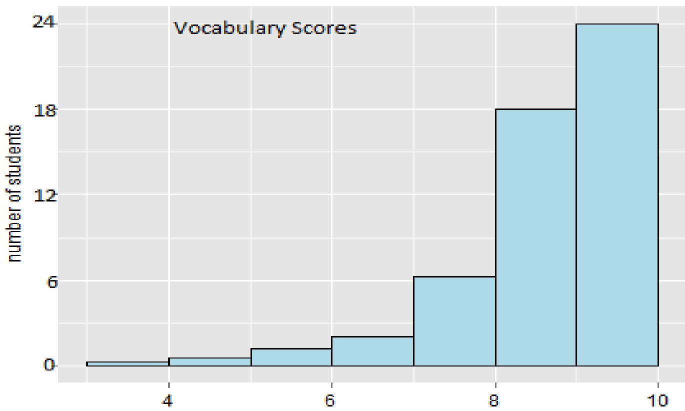

Figure 6: Vocabulary scores of the economic English test

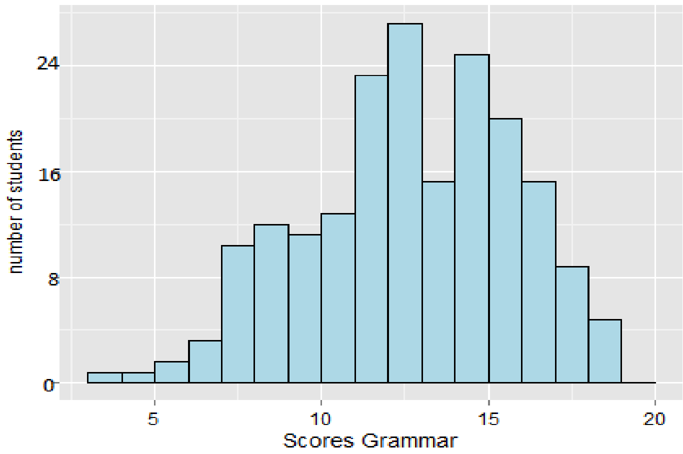

Figure 7: Grammar scores of the economic English test

Above graphs show Economics English results for vocabulary and grammar. It is clear from the graph that students performed well in vocabulary test where the average score is 8.5. More than 50% students have got score 9-10. Grammar scores are distributed more which is clear from the dispersed nature of the graph. Almost 80% of the students have passed the test. The average score is 12 out of 20 which is more than 50% and considered a decent score.

Comparison Scores of the Dialang and Economic English test Vocabulary

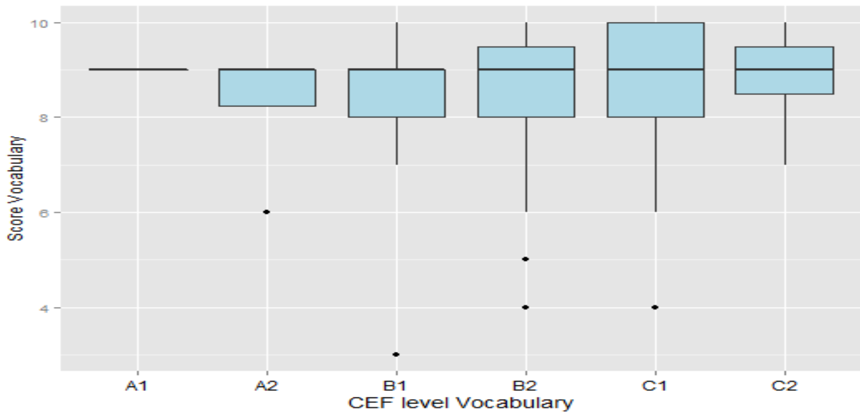

Figure 8: Comparison of the vocabulary scores of the Dialang and economic English test

The above graph shows the results of vocabulary part of Dialang test and also vocabulary part of Economic English test. The CEFR level and the vocabulary scores are on the X and Y-axis respectively. This graph is drawn to check the progress of the students over time for performance improvement. It was expected that the students who scored low in Dialang test initially would show better results in this test but still less than the students who showed higher proficiency at the start of the term. In this case a straight diagonal line would be present from lower left towards upper right corner of the graph. The vocabulary domain for this test was entirely different than the first test which is just economics domain. The graph shows that the students didn't meet the expectations after attending the economics English course otherwise the second economics English test should have shown better results.

Grammar

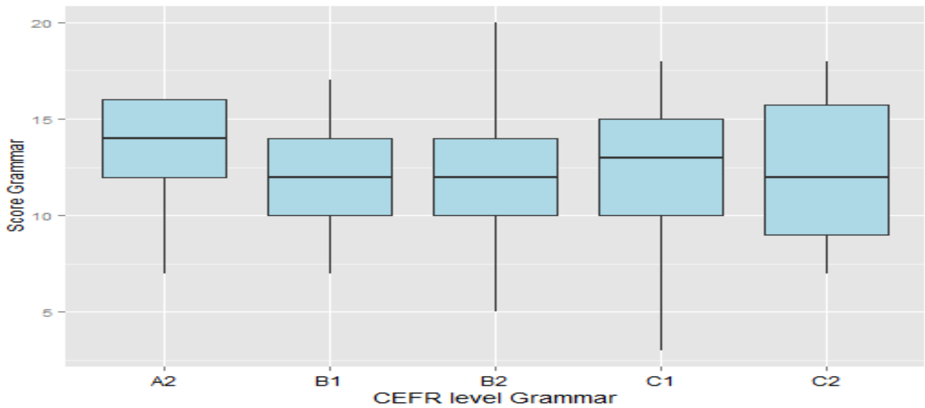

Figure 9: Comparison of the grammar scores of the Dialang and economic English test

The visualization of grammar part of both Dialang and Economic English tests are clear from the graph in figure 9. It was expected that the students will get better results over the time after attending English economic course. But graph does not show a diagonal line from the bottom left side to the top right side.There seems to be a negative correlation between both tests. And, an inverse relationship exists between the two tests. Students who got good marks in the Dialang test scored less in Economic English test and vice versa.

Effect of the Strategy Used on the Tests

Dialang Vocabulary Test

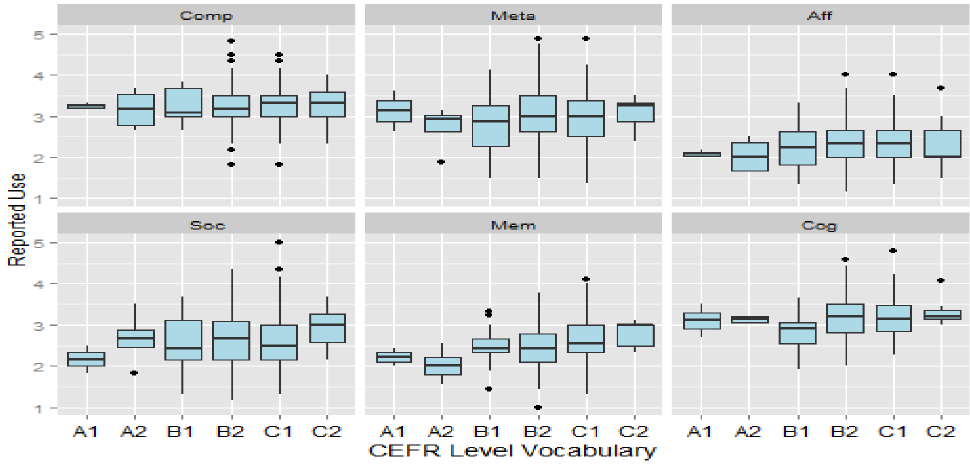

Figure 10: Correlation between the reported strategy use and scores on the Dialang vocabulary test

Correlation between the student's reported strategy use on the SILL and the scores of Vocabulary part of Dialang test are given in the above box plot.Social and memory strategies are positively co-related with the scores while the other four show no correlation.

Dialang Grammar Test

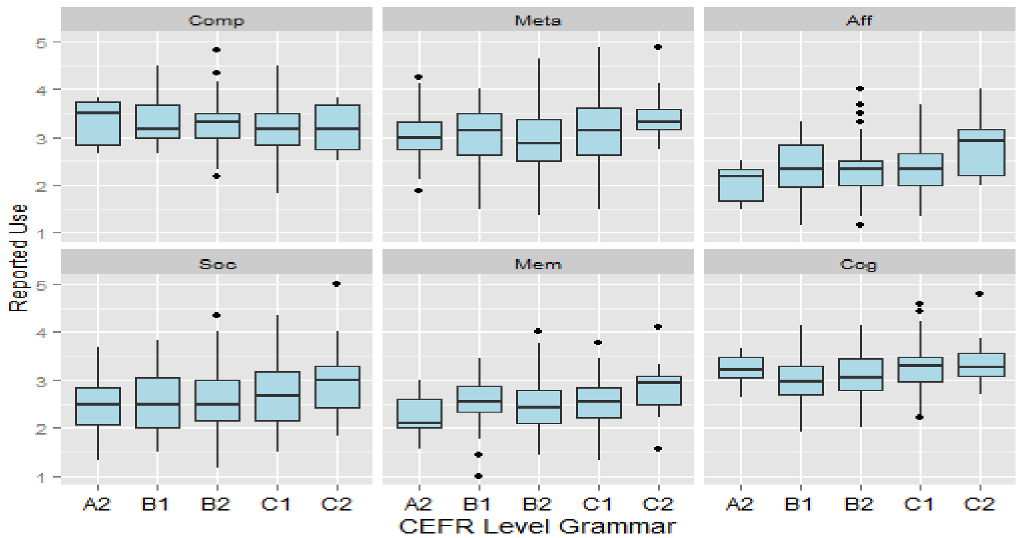

Figure 11: Correlation between the reported strategy use and scores on the Dialang grammar test

Correlation between the students' reported strategy use on the SILL and the scores of Grammar part of Dialang test is given in the above box plot. A minimal positive effect can be seen on the scores by the use of affective strategy and same for metacognitive, social and memory strategies but a negative affect can be seen on compensation strategies. It is also seen that the higher a student's proficiency, the less compensation strategy they use. No effect has been noted on the score using cognitive strategies.

Economic English Vocabulary Test

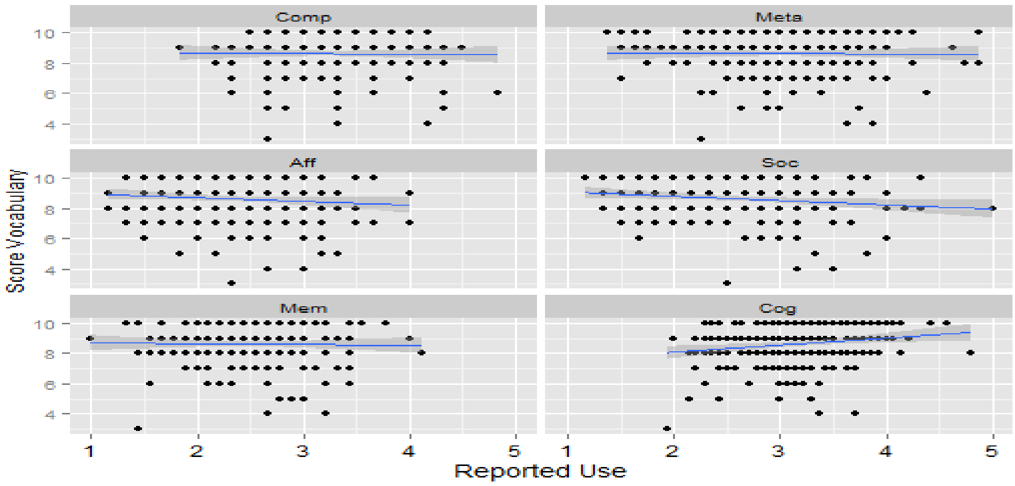

Figure 12: Correlation between the reported strategy use and scores on the Eco-English vocabulary test. Correlation between strategy used on scale 1-5 and scores obtained in Economic English vocabulary test are given in the above graph. Trending line going up indicates positive while going down shows negative correlation. Correlation exists between the scores and three strategies, strongest one is cognitive which influenced the marks the most, second one is social strategy while affective strategy is falling third. No effect on marks by other three categories.

Economics English Grammar Test

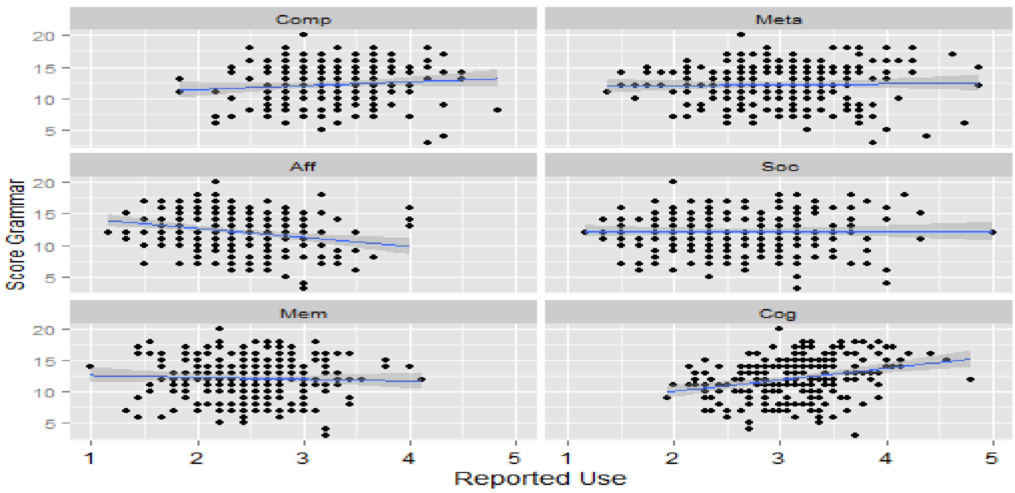

Figure 13: Correlation between the reported strategy use and scores on the economic English grammar test

Correlation between strategy used on scale 1-5 and scores obtained in Economic English Grammar test are given in the above graph. Trending line going up indicates positive while going down shows negative correlation. Cognitive strategy influenced the most in gaining higher score in Grammar test like the vocabulary test. Compensation strategy also shows positive trend but not as strongly as in vocabulary test. Affective strategy shows negative affect unlike vocabulary test. Metacognitive and memory strategies show no affect overall

Effect of Number of Frequently used Strategies on Results

Dialang Vocabulary Test

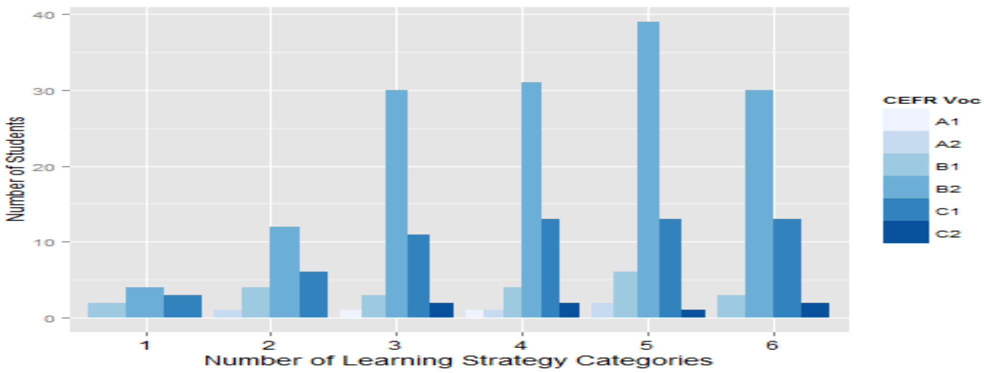

Figure 14: Correlation between number of strategies used and Dialang vocabulary test scores

Likert-Scale value of over 2.5 shows a category of learning strategy as a frequently used strategy. B2 bars of the results are the highest as majority of the students got highest marks in this range. Score on A1 is not worth discussing due to very less values. Graph shows positive correlation in B1 also. Students falling here have used 5-6 strategies on average. B2 students used 1-2 strategies on average. Overall results show that the high number of strategies used in obtaining high scores.

Dialang Grammar Test

Figure 15: Correlation between number of strategies used and Dialang grammar test scores
The above graph shows similar results as in Dialang Vocabulary test. Students who got highest score are colored dark on the right-hand side. This shows the greatest usage of language strategies than the light color bars. Overall, a positive correlation exists here between the two variables.

Economic English Vocabulary Test

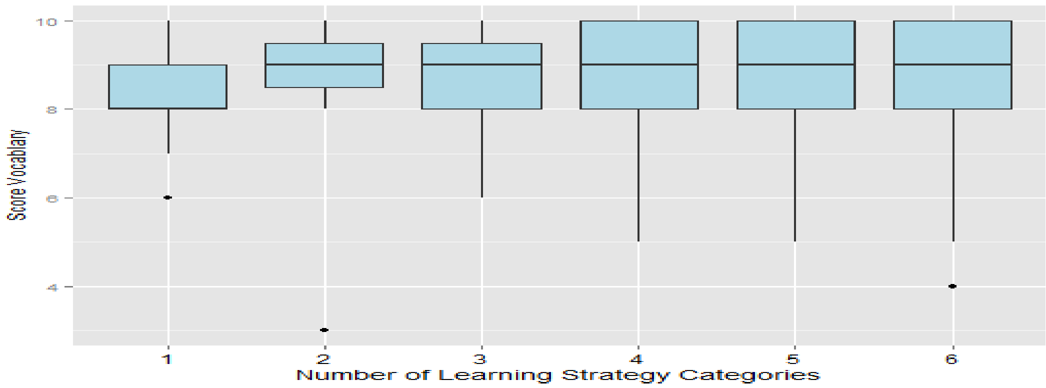

Figure 16: Correlation between number of strategies used and economic English vocabulary test scores. Likert-Scale value of over 2.5 shows a category of learning strategy as a frequently used strategy. It was noted that those students who use one strategy category achieved low marks. Median score of this test was one point lower than the grammar test. Hypothesis was, students who use more strategies will obtain less marks which did not hold true as per the graphical results. The results of using 2,3,4 or even 6 strategies show identical output.

Economic English Grammar Test

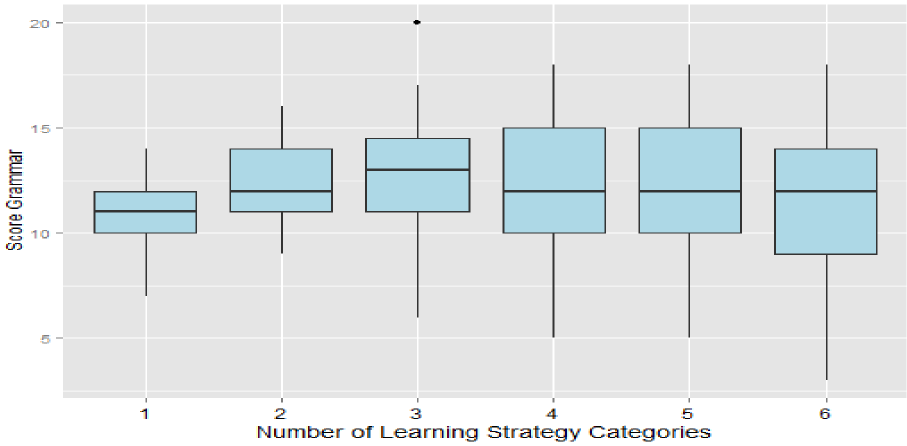

Figure 17: Correlation between number of strategies used and economic English grammar test scores

Results Analysis

Majority of the students got B2 in Dialang vocabulary test, which is a good result, 28% students got level C1/C2. 44% students got B2 in Dialang grammar test, which is even better than vocabulary test, 38% students got level C1/C2. Internationally, for KSO and TSO standard, minimum B1 is required while in this study, almost 90% of the students fall on B2. A high percentage of the students exceeded the expected levels like 28%/38% in vocabulary and grammar respectively.

In vocabulary, 50% students scored 9/10 while the average score was 8.6 which was very good score. In grammar, 79% students passed the test with a highest score of 13/20. The students were aware of the importance of the Economic English for their future, they studied the course, understood the techniques taught by the teachers hence, shown remarkable results. Vocabulary in the economics domain was very important and students worked well in this domain.

Comparison of the above two tests is tricky due to the different nature of marking schemes, Dialang is through categorical while Eco-English through numerical values. Dialang vocabulary test results were lower than Economic English because, students were well prepared in economics domain and answered all the questions while Dialang vocabulary was a general test, so students got less marks. Dialang test in the start of the term shown less results on the scale while same test results were higher at the end of the term.

The SILL

Most of the students preferred cognitive skills which are on the top of the scale while meta-cognitive and compensation skills are second and third on the scale. Social strategies or skills came fourth on the scale in this study. Affective and memory skills were the least preferred ones as the study indicate.

Analysis of the Strategy use on the Results

Purpose of this study was to show that more learning strategies a student uses, the better language proficiency he/she gains. We looked on the correlations between the use of six learning strategies and the proficiency i.e. test results.

Below points are important to note here.

- In Dialang vocabulary test, social and memory strategies helped students to gain a higher score
- Popular memory strategy techniques found to be in using new words in the sentences, making mental picture of the scenes or using the signs positively affected on the score.
- Social strategies using social interactions and speaking to a native speak affected in achieving higher scores.
- In Dialang Grammar test, social and memory strategies worked similar in obtaining higher scores as it was the case in vocabulary test.
- Making a relationship sketch between whatever a student already knows, and a new grammar rule became a popular strategy for positive results.
- Social strategy also helped students gaining a higher score in grammar test as interacting with other speakers/native speakers corrected their grammatical mistakes.
- Affective strategies have also shown a positive correlation to obtain high marks.
- In Economic English test, the use of cognitive strategies shown a substantial positive effect for both grammar and vocabulary tests.
- Watching American movies and TV shows are found to be the main sources of cognitive strategy majority of the students used to get proficiency.
- Affective strategies, unlike in Dialang tests, have shown negative correlation in Eco-English test. When learners became fluent in English then they stopped or reduced using affective strategies.

- Social strategies found to be negatively correlated in Eco-English test that may be due to the interactions where people haven't had much knowledge of English in economics domain.
- The use of diverse language learning strategies has shown remarkable results in learners' achievement.

Conclusion

It is concluded that the use of language learning strategy improves the proficiency as well as makes the learning joyful and attractive for the students. It was important to show the concept of learning strategies in literature review as new researchers are not encouraged to do research on proficiency using learning strategies. It is shown in this study that language learning using strategies is still an important and interesting research topic. The term strategy is like skills, tactics or techniques which are used to gain proficiency in language learning. These strategies are mainly classified into six categories as per Oxford's classification system. The objective of this study was to find the relationship of Economics students' English proficiency and the use of language strategies. Remarkably, a negative correlation was found for the use of a strategy use against the proficiency gained. For example, compensation strategy used has shown negative correlation in grammar test. Use of social and affective strategy has shown negative correlation in Economics-English vocabulary test. Hence, it is evident from the results that a specific strategy may aid gaining a grip on a skill but can't make a general rule as a lot of variation exists. On a closing note, it is concluded that quantity and variety of the strategies in use result in high proficiency.

The study reports learners' level of skill for language learning. We demonstrated the dominant effect of metacognitive strategies and the low effect of memory strategies. In addition, metacognitive strategies also influenced foreign language marks. The effect of foreign language marks on school achievement was also remarkable. There was a strong impact on the learners' attitudes through these variables.

The study comes up with serious implications for learners with low and average foreign language proficiency. It would be essential to motivate learners to discover a variety of ways to practise their foreign language and find opportunities to read and engage in conversations with others. Learners who are able to recognise the significance of language learning and use a broad range of strategies can find new ways and opportunities to practise language and to improve their proficiency. For teachers, it would be highly recommended to integrate LLS consciously into foreign language lessons.

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