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Table of Contents

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Foreword

Welcome to the Asian EFL Journal Volume 28 Issue 2.2. Academics across the Asian peninsula and beyond present research topics relating to Second Language Acquisition, which are now being published for your reading and research purposes.

From Malaysia two academics, Suzana Ahmad and Rafizah Rawian from the Universiti Utara Malaysia, Malaysia present Using Lexical Profiling Tools to Enhance Lexical Richness. Their research investigated the effectiveness of using Lexical Profiling tools in enhancing students' lexical diversity and lexical sophistication in written productions. The researchers advanced the work of Nation et al and identified three aspects of lexical instructions that are important to language learners to enrich their lexical storage fast. The findings advocate the use of lexical profiling tools for teaching and learning second language lexical items and importantly conclude the tools can also be used by the students independently to improve their lexical richness in writings.

The second paper by Piyathat Siripol Jeffrey Dawala Wilang from Thailand is entitled Demotivation and Coping Strategies in Synchronous Online Teaching. There has been much research into the Covid19 effects on SLA teaching, and this paper the first attempt in Thailand to investigate teachers' demotivation in private language institutions when teaching synchronous online sessions. The findings indicate that teachers tend to be demotivated when using an unfamiliar online platform's instant use, student's lack of attention and control, and teaching and learning beliefs. Teachers' response to the demotivating factors are discussed. This research will give global academics food for thought and further research when considering their own unique situations.

The next paper comes from Brunei Darussalam. Authors Mas Ayu Mumin and Shana Mat Salleh from Universiti Technology Brunei, Brunei Darussalam present research entitled Academic Perception and Learning Preferences in Bruneian Students. This unique study is set in 2011 prior to the change in the university status and again in 2020 where it looks the changes and development that has happened over the years from the students' perspective. Previously known as Institute Teknologi Brunei, it was upgraded to a University status in 2016. The findings looked at the universities role in meeting students' expectations as well as to see changes in students’ preferences. The finding suggests that UTB has a long way to go in meeting students’ expectations in terms of facilities and a change in learning preferences. The fourth paper comes from the Universitas Sumatera Utara, Indonesia. M. Surip, Eddy Setia, T. Silvana Sinar and Gustianingsih’s paper is entitled New Metaphors in Mass Media; A Semantic-Study in Written Discourses. The main objective of this study was to identify and analyze new metaphors used in written discourses published in English in the Indonesian national mass media. This study's results are contributing to the development of language studies in enriching language science treasures, particularly Semantics. The findings of this study provide recommendations for the next researcher.

The fifth paper is entitled Fostering Syntactic Typology of Acehnese Language Using English Morpho-Syntactic Pivot System. This study aims at determining and elaborating the syntactic typology of the Acehnese language using the morphosyntactic pivot system of the English language. The research, whilst limited to the Aceh region of Indonesian, provides useful research for other researchers.

The next paper is English Proficiency Portraits of University Graduates in Indonesia. From the previous findings, there is a tendency that the majority of Indonesian university students’ English proficiency is still far from being proficient even in the excellent universities. Generally, students studying English at university in Indonesia have poor skills. The results suggest developing a suitable English syllabus as well as equipping the students with significant of English exposure pre university.

The seventh paper Conjunctive Markers in Students’ Theses; Systemic Functional Perspective explores how conjunctive markers as cohesive devices are realized in introducing students' theses written by English department students of Universitas Sumatera Utara. Students must present a written thesis to graduate which is a challenging task for students and the academic s preparing the students for said task. . This fact clarifies that writing an academic paper in a foreign language needs students' skill in the form and function of that language. While the research is limited to the introduction part of the thesis, further reseach can concentrate on other sections of the thesis.

The final paper is The Impact of Personality (Extrovert/Introvert) on University EFL Learners’ Speaking Achievement. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of personality traits (extrovert and introvert) on speaking achievement of university English as foreign language (EFL) learners in Indonesia using quantitative research approach was applied. The important findings state there is no significant difference between extrovert and introvert learners regarding their speaking performance. Hence, it is safe to say that personality does not affect oral achievement among university EFL learners. Even though there are many previous studies that concluded personality had some impacts on the learners speaking achievement, there are many external factors other than personality that affect their achievement specifically speaking skill.

This edition shows the differences in University education across three countries in EFL/ESL classes, Brunei, Malaysia, Thailand, and Indonesia. Clearly English education in Indonesia suffers from serious lack of government or central review standards which is clearly something that needs to be the focus of the Indonesian authorities going forward.

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Demotivation and Coping Strategies in Synchronous Online Teaching

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Abstract

Although synchronous online teaching can be a starting point to initiate learning and provide students with engaging lessons, teachers may find it challenging to face different situations compared to a normal classroom setting. This study is currently known to be the first attempt in Thailand to investigate teachers' demotivation in private language institutions when teaching synchronous online sessions. This formative study explores specific situations that cause demotivation among teachers in a synchronous online class setting and their coping strategies. Questions were developed through the lens of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and its psychological elements: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Three participants voluntarily participated in an individual semi-structured interview to describe their

synchronous online teaching experiences. Interview data were then transcribed and thematized. The findings show that demotivating situations in synchronous online class settings were related to SDT, such as familiarity of the platform, students' attention and control, and teacher's own beliefs towards teaching and learning. In addition, findings also show that teachers deal with demotivating situations by negotiating directly with students, planning their daily routine carefully to be more active, and creating a relaxing online learning environment.
Keywords: *Coping Strategies, Demotivation, English language tutoring, Self-Determination Theory, Private Institution, Synchronous Online Teaching*

1. Introduction

Synchronous online class has been increasingly used among schools and institutions globally for quite a while. However, it has been accelerated through the spread of the COVID-19, where face-to-face teaching is strictly limited. Not only university teachers have to turn towards a full online mode but also teachers from private tutoring centers and other related educational institutions. Both language teachers and students of different ages must adapt to the fast-changing approach of the complex nature of online teaching and learning, and there is an urgent call for quality online instruction as most research studies were conducted with the presence of teachers in class (Trikoilis & Papanastasiou, 2020; Yao, Jijun, et al., 2020). In an online learning environment, it was found that students are less likely to discuss, interact or collaborate with each other (Dumford & Miller, 2018). These factors could lead to teacher demotivation. Clare and colleagues (2019) mentioned several studies found that found teacher demotivation as one of the teacher-related factors that demotivate learners.

According to Dornyei & Ushida (2013), demotivation is defined as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action" (p. 139). However, Sakai and Kakuchi (2009) included internal factors such as self-confidence and attitudes into the notion of demotivation as previously defined by Dorneyei and Ushida (2013). In addition to Sakai and Kakuchi (2009), Clare and colleagues (2019) agreed that the initial definition of demotivation should be revised and expanded to include both internal and external forces to the study of demotivation. As both internal and external factors are combined the examination of demotivation, we use the framework of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to analyze the concept, particularly its three basic components for greater psychological well-being which are competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Although research has suggested that motivation should be considered in all online learning dimensions (Jodie, 2019), situations influencing demotivation when a teacher teaches online remains underexplored. As teachers' behavior and style of teaching play crucial role in impacting students' motivation (Daniels, 2011; Tanveer et al., 2012), it is also essential to explore what specific situations in an online class could lead to teacher's demotivation through the lens of SDT (Clare, Chong, Renandya, & Ng, 2019). Studies of teacher demotivation mostly were investigated based on on-campus classroom and face-to-face interaction in university settings (See Aydin, 2012; Baniasad-Azad & Ketabi, 2013; Dingham & Scott, 2000; Kiziltepe, 2008; Pourtoussi, Ghanizadeh & Mousavi, 2018; Sugino, 2010; Syamananda, 2017).

Due to the gap in the literature of online teaching and its relation to the situations that demotivate language teachers, this study *investigated the specific situation(s) that causes demotivation in teachers and how teachers deal with the situation that arises in an online synchronous class.*

2. Literature Review

2.1. Self-Determination Theory: Motivation

When examining the construct of motivation, the Porter-Lawler Model provides a comprehensive diagrammatic process in understanding what motivation is. Porter and Lalwer (1968) found nine variables in understanding what constitutes motivation, and two of the nine variables are the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This leads to how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation came about and later applied to the field of education. Intrinsic motivation is concerned with internal factors such as self-satisfaction and personal interest. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is concerned with external factors such as praises and rewards. Later, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was developed to add on the concept of 'internalization' to the continuum of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to explain how non self-determined (extrinsic) could shift to self-determined (intrinsic) motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). SDT provides us a helpful lens in looking at the dynamic construct of motivation, development, and wellness. The theory's focus is not on the degree of how much a person is motivated but on the types of motivation (Reci & Ryan, 2008). In addition to the distinctive types of motivation which are intrinsic and extrinsic, the construct could be branched out into another two major types in SDT: autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. Autonomous motivation is a kind of motivation where people experience volition or the urge to complete an action without being forced to complete a task. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are what comprise autonomous motivation. On the other hand, controlled motivation is when there are external regulations to direct specific behavior. Deci and Ryan (2008) mentioned that autonomous and controlled motivation influences different outcomes, and that autonomous motivation tends to, “yield greater psychological health and more effective performance on heuristic types of activities” (p. 183).

Furthermore, SDT posits that there are three psychological needs for everyone to behave in a way that directs towards their goals: autonomy (the behavior can be controlled by individual self), competence (the need to master and produce a successful outcome), and relatedness (the need to feel connected to others). Intrinsic motivation will be enhanced once all the three psychological needs are supported and fulfilled (Wang et al., 2019). The need for satisfaction in SDT emphasizes autonomy and competence in maintaining intrinsic motivation among individuals. In contrast, the need for relatedness is less clear but becoming more prominent in recent SDT research (Ryan & Deci, 2017). In addition to motivation, Clare, Chong, Renandya, and Ng (2019) mentioned that the theoretical framework of SDT and its application to analyze demotivation is very limited in the study surrounding issues related to demotivation.

Another type of motivation that is an interesting construct to be defined and explored is demotivation. Dornyei and Ushida (2013) defined demotivation as, “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action” (p. 139). According to the definition, external factors play a crucial role in demotivating an individual to continue the task. Although specific external forces are claimed to reduce the motivational basis as stated by Dornyei and Ushida (2013), internal forces, although not as prominent as extrinsic factors, were found to be involved in demotivation. Sakai and Kakuchi (2009) mentioned that the definition of Dornyei and Ushida (2013) needs to be expanded, stating that Dornyei (2001) listed reduced self-confidence and negative attitudes as additional sources of demotivation. In other words, both internal and external factors are to be integrated into the examination of demotivation. As most previous studies have focused on students' demotivation, the next section is an overview report of teacher demotivated related from different countries and a recent research study in Thailand.

2.2. Teacher (De)motivation

Six main factors were found to affect teacher motivation: teaching profession, curriculum, working conditions, students and their parents, colleagues and school administrators, and physical conditions. Previous research studies have revealed similar results regarding teacher motivation and/or demotivation and were mostly conducted based on face-to-face classroom environment. For instance, Aydin (2012) conducted a qualitative study investigating factors affecting teachers' motivation in Turkey. The participants were EFL teachers teaching at the elementary level. Students and working conditions were found to be two of the six primary factors affecting teacher motivation. The finding of Aydin (2012) was similar to that of previous research findings by Kiziltepe (2008) who investigated sources of motivation and demotivation among university teachers in Turkey and found six major demotivation sources for teachers which were related to: students, economics, structural and physical characteristics, research and working conditions. Similar to a previous study by Aydin (2012), student and working conditions were major sources in shaping teacher motivation.

A more recent and comprehensive study was conducted by Pourtoussi, Ghanizadeh, and Mousavi (2018) on factors that shape motivation and demotivation of EFL Iranian university teachers. External factors were found to be more influential in shaping teachers' motivation and demotivation than internal factors. Similar findings were found by Barin, Han, and Sari (2018) who investigated factors affecting teacher motivation and demotivational-reasoning in a seven service area school. Although the limitation of the study was that it was a single case study, the result was in line with that of previous research, suggesting that student is one of the external factors affecting teacher's motivation.

Furthermore, teacher motivation study was conducted by Dingham and Scott (2000) who investigated teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction among three countries: Australia, New Zealand, and England. The survey was used to investigate intrinsic and extrinsic factors of 2,000 teachers and found that teacher motivation was affected by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as student-teacher relationship and the development of teaching skills. The context of the study that was surveyed was based on face-to-face classroom teaching.

In addition, Syamananda (2017) conducted a study using a self-completed open-ended and close-ended questionnaire to investigate factors affecting teacher motivation of EFL teachers and ways to enhance teacher motivation at Chulalongkorn University in Thailand. One of the major factors that was revealed affecting teacher motivation is related to the relationship with students and co-workers. Also, the extrinsic factors were related to heavy workload and low salary. The study also discussed the importance of interpersonal relationships between teachers and students, job security, sense of efficacy, professional development, and heavy workloads as factors affecting teacher motivation.

From the previous literature on teacher motivation, it is revealed that factors affecting teacher motivations involved both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and that the innate psychological needs were vital in shaping teacher motivation: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Teachers are more motivated when they feel that they have control of their own teaching (autonomy), have positive feedback in teaching (competence), and have the feeling of connection to students and coworkers (relatedness). Demotivation factors are heavily emphasized in the previous literature, but these literatures usually focused on teachers at university level with similar working demands and class size. To expand the horizon of teacher demotivation, it is also interesting to explore teachers who teach students synchronously online in different contexts. Many studies still gear towards the on-campus teaching context, and face-to-face interaction was mostly the case of an investigation. Specific situations in an online teaching context and their relation to teachers' demotivation, analyzed through the lens of SDT, have not yet to be conducted. Therefore, this formative study hopes to fill in the gap of previous literature to shed light on the issue surrounding online teaching and demotivation, and to investigate how teachers cope with different situations.

2.3. Online Teaching and Platforms

When online learning and teaching are brought up, often the definition of 'online learning' needs to be definite since there are various modes of online learning: on-demand, hybrid or blended, and real-time. Tallent-Runnels et al. (2006), provides a helpful distinction when referring to on-demand and real-time online modes of learning: synchronous and asynchronous. Synchronous online classes are when the students and teachers interact in real-time online and can provide a more interactive online teaching approach via discussion and instant feedback. Synchronous e-learning requires a camera, headphone, and a good internet connection. On the contrary, asynchronous e-learning is a mode of online learning where learning materials such as lecture slides, audio, and video are available and can be accessed anytime via the Learning Management System (LMS) or other similar channels. Asynchronous e-learning mode can be very convenient for students as it is self-paced learning and can be revisited as frequently as students need. Students can learn through discussion in the online asynchronous platform promoting student control over the learning process (Doran, 2020). In addition to the two major modes is hybrid learning where both asynchronous and synchronous modes are combined to create a flexible teaching and learning environment. This offers students a mix of both real-time and on-demand materials. Karim and Hasan (2020) found that about 80% of students agreed that online learning is more convenient than regular face-to-face classes. Only 25% of students preferred regular face-to-face classes whereas 39% selected fully online class and 36% preferred blended or hybrid classes (Karim and Hasan, 2020).

However, Dumont and Rago (2018) suggested that the distinction mentioned by Tallent-Runnels et al. (2006) between the two modes of learning focuses too heavily on 'when' the course content is delivered, not 'where'. A comprehensive examination of timing and mode of delivery was further explained in a course delivery matrix by Dumong and Rago (2018). The focus is on the location of the mode of delivery. Table 1 below shows the course delivery matrix. Six types of courses were categorized: On-Campus Realtime, On-Campus Hybrid, On-Campus On-Demand, Online Real-Time, Online Hybrid, and Online On-Demand. Ghufron and Nurdianingsih (2020) provides a good example of this concept in terms of 'on-demand on-campus' as they integrated asynchronous online learning and in-class synchronous teaching into flipped teaching with Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) media. With a particular type of teaching in the course delivery matrix as given by Dumong and Rago (2018), the situation investigated in this current study is 'Online Real-Time'.

Table 1. *Course delivery matrix [adopted from Dumont, G., & Raggo, P. (2018)]*

	Course Timing		
		On-Campus	**Online**
Mode of Delivery	**Real-Time (Synchronous)**	Classroom setting and face-to-face interaction	Synchronous interaction through learning management system (LMS)
	Hybrid	Synchronous and asynchronous classroom setting and university LMS	All content delivery through LMS, both synchronous and asynchronous
	On-Demand (Asynchronous)	LMS course delivery and on-campus office hours	All content delivered asynchronously and office hours online only

When teaching online, various platforms are available for the teachers to choose from: Zoom, Google Meet, Microsoft Team, Line, etcetera. These applications can be downloaded into a laptop or tablet/mobile phone via App Store (for iOS) and/or Play Store (for Android). Although all of the aforementioned applications can be downloaded and used free of charge, some payment is required for additional features. Additional features that might attract teachers to use a particular platform include the options of recording the lecture and discussion, locking the online session to enhance security, and other functionality such as the availability of cloud storage space. Class sessions via Zoom, for instance, can be recorded into the computer file when additional features are added. However, the common features that all platforms have is the availability of real-time speaking interaction, sharing the screen to show lecture slides and real-time notes of the teacher could be presented instantly on the screen while the teacher teaches the content. In addition, both teachers and students have the opportunity to interact synchronously in a discussion via chatbox.

2.4. Research Questions

Two research questions were sought in this formative study.

1) Under what specific situation(s) do teachers feel demotivated when teaching a synchronous online class?
2) How do teachers cope with specific situations that arise in a synchronous online class?

3. Methods

3.1. Research Setting

This study took place entirely via a real-time online platform (Google Meet) as a channel to collect the data from a semi-structured interview. In addition to the audio which could be clearly heard, the Google Meet platform was selected as the auto-generated caption could be turned on to improve both the interviewer and interviewee's comprehension of questions asked. Videos of both the interviewer and the interviewee were turned on, and the interviewers could find a quiet space to participate in an online interview.

3.2. Participants

For this formative research study, three volunteer English language teachers teaching English online at different language institutions in Bangkok and Khon Kaen Province, Thailand took part in the study. There were one 24-year-old male and two females aged 24 and 28. All three participants had bachelor's degrees and taught a Foundation English course online focusing on grammar, vocabulary, and writing. The male participant uses Skype to teach online whereas the two female participants use Zoom and Line platforms. All of them were new to the online platform and had been using the online platform to teach for at least three months including the time of COVID-19 national lockdown.

3.3. Instrument, Data Collection Procedures and Data Analysis

The instrument used in this study was a semi-structured interview. The interview consists of two main phases. In the first phase, participants' background and general information regarding the subject taught, an online platform used, preferences of an online platform and training were asked. There were ten open-ended questions for the second phase, which were designed explicitly by applying the SDT framework and its psychological elements: autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The sample questions are: *When students encounter problems with the platform, how do you help them? How much do you feel connected* *to students when teaching online? And how responsive do students respond to your questions online?*

The interview took approximately 25-30 minutes and was audio-recorded using the Xiaomi Mi Max 3 device. The data was then transcribed into the QDA Miner Lite software program for coding. Descriptive-focused coding was chosen over interpretive-focused coding as it seemed to be the most appropriate method since the relevant information was not hidden in the data. With the two research questions in mind and the framework of SDT, the researchers follow a guideline as recommended by Adu (2019) in descriptive-focused coding: no passing judgment, no implying, and no interpretation. The coding was then further categorized using an individual-based sorting strategy in Microsoft Word by compiling the codes, arranging the codes alphabetically, consolidating the codes, sorting, and categorizing code clusters into themes.

To ensure the trustworthiness of the study, intercoder reliability (ICR) was used as a method to ensure coding consistency. We chose ICR due to the need to categorize data at a nominal level. O'Cornnor and Joffe (2020) mentioned a minimum of two independent coders was recommended for ICR to be established. Therefore, randomly selected subsamples of the data were given to two master-level graduate students in the applied linguistics in English language teaching program at KMUTT to check for agreement and disagreement. The data was selected from each category to ensure the representativeness of the entire data set. The coding scheme was provided for the two coders and the agreement was 81 percent.

4. Findings and Discussion

The findings and discussion below provide a possible explanation of the derived themes to answer the two research questions.

Research Question One: Under what specific situation(s) do teachers feel demotivated when teaching synchronous online class?

When teachers were asked about the specific situations in which they feel demotivated when teaching synchronous online classes, circumstances relating to teacher's competence towards using online tools and a sense of connection or relatedness with students were found to be highlighted, but not noticeably with autonomy. The major themes derived are familiarity with the platform, students' lack of attention and control, and demotivation from teaching/learning beliefs.

Online platform competency

When asked about demotivation and competency related factors, situations reported to demotivating teachers are related to familiarity with the online teaching platforms. The interview data reveal that teachers are not fully aware of how the online platform's additional features can be fully implemented in the instant period of COVID-19 national lockdown. Moreover, the data also shows that they could not fully teach the content through the limitation of showing lively actions and activities on the screen.

I would think that I am competent [in using the online platform] .....you know because the only thing I know is [how to start a] live screen....am I answering your question? I only know the function of the live screen, so I'm going to say no... I'm not an expert on that. When you share the live screen, you won't be able to see the student's video...you just only see your screen. (Aikkil)

From the interview excerpts of Aikkil, he wishes he were competent in using the online platform to teach but lastly admitted that he was not an expert in using it. The ability to share screens and provide language lessons to the students seemed to serve the major purpose of his online teaching. In addition, it was interesting that Aikkil did not bother to find a way or learn about other available platforms to include students' screens that could perhaps be shown below his live screen during his teaching session. His perception of his lack of expertise in using platforms to teach online could be one of the factors that led to his conclusion of incompetence. This implies that teacher's training in how various platforms could be fully implemented is needed. Below are additional insights from the interview data regarding how teachers' actions and activities could not be fully practiced.

I can't fully give them the information because [there is] limitation in communication. When I want to show some action, I think it cannot enrich the listeners [students] by just speaking...or when I want them to do an activity, I cannot. It's like a one-way communication. (Namwan)

It's quite hard to make your students understand and hard to concentrate with your students. That's the thing I dislike about when teaching online. (Jaew)

From the two excerpts above, teachers find it challenging to teach the content fully due to the limitations of the online teaching nature. Namwan, for instance, stressed the importance of the listeners and that by having only the screen to show them the action, it is not as rich of an experience as face-to-face teaching. In addition, Jaew also finds it challenging to provide effective delivery of lessons to the students online and it is difficult for her to focus on her students. This may be because students' facial expressions, body language and reactions could not always be observed online. The feeling of inefficiency of online teaching could affect their own self-measure of teaching competence which in turn demotivate their teaching overall. This shows that teachers need to overcome many challenges in the new digital era. Therefore, teachers' initial training is necessary as the digitalization phenomenon can trigger changes in educators' beliefs and professional skills (Amarullah and Imaniah, 2020).

Student's Lack of Attention and Control

Situations related to student's presence and attention also cause teachers to be demotivated. The interview excerpts show that the controllability of students' behavior, students' concentration, and responsiveness in communicative interaction are among the demotivating situations for teachers.

In terms of students, it is an outside influence, and it is outside my control...let's say I can't control the students, so if the students do not accept my advice and [behave] in some kind of negative behavior to me, I won't accept those students. (Aikkil)

If you don't ask them [about things that are related to them], they might focus on their phone or on another application on their laptop but if you try to speak like they are friends then they will focus more on your teaching because you're a good listener. (Jaew)

The interview excerpts show that teachers feel that when teaching online, they do not have the power to control students' behavior and their autonomy is hindered as they could feel that they do not control students' behavior. Students may be doing something else such as checking messages on their phones or watching videos on their laptops while attending a synchronous online class. However, they understand that it is beyond their control and they need to find ways to attract attention to the lesson. Teachers may feel as if they are talking to a wall, demanding more communicative interaction (both oral and written) and discussion with students. When the student's outcome does not reflect their academic progress, teachers may feel that their teaching is less effective which induces their competence. This could be a demotivating situation for teachers, especially when they feel that they cannot attract students' attention compared to a face-to-face classroom.

I am concerned about student engagement....you know, the problem is that students are less engaged. (Aikkil)

They're old enough to understand but it's not one hundred percent.... yeah just depends on the person and maybe just maybe 80 percent that are quite responsive but that's because I don't have that many students in class. (Namwan)

From the interview excerpt, Aikkil mentions that students are less engaged when he teaches an online class. This was in line with Dumford and Miller's (2018) study, where students are less engaged in collaborative learning and discussion with diverse others online.

Perhaps Aikkil's teaching tends to be more of a lecture-based style. Still, he is concerned about students' engagement. It is possible that the lack of verbal interaction online could be because of the relationship between teacher and students. Namwan, for instance, mentions that her students are quite responsive when she asks questions. The small number of students could be the reason why Namwan's students are quite responsive.

Demotivation from Teacher's Beliefs of Effective Teaching/Learning

Interestingly, the derived theme from the coding of the interview showed internal factors relating to teacher's belief towards effective teaching and learning to be affecting teacher's motivation. Assumptions of students' negative feelings towards learning online and the negative feelings towards online teaching from teachers were found to affect online teachers.

They might not like it maybe when I teach online because they always ask to see me face-to-face after the lesson. Sometimes I feel like it's not 100 percent working. (Namwan)

The first thing I think is that it is easy to turn on the computer and it makes me lazy to get up to get dressed …yeah…it's just making me feel demotivated because everything is too easy. Do you understand? When I don't need to go out, I am lazy to get dressed, then lazy to put makeup on and lazy to teach. (Namwan)

From the interview excerpt above, Namwan assumes that some students do not like learning online and therefore affected her online teaching. When a teacher assumes that his/her teaching would not have a lot of positive and significant impact on a student's learning outcome, a teacher may feel demotivated to teach. In addition, the environment of online teaching can sometimes hinder the urge to teach as teachers sometimes do not need to prepare to see students face-to-face. Although the bright side of teaching online is convenient, being too convenient could perhaps discourage the initiation and urge to teach. Such internal assumptions influence demotivation although it was not as prominent as its external counterpart. The finding does confirm the study by Dornyei and Ushida (2013) who found that internal factors play a part in demotivation albeit not as influential as the external factors.

Research Question Two: How do teachers cope with specific situations that arise in an online synchronous class?

When teachers were asked how they cope or deal with the demotivating situations that arise in online synchronous classes, three themes emerge: negotiating with students, planning carefully, and creating a relaxing online environment.

Negotiating with students

I will ask them if they're tired or not. I can let them take a rest like 10 minutes but if students look very tired I will ask them to learn for just only one hour and make up the class the next day. That's how I deal with the situation. (Jaew)

So if they don't do this [task], I have to find another solution for them to solve...just talk to them....and if the students have short attention spans or are lazy, I might help them with homework in [an online] class. (Aikkil)

From the interview excerpts, Jaew is quite flexible with her schedule and she negotiates with her students to have class the following day if they would like. For instance, when online classes are held in the late evening, students might not be as engaging and motivating to learn after a whole day of studying at school. Because teachers at the private language institution could deal flexibly regarding the schedule, this seems advantageous. Jaew's strategic way of negotiating with students and providing them with choices is one of the key elements motivating students to learn (Renandya, 2015). It seems that she tries to motivate both sides of the party to be motivated when teaching and learning. Similar to that of Aikkil where he negotiates with students to help find the solution to the problem regarding students' attention. By talking directly to the students about the problems, teachers can help support and find ways to ease the problem. Both sides of the party seem to be in a well-understood compromise once they have exchanged thoughts and concerns. In the case of Namwan, she seems to have a more personal relationship with her students.

I tell them that if they pay attention, I will treat them ice-cream if I have the opportunity, something like that, or sometimes I will say that if they don't pay attention, I will contact their parents.

Namwan offered her students rewards to focus and interact more in an online class from the interview excerpt above. Perhaps in the extreme cases that she will threaten to report their parents. It seems here that teachers can negotiate and offer rewards to keep students engaged. It is also apparent that teachers need to be extremely careful when and why rewards are offered. It may only attract students' attention in the short term and foster the behavior of reward-based learning.

Planning carefully

An additional theme that emerges from the coding is to plan their routine attentively. Teachers not only design the online lesson carefully but also plan their daily routine to be more active and be more ready for a teaching session. In terms of teacher or student planning, teachers are found to make themselves available and let students know that they are welcome to do a one-on-one online consultation before and or after class.

The night before online class I would plan to make myself feel fresh the next day so that I will get up earlier and be more active and cheerful because if I'm lazy that day, I'll be too lazy to teach too. (Namwan)

Namwan's interview provides a very insightful way of how autonomy in motivation can be managed. By not having to meet with people face-to-face, teachers may become passive and may not feel eager to start their teaching session. Namwan's interview excerpt gives us a good coping strategy of what teachers can do to be more positive to teach online.

Creating a relaxing online environment

Findings also show that teachers try to create a positive online learning atmosphere by asking them how their days have been and what they have done. Teachers try to make students speak about themselves to feel more comfortable before a lesson.

I try to play around and make students feel comfortable by talking and asking about their days and what they did. (Namwan)

I will ask them their daily lives of what happened at the school and try to bring them back to the lesson because if you don't ask them, they will focus on their phone or on another application on their laptop. But if you try to speak like they are friends, then they will focus more on your teaching. (Jaew)

Namwan and Jaew reported a very similar way of comforting the students before the teaching session started by asking about students' daily routine. This suggests that a teacher needs to show the students what it means to be a good listener as they can expect the students to have similar behavior towards their teaching. They need to think of questions that are interesting to the students to talk about and discuss. Not only does it provide language practice, but it also improves teacher student's relationships (relatedness). The relaxing learning environment here seems to point towards the teacher/student's relationship in that teachers need to talk in a friendly and accessible way.

The results above should be taken into consideration due to the limited number of participants. However, the findings are still novel by affording a better understanding of the demotivating phenomenon under synchronous online situations and teachers' coping strategies from private institutions. Moreover, through a semi-structured interview, the participants provided more profound insights into wide-ranging issues related to synchronous online teaching from the SDT framework. Future research in the same setting may consider using the participants' insights above to create a survey questionnaire to be administered to a broader population so findings could be generalized.

5. Conclusion

As many previous studies have investigated teachers' demotivation based on face-to-face classroom teaching context, this current formative study aims to fill in the gap and provide a springboard to further investigate teacher's demotivation in synchronous online virtual classrooms. Furthermore, because most research studies focus on teachers teaching at the tertiary level, our focus shifted to teachers teaching in private language institutions as it is expected to provide additional insights into student's behavior and specific situations that could arise as these students are not bound to grades and school rules. Semi-structured interviews are used as a tool to investigate situations that cause teachers to be demotivated and how teachers deal or cope with the situations. The SDT, specifically the psychological elements of autonomy, relatedness, and competence, is the major framework in developing the interview questions and is used in examining the demotivation in teachers teaching an online course. The findings indicate that teachers tend to be demotivated under the unfamiliar online platform's instant use, student's lack of attention and control, and teaching and learning beliefs. Hence, the findings show that situations related to teachers' competence towards using online platforms and relatedness could perhaps demotivate teachers to teach online effectively. Autonomy, however, is regulated in dealing with the situations. Teachers dealt with the situations that cause them to be demotivated by negotiating with students, planning carefully to regulate their positive and engaged selves, and creating a relaxing learning environment.

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Using Lexical Profiling Tools to Enhance Lexical Richness

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of using Lexical Profiling tools in enhancing students' lexical diversity and lexical sophistication in written productions. Sixty-eight semester one students from Electrical Department of Polytechnic Sultan Abdul Halim Mua'dzam Shah participated in this study. A quasi-experimental study design was conducted using pretest and post-test on both experimental and control groups. The experimental group was taught using three lexical Profiling Tools and the control group was taught using a module prepared for semester one students in Polytechnic Sultan Abdul Halim Muad'zam Shah. The data in the study were analysed using paired samples t-test. Results of paired sample t-test for lexical diversity and lexical sophistication indicate that the experimental group performed

significantly better than control group in post-test. The result shows that using lexical profiling tools can improve students' lexical diversity and sophistication in their written production.

Keywords: *Lexical diversity, lexical sophistication, Lexical richness, Lexical Profiling Tools*

1. Introduction

Learning lexical items is a challenging task for low and low- intermediate proficiency second language learners in higher institutions. A systematic lexical instructions' planning and goal setting are very important to ensure the students acquire rich lexical knowledge and able to use this lexical richness to perform writing tasks in academic settings(Nation, 2011; Nation, 2013). Yoon (2018) found that task-specific vocabulary instructions better assists the students in enhancing their lexical skills and they can deploy this skill flexibly in performing varied tasks especially written tasks which require rich lexical sophistication and lexical diversity. A number of studies have also found links between lexical knowledge and academic performance(Alothman, 2014; Schuth & Weinert, 2017;Ibrahim et al, 2019). However, limited time is an obstacle, which hindered the learners from learning adequate lexical items fast to be able to perform writing tasks in English. The complex learning of lexical items requires the learners not to merely understand the meaning of the lexical items as it involves learning the spelling, the grammatical patterns of the lexis, collocation, part of speech as well as its register (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007). These aspects of lexical knowledge are seldom acquired by chance; therefore, they need to be planned for effective and fast learning.

Previous research has recommended best teaching practice for teaching lexical items (Nation, 1995;Blachowicz & Fisher, 2014;Nagy et al, 2012). The researchers have identified three aspects of lexical instructions that are important to language learners to enrich their lexical storage fast. The first aspect is for the language instructors and learners to only focus on useful lexical items that they need to learn (Towns, 2020) .Frequency of occurrence of lexical items are usually used to determine the usefulness of the lexical items for the learners. The second aspect is to draw the learners' attention to systematic features common to the lexical items. This strategy would raise the learners' awareness in learning grammatical aspects and collocation of newly introduced lexical items. Conscious noticing and raising awareness are strategies use in lexical instructions that employ corpus data particularly learning lexical items using concordance lines(Boulton, 2017) as well as instructions that use sentence examples in online dictionaries to acquire lexical richness(Frankenberg-Garcia, 2008). The third aspect that should be considered in lexical instructions is providing the opportunity for the lexical items to be transferred from explicit knowledge to implicit knowledge. The lexical instructions should allow the learners to use the lexical items in meaningful ways(Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2015). This strategy would ensure multiple exposures to the new lexis, which would lead to retention and access for the lexical items to be used productively in writing. Thus, language instructors need to ensure these three aspects of lexical instructions find ways in the classrooms for effective and fast learning of lexical items.

Prescribed or teacher-made textbooks sometimes do not meet the needs of the learners in terms of enhancing the learners' lexical richness. Second language learners require knowledge of more than 3000 words families to write an effective academic written tasks however textbook analysis revealed that the lexical items in the textbooks contain inadequate lexical items to support learners in academic setting (Hsu, 2014;Thonney, 2016). Towns (2020) found similar results in his analysis of English for Academic Purpose (EAP) course's textbook for his learners in Thailand. His findings showed that the textbooks materials contain only 11% percent of lexical items from Academic Wordlist (AWL) and the analysis that used Common European Framework of References (CEFR) for language as an indicator revealed that most of the lexis in the textbooks come from A1, A2 and B3 levels (72%) while level B2 lexis is 11% and only 2% of level C1. These studies have demonstrated that relying on textbooks' materials alone to teach lexical items is not sufficient to enhance learners' lexical richness. Therefore, using wordlists which are freely available in internet could help to support the lexical needs of adult learners(Trần, 2020).

Current development in corpus linguistics and the internet have allowed these three aspects to be integrated in lexical instructions which provide alternative options for language instructors to incorporate the three important aspects of lexical instructions in their teaching and at the same time support the lexical needs of the learners which is lacking from the textbooks and teacher talk. Technological advancement has enabled multi mullion corpora to be analysed which resulted in creations of wordlists such as British National Corpus (BNC) and Coxhead's(2000) academic vocabulary list (AWL) which are available for users in language teaching and learning. During 1980's research are more focus on investigating learners' receptive knowledge based on the frequency lists (Douglas, 2013). The recent years have seen productive knowledge have been given attention in this field of research. ((Roessingh, Elgie, & Kover, 2015); Djiwandono, 2016). However, few if any studies had used lexical profiling tools in teaching productive lexical knowledge. Thus, our goal is to investigate the effectiveness of using lexical profiling tool to enhance lexical richness in students' writing.

The lexical richness indices used in this study are lexical diversity and lexical sophistication. Thus, the study attempts to address the following research questions:

a) What are the effects of lexical profiling tools on students' lexical diversity?

b) What are the effects of lexical profiling tools on students' lexical sophistication?

To empirically measure the effects of using lexical profiling tools on students' lexical diversity and lexical sophistication, the following hypotheses have been formulated.

H1: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the pre and post-test of lexical diversity score for the experimental group (Ho: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$)

H2: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the pre and post-test of lexical diversity score for the control group (Ho: $\mu 3 = \mu 4$)

H3: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the pre and post-test of lexical sophistication score for the experimental group (Ho: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$)

H4: There is no significant difference between the mean score of the pre and post-test of lexical diversity score for the control group (Ho: $\mu 3 = \mu 4$)

2. Literature Review

2.1. Predictors of Writing Quality

Investigating predictors of writing quality is beneficial to increase the quality of teaching and learning in English for second language learners. Past studies which employ traditional text measures to predict writing quality indicated that text length and lexical errors effect students written score (Olinghouse & Leaird, 2009). Engber (1995) reported a moderate relationship between essay scores and lexical errors in her research. Besides lexical errors, her study also indicated that lexical variety is a strong predictor of writing quality. However, Llach (2007) discovered that lexical errors do not impaired readers comprehension of written productions . The study was conducted to explore the relationship between lexical errors and overall composition quality of seventy-seven beginners of English language learners in Spain. The correlation coefficient test result found that $r = -0.181$ which implies that lexical errors is a poor predictor of writing quality.

In contrast, recent developments in computational tools allow larger corpus to be analysed and these tools also permit written texts to be analysed solely based on lexis. These tools provide strong evidence of predictors of writing quality, replacing traditional measures which some are rather inconsistence in terms of terminology particularly for the definition of lexical items. Laufer & Nation (1995) adopted word frequency level to analyse lexical richness in their study. Their study, which employed Lexical Frequency Profile, suggests that vocabulary size influenced learners' productive use and can be used to assess lexical richness in writing.

Recent developments in cognitive science, natural language processing and computational linguistics provide the advantage of processing lexical features in writing productions faster and with more precision. Equally, developments in the field of computational algorithms have led contemporary researchers to explore new lexical features that which predict writing quality beyond vocabulary size (Crossley, Salsbury, McNamara, & Jarvis, 2011). A study done by Crossley & McNamara (2014) investigating predictors of second language proficiency revealed five lexical features can be used to predict second language learners' writing proficiency. The study which analysed 1200 essays of graduating senior high schools' students demonstrates that lexical diversity, word frequency, word meaningfulness, aspect repetition and word familiarity are predictive to writing proficiency of second language learners (L2).

Based on the above-mentioned literature, lexical items related to lexical richness show the strongest predictors to writing quality of L2. Thus, lexical instructions that focus on enhancing lexical richness could benefit the learners in performing better in academic environment.

2.2. Lexical Richness and Writing Quality

L2 learners' success in academic settings relies on their ability to communicate and discuss their ideas effectively in writing. Lexical knowledge is one of the main contributors to effective L2 academic writings. The goal for effective writings requires L2 learners to acquire rich lexical richness to enable them to generate ideas, plan, write and self -monitor their writings. Previous studies had investigated the relationship between lexical richness and writing quality (Higginbotham & Reid, 2019). Most of their findings revealed the correlation between lexical richness and quality writings particularly with the usage of low-frequency words which indicates better writing quality in the writing samples which employed global assessment in their study to investigate the interaction between lexical richness and descriptive essays. The results showed that lexical richness plays a powerful predictive role in assessing descriptive writing tasks. Meanwhile, MacArthur, Jennings and Philippakos(2019), performed a study to determine which linguistics constructs predict writing quality of college basic writers discovered that lexical richness is one of the three constructs that predict writing quality in an argumentative essay. Prior research had highlighted the consistency of results that showed the relationship of lexical richness and writing quality. Thus, focus on lexical instructional method to improve lexical richness can lead to effective and quality writings and contribute to academic success.

2.2.1. Lexical sophistication and successful writing

Lexical sophistication relates highly with successful writing. Learners who demonstrate the use of high lexical sophistication gain better marks than learners who use high frequency words in an academic writing task. For instance, Jung et al(2019) conducted a cluster analysis on 1631 successful argumentative essays discovered that essays in academic clusters used more academic and sophisticated words. Previously Leńko-Szymańska (2015) also discovered relationship between lexical sophistication and writing quality when conducting cluster analysis on essays based on CEFR levels. In addition, Douglas (2016) conducted a Pearson r correlation between rater judgements and Lexical Frequency Profiling of 200 writing samples and his findings indicated that there was a high positive correlation $r(198) = .73, p < .001$ between the essay scores and the mid frequency words.

Another advantage of knowledge in lexical sophistication is the learners able to generate and express quick, clear ideas(Van Gelderen et al, 2011). Similar findings were reported by Crossley et al (2016) who investigated the associations between linguistics features and generation in undergraduate essays . Their findings showed that essays that scored higher in the test contain more ideas and their results also indicated that learners who produced more ideas used more lexical sophistication in their writing. These research findings suggest that the learners could have the benefit of concentrating on the higher cognitive demand of writing task particularly the complexity of the concept to show maturity and writing sophistication if they are not cognitively burden with attempting to retrieve lexical items in their lexical storage. Together, these findings indicate that knowledge in lexical sophistication is crucial for quality writing.

2.2.2. Lexical diversity

Lexical diversity is used in many different ways in the literature. Engber (1995) uses the term lexical variety, lexical variation and variability interchangeably to refer to lexical diversity to assess lexical richness of learners' writings. Thus lexical diversity is understood as one of the constructs use to assess lexical richness including lexical sophistication and lexical density. Crossley & McNamara (2011) on the other hand treated lexical diversity as one of the constructs of lexical sophistication to investigate shared features in L2 writings of learners from different L1 language background. Apart from the varying terms use in the literature, lexical diversity is defined as type token ratio or the percentage of word repetition found in a writing. For this study, lexical diversity is used as one of indicator of lexical richness to assess learners' writing quality.

2.3. Lexical Depth of Second Language Learners

Lexical richness is very important in academic writing (Engber, 1995;Olinghouse & Wilson, 2013;Kyle & Crossley, 2016;Usman & Abdullahi, 2018;Vögelin, Jansen, Keller, & Möller, 2018). This fact justify the study of productive lexical threshold (eg. Douglas, 2013) for second language learners to achieve, to become successful academic writers. Douglas (2013) recommended 5000-word families as the productive lexical threshold for novice university. However, research on productive lexical knowledge revealed that university students tend to use more of the first two thousand frequency words in their writing (Mokhtar, Mohd Rawian, & Singh, 2016; Abmanan, Azizan, & Mohd, 2017;Failasofah, 2018). Mokhtar, Mohd Rawian and Singh, (2016) for example found that only 11 per cent of 360 students in their study passed Controlled Active Vocabulary Test for 5000 words families and merely 7 per cent of the students passed the test for 3000 words families. Besides, their study also discovered that students only produced words in the first 2 000-word families in their free essay writing test. Abmanan, Azizan and Mohd(2017) also reported similar results in their investigation of students' lexical production knowledge where only 3% per cent of the students passed the test. Similar findings were reported by Juanggo(2018), who found that higher frequency words were used more in the writings of B1 and B2 students. Together these findings suggest that students' lexical knowledge is lacking which in turn impacted their lexical richness. Thus, a lexical intervention is needed to improve the students' lexical richness fast and assist them in their academic setting.

2.4. Lexical Profiling Tools

Lexical Profiling Tools are very useful in profiling texts and students' lexical knowledge (Crossley, et al, 2012; Kyle & Crossley, 2016; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Leńko-Szymańska, 2015; Palfreyman & Karaki, 2019; Shi & Lei, 2020). For instance, Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, (2010) employed Lexical Frequency Profile to estimate the lexical threshold for reading while Douglas (2013) used the tool to approximate the threshold for writing. Other studies had used the tools to profile textbooks (Manan, Ali, & Shamsudin, 2013; Farajollahi, 2020; Mármol, 2011; Nemati, 2009; O'Loughlin, 2012) or creating wordlists for specific fields of studies (Coxhead, 2000; Gardner & Davies, 2014; Jin, et al, 2013; Ria & Tau,

2020) and setting goal for lesson planning(Fooks and Mohd Asraf, 2018). These studies have demonstrated that lexical profiling tools are effective to measure students' lexical knowledge receptively and productively, set lexical coverage and threshold as well as creating wordlists of specialized lexis. These help English instructors to diagnose the students' lexical knowledge, set the goal, plan teaching and learning to expand the students' lexical richness. Work in this area is extensive but primarily concern with measuring students' richness, therefore, in the current study, lexical profiling tools are used as a tool to assist the students in learning lexical items.

2.5. Previous Research on Lexical Intervention

Computer can be employed to analyse text and manipulate text for learners to understand the texts produced in authentic language (Crossley, 2013) and recent research have advocated the use of corpus and online tools to expand lexical knowledge (Fauzi, 2019; Frankenberg-Garcia, et al., 2019; Govindasamy, et al., 2019; Klijūnaitė & Nausėda, 2015; Pérez-Paredes et al., 2019; Silverman et al., 2019). Tekin, B & Soruc, (2016) for example, in their study used concordance lines and extended lexical activities to help learners improve their lexical knowledge. Also, Fauzi, (2019) combined the use of concordance line for teaching meaning using contextual clues and online dictionaries to confirm the meaning. Their findings suggest that besides mastering the target words provided to the students in the study, the students could also notice and learn other words that they came across while attempting to understand the concordance lines using online dictionaries. Similar findings were reported from a small scale exploratory conducted by Djiwandono, (2018) to investigate the use of blog and lexical profiler. The students in the study were asked to read authentic texts and determine the frequency of the words in the texts using Vocab profiler in Lextutor Compleat before posting only words that are Not in List in their blogs. Based on the students perceptions' on learning using blogs and VocabProfiler, 95% of the students agreed that these tools are effective to assist them in learning lexical items. The result of their receptive lexical knowledge test of 5000 words also revealed a significant difference in the pre and post-test of the students' scores. These studies have demonstrated the links between using lexical profiling tools, online dictionaries and concordance lines and lexical knowledge. A growing amount of research has been conducted on the effectiveness of using concordances for learning collocations and lexical items receptively (Boulton, 2017; Frankenberg-Garcia et al., 2019; Jalilifar, Mehrabi, & Mousavinia, 2014; Yılmaz & Soruç, 2015) however very few studies have published on the effects of using lexical profiling tools to enhance lexical richness in written productions. Thus, this current study extends previous works on lexical profiling tools by using a different combination of profiling tools and wordlists and focus the results on the learners' productive lexical knowledge (lexical richness).

3. Methodology

A quasi-experimental study was conducted which utilized a quantitative research method to collect data. This method would provide an ideal opportunity to quantify the cause-and-effect relationship between control and treatment groups in this study. The difference found in the pre and post-test procedure would usually determine the success of intervention studies. The results of the studies are usually based on the changes in the outcome in the pre and post-test.

This study examined one independent variable for each control group and experimental group. The independent variable for the control group is Communicative English 1 Module and the independent variable for the experimental group was the Lexical Profiling Tools.

The dependent variables for both the groups were scores of lexical diversity and lexical sophistication for pretest and posttest of Timed Informative Writing Test (TIWT).

3.1. Participants

The population selected from this study were from semester one diploma students studying Electrical Engineering at Sultan Abdul Halim Muadzam Shah Polytechnic. These students registered for Communicative English 1 course during the study period of June-October 2018. They were from six intact groups between 21 to 34 students per group. Communicative English 1 is a requirement for all semester one students in Malaysian Polytechnics.

The samples are also chosen based on their language proficiency. Their language proficiency is determined based on their standard national examination (SPM) English result. The range of grade of English result for SPM of the study samples is from grade B to E.

Table 1. *Electrical Engineering Students Registered for DUE 1012 Communicative English 1 Course*

Class	No. of Students
DET 1A	24
DET 1B	31
DET 1C	34
DET 1D	20
DET 1E	21
DET 1F	34
Total	164

Purposive sampling is used to select two intact classes from Electrical Engineering classes. This sampling technique is chosen since a random selection of the students does not guaranty equal comparative group can be formed for the treatment and control group (Robson 1993, Farrokhi & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012). Furthermore, administrative decision, time of class and controlling instructor's variable hinder random sampling technique to be applied at this stage of the study.

In a natural classroom setting, it is impossible to allocate participants individually to control or treatment groups. Random allocation is impossible because the classes are rearranged by their departments in Polytechnics. Therefore, for this study, the samples used were from DET1C and DET 1F which involved 68 students:34 students for the control group (DET1C) and 34 for the experimental group (DET1F).

3.2. Materials

English Communicative One Module was used to teach both the control and experimental groups. However, the experimental group used lexical profiling tools to help them complete their reading and writing tasks in the module (see appendix 1).

3.3. Procedure for Conducting the Study

The objectives of the study were informed to both the control group and the experimental group at the beginning of the study. The intervention for the experimental group was embedded in the Communicative English One class to avoid disrupting their lessons and assessment for this subject. The duration of the lessons were three hours per week, but the embedded lexical profiling tools activities were taught at the third hour of the lessons for the experimental group. Twelve writing topics were given to the students throughout the 12 weeks study. Table 3.2 shows the schedule of the pretest and posttest and the writing topics used in the study.

Table 2. *Intervention Schedule and topics for writing tasks.*

Weeks	EVP Topic	Writing Topic
One	-	Pretest and briefing on how to use EVP and Textanalyser
Two	Body and Health	Is there a connection between poverty and poor health?
Three	Crime	Effects of crime society
Four	Describing Things	How to survive your first semester in Polytechnic
Five	Education	The Importance of Education in life
Six	Money	The role of money in life
Seven	Natural World	The impact of human activities for the environment
Eight	Sport and games	My favourite sport/games
Nine	Technology	Computer & Internet addiction and its effects on family
Ten	Travel	Places I prefer to travel alone and places I would go with people I love
Eleven	Work	My favourite profession.
Twelve	Relationship	Communication Is Essential for A Healthy Relationship
Thirteen	Food and Drinks	Eating Unhealthy vs Healthy Food
Fourteen	-	Posttest

The instructional procedure for the experimental group was carried using four activities. The first activity involved word learning of the words in the reading passage using EVP. The students searched for the meanings of words in the reading texts. These words were given to the students before they read the texts. Their objectives during this activity were to understand the meaning and highlighting the words that appeared before or after the target words in the sentence examples provided by EVP. The second activity is reading and understanding the reading passage. During this activity, the students used their lexical knowledge to understand the texts. They were also asked to examine the words that came before and after the target words in the texts. The third activity was writing about the topic they had read in the reading texts in 200 words. They consulted EVP using the 'topic' function to generate ideas as well as look up for words that they can use in their writing. Finally, the fourth activity required the students to analyse their writings using text analyser. They would revise their writings until their level reached B2 and above.

3.4. Data Collection

Timed Informative Writing Test (TIWT) was used in the pretest and post-test to obtain data for lexical diversity and lexical sophistication (lexical richness indices). The pre-test was conducted in week one and post-test was carried out in week fourteen. The sample writings of both pretest and post-test were analysed using text.inspector.com to obtain the Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity (MTLD) Score and the lexical sophistication score.

3.5. The Research Procedure for Analyzing Lexical Diversity

Lexical Diversity scores were measured using Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity (MTLD). Before the written samples were analyzed using MTLD, two research assistants typed the samples independently in Microsoft Word. The written samples of students' writings are checked and compared to ensure the corpus is accurately typed into Microsoft Word. At this stage, all misspellings are corrected, as this study will focus on lexical diversity of the students' writings instead of lexical accuracy.

Next, the written samples were entered into the textbox of textinspector.com for the value of MTLD to be generated. Finally, the value of MTLD for each written sample was recorded in excels spreadsheet.

3.6. The Research Procedure for Analyzing Lexical Sophistication

Another indicator of lexical richness is lexical sophistication and the research procedure for analyzing this indicator began by entering students' written samples in Ms Word into Textinspector.com. Next, EVP tools embedded in Textinspector.com were used to identify which words from the CEFR levels are being produced in the writing samples. The next step involves calculating the total percentage of word that appear in B2, C1 and C2 level of CEFR in the students writings. Finally, the percentage of lexical sophistication at B2, C1, and C2 level for each written sample were recorded in excel spreadsheet.

3.7. Techniques of Analysing the Data

The research questions were addressed using paired-sample t-test. The test was performed to compare the means of pre- and post-lexical diversity for question one and pre- and post-lexical sophistication in research question two. This test was conducted to examine if significant differences existed in the means of test scores for both experimental and control group.

Null hypothesis was used to determine the findings' statistical significance. The null hypothesis that stated that 'there is no difference between the mean scores of experimental and control groups' is rejected if the p value is less than the predetermined 2-tailed alpha value ($\alpha/2 = 0.025$). However, the null hypothesis fails to be rejected if the p value is more than the predetermined alpha.

4. Data Analysis and Findings

Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 21 for Windows to answer the two research questions in this study. The first research question, what are the effects of lexical profiling tools on students' lexical diversity? is addressed using paired-sample t-test. The mean for MTLD scores in the pre- and post-timed informative writing tests. Table 4.1 summarizes the results of the paired-sample t-test for lexical diversity. 'Pair 1' represents the experimental group while 'Pair 2' signifies the control group.

Table 3. *Result of Paired sample t-test for lexical diversity*

Paired Differences		Mean	SD	SD Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the difference		t	df	Sig.2 tailed
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-post Experimental	10.8	12.1	2.08	6.64	15.1	5.22	33	.000
Pair 2	Pre-post Control	7.05	13.08	2.24	2.48	11.6	3.14	33	.004

Results illustrated in Table 3 shows the p (2-tailed) value of 0.000 for the experimental group while the control group shows the p-value of 0.004. Both values are reported lower than the predetermined alpha value of 0.025 ($\alpha/2 = 0.025$). Thus, the null hypothesis which stated that 'there is no significant difference between the mean score of the pre and post-test for the experimental group (Ho: $\mu1 = \mu2$)) and the mean score of the pre and post-test for the control group (Ho: $\mu3 = \mu4$)' were rejected. There were significant differences in the means of pre and post-test of lexical diversity scores for both groups. These conclusions were made at 95% confidence level.

From the inferential analysis using paired sample t-test on lexical diversity scores it can be concluded that both the experimental and the control groups performed significantly better in the post-test. The use of Lexical Profiling tools can significantly improve the students' lexical diversity since the result shows that the experimental group performed better the control group which did not go through the treatment.

The second research question was also analysed using paired sample t-test. The result of the paired-sample t-test for lexical sophistication are given Table 4.2. 'Pair 1' illustrates the experimental group while 'Pair 2' indicates the control group.

Table 4. *Result of Paired sample t-test for lexical sophistication*

Paired Differences									
		Mean	SD	SD Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the difference		t	df	Sig.2 tailed
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-post Experimental	-3.274	7.115	1.220	-5.756	-.791	-2.683	33	.011
Pair 2	Pre-post Control	-2.132	7.179	1.231	-4.638	.372	-1.732	33	.093

The p values for pair 1and pair 2 for lexical sophistication are 0.011 and 0.093 respectively. The predetermined alpha value for this study was set at 0.025 ($\alpha/2 = 0.025$). The results for pair 1 showed a p value of 0.011 which was lower than the predetermined alpha value of 0.025 ($\alpha/2 = 0.025$). Thus, the null hypothesis which stated that 'there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the pre and post-tests for the experimental group's lexical sophistication (Ho: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$)', was rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference between the means of pre- and post-lexical sophistication scores for the experimental group. On the other hand, the p-value for pair 2 is 0.093 which is larger than the predetermined alpha value of 0.025 ($\alpha/2 = 0.025$). Hence, the null hypothesis which stated that 'there is no significant difference between the mean lexical sophistication scores of the pre and post-tests for control group'' (Ho: $\mu 3 = \mu 4$) failed to be rejected. This indicates that there is no significant difference between the mean of pre- and post-Timed Informative Writing test scores for the control group in terms of lexical sophistication. These conclusions were made at 95% confidence level.

Based on the inferential analysis using paired sample t-test on lexical sophistication scores, it can be concluded that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the post-test. The use of EVP and text analysers can significantly improve the students' lexical sophistication since the result shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group which did not go through the treatment.

5. Discussion

The findings for lexical diversity scores showed that both experimental and control group have improved in the post-test. However, based on the mean result of the paired sample t-test, the experimental group did slightly better than the control group. The result suggests that both groups were exposed to the same target words when reading the texts. Therefore, both groups had the chance to learn the language incidentally. Nevertheless, the experimental group lexical diversity improved slightly more than the control group because lexical items in the texts were explicitly taught to the experimental group using English Vocabulary Profile and Lexical Profiling Tools. Thus, the experimental group had the opportunity to learn the lexical items through direct learning and repeated encounters with the lexical items. This study underscores the balance of using implicit, explicit teaching and technology for teaching vocabulary. (Özge, Oğuz, & Çubukçu, 2014) for example found that the experimental group in their study that investigates the effect of implicit, explicit and blended learning outperformed the control groups, one, which was taught the lexical items implicitly only, and another group which was taught explicitly only. These findings are important because they suggest that that teaching lexical items using explicit, implicit and technology could improve their lexical knowledge and for this study, it led to improve lexical diversity in their writings.

The result for lexical sophistication paired t-test revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group lexical sophistication during the posttest. These findings indicate that using lexical profiling tools could improve lexical sophistication in students' writing. This result aligned with the previous findings where the growth of lexical sophistication was detectable in the studies (eg, (Zheng, 2016) (Yoon, 2018). The results in this study may also highlight the effectiveness of EVP and lexical profiling tools in enhancing students' lexical sophistication as EVP describes the level for each lexical item in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for language. These descriptions bring awareness of the level of lexical items used by the students in their writings. This would guide and encourage the students to use more lexical items in the upper level of CEFR. The tools also provide immediate feedback regarding the students' level of writings based on the CEFR. The revision done after analysing their writings provides the opportunity for the students to meet new lexical items and learn the existing lexis known to them in more depth.

6. Conclusion

This study investigates the effectiveness of using lexical profiling tools to enhance lexical richness in students' writing. The results show that the tools are effective to enhance lexical diversity and lexical sophistication in students' writing. The findings advocate the use of lexical profiling tools for teaching and learning second language lexical items. The tools are known to be useful for measuring students’ productive and receptive knowledge. Planning and setting the goals of lexical instructions could also be achieved using these tools. In addition to the known benefits of these tools, the findings show that these tools can also be used by the students independently to improve their lexical richness in writings.

7.Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations to the current study and need to investigated futher.First, the result of this study could not be generalized to other writing genres particularly narrative and argumentative writing. It is likely that different writing genres place importance on different CEFR levels of lexical items. Secondly, this study cannot be generalized to all departments in Malaysian Polytechnics as the sample were small and limited to only students in Electrical Engineering department in Polytechics.

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Appendix 1

Example of Reading and Writing Activities using Lexical Profiling Tools

agriculture	Turned to	systematically
dramatically	coal	Atmosphere
manufacturing	drastically	Crops
pollute	erosion	Cleared
reduction	extinction	Environment
resource	habitat	Fuel
soil	impacted	Reduce
Using up	renewable	Remove

The Impact of Human activities on Environment

Human activities have impacted the environment more than any other species, including logging, natural resource **depletion,** reduction, reduced variety of living thing (biodiversity), and pollution of the air, land and water. Humans have been impacting the environment for thousands of years; however, since the industrial revolution in the 1800s, the impact has drastically increased due to increased population, industrial manufacturing and agricultural practices. As the human population has grown, the need for more land has caused an increase in the cutting down of forest lands for habitation and farming. The result has been an increase in soil erosion, an increase in species extinction from habitat loss, and a reduction of oxygen supplied by the trees, as well as lower amounts of carbon dioxide being removed from the atmosphere.

Much of the land that has been cleared is used for agriculture to feed Earth's growing population. To increase output farmers have turned to chemical **fertilizers** and defoliants (chemical used for making the leaves fall off trees or plants) that pollute the soil and water catchments. Increased production of limited types of crops and farm animals for food has reduced the amount of different plant and animal species on the planet.

Industrial and personal use of **fossil** fuels has dramatically increased the amount of air pollution in the atmosphere while systematically using up the supply of the non-renewable resources such as coal, oil and natural gas.

Practice 1

1. Search the meaning of the words in English Vocabulary Profile.
2. Take note of the dictionary examples and learners' example for these words.
3. Highlight the words that appear before and after the words.

Practice 2.

1. Write your opinion about the topic you read in this week reading passage.
2. Use the words that you learn from the reading passage. You can also use the words you found in EVP under the topic Natural word.
3. Analyse your writing using Textanalyser and make sure your level is B2 and above.

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Academic Perception and Learning Preferences in Bruneian Students

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Abstract

Academic environment can contribute to academic perception and learning preferences. This can be particularly evident in institutions undergoing a significant change. University Teknologi Brunei (UTB) is one of the youngest and fastest growing universities in Brunei. Previously known as Institute Teknologi Brunei, it was upgraded to a University status in 2016. This is a study set in 2011 prior to the change in status and again in 2020 where it looks the changes and development that has happened over the years from the students' perspective. A questionnaire was used as the instrument targeting first year students from UTB's School of

Business and School of Computing and Informatics. The same set of questionnaires and analysis was used for both 2011 and 2020 sampling. The findings show that UTB still have some improvement to make with regards to providing conducive learning environment. At the same time, the students also show significant change in academic perception and preferred learning style, preferring blended learning to face-to-face learning, partly in light of the exposure to online learning towards the middle of the first semester due to COVID-19.

Keywords: *Learning styles; Brunei, Higher education, Learning preferences, Academic perception*

1. Introduction

Academic performance involves multiple factors. There is no way to pinpoint which factors could lend itself to a student's success as there are many variables associated with students' performances (Oredein, 2016). One example is the student's conception of learning can influence motivational process and result in their preferred strategies of learning (Negovan, Sterian & Colesniuc, 2015). This motivation will then influence quality of learning and academic performance (Cano, 2005). Cleveland and Fisher (2014) categorised such factors into three categories related to learning environment, namely, social, psychological and psychosocial, where all of it refers to intrinsic learning environment rather than physical learning environment or space.

This study however is interested to look at the latter, where we see believe in the importance of cultivating education by fostering conducive classroom learning environment (Osakwe, 2014). Many studies have cited the positive relationship between learning environment and students' performance (e.g., Harris et. al., 2008; McCombs, 2001) yet often the emphasis was put on the perspective of the teachers, rather than students (Huang & Fraser, 2009).

This study is also interested in the possible changes experienced by the students as the university undergo its own academic and infrastructural changes by specifically looked at students' perception and preferences in a qualitative manner rather than measure and quantify their responses completely. Hence, the aims for this study comes in two-folds. Firstly, to see how far the university has come in terms of providing infrastructural and facility improvements for the students since 2011. This study also sought to find students' academic perception, to see if any changes had occurred in 9 years. Hence, this is the slight twist where data collected in 2011 was when learning was 100% face to face but 9 years later, the data was collected following the new norm of online learning. Secondly, it is also to see if the students' learning preferences has changed over such period and if COVID-19 pandemic had complemented such preferences.

1.1. Study Context

Universiti Teknologi Brunei (UTB) or roughly translated as Brunei University of Technology is an institution that has been upgraded to university status in 2008. From then on, many new guidance and policy were implemented and improvements such as new infrastructures and learning facilities were developed. To date, UTB has been ranked using by Quacquarelli Symonds World University Ranking as 128^{th} in Asia and ranked 350^{th} in the Top 400 for year 2021. This implies the growth of the university in accommodating learning and its development as a respected university.

UTB is steadily advancing from teacher-centred classroom to a more learner-centred one. Specifically, the university is adopting a social constructionism approach where context is the focus in the creation and conveyance of meaning-making apart from regarding social interaction as an important factor for successful learning. UTB's approach very much coincides with sociocultural theory approach of learning, although it was never formally nor explicitly proclaimed by the university. In order to achieve a social constructionist approach where learning is viewed as an active process in knowledge construction, the learning environment provided needs to be at par (De Corte, 2000).

As a lecturer for more than a decade at the university where I am heavily involved in the university's curriculum development that results the course of quality teaching and learning, I am aware that such approach is being implemented.

With the outbreak of COVID-19, the Brunei Government proceeded to close all the school and university. Henceforth, all learning from elementary to higher education were relocated via online platform. During this time, the university had to hastily change their teaching process from a full face to face teaching-learning interaction to a comprehensive online one.

This is originally a comparative between Brunei and Australia of similar faculties. It was originally intended to look at cross cultural differences in terms of academic inclination between the two cultures where comparisons are made between academic perceptions, learning preferences and learning styles. However, 9 years on, the research was extended to the Brunei University's 2020 cohort where the aim is modified to look at Brunei university academic improvement and development only.

1.2. Objectives of Study

There are three objectives for this study. Firstly, this study aims to discover any possible changes in terms of academic perception and learning preferences in the 9 years. Secondly, it is to seek whether the participants perceive COVID-19 or any other factors play a role in their perception and preferences. Lastly, we would like to determine what physical attributes of the university that the participants believe was still lacking or needs improvements.

1.3. Research Questions

1. In what areas of academic perception showed substantial changes or development?
2. What is the past and present learning style and learning preferences of the participants?
3. How does COVID-19 contribute and what other factors were mentioned to the changes in the data?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Learning Style

There are a number of determinants for successful academic learning where success tend to be quantified by grades or marks. Many factors as determinants for academic success have been put forth such as learning styles, learning cognition, self-regulation and motivation yet they cannot stand alone as the only factor as one tends to be as reliant on the other.

In higher education, research into learning styles and teaching style preferences is linked with each institution's strategic plan and is heavily based on the delivery of quality teaching and learning. This is driven largely by today's competitive academic arena where investigating the relationship between learning style and students' performance is well documented in an attempt to identify effective pedagogy that promotes effective teaching and learning in higher education.

However, most lecturers do not take into account their students' learning styles and thus creates a lack of alignment between their teaching approaches and the student's expectations and learning needs (Natividad & Batang, 2018). Putra (2019) postulated that having a full awareness and understanding of students' learning style and preference would help the lecturers to adjust their teaching approaches to accommodate the different reactions and responses given by the class as a whole.

A number of researches has been conducted to find the relationship between teaching and learning style that places the onus on teachers to mould their methods to fit the students' needs. Hashim, Yunus and Hashim, (2018), concluded that learners should be given full autonomy to develop and decide on their learning style while lecturers should act as facilitators and expose the learners to various styles and strategies available while delivering the content.

In research conducted by Pengiran-Jadid (2007), where the teaching styles of 185 teachers from secondary schools across Brunei were compared with their students' learning styles, it was found that the teachers used "fairly traditional" teaching styles. Most taught using visual and auditory methods whereas the students' preference of sensory teaching ranged extremely low or high. This indicated that the students largely performed better using a more practical or hands-on approach which would allow for them to be more actively immersed in the learning process. This led to the conclusion that secondary school teachers need to implement a wider range of teaching approaches to meet students' learning needs.

However, it was found that younger students tend to use different learning strategies than adults and young adolescents who tend to focus more on metacognitive strategies to advance learning (Kokasih, 2019). Seyal, Yeo, Matusin, Siau & Rahman (2015), investigated the relationship between students learning styles and performance within a computer programming module taught in a Bruneian university. Data was collected from the first-year cohort, who were provided with the Kolb inventory of learning styles. The study indicated that students with converging and assimilating learning styles scored a pass or credit grade. From Kolb's (1985) learning styles, converging learners prefer solving technical task whereas assimilating learners prefer a more logical approach to learning such as reading and research. The researchers concluded that learning style has a significant link to academic performances but highlighted the need for more research into this as some students can adopt more than one learning style.

This was supported Siaw, Jagmohni and Ankur, (2015), who conducted a similar research on 419 Malaysian medical undergraduate students and found 30.1% of the respondents were found to be Kinesthetics learners. Additionally, Rosniah (2006) also concluded that Malaysian students are kinesthetics learners. However, she reasoned that, the Malaysian higher education system requires students to learn using mass lectures where students are expected to read from the slides, which would benefit auditory and visual learners. Ramalingam (2014) found that among Malaysian students of multi-cultural backgrounds, more than 50% of the students surveyed reported to be visual learners while 20% are auditory learners.

Meanwhile, in the Philippines, Natividad and Batang (2018) assessed the learning styles of 163 students, cross comparing them with their age, gender, course of study as well as ethnicity to investigate the correlation between leaning styles and the students' demographics. Unlike the Malaysian students, these students were reported to have been largely auditory learner (mean: 39.35) followed closely by Kinesthetics learners (mean: 38.14). This pattern was also seen throughout the different categories like age groups, and gender where auditory learning styles were prevalent within each category.

Likewise, in a more recent study by Seyal, Siau and Suhaili (2019), the predominant learning style reported among the 100 undergraduates from the same university as this study (UTB) was Kinesthetics (42%) followed closely with Reading (38%). Their study used the Big Five (OCEAN) and VARK tests to determine learning styles while also correlating each style to different personality traits.

Thomas and Janosy, (2020) in their effort to understand the reasons behind successful learners and those who struggle, conducted a multiple case study on learning strategies and learning styles of 12 student teachers from China. The student teachers were reportedly using strategies embedded in their learning activities such as actively repeating dialogue while watching a movie or engaging in metacognitive strategies like self-reflection or self-questioning. This shows that a strong purpose behind a learning strategy in combination with an action or "doing an activity" seems to be the best option for long term learning. Further cementing the notion that kinesthetics learning style is favoured among Asian learners.

2.2. Online and Blended Learning

Due to the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic, during the data collection period of this study, all face-to-face classes ceased to operate and it was replaced by online classes. Prior to the pandemic, previous study at UTB showed positive implications for online learning. Seyal and Rahman (2015) conducted research to understand attitudes and perceptions of 120 Bruneian university students with regards to online learning and the use of technology in the classroom. They concluded that while the students were positively inclined towards the use of technology, they show a strong preference to the practical use of computers and technology, implying that its use can engage and motivate the students to learn further.

Over the years, student engagement in the classroom and continued motivation has been one of the core reasons behind ongoing need for innovation and improvements in teaching approaches (Yunhadi, Armadi, & Sudrajat, 2020). With globalisation and advanced technological advances and developments driving the fourth industrial revolution, it is not a surprise that online learning is at the forefront of teaching innovations in higher education. However, it should also be noted that some research has shown a negative feedback to online learning. Yunhadi et. al. (2020), surveyed 110 students to evaluate their perception of online learning versus traditional face to face learning. The findings indicated that the students preferred face to face learning or traditional classroom settings, reporting a higher number of discussions and participation. Additionally, the students regarded online learning as troublesome as it required the students to be self-disciplined and have strong management skills for the success execution of the teaching approach. The research concluded that students find a fully online classroom setting ineffective as it lacks the personal interactions between the lecturer and students which can increase motivation and interest in the subject matter. It was further suggested that form of blended learning may serve the students better.

Blended learning seeks out to balance traditional learning with technological implementations in the teaching and learning. This inclusion of technology can be through the delivery of content over the internet using platforms such as Zoom or Microsoft teams or other online based educational tools such as Moodle, Blackboard and Massive Open Online Course (MOOC).

Of course, a number of researches into the implementation of blended learning in higher education has unearth both positive and negative aspects. Setbacks tended to be more towards hardware issues such as limited connection capabilities or outdated equipment (Alakrash and Razak, 2020; Musdariah, Basri and Rahman 2020; Derlina, Bukit & Sahyar, 2020)

Much like the inclination of students towards developing the right learning styles, the success of blended learning was found to be directly linked to the attitudes of the lecturers towards the approach. This was concluded by Musdariah et. al (2020) in their study on lecturers' attitudes on blended learning in a higher education institute in Indonesia. The study not only looked at the lecturers' educational background, but also their teaching experiences, computer literacy, knowledge on specific ICT tools alongside their attitudes and strategies in the implementation. The study confirmed that overall, classes where the lecturers were reportedly more positive towards the use of blended learning, including those who prepared and strategised appropriately prior to the classes were more successful in their implementation of the teaching approach. Alakrash et.al. (2020), also determined that lecturers who took early initiative to identify potential issues for setbacks can help stimulate students' interest and motivation in the subject matter as it shows a level of awareness and knowledge or expertise in the new approach. In this way, the lecturers and students are unknowingly taking part in collaborative learning through active participation during the teaching and learning process.

Castle and McGuire (2010) stated that to reinforce the blended learning process, there would need to be an online assessment component with appropriate online instructions. In addition to this, assessment materials will need to be carefully assessed to ensure the questions are distributed and collected successfully. They further supported the notion that lecturers need to be adequately prepared with the technology and re-education may be necessary to allow for the blended learning and assessment to be sustainable as a new educational paradigm.

However, in some cases, more substantial assessment is required to assess knowledge such as, case studies, essays, reports, group projects, portfolios among others (McCulloch, 2007; Mussawy, 2009). In spite of the differences in blended assessments, most research has stipulated that the “testing” has to be meaningful and not just a rehash of the material taught (Litchfield and Dempsey, 2013; Castle and McGuire, 2010; Alakrash and Razak, 2020). In addition to this, there has to be a guided set of criteria provided and explained in detailed to the students prior to the administration of the assessment. This will encourage self- monitoring and motivate the students to achieve rather than passively express the material; indicating some form of interest in the subject.

2.3. Learning Environment

According to Cooper (2018), our learning environment affects the way we learn. Physical, structural and psychological attributes all play a part in influencing one’s learning. Physical attributes would be in terms of actual location, where the learning takes place. Structural would imply the availability and effectiveness of infrastructure while psychological attributes would be elements such as the learner’s own behaviour and motivation. Hence, it is assumed that learning in a conducive environment with sufficient facilities could result better motivation which would lead to better learning outcome as our learning environment has a direct impact upon our learning drive and motivation (Ariani, 2017). Such claim has also been supported by previous studies such by Young (2005), Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) and Ariani (2017).

This study mainly focuses on the physical environmental attributes or in other words, the physical learning facility provided by the university. It is believed that conducive learning environment with adequate facilities could positively affect students’ overall academic learning. In a report for UCLA Institute of Democracy, Education and Access, Earthman (2002) concluded that a building’s features such as temperature, lighting, acoustics and age has direct influence of students’ learning. He further added that overall building conditions not only have an impact on students’ achievements but also have a direct impact on teacher’s efficiency and accomplishment.

Furthermore, it is not only the physical building structure itself that influences learning but what is inside the classroom could have a similar effect. A study in the USA by Cheryan, Ziegler, Plaut and Meltzof (2014) described the importance of classroom symbols. Such symbols in form of wall decors and classroom objects would influence a students' feeling of belonging in the classroom.

In terms of learning facilities such as the role of ICT is also as important. This is especially true with the effects of the pandemic that forced many schools and institutions to move to online learning platform, if they have not done so already. Online platforms can be used as e-learning tools where the lecturer could conduct lessons and webinars, share materials, communicate via chat mode and many more. Furthermore, e-learning is not only cost-effective and at times, complimentary, it could also permit learner to have their learning suit their pace, profession and lifestyle (Ramli & Zain, 2020).

The use of ICT is not new and is evolving fast with the availability of new technology. Even in in a study conducted in Calicut university by Bavakutty and Salih (1999) ICT was already widely used by the students for learning and for teaching by the teachers. Many universities and most leading universities are employing the use of advance technology as part of their teaching framework (Bonk, 2001; Ruzgar, 2005). Siddiquah and Salim (2017) strongly recommended that ICT should be part of the learning environment as many universities and institutions are now reliant on it as part of an advancement for teaching and learning process.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The sampling used was convenience sampling but a specific target of first year undergraduates in the School of Business and School of Computing and Informatics. In 2011, the study received 90 completed and usable responses with 10 incomplete and unusable questionnaires. For consistency purposes, the study aimed to achieve the same number of respondents and group, and in the 2020 study, 92 students responded to the survey.

3.2. Instruments

This study employed the use of a survey for consistency purposes. The questionnaire consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The items in the questionnaire contained questions on the participants' perception about their current academic learning experiences and their preferences relating to learning. The closed ended part of the questionnaire was meant for quantitative purposes, so 'Yes' and 'No' options were provided for each question. The open-ended question's goal was for respondents to state their reasons for their perception or preferences. A comment section at the end of the questionnaire was also available for respondents to express any further comment that would wish to share with the researcher.

There is also a separate section where students taken Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) (1985) test. This test was used in the data collection for 2011 study and to ensure uniformity, it is used again in 2020. The test is aimed to find if there's any changes in terms of the respondents' learning styles over the years. The data was used to analyse and categorise students' learning style.

3.3. Data Collection Procedures

The data collection was each collected during the same period, which was between week 13 and week 14 as the latter is the last academic study week at the university. The data collected in 2011 used hard copy questionnaires distributed to the participants. The data collected in 2020 on the other hand, was collected via google forms. This was due to the COVID-19 pandemic that was currently affecting Brunei as well as to be in line with the more advanced available technology that was not as common in Brunei back in 2011.

3.4. Data Analysis Techniques

Although there was no particular grouping set of questions except for the Kolb test, the data analysis stage revealed four themes, namely: Academic infrastructures/facilities, Non-academic infrastructures/facilities, Academic experiences and Learning Preferences. The questions on academic infrastructures include their perception whether the university's infrastructure satisfies students' demands. Such academic infrastructure includes, classrooms, labs and library. Non-academic infrastructures on the other hand, include sport facilities, canteen and Wi-Fi availability. Questions on Academic experiences ranges from their perception of part-time jobs and club memberships at the university. Lastly, the questionnaire asked about their learning preferences, whether traditional, online or blended learning was preferred.

The data obtained from both 2011 and 2020 went through the same analysis format. First, the closed- ended score were accumulated into an average so it can be compared to each data set, generating a comparative pattern, where necessary. The open-ended question on the other hand, was thematically analysed, focusing on any similarities or new differences of responses.

Although this study might be regarded as a rather scientific study due to the appearance of quantity in its findings, I rather perceive this study is an interpretivist study that does not only consider human events but social context as well (Creswell, 2007). Instead of looking at the numbers quantitatively, I also seek at the reasons laid out by the respondents while applying a sense of reflexivity to ensure criticality when analysing the data and discussing them (Holloway & Biley, 2011).

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Demographic

The respondents in the questionnaire were all first-year undergraduates in the School of Business and School of Computing and Informatics. As mentioned before, in 2011, 90 usable questionnaires were returned and the respondents were 54% female and 46% male, age ranging from 18 years old to 24 years old. The 92 respondents in the 2020 data were from the same school with 56% female and 44% male respondents. Their age varied slightly, ranging from 18 years old to 27 years old. All respondents in 2011 and 2020 were of Bruneian nationality.

4.2. Academic Perception

As mentioned earlier, this study is part of a comparative study between Australian and Bruneian students. However, this paper will only discuss the Bruneian portion where it highlights the most significant changes that had occurred in between 2011 and 2020.

Table 1. *Findings on Academic Perceptions*

Academic Perception Significant Changes	2011	2020
Insufficient Facilities	40 %	60 %
Limited WI-FI	35 %	45 %
Students with part-time jobs	10 %	36 %
Pursue higher education after Baccalaureate	40 %	8 %

Table 1 shows the significant findings that will be discussed in the next chapter. The term significant here refers to data that shows substantial increase or decrease between 2011 and 2020. 40% of the 2011 cohort for example, saw facilities to be insufficient. 9 year later, students there is a 20% increase of dissatisfaction with the facilities provided by the institution. Such facilities included number of private study rooms, number of meeting rooms, cafeteria as well as the limited HDMI- equipped lecture rooms. The table also include students' perception of WI-FI services still regarded as limited around the campus with 10% increase.

These data could be regarded as a cause of concern because over the 9 years period, the institution has spent millions of dollars on new infrastructure and new buildings and upgrading academic services in line with their vision towards Industrial Revolution 4.0. More classrooms and more equipment were brought in to meet the learning and teaching demands as it is generally agreed that current and sufficient school facilities tend to perform better (Burkett & Bowers ,1987). This was often the intention of providing the university with better equipped facilities, which was to boost learning activities which could lead to a better academic performance (Asiabaka, 2008; Adeboyeje, 2000). Sufficient facilities are not only for the learners but could help improve constructive teaching as well (Adeboyeje, 2000).

Part-time jobs in tertiary education are not a new norm in many countries. However, throughout my tenancy at UTB, I noticed more classroom talks about part-time jobs. Many studies had published a positive effect between having part-time jobs and academic achievements when working 10-15 hours per week (Tessema, Ready & Astani, 2014; Muluk, 2017; Nga, 2020). In UTB, the number of students with part-time jobs saw quite an increase from 10% (2011) to 36% (2020). In the open-ended questions, the students were asked for reason(s) why they were taking part-time job, 65% of the participants replied that they found jobs to be rather scarce these days and they hoped that they would be employed full-time once they graduate. Perhaps this could also explain the number of students that intended to pursue further studies after their bachelor degree to decrease significantly. The questionnaire also asked the reason(s) for their selection not to pursue a higher degree and 72% mentioned the shortage of employment affecting Brunei.

The increase of undergraduates with part-time jobs and decrease of interest in pursuing further education could indeed due to the effect of the dramatic rise of unemployment in Brunei. I use the word dramatic due because according to the Department of Labour Planning and Statistics Brunei (2020), in 2019, 369,800 of the population are of working age 15 years old and above and of these population, 221, 700 are employed. According to Statista (2020), in 2008, Brunei was at its all-time low rate for unemployment at 5.16% where during those days, jobs were relatively easy to find or be employed. The unemployment rate however rose to 6.69% in 2011 and peaked at 9.32% in 2017. Since then, the Brunei Government and private sectors alike tried to introduce measures to increase employment which eventually saw a slight downfall in unemployment rate in 2020 which stood at 9.04%.

4.3. Learning Preferences

Table 2. *Findings on Learning Style Preferences*

Learning Styles preferences

	2011	2020
Visual Learners	48 %	48 %
Kinaesthetic Learners	45 %	46 %
Reading/ Writing Learners	4 %	5 %
Auditory Learners	3 %	1 %

Table 2 demonstrates data on students' preferences on learning styles. As can be seen from table, there were no significant changes between 2011 and 2020. Majority of the respondents still made up of visual learners remaining at 48%, kinesthetics learners closing in second place with 45% (2011) and 46% (2020) and reading/writing learners and auditory learners in the third and fourth place respectively. This result did not fully agree with Seyal, Siau and Suhaili (2019) who concluded university students in their study (also UTB) were majority of kinaesthetic learners. However, this can be argued that it differs due to the chosen participants in this study being those from School of Business and School of Computing and Informatics students whilst theirs consisted of an additional faculty which is Faculty of Engineering. Another reason could also be due to the differences of test used where VARK and the Big Five (OCEAN) was used by Seyal, Siau and Suhaili (2019) whilst this study used LSI.

Table 3. *Findings on differences in Learning Preferences*

Learning Preferences		
Significant Changes	2011	2020
Blended Assessment	88 %	24 %
Coursework only	2 %	57 %
Test only	10 %	19 %
Blended Learning	0 %	42 %
Online Learning	0 %	31 %
Face to face	100 %	27 %

Table 3 shows data on students' preferences on the type of learning and assessments in UTB. Firstly, in terms of assessment. In 2011, blended assessment was highly preferred compared to test only or coursework only. However, in 2020, the data showed a dramatic rise in students' preference for coursework only which was from 2% (2011) to 57% (2020). Blended assessment lost its popularity decreasing from 88% (2011) to 24% (2020). Test only assessment also gained favour by increasing from 10% (2011) to 19% (2020).

Below are some of the reasons for their preferences:

"With coursework, I can take my time and properly manage my academic schedule"

"I think coursework can showcase a students [sic] true potential rather than a timed test"

"I am OK with blended assessment but no when the exam is at 60% of value!"

"Test only assess students on the surface. We do not do this in real life!"

The set of responses above shows students' preferences for coursework and blended learning rather than tests. This, however, does not imply that all students felt the same way as some respondents commented certain limitations that they faced such as lack of devices such as computers and unavailability of the internet at home or simply were not as motivated to learn because of such flexibility. This notion is similar to Dhawan (2020, p.8) where his list of problem with e-learning were similar to the comments put forth by the respondents in this study.

Such significant changes can also be viewed in terms of students' preferences for the type of learning. From 0% (2011) of blended learning, it gained favour from students by 42% in 2020. This s similar to online learning where it increased 31% in preferences in 2020 compared to 0% in 2011. The most popular type of learning in 2011 was traditional face to face that garnered 100% vote from the data in 2011. In 2020 however, it scored to become the least favoured by dropping down to 27%.

Below are some of the reasons for the preferences:

“I do not mind F2F but not all the time. Because some weeks I want to be left alone and learn at my own pace especially when I have a lot of assignments. The teacher can simply upload a learning video and I can watch and re-watch and ask questions later”

“At first, I was not sure if we can do online learning at all. But ever since the COVID experience, I feel like I am leaning towards online learning more.”

“I like online learning very much but I think the lecturers need to sync their time with us better. We can’t all have 5 classes in one day. Then we might as well have F2F.”

“I think we should be given the option for full-time online learning because it will help people who have part-time jobs to manage their time better. COVID help us realise that.”

The data above shows students’ changing pattern for learning preferences. This could perhaps be due to the advancement of technology and the pandemic definitely played a part as portrayed by their responses in the open-ended items of the questionnaire. This can perhaps be viewed as a form of changing perspective on how UTB students view learning after being exposed to an alternative way of learning. Perhaps, such is the case for UTB students that comes from a rich developing country but this finding seemed to contrast with studies conducted in underdeveloped countries such as by Adnan and Anwar (2020) where findings suggest a rather bleak perception.

5. Conclusions

The study aimed to look at the possible milestone reached by the university in meeting students’ expectations as well as to see changes in students’ preferences. The finding suggests that UTB has a long way to go in meeting students’ expectations in terms of facilities and a change in learning preferences is also evident. The findings also relate to my epistemological belief of social constructionism where it is understood that social interaction need is pertinent to learning and teachers acts as facilitators. However, in this study, the interaction here need not be human interaction but rather exploring students’ interaction with their learning environment that includes their perception (meaning-making) with regards to the facilities provided and their learning preferences. Such elements play a role in becoming an autonomous learner as aspired by UTB where students are actively involved in their own learning process.

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New Metaphors in Mass Media; A Semantic-Study in Written Discourses

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Abstract

The main objective of this study was to identify and analyze new metaphors used in written discourses published in English in the Indonesian national mass media. Therefore, the abstract metaphorical concept of Lakoff, Johnson, and Kövecses in cognitive semantic studies was applied to identify the new metaphors. This study's research method was a qualitative approach, with the method matched with basic referential techniques. The data were collected from six English mass media in Indonesia (*Kompas, Republika, Antara news, Detik, Waspada, and Hasiansib*) by using documentation techniques. From the collected data, 60 new metaphors were found and classified into nine domains: 1) domain of war, 2) domain of democracy, 3) political domain, 4) religious domain, 5) mystical/supernatural domain, 6) daily activity domain, 7) phenomenon activity domain, 8) economic/business domain, and 9) animals' domain. This study's findings would be useful for social and education sectors in terms of socio-linguistics and English language teaching and learning, particularly semantics studies.

Keywords: *New Metaphors, Written Discourse, Semantic, and Mass Media*

1. Introduction

Delivering an English message to English as a foreign language society through writing is not an easy task as it requires a complete skill both in the first and second language. The writing itself needs a long time to study and practice to improve the writing skill. It is crucial to notice that writing skills are not a "product"; instead, it is a process (Sanjaya, Mokhtar, and Sumarsih, 2015). In mass media, the journalists' writing skill is essential as their writings are the source of information for society.

Nowadays, metaphor is still an option for journalists in conveying information to the public through the mass media. This fact is in line with Prosser (2018). He stated that the use of metaphors is a necessary and unavoidable feature in delivering the message. The use of metaphors for journalists is a form of creativity that gives rise to language beauty. Among journalists, metaphors are often used and found in various news stories, both speaking and writing, such as news text in the mass media, political dialogue, and communication between journalists. Not only as a symptom of aesthetic and rhetorical language, but a metaphor is also a common symptom in language activities in human life, both science, politics, religion, and literature. Metaphors are integrated into language and mind to experience the world and express a particular thought or concept that is often abstract about a symptom or event that becomes the center of attention through cross-domain mapping in conceptual systems (Siregar, 2004). Lakoff and Johnson (2003) also state that metaphors can penetrate daily life through language, thought, and action.

Several researchers, among them, have conducted recent research on metaphors: Kinanti and Rachman (2019), Surip and Mulyadi (2019), Gondolfo (2019), Haula and Nur (2019), Ardiansyah and Saifullah (2018), Saad et al. (2018), Nirmala, (2017), Budiman (2017), Tobing (2016), Ritonga (2014) and Siregar (2014). From some of these metaphorical researchers, only one person, Siregar (2014), did a new metaphor analysis with limited data. Recent metaphorical studies are still not in demand and are scientifically reviewed by academics. From this study, whereas theoretically, referencing the opinions of Lakoff, Johnson, and Kövecses, people use metaphors in the language is expected. Humans use metaphorical expressions because they are influenced by the thought process when communicating. New metaphors are used deliberately and consciously because they have constructed human reason with existing reality. Metaphor is a testament to the role of reason in conceptualization and reasoning. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), language becomes a current conceptual set, a new metaphorical platform for entering a language and gradually established, used until it becomes part of conventionality (language). In the use of language, the old metaphor provides the framework used to explain the new metaphor. However, in language use, a new metaphor does not always become conventional and disappears from circulation in discourse.

The basis of the new metaphorical analysis used in the article refers to the opinions of Lakoff and Johnson (2003) and the findings of research conducted by Martin (2006) and Siregar (2014), who has conducted a new metaphorical study. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), the human thought process influenced by the reality of life became the basis for the emergence of new metaphors. Martin (2006) has developed three approaches to analyzing new metaphors: classical, cognitivism, and deconstructionism. Siregar (2014) is based on the conceptual awareness of metaphorical messages with the present reality in society internalize new metaphors. Likewise, in his research, Cameron (2008) reveals that new metaphors and old metaphors depend on context. New metaphors will be born when new message content affects the human thought process of communicating.

In language, old metaphors became the frame of thought used in giving birth to new metaphors. New metaphors do not always turn out to be conventional, then disappear from circulation in discourse. A new metaphor will appear when a new message's content affects the human thought process of communicating. Nietzschel's opinion in Ricoeur (2003), language became a conceptual current, becoming a new metaphorical platform for entering the language and gradually becoming an established and becoming lexicon.

The classic approach is used to understand new metaphors through their renewal based on established conceptual systems, looking to expand existing metaphors. New metaphorical data can be seen from its content and context, which is a new thing or an extension of the old metaphor. The cognitive approach looks at new metaphors based on sensory experience and people's perceptions of new content and context. New experiences are related to the socio-cultural and historical of a community. Simultaneously, the approach of deconstructionism with a new metaphor is an impossibility and should not be questioned. This approach does not dispute between new metaphors and old metaphors. Metaphors arise based on what reality exists in society, or other terms are situational metaphors.

The purpose of this study is to find out the variety of new metaphorical language phenomena in the national mass media published in the English language; this study is less in demand, whereas new metaphors are prevalent in the reality of language, especially in elections that are laden with nervous wars between candidates and successful teams.

2. Literature Review

Metaphore is produced from a combination of language and culture as culture and language are intertwined in texts. Consequently, there are cultural messages embedded in various levels of language (Soliman, 2020). Several recent studies have been done in the study of metaphors, including Surip and Mulyadi (2019), studying the use of metaphors in the process of communication between humans. The theory used is a conceptual metaphor of Lakoff, Johnson, and the Kovecses. The method used is a referral method directed to indicate and compare references or meanings in the realm of sources and objectives. Gandolfo (2019) analyzes reflections on conceptual metaphorical theory in classical Chinese texts and distinguishes ancient Chinese texts from modern metaphors. The theory used in analyzing the data was Lakoff and Johnson's theory, using classic, cognitivism, and deconstructionism. Haula and Nur (2019) also understand the kind of conceptual metaphors in Kompas opinion writing.

The theory used is also a conceptual metaphor of Lakoff and Johnson. The method used is a descriptive analysis by attempting to describe data containing metaphorical expressions.

Then the research conducted by Ardiansyah and Saifullah (2018) discussed metaphorical expressions considered to contain hate speech and cornered four political parties, namely Gerindra, Democrats, MCC, and PAN. The theory used is the conceptual metaphors of Lakoff and Johnson, Green and Evans's cognitive semantics, and the function of the meaning of the word from Leech. The method used a qualitative approach with data analysis techniques, namely data sorting, data categorization techniques, and interpretation techniques. Saad et al. (2018) examine how conceptual metaphors' linguistic manifestations are translated from Malay to French. This research seeks to how cognitive approaches can decipher this problem from a macro-better perspective. The theory used to analyze is the conceptual metaphor theory of Kovecses. Siregar (2014) examines conceptual elegance in new metaphors, using Lakoff, Johnson, Kovecses, and Martins's theories. The analysis is done by looking at the new metaphor based on its connection to existing social realities. The new-born metaphor has to do with the metaphorical message of what is happening in society.

Research has not been conducted on new metaphors in the presidential election's English written discourse from some previous research on metaphors. When viewed from various literature, the study of new metaphors, not yet in demand by researchers, may also not be familiar because of the background of the perception that equates between new metaphors and old metaphors or perceived that metaphors are the same. This research will answer how the new metaphor was born in Indonesian English mass media and evolved into a literal language.

3. Research Methodology

The research method used is the qualitative research approach. The descriptive analysis seeks to describe a phenomenon in discourse by using scientific procedures to answer the real-time issues. This research was conducted in three stages: the provision of data, data analysis, and results presentation. This recent study's primary data were metaphorical data quoted from the discourse of the text of writing in the English national mass media. Metaphorical words were obtained from the use of written language in the 2019 presidential election from six English national mass media: Kompas, Republika, Antara, Detik, Waspada, and Hasian Sinar Baru Indonesia published January-April 2019.

The data collection procedures were completed in three ways: review, library study, and documentation techniques. Simultaneously, the method used in analyzing data is a method of the match with basic referential techniques. Metaphorical data analysis is classified as a document analysis with a bottom-up system (Wahab, 1996), meaning that the study results are expected to analyze the contents of the intended data so that a proper conclusion of results is obtained.

4. Result & Discussion

4.1. Mapping New Metaphors

The new metaphor is based on the theoretical analysis of Lakoff and Johnson (2003), Martin (2006), and Siregar (2014). Then the data obtained were mapped based on Lakoff and Johnson's conceptual metaphor theory (2003). The dictions associated with election activity encourage people, ensnare politicians and journalists in creating metaphorical narratives. There are some familiar terms in presidential elections, and others are not commonly used on political concepts.

The tabulation of metaphorical data obtained by 2449 metaphorical data in the 2019 presidential election English news discourse was published from January 1 to April 17, 2019. The data of 60 new metaphors obtained were classified into nine domains. Mapping new metaphors can be mapped into several domains, namely: 1) War Domain, 2) Democracy Domain, 3) Political Domain, 4) Religion Domain, 5) Mystical/Unseen Domain, 6) Daily Activity Domain, 7) Phenomena Domain, 8) Economic/Business Domain, and 9) Animal Domain. The number of new metaphorical data based on the mapping results can be seen in the table below.

Table 1. *New Metaphor Mapping*

Conceptual Metaphor	**N**
War Domain	9
Democracy Domain	12
Political Domain	9
Religion Domain	8
Mystical/Unseen Domain	8
Daily Activity Domain	1
Phenomena Domain	11
Economic/Business Domain	1
Animal Domain	1
Total	60

Table 2. *Identification of new metaphors based on three approaches*

New Metaphorical Approach	N
Classic	36
Cognitivism	11
Deconstructionism	13
Total	60

4.1.2 New metaphors based on the classic approach

Table 3. *New metaphors of the domain of war*

01	Hoax is already a weapon of political warfare on social media and is considered cheaper and less risky than 'money politics' and dawn attacks in politics.
02	TKN Joko Widodo-Ma'ruf Amin found it funny to threaten political war if there is electoral fraud thrown by the chairman of the honorary council of PAN Amien Rais.
03	Birthday greetings from Sandiaga Uno to Ma'ruf Amin on the debate of vice-president candidate’s stage rated as a polite attack.

The new metaphor (the domain of war) is the development and expansion of the old metaphor, namely, "hoax our enemies together, let us fight not to undermine the people's interest to take part in the democratic party." Old metaphors can help understand new metaphors by finding common ground. This new metaphor comes about because it was born against the backdrop of social reality in society. The new metaphor (02) is an extension of the existing metaphor; "before the Presidential Election began, thousands of slanders and slanders had haunted the people." The call for people to take to the streets, rallying to the Court to prosecute alleged election fraud, is a political war threat. This new metaphor extends from the many hoax and slanders that daily envelop the people's ears and minds.

Thousands of hoaxes and slanders are mostly in the domain of war threats because the content tends to attack each other's weaknesses between the two strongholds. This new metaphor was born following the reality that, at the time of Amin Rais's viral statement, it will move people's power as a form of resistance to election fraud. The new metaphor (03) is an extension of the old metaphor that "the presidents shall compete, must fight politely and ethically." The use of these two words of polite attack is not commonly used in sentences or sentences because the word attack is identical towards activity in a war. There is no polite war activity; the word war aims to conduct stimulating activities to achieve victory.

Table 4. *New metaphors of the domain of democracy*

04	On the news, Agus Harimurti Yudhoyono (AHY) would become a minister. Ferdinand said it was a democratic interest only. *(Republika, 1/4/2019)*
05	I believe Muhammadiyah voters are rational so it is not easy to inedible hoaxes and scare campaigns, bagus said. *(Republika, 6/4/2019)* *(Saya yakin pemilih Muhammadiyah itu rasional sehingga tidak mudah termakan hoax dan kampanye ketakutan, kata Bagus,*
06	Former Chief Justice of the Constitutional Court (MK) Mahfud MD urged that the politics of money not be done; according to him, money politics is an act of insanity and signifies primitive democracy. (*Republika, 15/4/2019)*
07	Precisely the spirit of the debate is on the list of questions, the public can see rationally the ability of each president to answer the question that the moderator or panelist threw in the debate if the question is given will decrease the quality of the debate," pangi said (*Antara, 7/1/2019)*
08	Peace doesn't mean people shouldn't question the work of the KPU, then criticizing the KPU is called electoral decimation; it's hallucinations of thin-eared officials only, he said. Antara, 10/2/2019)
09	Prof Yusril's statement of astonishment at the government's criticism is different from the criticism of garrulous (*Detik, 27/1/2019)*
10	If it can be discussed, the politics of money will ultimately become the people's strategy to address the decay of democracy and the moral decay of democratic actors. (Detik, 16/4/2019)
11	Tjahjo also asked his ranks to be aware of the poison and virus of democracy; the ASN was asked to realize a democratic election. (*Hariansib, 4/3/2019)*
12	According to him, the criminalization experienced by Rocky Gerung as a form of castration of democracy. (*Waspada, 30/1/2019)*
13	Prabowo-Sandi (PEPES) supporters support the way the police secured three black campaign videos related to Joko Widodo (Jokowi). (Detik, 25/2/2019)

The new metaphor (04, 05, 06, 07) on top of the expansion of the old established metaphor, namely "the creativity and innovation of the supporting parliament and the TS team in the persuasion of voters in the form of colorful democracy." This metaphor reveals that all the creativity and innovation that the parliament and the team successfully made various efforts in influencing the electorate, according to Jones and Estes (2006), who said that the new metaphorical establishment influences the conceptual level of existing metaphors and existing realities.

The metaphors above are a development of the old metaphor of "Do not easily inedible issues that are not necessarily true, use common sense and actively cross-checks truth information through trusted media," "the behavior of politicians who still use the politics of money means still applying democracy backward, should maximize the war of ideas and innovative ideas for the progress of the nation," "the topic of material and the list of questions during the debate, being the key to success for the president and the vice-president who will argue on the stage," "KPU must have big ears and be ready to receive scathing criticism from anyone, to be more vigilant and careful in making decisions," and "criticism of toddlers do not hear, finish the time." This old metaphor reveals that it is not easy to believe the issues on social media and information that is not yet actual. In Siregar's opinion (2014), the frequency of using new metaphors and the protrusion of the metaphor's meaning also allowed the metaphor to become established until it lost its novelty. This new metaphor is an extension of an existing metaphor: "criticism of toddlers not to be heard, to finish time."

These new metaphors (9, 10, 11, 12, and 13) are an extension of the old metaphor, in keeping with its content and context with reality in society. This new metaphor extends from "the dawn attack and the political money of a dirty form of democracy that damages the people's mentality." Besides, the new metaphor's content also corresponds to the context and ridicule of what happens when the rivalry between the two presidents is very tight and the amount of money politics in society, which continues to interfere with people's mindset and mentality. The problem has prompted the emergence of a new metaphor "if it can be discussed, the politics of money will eventually become the people's strategy to address the decay of democracy and the moral decay of democratic actors."

The above data is also an extension of "ASN freedom robbed by officials, forced and intimidated to choose a particular partner." Since the old order, the attitudes and behaviors of officials who do not grant democratic freedom to subordinates have always existed at various levels of government. This new metaphor also keeps with the social reality that occurs with the many opinions and criticisms from various parties that ASN is suspected of not being neutral and siding with a particular partner. So came the new metaphor "Volunteer party “emak-emak” (ladies) supporters Prabowo-Sandi questioned the way the police secured three tasty black campaign videos related to president Joko Widodo (Jokowi).

Table 5. *New metaphors of the political domain*

14	Wawan Sobari hopes that the two candidates can present political visions with detailed data and facts at the upcoming presidential candidates' debate. (Republika, 12/2/2019)
15	Mas Hasto said this would be used as a tradition for "nobar" with a political model of excitement with the characteristics of unity and togetherness," said Umbas. (Antara, 18/1/2019)
16	The president also considers the current viral political event legitimate but must be accompanied by ethics and manners. (Antara, 2/2/2019)
17	*Politics is a business of hope; millennials will be able to see the expectations of which vice president's spouses are better suited to their needs," Hendri said. (*Antara, 4/4/2019)
18	According to Budiman, the interaction between political parties, political elites, corporate groups, and civil society should be laid out to suppress the evils of political corruption. (Kompas, 6/4/2019)
19	She further explained that the declaration was a form of concern and voluntary political participation of women ahead of the democratic presidential election on April 17, 2019 (Antara, 7/4/2019)
20	Jokowi displays rotten politics to reassure the voting base. (Kompas, 21/1/2019)

The new metaphors (14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20) above are a development of the old metaphor "When campaigns are open; candidates should focus more on conveying the politics of ideas based on facts and correct data." This old metaphor became the basis for the birth of the new metaphor "Wawan Sobari hopes that, at the upcoming presidential candidate debate, both candidates can present the politics of vision with detailed data and facts." Both metaphors have almost the same variants of political ideas and vision politics. Both have meant that candidates during the campaign in front of their supporters or the general public could deliver relevant visions, missions, and work programs and be supported by valid data and facts. An extension of the old metaphor is "The people are tired of the political pattern of threats, forcing to be elected." This old metaphor means that the people are tired of threatening and forcing them to vote if they do not want to vote to be sanctioned. This form of politics has been around since long before Indonesia's independence by scaring and threatening. This old metaphor is an extension of the new metaphor. "Mas Hasto said this would be a tradition to watch a movie together with a political model of excitement with the characteristics of unity and togetherness," said Umbas."

The old metaphor "political pattern of threat, forced to be elected," expanded into a new metaphor of "political model of excitement," "politicians are still not PD, because it continues to polarize the political artist in the campaign," "politicians should be able to convince voters to realize the politics of the future" politicians who are dishonest and behavioral when a campaign is a form of a dirty political mirror," and the KPU and parliament should be able to pick up the aspirational politics that exist at the grassroots." This new metaphor fits into the political realities at the time, namely the political ness that displays religious values such as charity, donation, and not scaremongering in the campaign. The campaign activities carried out by both 01 and 02 parties seek to display joyous politics and do not scare the people. It is this reality that drives the birth of new metaphors. The metaphor is also in keeping with the political reality of the time, which is that every viral content on social media is immediately used as campaign material or modified into creative campaign material.

Table 6. *New metaphors of the domain of religion*

21	Because the campaign in GBK is extraordinary, establishing a new current political tradition, the politics of sincerity where the masses that come from all corners," said Coordinator Jubir BPN Prabowo-Sandi, Dahnil. (Antara, 7/4/2019)
22	So, the grand campaign in GBK is a manifestation of people's sincerity to pick up change, not the politics of envelopes and food," explained Dahnil. (Antara, 8/7/2019)
23	Hasto Kristiyanto asked the regional head, a cadre of PDIP in Lampung Province, to apply the politics of goodness ahead of the 2019 elections. (Antara, 7/4/2019)
24	From both sides, all show-off forces in GBK Jakarta, both 01 and 02, but the show only serves to strengthen each supporter's political faith, said senior political in doctor Riza Halida. (Antara, 17/4/2019)
25	Official support for Jokowi-Amin, Ustaz Yusuf Mansur also invited his supporters to give their vote. (Detik, 13/4/2019)
26	Dian likened to prabowo-sandiaga, is the politics of donation money; it does not violate the rules. (Detik, 3/4/2019)
27	In his speech, Sandi invited straight-line "emaks" (ladies) in Banjar to fight to win the prabowo-sandi pair in the 2019 presidential election. (Detik, 8/3/2019)

A new metaphor (21, 21, 22) appears in public money based on the recent phenomenon of the 2019 Presidential Election campaign that citizens who attend as participants of the campaign do not earn money, but get out their own money by giving donations funds as much as possible as additional campaign funds. Not only that, some people who can afford, especially traders, sincerely provide a variety of food and drinks for free to the visitors of the campaign participants who attend. It was that social reality that prompted the birth of a new metaphor; "building a new current political tradition, the politics of mass sincerity that comes to come" and manifestations of people's sincerity to invite change." The new metaphor above is in line with the reality that there are many religious domains, such as providing donations, assistance, charity, and food and drink for free in campaign activities. Politicians and parties usually carry out religious activities by giving donations, charity, food, giving free food and drinks outside of campaign activities.

Data (23, 24, 25, 26, 27) is a new metaphor for the reality of the 2019 presidential campaign. These three new metaphors use identical religious dictions that did not exist during the previous year's presidential campaign. This choice of religious diction results from thinking about the social realities when using new metaphorical proxies. A new pattern in campaign activities using religious diction is only available in the 2019 presidential election. This reality is based on a recent phenomenon in campaign activities by strengthening each supporter's political faith, the invitation of charity, and the rise of the charity or donation campaign participants in support of victory. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), old metaphors and new metaphors are fundamental elements in crafting a view of life and thought processes. This new metaphor is an extension of the old metaphor "Muslimat NU ready to fight won the cleric's choice."

Table 7. *New Metaphors of mystical/magical domains*

28	Don't let ghosts vote, don't let any superstitions vote, this is a 150-year-old person voting, not really this, said Prabowo. (Antara, 9/4/2019)
29	According to Ace, from there comes the effort of the story about the shortcomings of the jokowi-amin stronghold, for example, the impartiality of the apparatus, the politics of money from the thumbprint envelope, to the issue of stealth voters. (Detik, 4/4/2019)
30	Brothers, April 17 stay 11 days please take care of TPS do not let any ghosts come along to vote, no superstitions that follow voting, said Prabowo (Detik, 6/4/2019)
31	Fadli launched a poetry anthology titled 'There is Genderuwo in the Palace,' because we happen to want to expel "genderuwo" in the Palace," Fadli said (Detik, 9/4/2019)

The new metaphorical data above (28, 29, 30, 31) is an extension of the old metaphor of "the rise of the unseen politics based on the self of Legislative Candidates who do not have confidence in self-ability and skill." This old metaphor is based on the rise of political phenomena in 2014, many of the Legislative Candidates' behaviors who come to shamans or paranormal to get the most votes. The Legislative Candidates' behavior uses shamans or paranormal services to support his success to succeed as a member of the legislature. The old metaphor became the basis for developing a new metaphor assuming the same diction association that is the unseen domain. This new metaphor is based on invisible but is feared to be emerging during the April 17 election and helped the president influence voters.

New metaphors associated with subtle beings and supernatural domains are ghosts, superstitions, demons, and "genderuwo." This chosen diction describes people who are worried about voting during the vote, even if they are not on the permanent voter list. There are also public concerns; there will be foreigners who vote, have ID cards, and are on the voter list, but they are not Indonesians. On the other hand, some voters are 150 years old or dead but still on the permanent voter list. Voters who enter the above category are not Chinese, people who have died or are 150 years old, and newcomers from other regions, will vote. These are the people associated with ghosts, superstitions, demons who choose the president and the vice president. Genderuwo diction is associated with Jokowi's close friends in the Palace with his character, large, spooky, and bearded, who co-designed the campaign strategy and determined the Palace's policy.

Table 8. *New metaphors of the domain of everyday activities*

32	I hope both presidents offer a better menu at the Indonesian dining table," Rizal said (Antara, 16/2/2019)

This new metaphor (32) is the development of existing metaphorical content, i.e., people need the idea of a new program that bites more as needed today to achieve progress. This new metaphor also focuses on the social realities that occur in society, namely that there is no president and vice president who focuses on developing creative ideas and new ideas that are poured into the work programs needed to address the people's problems. New metaphors also have the power to solve problems by emphasizing the message conveyed to the public. Lakoff and Johnson (1980a) said that the new metaphor has the power to overcome reality.

Table 9. *New metaphors of the domain of phenomena*

33	When Andi Arief referred to Prabowo Subianto as a cardboard general, it was easy to get a public discussion (Republika, 5/1/2019)
34	Not only that, he said, is also currently flooding hoaxes and slander. According to him, NU will save the people from the disaster (Republika, 10/4/2019)

This new metaphor (33, 34) is an extension of the old metaphor that existed: "towards the voting time, the hoax is getting louder and louder to the people to worry about voting." This new metaphor was born driven by the time's political realities, where hoaxes and slanders increasingly flooded society's public space. Mass media coverage and discussion material in coffee shops, hoaxes, and slander are always crowded almost all the time on social media. The political realities based on the increasingly intense rivalry between the two strongholds 01 and 02 prompted the buzzers to spout hoax and slander to further the political situation increasingly. Certain people will utilize this kind of political situation in carrying out various campaign strategies to convince voters better.

Table 10. *New metaphors for the economic/business domain*

35	The Ministry of Communications and Informatics said hoaxes and 'hate speech' manufacturers had become political economy businesses. (Antara, 8/2/2019)

This new metaphor (35) stems from the expansion of the old metaphor that "the public proposes a lot so that the police can defund hoax Seracen factories." This old metaphor reveals that in 2017 there is a growing issue about Seracen as a factory that at all times produces hoax messages. News and messages in public spaces do not necessarily contain the truth; they can be filled with a lot of lies or hoaxes. The political situation of the 2019 presidential election turns out to be more and more hate speech. Many people found it difficult to distinguish which news/information was true and wrong/hoax. This situation is based on the growing number of hoaxes in public spaces. It is this political reality that prompted the birth of the new metaphor "the Expert staff of the Minister of Communication and Informatics said hoax and 'hate speech' had become a political-economic business."

Table 11. *New metaphors of the domain of animals*

36	Indications of widespread hatred among the group have been seen from mutual ridicule between the groups against the group (Detik, 12/3/2019)

This new metaphor (36) is an extension of the old metaphor "TS both strongholds have implemented various war strategies and tactics, finding the right time for bombardment." The expansion of this old metaphor is based on the increasing discord between the two presidents, more concerned with factions and groups' interests than national security interests. The birth of a new metaphor, "Cebong and Kampret Groups," is based on the increasingly harsh and steep political reality. The two are hard to come together because each feels the rightest and ready to win. This new metaphor also corresponds to the reality of what people feel. Almost every day, public spaces are invaded by the content of slander, slander, and coercion. Thus, there is a disparity in values between the two groups labeled "Cebong and Kampret."

4.1.2 New metaphors based on Cognitivism Approach

4.1 New Metaphors of the domain of war

Table 12. *New metaphors of the domain of war*

37	*The narrative of "badar" and total war is an un substantial narrative,* *(Narasi perang badar maupun total, merupakan narasi yang tidak subtansial,* Antara, 6/3/2019)
38	The narrative of badar and total war, is the narrative that Andi explained that BPN prabowo-amin elite do not fight the spoils of war before sure the war is won (Detik, 1/4/2019)
39	So it can't be certain that there will also be a political agitation among the social media. (Detik, 15/4/2019)
40	Prabowo partners with religious people to fight for Indonesia one (Waspada, 15/1/2019)

New metaphors (37, 38, 39, 40) arise based on sensory experience and people's perception of existing reality. According to Martin's (2006) statement, the cognitive approach sees the new metaphor as possible based on sensory experience and the perception of a society whose content and context are new. Badr war is a historical experience about the war conducted by Muhammad SAW with friends and gained the first victory against the unequal Quraish army. During this "Badar" war, there was a famous apostle's prayer and became the poetry read by Neno Warisman. The new metaphor above is historically a development based on the historical experience of the war of the Muslims led directly by the Apostle Muhammad SAW against the infidels Quraisy. The experience of these two apostle war events is associated with the political reality that occurs.

Muslims' war above also mocks the political realities of the presidential election, namely the event of Neno poetry reading into viral and trending topics in the majority of media and social media with content that is pros and cons. In line with martin (2006) and Siregar (2014), who stated that new metaphors can be seen from the content and context, which is a new thing, or an extension of the old metaphor. According to the results of Lakoff and Kövecses's research (1987), mentioning the emerge could of new metaphors is based on established structures in the minds of speakers. New metaphors will also emerge based on what content is affecting human perception. What man thinks, influences his mindset, and the creation of a new language becomes strong and established will encourage the emergence of new metaphors. In keeping with what Kövecses said (2010) a new metaphor emerges based on the creation of a single strong language structure and a well-established bari complex system.

Table 13. *New metaphors of the domain of phenomena*

41	We've entered the G20, emerges've entered a country with over $1 trillion in GDP, this is what we have to understand so as not to be pessimistic, some say Indonesia is disbanded, Indonesia We have tinct, that's right," Jokowi said (Republika, 2/2/2019)
42	There are even extremes (mention) that no NU Indonesia has broken apart everywhere, said Cak Imin. (Antara, 14/2/2019)
43	In fact, he said Indonesia had been robbed of its own people, Prabowo said (Kompas, 7/4/2019)
44	The former Danjen Kopassus also insinuated about Pertiwi's mother being robbed. (Kompas, 8/4/2019)
45	The country's relatives are sick, Mother Earth is being raped, she said in front of a crowd of her supporters. (Kompas, 8/4/2019)
46	BPN Prabowo Subianto-Sandiaga Uno dismissed jokowi-ma'ruf's tkn allegations about Prabowo's speech about Indonesia being bloody (Detik, 4/3/2019)
47	Don't let any of us do politics, some are pessimistic, no one likes to be grumpy, right, says Jokowi (Antara, 9/4/2019)

The data (41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, and 47) above sees the new metaphor as something that has been present in the realities of social life, based on sensory experience and the general public's perception of content and context that is still new. In Siregar's opinion (2014), a new metaphor deals with the abyss of metaphorical messages with the reality of society. The experience relates to the sociopolitics and history of the Indonesian nation. The sociopolitical reality at the time was enlivened by various analyses of Prabowo's comments about Indonesia being disbanded and extinct, Indonesia was in disarray, Indonesia had been robbed, Mother Earth was being robbed and raped, our country was sick, and Indonesia was bleeding. This narrative of Prabowo went viral and became sexy material discussed by the general public, news materials, and social media content. In fact, it became an interesting theme scientifically reviewed on campus and became the theme of the war between the two strongholds 01 and 02.

This new metaphor is historically a development based on the historical experience of Indonesian independence. The Indonesians were once colonized by the Dutch and Japanese. In colonial times, Indonesia's wealth could not be enjoyed by the nation itself. All produce is processed in the country itself, with its own people's workers forced to work. The new metaphor is historically a development based on the experience of political history in Indonesia. In the old order, Golkar government party, one of his campaign strategies was to scare the people into still voting Golkar in every election.

4.1.3 New metaphor based on deconstructionism approach

Table 14. *New metaphors of the domain of war*

48	*This hoax evolved into a tool of war in the context of social media psychology (*Antara, 11/1/2019)
49	Political parties and interest groups in the discursus of social media in Indonesia, Suryanto said, began to adopt expressions of war. For example, social media has been armed by online armies or "cyber *troopers*" (Antara, 13/1/2019)

The data (48, 49) above are new metaphors based on the metaphorical message of society's current political reality or situational metaphor. The message conveyed in the new metaphor comes from content that is being warmly discussed by the public. This fact is in line with Siregar's opinion (2014) that new metaphors can be analyzed based on metaphorical messages' conceptual nature based on society's present reality. By then, hoax content had developed as a tool of war in the presidential campaign. Social media has become an actual medium in strategizing campaigns. The two winning teams from a special team that is fully equipped with supporting facilities support the victory. The new metaphor above also fits with Lokoff and Johnson's (1980a) opinion that humans use metaphors based on searching for what he considers most appropriate in expressing his thoughts. Both of the content revealed in the new metaphor is being a hot topic processed into various language variations in public spaces.

Table 15. *New metaphors of the domain of democracy*

50	Jokowi's affection and love continue to grow and grow because of the flames of slander and hate speech that becomes so. (Republika, 6/4/2019)
51	In Indonesia, black campaigns based on lies and slanders are increasingly being produced and spread online, as shown by hoax factories scattered this political year. (Antara, 13/1/2019)

These new metaphors (50, 51) appear based on existing social reality and are supported by much-discussed content. This context and content influence the human mindset and perception in bringing out new metaphors. What happens in social reality in society and the material objects discussed will also influence the human thought process in communicating. According to Cameron's research (2008:202), humans use language looking for what he considers most appropriate in expressing his thoughts. The new metaphor will come out deliberately and consciously because it is already constructed into the man.

The socio-political reality is that various political activities are carried out by the successful team of presidential and supporters by using social media as an essential medium in campaign strategy. Social media's reality is used as a means of war in spreading slander and lies to undermine voters' mindset. Then the torrent of slander and lies on social media became content that continued to be discussed by the public. Almost all social realities, such as social media, mass media, and community communities, talk about defamatory content and lies. Both this context and content have stimulated the human thought process in bringing up new metaphors.

Table 16. *New metaphors of the political domain*

52	The Vice President asked all PTN alumni to maintain the alma mater's political independence where they studied higher so as not to affect academic activities on the campus adversely. (Antara, 14/1/2019)
53	Politics must be maximized to appeal to millennials. (SIB, 14/1/2019)

The political reality at the time was that there was a wave of movements of some communities or community groups that carried out support activities in support of the president and vice-president. Some community members expressed support for Jokowi-Amin or supported Prabowo-Sandi on behalf of their respective alma maters, either PTN or PTS campuses. For example, the Universitas Indonesia alumni community supports Jokowi-Amin, and other Universitas Indonesia alumni communities support Prabowo-Sandi. Similarly, PTN and PTS alumni whose alumni also carried out the same campaign movement. This political reality underlies the human thought process in bringing up new metaphors.

Table 17. *New metaphors of the domain of religion*

54	Ma'ruf Amin questioned about white charity to overcome stunting that is within the mission-vision of Prabowo Subianto-Sandiaga Uno. (Detik, 17/3/2019)

This new metaphor (54) appears under the socio-political realities that occur in society. The new metaphor above using white charity diction went viral because the public widely discussed it. This new content influences the human thought process through language by searching for what is considered most appropriate in expressing the mind. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980a) have stated in their use of language, humans look for what is most appropriate and appropriate in expressing the mind. The use of language for humans results from a thought process influenced by the context of social reality.

Table 18. *New metaphors of mystical/unseen domain*

55	To spread the defamation of stealth elections, either WNA chooses or dramatizes the discovery of used e-KTP, said Ace. (Detik, 1/4/2019)
56	Hidayat Nur Wahid said the national speech by president Prabowo Subianto and Cawapres Sandiaga Uno denied the question of "genderuwo" politics that other parties often exhale spouse of the candidate number 02. (Antara, 15/1/2019)
57	That's the danger of political genderuwo because using his power to slander, that's the danger," Hasto said. (Antara, 9/2/2019)
58	We do not respond to what Mr. Amien said that hijacked Mr. Jokowi's term about "sontoloyo" politics and "genderuwo," (Detik, 10/4/2019)

The new metaphorical data (55, 56, 57, 58) is Hidayat Nur Wahib's statement that says the national speech delivered by President Prabowo Subianto and Vice-President Sandiaga Uno refuted the accusations of "genderuwo" politics that other parties often exhale to the spouses of candidates sequence number 02. Begiru also has a statement saying the dangers of political "genderuwo" for using power to slander. Genderuwo politics stems from Javanese myths about a kind of genie or delicate creature in the form of a man who looks like an ape, big-bodied and stocky with a reddish-black skin color, his body covered in dense hair that grows on all his body. Genderuwo politics is a frightening politics, which describes unethically political behavior, not based on the norms of both society and politics that spread fear and concern for society.

The use of stealth election narratives, "genderuwo" politics, and "sotoloyo" politics went viral in various mass media, social media, and conversations between communities. The social reality of politics in society is driven to produce variations in language forms using the new metaphorical narrative. These political messages and behaviors are spread through various media to support victory. The new metaphor above is a mode of thinking with social reality that ensures the human thought process in communicating between humans. According to Novitz (1985), the metaphor is everywhere and is considered a mode of thinking.

Table 19. *New metaphors of the domain of phenomena*

59	He said foreign consultants had recommended spreading slander and lie on an ongoing basis. (Antara, 3/2/2019)
60	That is poetry; that is what I have been (explain); I was yesterday in Jakarta talking this savage poem Ma'ruf. (Detik, 1/3/2019)

The metaphor (56, 57) comes after the viral poetry that Neno Warisman recited at the 212-event. The content of the poems that are read immediately becomes public content into a variety of innovative languages and becomes widely discussed by the public. This new content influences the human thought process through language by searching for what is considered most appropriate in expressing the mind. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980a) have stated in their use of language, humans look for what is most appropriate and appropriate in expressing the mind. The use of language for humans results from a thought process influenced by the context of social reality. So the new metaphor above appears driven by new content based on the socio-political realities surrounding expressing his thoughts.

Furthermore, the new metaphor "talk the content of savage poetry" means the content of the poem that Neno reads is not based on the system of values in society, "adab" (manners), insolent, and cruel. The literary work of poetry is supposed to uphold the system of values absorbed by society. The meaning of Neno's poem is intended to force God and all voters to vote for Prabowo-Sandi, "if you do not win, we fear that there will be no more people worshipping You." The new metaphor of Ma'ruf Amin's phrase is based on a reality that influences the mindset. A new metaphor emerges based on how to think about something new about social reality. In Lakoff and Johnson's opinion (1980a), the new metaphor had powers that influenced thinking to overcome reality.

The classic approach is to understand new metaphors in terms of their renewal based on established conceptual systems. This approach looks in terms of the expansion of existing old metaphors. The metaphors classified in the new metaphor are seen from the content and context, which is a new thing, or an extension of the old metaphor, as in the data: "Jokowi displays "blusukan" (down-to-earth) politics to convince the voice base." This metaphorical expression is an extension of the old metaphor that already exists; "presidential candidates apply the politics of cattle trading to increase the vote."

The cognitive approach sees the new metaphor as something that allows it to be present based on the sensory experience and perception of a community whose content and context are new. This experience is not an individual, but an experience related to the socio-cultural and historical of a community, as in the data: "Prabowo joined with religious people to fight for Indonesia one." This metaphor has historically been a development based on Indonesia's political history experience since politicians have long embraced religious scholars to gain popular votes to win legislative elections.

Through the exposure of the above research results, the conceptual mapping metaphors of the 2019 presidential election in Indonesian English mass media are presented as following.

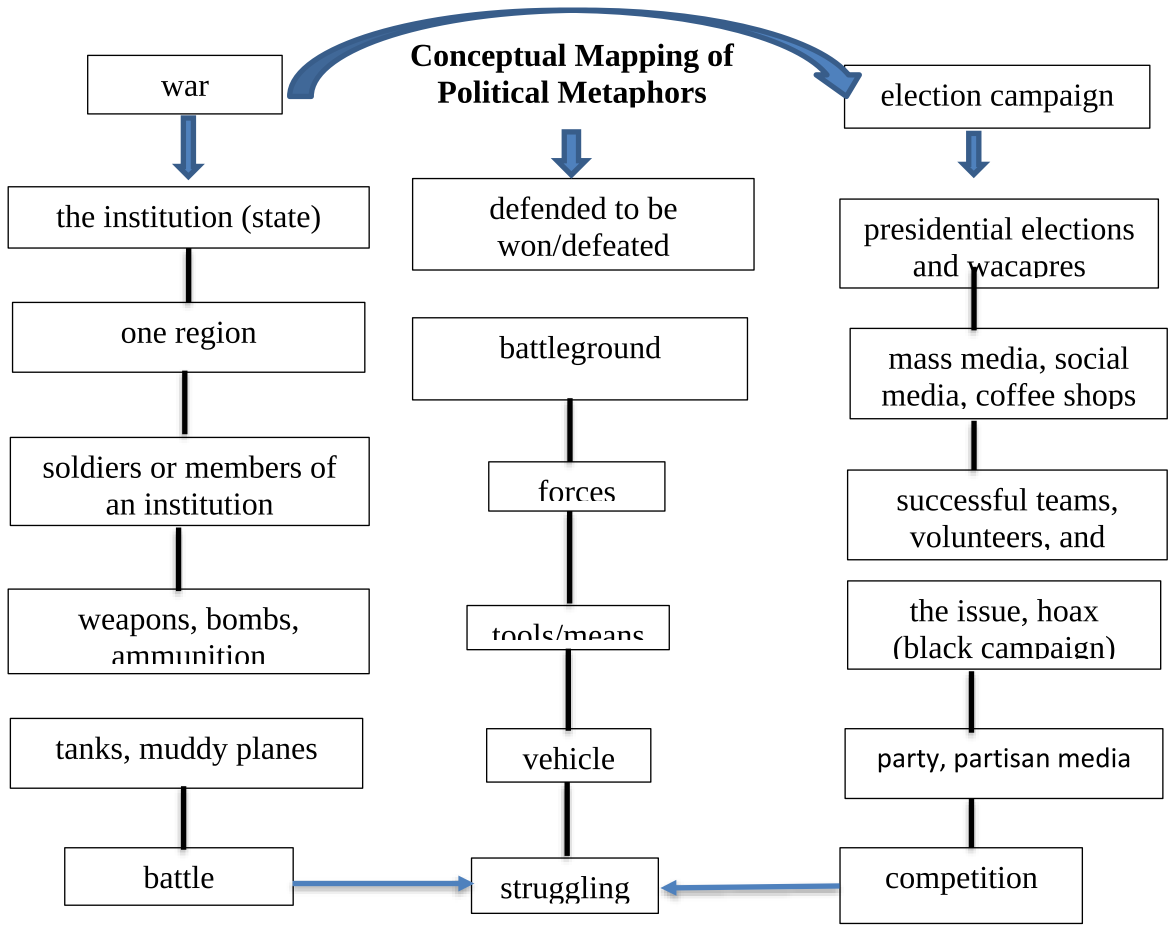

Figure 1. *Conceptual metaphor mapping of the 2019 presidential election*

While deconstructionism sees the new metaphor as an impossibility and undisputed, this approach does not matter between new and old metaphors. It is reinforced by Urena's

(2012) opinion that this approach is likened to a situational metaphorical term. If metaphors are already there and often spoken by the public, then it is in the category of ancient metaphors, whereas if it has never appeared and been spoken by society, then it is called a new metaphor, as in the data: "The politics of social media must be maximized to attract the voice of millennials." This new metaphor does not exist before because social media and millennials' politics became widely discussed content in various English mass media and social media. Last year's presidential election and millennials have not become familiar and growing expressions in society. So it does not stimulate people's perceptions in bringing up new dictions and proxies in a metaphorical form.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion

The entire amount of data obtained, conceptual mapping metaphors and obtained 60 new metaphors in 9 domains, among others: 1) war, 2) religion, 3) politics, 4) democracy, 5) phenomenon, 6) daily activity, 7) mystical/magical activities, 8) animals, and 9) the economic/business. Then analyzed new metaphorical data based on three classical approaches, cognitivism and deconstructionism, then obtained 36 classic new metaphor data based on established conceptual systems, through the old metaphor development/expansion approach and judging by the content/context of a new thing. Then there are 11 new metaphors of cognitivism based on something that allows it to be present based on the sensory experience and a community's perception of the content and context of a new thing, and 13 new metaphors of deconstructionism based on something that has never appeared and spoken by society, because this approach does not matter between the old metaphor and the new metaphor.

In the concept of a new metaphor, the emergence of a new metaphor must fulfill the principle of steadiness in use. Thus, a metaphor can be said as a conceptual metaphor while fulfilling the concept of steadiness. Based on the process of analyzing the data that has been compiled, the acuity and well-being required by Lakoff and Kövecses become necessary for review. Conceptual metaphors in politics, especially the 2019 Presidential Election, give rise to new metaphors that have specificity or specificity in the presidential election context.

5.2 Recommendation

This study's results are expected to contribute to the development of language studies in enriching language science treasures, particularly Semantics. Moreover, this study's findings could be used to compare metaphorical studies in different countries to better language learning, especially in the countries that teach English as a foreign/second language (TEFL, TESOL, and TESL). The findings of this study provide recommendations for the next researcher in the study of a plot. Analysis of recent metaphorical studies in political discourse needs to be faced because no researchers have yet found who examined this new metaphor. It is expected that researchers investigate recent metaphorical studies in various aspects, especially national and international languages, to preserve and protect from extinction.

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Fostering Syntactic Typology of Acehnese Language Using English Morpho-Syntactic Pivot System

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Abstract

This study aims at determining and elaborating the syntactic typology of the Acehnese language using the morphosyntactic pivot system of the English language. Data collection in this study used the direct elicitation technique, and then the data were analyzed through qualitative descriptive technique. The results showed that similar to the English language, Acehnese language clauses have nonverbal and verbal predicates. The predicate for nonverbal clauses is filled with nouns, adjectives, numerals, and prepositional phrases. The verbal clause predicate is filled with intransitive and transitive verbs. An intransitive clause's predicate requires an argument of a noun phrase that functions as the subject and semantically functions as an agent or a patient. The predicate of a transitive clause requires two or more arguments. Testing constructs with non-finite verbs and constructs with jussive compliment shows that if the subject (S) confers with the agent (A), then the omission of one of the arguments can be performed directly; however, if S confers with the patient (P), a syntactic derivation is required through passivation. The pivot test on coordinate and subordinate constructs proves that Acehnese works with the S/A pivot system. Thus, Acehnese is categorized as an accusative language. On the other hand, based on the verbal argument markers, Acehnese language has active morphosyntactic characteristics, and English, as both nouns and pronouns indirectly confer with the clitics. The syntactic typology of Acehnese has its peculiarities compared to several languages globally, including English, so that the results of this study can enrich the theory of cross-language linguistics.

Keywords: *Syntactic typology, linguistic, Acehnese, accusative*

1. Introduction

The Acehnese language is one of the regional languages that exist and develop in Aceh Province, Indonesia (Iskandar et al., 2020). The number of Acehnese language speakers is quite large, being in the eighth place for Indonesia's regional language with the most speakers. Acehnese belongs to the Chamic language group, a branch of the Malayo-Polynesian languages, a subgroup of the Austronesian language family closely related to Cham, Roglai, Jarai, Rade, and six other languages in the Chamic language group (Blust, 2013). Collins (1969; 1975), Cowan (1974), and Shorto (1975) have shown similarities between Acehnese and non-Khmer languages in the fields of phonology, morphology, and syntax. However, the typology of Acehnese, especially its syntactic typology, has not been fostered.

Over the last few decades, syntactic typology has played an essential role in linguistics and helped language development (Comrie, 1995). Comrie (1989) states that the purpose of typological linguistics is to group languages based on these languages' structural properties. Its primary purpose is to answer the question, what is language x like? According to him, there are two main assumptions of typological linguistics, namely (a) all languages can be compared based on their structure, and (b) there are differences between existing languages. For instance, English and Indonesian Llanguage, typologically, Like English, Indonesian is read from left to right and contains noun–noun combinations that are formed by juxtaposing the nouns. However, unlike in English, the order of the modifier and the head noun is reversed (Mahmudah and Weda, 2020).

Syntactic typology research is not new in linguistic studies, and many researchers have discussed it (Hemmings, 2016; Hong, 2020; Jianming & Xuelei, 2019; Muhammed, 2017; Sunde (2018); Tseng, 2018). However, out of the many studies that have been carried out, research on identifying the Acehnese language's syntactic typology using the English morphosyntactic pivot system is not one of them. So far, only three studies have discussed the syntactic aspects of Acehnese, namely Asyik (1987), Durie (1985), and Djunaidi (1996). Durie (1985) and Asyik (1987) discuss syntactic aspects from grammar, not from typological aspects. Djunaidi (1996) only discusses the grammatical language of Aceh in the perspective of the relational grammar theory put forward by Perlmutter (1980).

World languages can be grouped into several groups, such as accusative, ergative, and active languages. One language is said to be an ergative type; for example, if the patient argument (P) of the transitive predicate is treated the same way as the subject argument (S) of the intransitive predicate and is different from the agent argument (A) of the transitive predicate. The same treatment here can occur at a morphological and syntactic level. If the same treatment is shown morphologically, the language is said to be morphologically ergative. If the same treatment is shown in the syntactic process, the language is called ergative language syntactically. Besides, the structure pattern of arguments in clauses or basic sentences determines the typology of a language.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Syntactic Typology

Syntactic typology is a part of linguistic typology that examines linguistics based on the structure of phrases, clauses, and sentences. Dixon (1994) introduced an English grammatical description system that is used to describe the grammatical phenomena of a language by suggesting the basic syntactic units to replace the terms subject and object, namely:

S: intransitive subject

A: transitive subject

O: transitive object

According to Dixon, the three basic syntactic units constitute the universal core category. In contrast to Dixon, Comrie (1989) used the term P (patient) to replace the term O (object) proposed by Dixon. This research refers to identifying the subject in the form of a grammatical subject by conducting a pivot test to determine the syntactic typology of the Acehnese language through the English morphosyntactic concepts. According to Foley and van Valin (1984), pivots are all kinds of NPs (noun phrases) to which the primary grammatical process is associated both as controllers and as targets. They explained that the subject is the NP pivot in English, while the object is the NP pivot in Dyirbal.

Based on the syntactic alignment, the world's languages can be grouped into accusative, ergative, and active languages. A language is said to have accusative or nominative-accusative characteristics if S is treated in the same way as A and different from P. A language is said to have active or active-stative characteristics if intransitive verbs are marked differences between (or split into) intransitive verbs with an *actor* and intransitive verbs with an *experiencer* (Givon, 1984; Klimov, 1979; Mallinson and Blake, 1981), or as Dixon (1979, 1987) calls it, the split S.

Dixon (1994:157-580) states that determining a language's typology, especially the syntactic typology, can be done by performing a pivot test. According to Dixon (2010:313), English clauses can be divided into three, as reflected in the following examples.

(1) The boy ate the mango after I left

(2) I know that the boy ate the mango

(3) I know the boy who ate the mango

From the English language examples above, it can be explained that sentence (1) describes a way of combining clauses where the two clauses do not stick to each other; the second clause is marked by conjunction *after*, which expresses the adverb clause. Sentences (2) and (3) describe two clauses combined through the embedding process, meaning that one clause is part of another clause. The clause *that the boy ate the mango* is part of the clause *I know* in sentence (2), a complement clause. Conversely, in sentence (3), the clause *who ate the mango* is a relative clause that describes the object, *the boy*. Discussion of English complex sentences is a syntactic discussion between clauses to obtain grammatical descriptions and items that can support and clarify grammatical properties of the Acehnese language.

2.2. Clausal Structure

In English, a clause consists of two elements: the main and subordinate clause. The main is an element that cannot be removed from a clause because it contains the main arguments that make up the clause. On the other hand, the subordinate is an element that can be removed or can be filled in a clause because it has no significant effect if it is removed as it only adds additional information if it is added to the clause. Within the main are the phrases, which is a fundamental syntactic unit. The phrases can explain the clause's main argumments (Broekhuis, 2010; Van Valin, Jr. and La Polla, 1997).

The term *clause* originally appeared in mainland Europe, namely from Exotic languages whose presence in grammar is still colored with diversity (Nichols, 1985: 17). However, the definitions of the clause put forward by experts are the same; that the clause consists of a subject and a predicate. An obligatory element in a clause is a predicate. The relation between constituents in a clause is predicative; that is, it has a subject (S) and a predicate structure, whether it is accompanied by an object (O), complement, and adjunct.

Miller (2002) and Torto (2018) divide English clauses into complex sentences into main clauses and subordinate clauses. The main clause can stand-alone while the subordinate clause cannot. This clause needs to stick to the main clause or a noun. When sticking to the main clause, the subordinate clause sometimes fills the functions of the subject, object, and adverb, while when attached to a noun, it becomes a modifier. Apart from that, the subordinate clause also attaches to the adjective in which it is explanatory. In general, subordinate clauses are divided into complement clauses, relative clauses, and adverb clauses. From the finite point of view, subordinate clauses are divided into finite and non-finite subordinate clauses (Saleh, Salih and Rashid (2020).

Therefore, this research was conducted to fill this gap and classify the Acehnese language of languages in the world, which is the main objective of research on linguistic typology across languages and language universality. This fact is in line with Tseng's (2018) opinion that language universals and linguistic variation are important concepts underlying all syntactic theories.

Following the problem statement and literature review, here are two main questions in this study:

1) What is the basic structure of clauses in the Acehnese language according to English morphosyntactic features?
2) Is Acehnese syntactically classified as accusative, ergative, or active?

3. Methodology

This study uses a qualitative approach with data in spoken words (Bungin, 2007; Siddiqui & Suttee, 2019). The method used is the descriptive method, a method of solving research problems by collecting, compiling, classifying, assessing, and interpreting databases on references; in this study, the data will be analyzed based on English morphosyntactic concepts. The research data were obtained from Acehnese speakers in North Aceh Regency, Indonesia, sourced from oral language as the primary data and written language as supporting data.

According to Mallinson and Blake (1981), Swart (2016), Rasul (2018), and Erbach (2020), there are three sources of data to obtain linguistic research data, namely (a) the first source, the grammar book of the language studied, (b) the second source, examples used by other authors, and (c) the third source, native speakers of the language studied. In this study, sources (a) and (b) are written data sources used as secondary data, while data source (c) produces oral data, which are the primary data of this study.

The oral data of this research were obtained from informants with predetermined requirements. The criteria for an informant include: 1) male or female; 2) native Acehnese speaker; 3) born in Aceh, speaks Acehnese as her mother tongue, and has lived in Aceh for the last five consecutive years; 4) aged 30-60 years with the consideration that at that age a person’s memory is still very good; 5) has good speech organs and are not speech impaired; 6) can be invited to communicate; and 7) willing to provide honest information (Djajasudarma, 2006; Mahsun, 2005). From these criteria, three informants were selected from each research location. The researcher also used one key informant to help check the data to account for the analyzed data.

Data collection uses the linguistic field method (Mithun, 2001; Cortes et al., 2018; Liebenberg, 2019) through recording and note-taking (Sudaryanto, 2015). After the data was collected, the introspective technique is used through elicitation (Suri, 2011; Etikan et al., 2016). This technique is used because the researchers are native speakers of the Acehnese language. The data analysis used the omission technique, the expansion technique, the substitution technique, and the paraphrasing technique, with stages as suggested by Sudaryanto (2015), namely (1) data selection, to select data that was genuinely valid; (2) data classification, to sort and classify data based on research problems; (3) data analysis; analyze data based on the formulated problem using reference language concepts; and (4) writing and detailing the data in a clear sentence.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Acehnese Clausal Structure

By referring to the English Morphosyntactic pivot system (words, phrases, and sentences construction, the Acehnese language clausal structure is as following findings:

1) Nonverbal Clause

The predicate in an Acehnese clause can be filled by words from the nonverbal and verbal categories. Clauses with nonverbal predicates include: 1) nominal clause; 2) adjectival clause; 3) numeral clause; and 4) prepositional clause.

a) Nominal clause

Nominal clauses are clauses whose predicate is categorized as nouns, referring to humans, animals, objects, and concepts or meanings. A clause with a nominal predicate in Acehnese can be seen in the following example.

(1) *Apa lôn gurèe*
‘My uncle is a teacher’

Clause (1) is an example of a clause in Acehnese language where the predicate is occupied by a noun, namely *gurèe* ‘teacher’. Thus, unlike English in Acehnese, nouns have the same position as verbs; they can function as a predicate.

b) Adjectival clause

Like English, Acehnese has two types of adjectives; basic adjectives and derivative adjectives. Basic adjectives are adjectives that have not received an affix, while derivative adjectives are other types of words that can be derived into adjectives using affixes such as *meu-*, *peu-*, and *teu-*. Based on research data, examples of Acehnese adjective clauses can be seen in the following data.

(2) *Kupi nyoe phét.*

‘This coffee is bitter.'

(3) *Jaroe adoe meu-bulèe*

‘Little sister's hand is hairy.'

Clause (2) is a clause whose predicate is occupied by a basic adjective, the word *phét* ‘bitter.' clause (3) is a clause whose predicate is occupied by a derivative adjective, *meubulèe* ‘hairy,' which is formed from a noun stem *bulèe* ‘hair’ and then gets the prefix *meu-*. From this data, typologically Acehnese language adjectives can occupy a predicate position in a clause construction.

c*) Numeral clause*

In English, a numeral is a number word used to count the number of things (people, animals, or things) and concepts. Numerals are words or phrases that denote a number or quantity. Based on research data, numerals in clauses that occupy predicate positions in Acehnese can be seen in the following example.

(4) *Aki leumo peuet.*

‘A cow is four-legged.'

Clause (4) is a clause with a numeral predicate, namely the basic number *peuet* 'four’. From this data, typologically, numerals can occupy a predicate position in an Acehnese clause construction, and it usually is not appeared in the English language as in the English language this sentence should be "Cow has four legs."

d) Prepositional clause

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition as a marker followed by a word or phrase as its axis. A prepositional clause is a clause whose predicate is occupied by a prepositional phrase. Based on research data, a prepositional clause in Acehnese looks like the following example.

(5) *Abu lam uteuen*

‘Father is in the forest.'

Clause (5) is an Acehnese clause whose predicate is occupied by a prepositional phrase; *lam uteun* 'in the forest.' From this data, Similar to the English language, typologically, the Acehnese prepositional phrase can occupy a predicate position in a clause construction.

From the description above, it can be concluded that the argument S is the only argument in a clause with a nonverbal predicate, which stands to the right or comes after S. In other words, S as the only argument in the nonverbal clause takes a position preceding the predicate.

2) Verbal Clause

In the English language, verbs play an essential role in a clause (Neubold, 2008; Kürschner, 2008). A verbal clause is a clause whose predicate is a word or a phrase categorized as a verb. Based on the number of arguments in a clause, verbs can be divided into intransitive and transitive verbs.

a) Intransitive clause

If a verb does not require other elements to complete a sentence, the sentence is intransitive (Greenbaum, 2002). From a syntactic point of view, an intransitive verb is a part of a verbal clause (predicate) but not an active or passive clause. An intransitive verb is a verb that does not require the presence of a noun after it. Intransitive verbs or intransitive clauses in this study refer to the same thing.

Intransitive verbs in the predicate position in Acehnese language can be presented as; 1) without an affix; 2) must have an affix; 3) must have a clitic; 4) and must have a clitic and an affix. The intransitive verbs can be seen in the following examples.

(6) *Awaknyan deuek.*

'They are hungry.'

(7) *Aneuk nyan teu-éh*

'That child is asleep.'

(8) *Abu geu-jak u peukan*

'Father is going to the market.'

(9) *Asèe ji-meu-langue lam krueng*

'The dog is swimming in the river.'

Clause (6) is an intransitive clause in Acehnese language with a verb that does not have an affix. The verb *deuek* 'hungry' is a root without an affix. Clause (7) is an intransitive clause with the verb *éh* 'sleep,' which gets the prefix *teu-* to form *teuéh* 'asleep.' Clause (8) is an intransitive clause Acehnese with a clitic. The verb *jak* 'to go' gets the proclitic *geu-* to form *geujak* 'to go.' Clause (9) is an intransitive clause in Acehnese language with a verb with a clitic and an affix. The verb *langue* 'swim' gets the proclitic *ji-* and prefix *meu-* to form *jimeulangue* 'swim'.

Based on the data above, it can be concluded that, like the English language, typologically, the verbs in the Acehnese intransitive clause occupy a position to the right or after the core argument. The core argument's position is preverbal or comes before the verb (predicate) or the core argument precedes the verb.

b) Transitive clause

In the English language, transitive verbs are verbs that require the Object function. Based on the number of arguments present in the clause formation, transitive verbs are divided into two groups: transitive verbs with two core arguments and transitive verbs with more than two core arguments. Van Valin (1999) calls these two core arguments as actor and undergoer. The construction of the Acehnese transitive clause with two core arguments is shown in the following example.

(10) Kamoe meu-kawè eungkôt

'We are catching fish.'

Clause (10) is a clause whose predicate is filled with a transitive verb *meukawè* 'catching'. The verb requires the presence of two core arguments, *kamoe* 'we' and *eungkôt* 'fish,' which function as the subject and the object, respectively. The core argument that occupies the preverbal position is the subject, and the core argument that occupies the postverbal position is the object.

Apart from transitive clauses with two core arguments, the Acehnese also has a transitive clause with more than two core arguments which, according to Dixon (1994), is called extended transitive. The construction of an Acehnese clause that presents three core arguments is shown in the following example.

(11) Jih ji-peu-taba lôn kupi

'He is bringing me coffee'

Clause (11) shows that there are three core arguments present in this clause. The core arguments are *jih* 'he,' *lôn* 'me,' and *kupi* 'coffee.' This clause shows that Acehnese language has a morphological marker attached to the verb, which serves to mark the presence of an argument in a clause, namely markers in the form of affixes and proclitics. The word *jipeutaba* 'bring,' is morphologically formed from the verb *taba* + proclitic Ji- + prefix *peu*-.

Based on the data above, similar to the English language, the syntactic typology of Acehnese language can be emphasized that the verb in the transitive clause occupies a position between two or three core arguments, which functionally function as subject and object. The core argument, which occupies the preverbal position, functions as the subject of the clause, and the other core argument, which occupies the postverbal position, functions as an object.

4.2. Acehnese Language Syntactic Construction

This discussion of syntactic constructions aims to determine whether Acehnese is syntactically an accusative or an ergative language. The discussion includes constructs with non-finite verbs, constructions with jussive complements, coordinate constructs, and subordinate constructs.

1) Construction with Non-Finite Verb

Similar to the English language, Acehnese language syntactic construction with a non-finite verb uses the verb *keuneuk* ‘want’ or *hawa* ‘want’ in Acehnese language. The use of a non-finite verb in construction generally has no authentic expression for an argument. The argument that is not real is compared to an NP “*non-overt noun phrase*." The syntactic construction of Acehnese language with the non-finite verb *keuneuk* ‘want’ can be seen in the following example.

(12) *Lôn keuneuk [ ] uwoe*

‘I want to go home.'

(13) *Jih keuneuk [ ] bloe campli*

‘He wants to buy chilies’

Clause (12) shows that the dependent clause S is conferring with the main clause S, while clause (13) shows that the dependent clause A is conferring with the main clause S. Such a construction shows that syntactically S and A in Acehnese are treated the same way.

A non-finite verb construction showing the dependent clause P conferring with the main clause S is shown in the following example.

(14) *Jih hawa [ ] geu-hei (lé lôn)*

‘She wants to be called (by me)’

From clause (14), it can be seen that if the dependent clause P co-refers with the main clause S, the dependent clause must be passive so that the NP argument conferring to the dependent clause can be omitted.

Based on the syntactic construction with a non-finite verb, syntactically Acehnese language has grammatical properties like English, in which subject is treated the same way as A. If S and P are coreferential, a derivative construction, namely passivation, is required. Thus, similar to the English language, Acehnese is a language that works with the S/A pivot system.

2) Construction with Jussive Complement

Artawa (1998) states that jussive complement can be defined as an indirect command sentence in the semantic sense. Constructions with jussive complements have main clause verbs, such as ‘say,' 'send,' 'ask,' etcetera, as seen in the following English examples.

(15) He told them to call the doctor.

(16) I asked him toleavethe house immediately.

The English examples above show jussive complement with the main clause P conferring with the dependent clause S or A. Dixon (1994) states that as an accusative language, in English, the main clause P must confer with the complement clause S or A because it describes the command that has been given to someone to do something, so both A and S have the same possible reference.

The grammatical nature of an Acehnese clause with a jussive complement construction similar to English, as a fellow accusative type language, can be seen in the following examples.

(17) *Apa geu-yue lôn jak u peukan*

'Uncle told me to go to the market.'

(18) *Jih ji-lakèe tanyoe poh uleue nyan*

'He asked us to hit that snake.'

The clauses (17) and (18) are constructs that have jussive complement with the verbs *geuyue* 'to tell' and *geulakée* 'to ask.' Clause (17) shows that the complement clause S confers with the main clause P. Meanwhile, clause (18) shows that the complement clause A correlates with the main clause P. This shows that A and S in Acehnese are treated the same way in constructs that have a jussive complement, that is, they are equally conferred with the main clause P. Thus, syntactically Acehnese works with the S/A pivot system.

3) Coordinative Construction

Based on the discussions of construction with non-finite verb and construction with jussive complement, it is apparent that Acehnese has the grammatical characteristics of an accusative language. This discussion of coordinative construction aims to determine whether the Acehnese language works with the S/A pivot system or maybe the S/P pivot. A test is carried out by applying the test framework proposed by Dixon (1994), which has been used for clause merging in English to determine the coordinative construction's grammatical nature. The same test framework is also applied in this study because Acehnese shows the same grammatical characteristics as English as an accusative language.

The following is the basic framework that has been used to determine the English pivot, which is then applied to the combination of two Acehnese clauses in a coordinative manner to see how the NP is treated in the combined clause. The NP functions that are possible in combining two clauses are as follows.

i. Both clauses intransitive

(a) S1=S2

ii. First clause intransitive, second clause transitive

(b) S1=P2

(c) S1=A2

iii. First clause transitive, second clause intransitive

(d) P1= S2

(e) A1=S2

iv. Both clauses transitive with one coreferential argument

(f) P1= P2

(g) A1=A2

(h) P1 =A2

(i) A1=P2

v. Both clauses transitive with two coreferential arguments

(j) A1=P2, A1=A2

(k) P1=A2, A1=P2

Based on the eleven possibilities of combining two clauses syntactically to determine the pivot above, Dixon (1994) further stated that English is a language that has a weak S/A pivot. According to Dixon, applying pivot conditions to NP omission in English can be illustrated by examples made for each of these possibilities (a-k). The following is an overview of S/A pivots in English (Dixon, 1994: 158).

(a) S1 = S2 Bill entered and sat down.

(b) S1 = P2 Bill entered and was seen by Fred.

(c) S1 = A2 Bill entered and saw Fred.

(d) P1 = S2 Bill was seen by Fred and laughed.

(e) A1= S2 Fred saw Bill and laughed.

(f) P1= P2 Bill was locked by Tom and punched by Bob (Tom kicked and Bob punched Bill).

(g) A1= A2 Bob kicked Jim and punched Bill.

(h) P1= A2 Bob was kicked by Tom and punched Bill.

(i) A1= P2 Bob punched Bill and was kicked by Tom

(j) P1= P2, A1= A2 Fred punched and kicked Bill.

(k) P1= A2, A1 = P2 Fred punched Bill and was kicked by him (or Fredpunched and was kicked by Bill).

The pivot conditions show that omission can occur directly without the need for syntactic derivation if the main NP functions as S or A in each clause, as in (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j). However, if the main NP functions as P in one clause, the clause must be passive so that NP omission can occur, as in (b), (f), (h), and (k). In (f), both clauses need to be passive.

Guided by the English S/A pivot illustration, testing the Acehnese pivot through the following examples is directed at the direct omission, as in (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j). Coordinative conjunctions that connect two or more clauses are used *ngönb* and *lom* 'and.'

The following are some examples of testing the combination of two clauses in the coordinative construction of the Acehnese language.

(a) S1=S2 (both clauses intransitive)

(19) *Awaknyan ji-jak ngön ji-uwoe teulat*

'They go and come home late.'

(c) S1=A2 (first clause intransitive, second clause transitive)

(20) *Ma geu-jak ngön geu-côm adék*

'Mother goes and kisses little brother.'

(e) A1=S2 (first clause transitive, second clause intransitive)

(21) *Amir ji-sipak Abdul ngön ji-hing*

'Amir kicks Abdul and smiles'

(g) A1=A2 (first clause transitive, one NP)

(22) *Amir ji-kalon Abdul ngön ji-um abu*

'Amir stares at Abdul and hugs father.'

(j) P1=P2 and A1=A2 (both clauses transitive, two NP)

(23) *Amir ji-kalon ngön ji-um abu*

'Amir stares at and hugs father.'

Combining two clauses in a coordinative manner based on the possibilities (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j) shows that there is no need for a syntactic derivation, meaning that the merging of two clauses, with NP omission in one of the clauses, can be done directly without changing the syntactic structure of one or both clauses being merged. In (19) both clauses are intransitive S1 = S2. In (20), S in the first clause corefers with A in the second clause. In (21), A in the first clause, *Amir* 'name of a person corefers with S in the second clause, which is also *Amir*. In (22), A in the first clause is *Amir*, and A in the second clause is *Amir*. Thus, A1 corefers with A2. In (23), A in the first clause is *Amir* and A in the second clause semantically is also *Amir*. Thus, A is the first clause corefers to A in the second clause. Meanwhile, P in the first clause is *Abu* 'father'; syntactic-semantic investigation shows that P in the second clause is also *Abu*. So, P1 corefers with P2. Based on this coreferential system, it can be concluded that Acehnese has a S/A pivot, just like English. The construction of combined clauses (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j) has the same syntactic markers.

The grammatical nature of Acehnese based on combinations (b), (d), (f), (k), (i), and (k) can be seen in the following examples.

(b) S1 = P2 (first clause intransitive, second clause transitive)

(24) *Aminah ji-jak ngön geu-kalon lé ma*

'Aminah comes and is seen by Mother'

(d) P1 = S2 (first clause transitive, second clause intransitive)

(25) *Aminah geu-kalon lé ma ngön ji-hing*

'Aminah is seenbyMotherandsmiles

(f) P1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(26) *Amir ji-kalon lé Abdul ngön ji-tarék lé Musa*

'Amir is seen by Abdul and pulled by Musa'

(h) P1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(27) *Amir ji-kalon lé Abdul ngön ji-tarék Musa*

'Amir is seen by Abdul and pulls Musa'

(i) A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(28) *Amir ji-kalon Abdul ngön ji-tarék Musa*

'Amir sees Abdul and is pulled Musa'

(k) P1 = A2 and A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, two NPs)

(29) Amir ji-kalon Abdul ngön ji-tarék-ih

'Amir sees Abdul and is pulled.'

The data above shows that if NP occupies the P function in one of the clauses, then the clause must be passive so that NP omission is grammatically acceptable. In other words, the omission of the NP on one of the clauses that occupy the P function is not direct, as it requires a syntactic derivation.

Based on the grammatical nature of the combination of two clauses in a coordinative manner, it can be concluded that Acehnese is a language that has a S/A pivot. This system is supported by the permissibility of direct omission in (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j), which shows that S can play coreference with A without the passivation of the clause in which the NP is omitted. Meanwhile, omission in (b), (d), (f), (h), (i), and (k) is allowed with the conferring of S and P on the condition that there must be a syntactic derivation in the form of passivation. Thus, Acehnese has grammatical characteristics of an accusative language because S and A are treated the same way and differently from P.

4) Subordinative Construction

This section presents two types of subordinative clauses to check further whether Acehnese is a language that has a S/A pivot or not. The two types of subordinative clauses presented are purposive clauses and adverbial clauses. A purposive clause refers to a dependent clause, while an adverbial clause is based on the notion described by Whaley (1997), that traditionally an adverbial clause is a clause that is used to provide a situational context to the event or circumstance described in the main clause. The adverbial clause, functioning as an adjunct, is syntactically unwanted by a verb. As an adjunct, adverbial clauses function more as additional information contained by propositions (main clauses) rather than presenting arguments for propositions.

The test of a combination of two clauses to determine the pivot of Acehnese language, as presented for the clauses in the coordinative construction before, is also carried out for clauses in the subordinative construction compound sentences that have both purposive and adverbial clauses. The following shows several examples of the combination of two clauses in the subordinative construction in combinations (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j), which can be used as a guide for testing the combination of two clauses in subordinative construction with a purposive clause.

(a) S1 = S2 (both clauses intransitive)

(30) Jih ji-jak u rumoh lôn guna jeut mano

‘He comes to my house to take a bath.'

(c) S1 = A2 (first clause intransitive, second clause transitive)

(31) *Gopnyan geu-piôh guna jeut geu-saweu kamoe*

‘She stops by to visit us.'

(e) A1 = S2 (first clause transitive, second clause intransitive)

(32) *Awaknyan ji-ba kitab guna jeut meuruno*

‘They bring books to study.'

(g) A1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(33) *Jih ji-bloe keubeu guna jeut ji-mu’u blang*

‘He buys a buffalo to plow the field.'

(j) P1 = P2 and A1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, two NPs)

(34) *Jih ji-mita lôn guna jeut ji-pakat lôn*

‘He finds me to invite me.'

Data (30) to (34) show that the NP omission in Acehnese purposive clauses in combinations (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j) is direct. The omission of NP in the purposive clauses does not require syntactic derivation. This fact reinforces the previous conclusion that Acehnese language is a language that works with the S/A pivot.

Testing the combinations of subordinative clauses with purposive clauses based on the combinations (b), (d), (f), (h), (i), and (k) can be seen in the following examples.

(b) S1 = P2 (first clause intransitive, second clause transitive)

(35) *Jih ji-jak keuno guna jeut geu-tulông lé apa*

'She comes here to be helped by uncle.'

(d) P1 = S2 (first clause transitive, second intransitive)

(36) *Adék geu-yue lé abu guna manoe bagah*

'Little brother is told by father to take a bath quickly.'

(f) P1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(37) *Jih geu-pakat lé ma guna ji-tulông lé Amir*

'She is invited by Mother to be helped by Amir'

(h) P1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(38) *Amir ji-pakat lé Abdul guna ji-peuruno adék*

'Amir is invited by Abdul to teach little sister.'

(i) A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(39) *Amir ji-pakat adék guna ji-peuruno lé Abdul*

'Amir invites little sister to be taught by Abdul'

(k) P1 = A2 and A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, two NPs)

(40) Amir ji-pakat adék guna ji-peuruno-ih

'Amir invites little sister to be taught.'

Examples (35) to (40) show that if S corefers with P, then there is a syntactic derivation in the form of passivation. Based on this fact, Acehnese does not syntactically treat S as the same as P, so it can be concluded that Acehnese works with the S/A pivot system.

The following examples present the grammatical characteristics of Acehnese language with respect to the combination of two clauses in a subordinate manner with adverbial clauses based on combinations (a), (c), (e), (g), and (j) for pivot determination.

(a) S1 = S2 (both clauses intransitive)

(41) *Awaknyan ji-woe seugohlom [ ] pajôh bu*

'They come home before eating'

(c) S1 = A2 (first clause intransitive, second transitive)

(42) *Ma geu-moe watèe [ ] geu-kalon Ani*

'Mother cries when seeing Ani'

(e) A1 = S2 (first clause transitive, second clause intransitive)

(43) *Ma geu-kalon Ani seugohlom [ ] geu-moe*

'Mother sees Ani before crying'

(g) A1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(44) *Pancuri ji-kalon polisi watèe [ ] ji-cue manok*

'The thief sees the police while stealing a chicken.'

(j) P1 = P2 and A1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, two NPs)

(45) *Amir ji-kalon seugohlom [ ] ji-côm Ani*

'Amir stares before kissing Ani'

Data (41) to (45) confirm that conferring of A with S or A1 with A2 is allowed directly without syntactic derivation so that it can be restated that syntactically Acehnese language has a S/A pivot. Languages with this pivot are typologically accusative languages syntactically. Acehnese language does not allow the NP's omission in any of the clauses without the occurrence of syntactic derivation through passivation if A confers with P. This indicates that the Acehnese does not work with the S/P pivot.

The following examples show combinations of two clauses based on the combinations (b), (d), (f), (h), (i), and (k) to show that Acehnese works with the S/A pivot system instead of the S/P pivot.

(b) S1 = P2 (first clause intransitive, second clause transitive)

(46) *Amir teungeut watèe [ ] ji-hei lé Ani*

'Amir is sleeping when called by Ani'

(d) P1 = S2 (first clause transitive, second clause intransitive)

(47) *Amir ji-hei lé Ani watèe [ ] teungeut*

'Amir is called by Ani when sleeping.'

(f) P1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(48) *Amir ji-hei lé Ani watèe [ ] geu-tanyong lé abu*

'Amir is called by Ani when asked by father.'

(h) P1 = A2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(49) *Amir ji-hei lé Ani watèe [ ] ji-tanyong Abdul*

'Amir is called by Ani when asking Abdul'

(i) A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, one NP)

(50) *Amir ji-hei Ani watèe [ ] geu-tanyong lé abu*

'Amir calls Ani when being asked by father.'

(k) P1 = A2 dan A1 = P2 (both clauses transitive, two NPs)

(51) *Amir ji-hei Ani seugohlom [ ] ji-tanyong-ih*

‘Amir calls Ani before being asked.'

Based on the data with the subordinative construction above, it can be confirmed that Acehnese language is a language that works with a S/A pivot and has an accusative typology like English and other languages in Indonesia, including Minangkabau (Jufrizal, 2012), Kemak (Budiarta, 2013), Riau Malay (Tambusai, 2016), and Siladang (Siwi, 2018).

4.3. Active Language Phenomenon

A language is said to have active language characteristics when intransitive verbs are marked differently between intransitive verbs with an actor and intransitive verbs with an experiencer (Givon, 1984; Mallinson and Blake, 1981; Klimov, 1978) or according to Dixon (1979, 1987), it is called the split-S. The criteria for an actor or an experiencer are determined semantically based on the meaning of the intransitive verb. If an intransitive verb controls a situation, it will be used with the actor’s argument. On the other hand, if the intransitive verb does not control a situation, it will be used with the experiencer argument. There are two types of active types, the split-S system, and the fluid-S system. A language is said to have a split-S system when the intransitive verb S is distinguished between S treated as the actor and S that is treated as the experiencer. A language is said to have a fluid-S system if S can be treated as the actor or the experiencer with the same intransitive verb.

Based on the syntactic construction test, it was found that Acehnese has the characteristics of an accusative type. However, this is not the case morphosyntactically, as evidenced in the following data.

(52) *Awaknyan ji-jak u lampôh baroe*

‘They went to the garden yesterday.'

(53) *Kamoe meu-ba pèng bak khauri nyan*

‘We bring money to that feast.'

(54) *Gopnyan geu-jôk breuh keu aneuk yatim*

‘He gives rice to orphans’

The verbs *jak* ‘go,' *ba* 'carry,' and *jôk* ‘give’ in the examples above semantically express a volitional meaning, so they need to be marked by a proclitic. The proclitic used in each of these clauses is determined by the actor’s argument in that clause. In clause (52), the actor is *awaknyan* ‘they’ so that the verb *jak* ‘to go’ confer the proclitic *ji*-to form *jijak* ‘to go.' In clause (53), the actor is *kamoe* ‘we’ so that the verb *ba* 'to carry’ confers with the proclitic *meu*-to form *meuba* ‘carry.' In clause (54), the actor is *gobnyan* ‘he’ so that the verb *jôk* ‘give’corefers with the proclitic *geu*- to form *geujôk*.

When a verb semantically expresses a nonvolutional meaning, it will be marked by an enclitic as in the following examples.

(55) *Abu hèk-geuh geu-pikée beulanja tanyoe*

‘Father is tired from thinking about our expenses’

(56) *Jih malée-ih ka ji-pubuet hina*

‘He's ashamed after making a sin.'

(57) *Kamoe luwat-teuh meu-kalon akai jih*

‘We are disgusted from seeing his behavior.'

The verbs *hèk* ‘tired,' *malée* ‘ashamed,' and *luwat* ‘disgusted’ in the examples above semantically express nonvolutional meanings, so they need to be marked by an enclitic. The clause's experiencer argument determines the enclitic used in each clause. In clause (55), the experiencer is *abu* ‘father,' so the verb *hèk* ‘tired’ is corefers with the proclitic *geuh-*. In clause (56), the experiencer is *jih* ‘dia’ so that the verb *malée* ‘shame’ is corefers with the enclitic *ih-*. In clause (57), the experiencer is *kamoe* ‘we,' so the verb *luwat* ‘disgusted’ is corefers with the enclitic *teuh-*.

From the above description, it is clear that morphosyntactically, intransitive verbs in the Acehnese language are divided into intransitive verbs with an actor argument and intransitive verbs with an experiencer argument. Intransitive verbs with an actor argument confer with proclitics, while intransitive verbs with experiencer argument confer with enclitics.

In addition to intransitive verbs with the split-S system, there are also intransitive verbs with double behavior; that is, they can be marked proclitically and enclitically. If the argument is deliberately carrying out an activity, the verb uses a proclitic, and if it is not, the verb uses an enclitic. Intransitive verbs behaving in this way are called the fluid S system, as shown in the following examples.

(58) *Hana ji-galak keu ureung mbông*

‘She does not like arrogant people’

(59) *Gobnyan hana galak-geuh keu inong nyan*

‘He does not like that woman.'

Based on the data above, typologically, it can be confirmed that similar to the English language, there is an active phenomenon in Acehnese language indirectly marked by the clitics. All intransitive verbs are marked differently between intransitive verbs with actor arguments and intransitive verbs with experiencer arguments.

5. Conclusion

To sum up, similar to the English language, the Acehnese language's predicate can be filled by nonverbal and verbal categories. Nonverbal clauses can have predicates in the form of; (1) adjective; (2) nouns (including pronouns); (3) numerals; and (4) prepositional phrases. The nonverbal clause predicate occupies a position to the right of or comes after S as the only argument that precedes the predicate. Verbal clauses can be divided into intransitive and transitive clauses. Verbs in the intransitive clause occupy a position to the right or behind the core argument. There are intransitive verbs that come with the construction zero (without affix) and verbs with an affix (*meu*-, *teu*-), clitics verbs (*geu*-, *ji*-, *neu*, *meu*, *lôn*, *ka*-), and verbs with an affix (proclitic + *meu*-).

Acehnese language has verbs in transitive clauses with two core arguments and transitive clauses with more than two core arguments. The core argument, which occupies the preverbal position, is functionally the transitive clause's subject, and the core argument that occupies the postverbal position functions as an object. The Acehnese language has a morphological marker attached to verbs that serve to mark the presence of an argument in a clause in the form of an affix (prefix). Therefore, based on these findings, the Acehnese language's syntactic typology is almost similar to the English language. So, learning English linguistic, especially morphology and syntax, will easier for Aceh people as they are the same. This fact can benefit English teachers in Aceh while teaching grammar as the teachers can compare English use with their mother tongue (1st language) to understand the form of the language quickly.

6. Limitation of Study

This study still has limitations due to the broad scope of syntactic typology. Discussion of syntactic typology in the aspects of argument structure, causative construction, serial verbs, and valence of Acehnese verbs is a problem that still needs to be studied, and so far, no researcher has ever discussed it. Besides, as concluded that morphosyntactically Acehnese language can be classified as an active language, more in-depth and specific research is needed regarding this active language phenomenon by examining Acehnese's morphological typology using the English language pivot system.

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English Proficiency Portraits of University Graduates in Indonesia

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Abstract

This study aimed at profiling the levels of English proficiency in university graduates of English and non-English departments at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Bengkulu (UNIB), Indonesia. 2591 senior students from both departments in the years of 2019 to 2016 were assessed by using a set of English proficiency tests comprising listening, grammar and written expression, and reading skills. Data were obtained from the graduates' scores and were analysed using the SPSS software package programme version 22. This turned out that the majority of the English department graduates achieved a low intermediate level, with none of them reaching the advanced one. Those who were from the non-English departments attained elementary level, with no participants attaining the low intermediate and the advanced ones. The results suggest some considerations for developing a suitable English syllabus as well as equipping the students with lots of English exposure.

Keywords: *English proficiency, Indonesian university students, graduate profiles*

1. Introduction

English proficiency has become a leading issue in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in Indonesia, although data describing such an area seem to be rare. This is logical, with 5056 private and government universities and colleges, as released in the official government website (http://sinta.ristekbrin.go.id/affiliations), measuring Indonesian university students' English proficiency is not easy since studies on that particular area have yet to reveal a comprehensive portrait (Renandya et al., 2018).

Although it seems to be difficult to conclude the Indonesian university graduates' English proficiency, several similar studies (i.e. Nurweni & Read, 1999; Sucahyo, 2016; Sulistyo & Suharyadi, 2018) have been carried out. In their study, Nurweni & Read (1999) reveal that the majority of Indonesian collegians are lacking the vocabularies to read advanced English texts, which require between 3,000 and 5,000 words. The students only achieved 1,226 words, a result which was still far from being proficient in dealing with academic tasks.

Similarly, Sucahyo (2016) found that half of junior students (n=35) at his English department merely scored 397 in the TOEFL test, with three sections namely listening, grammar and written expression, and reading skills. He then reported that structure and written expression were the highest attainment of all with 32.5% followed by reading with 26% and listening with 24.8% achieved. However, such research contradicts Ananda's (2016) who revealed that part two of the TOEFL ITP test was the most difficult to solve particularly in terms of inversion, subject-verb agreements, adverb clause connectors, passives, reduced adjective clauses, parallel structures and the use of verbs. What Sucahyo (2016) and Ananda (2016) found needs to be carefully interpreted since there is no further comprehensive explanation as to why in one study the majority of students succeeded mostly in the grammar and written expression test, while another study finds it difficult. For this reason, they most likely need to deeply explore the participants' educational background, length of studying English and ages.

A more comprehensive study on English proficiency (i.e. Sulistyo & Suharyadi, 2018) had been carried out in an exemplary state university in Indonesia. With a larger sample (N=277), they explored students' English proficiency levels across classes of 2015, 2014, and 2013 and reported that none of their participants had reached the advanced level, and more interestingly the scores were not linear with the length of the study, meaning that the junior students might outweigh the seniors. Such a finding was in line with Hamied (2012) who found that 50% of the Indonesian pre-service English teachers' proficiency was novice level on the national test using the test of English for international communication (TOEIC) in 2008 and 2007 (p.74). One more interesting point with respect to Sulistyo & Suharyadi (2018) is that their subjects were students at a state university accredited as excellent (grade A), which is considered necessary to produce better English teachers in the country (Hamied, 2012), yet in fact, experience the contrary. If this is the case, further investigation is needed both in the field of policies and practices.

Further, one of the rationales behind being a good user of English in the Indonesian context is as officially mandated by the English Language Study Program Association (Asosiasi Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Se-Indonesia—APSPBI). The association, as the name indicates (apspbi.or.id), aims to enhance English teachers as well as lecturers' education by conducting collaborative activities throughout Indonesia such as seminars, workshops, and other professional development events. It is stated in the graduate profile documents that graduates of English education study programmes should at least be able to communicate well in both written and spoken English, regardless of their institution accreditation status. With this in mind, pursuing particular levels of English proficiency (i.e., over 400) in order to assure the ability to communicate well is logical and compulsory. Such a rule is also in line with what has been done in the University of Bengkulu (UNIB) or in any other universities in Indonesia, to attain at least a 450 for the English department students and a 400 to those were not from the departments of English.

However, the requirement for achieving 450 or more in the TOEFL equivalent test is to some extent deleterious. Vietnam, for instance, requires the university English student graduates to attain at least a C1 level (Phuong & Vo, 2019), albeit research has shown that the majority of English department alumnae (n=229) only possessed a B1 level (p.7). In the

Philippines, Mendoza (2019) claims that English knowledge is necessary to determine students' performance in maths, science and social studies due to their English learning sources such as textbooks and learning materials. He also suggested that white-collar jobs would be more relevant to those who prefer learning English than those who do not. In their study on English proficiency of Filipino students (n=95), Serquina & Batang (2018) found that students from high-income families are less anxious than those from low-income ones in language classes and have better English proficiency scores (p.187-188).

This present study aims to (a) evaluate in general whether or not there are mean differences between the English department graduates and the non-English ones; (b) analyse whether or not targeted levels of proficiency as required by the English Language Study Program Association have been accomplished; and (c) compare and contrast Sulistyo & Suharyadi's (2018) findings whose subjects were from an exemplary university (grade A) with this study. From the previous findings, there is a tendency that the majority of Indonesian university students' English proficiency is still far from being proficient even in the excellent universities. Thus, this intends to provide more empirical findings in the area of interest.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Competence and Proficiency

Probably, the terms competence and proficiency have been familiar within English academia. Chomsky (1965) defined language competence as language knowledge that exists in a human mind and language performance as the skill to utilise that knowledge to communicate. Similarly, Davies et al. (1999) coined language competence as knowledge of formal linguistic systems. What Chomsky and Davies et al. explained was reflected in the test of English in 1960s which emphasised grammatical competence and had been criticised for the last two decades. Instead of testing students' ability to communicate, this sort of principle is in contrast to Bachman (1990), who preferred the term language ability rather than competence which implied testing for communicating.

Proficiency, as stated by Read (2015) mainly belongs to assessment objectives. Although experts argue differently over the use of proficiency and competence in a language test, research shows that two famous English tests – Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) – have developed positively for decades. Taking for example the issue of speed tests in TOEFL proposed by

Caroll in 1960s and largely ignored. He posited proficiency tests should also measure rate of speaking, written composition and reading speed so that it is clear whether or not a test taker could comprehend a task. Such a case is due to his assumption that the more proficient the learner, the quicker s/he is in processing chunks tested.

To date, studies of English proficiency and its affecting variables in the contexts of English as a foreign language (EFL) have emerged. For example, in Taiwan where English serves as a foreign language, English-medium instruction in university classes are found ineffective and frustrating (Kung, 2013). Kung finds that English trainings in Taiwan are not sufficient to hone students' English proficiency at schools. Accordingly, he suggested that the government provide students with ample opportunity to have more professional English training, which is also in line with Richards (2017, p. 1) who states that it is important for elementary and secondary students to learn from knowledgeable and experienced English teachers. This then implies that if the students had been equipped with lots of high-quality English exposure, their English proficiency in the country would be much better. In the context of Indonesia, data on university students' proficiency are rare, albeit a number of research studies have been conducted (i.e., Nurweni & Read, 1999; Sucahyo, 2016; Sulistyo & Suharyadi, 2018). Only did Nurweni & Read (1999) and Sulistyo & Suharyadi, (2018) study this area with a larger sample of university students. With this piece of research, a deeper and more comprehensive portrait of Indonesian students' English proficiency seems to be crucial.

2.2. English Proficiency Test

In Indonesia, the test of English as a foreign language (TOEFL) has been widely used not only to test English proficiency but also to predict one's performance at work. This is apparent from the use of such a test as one of the requirements in vacancies, and the most familiar version is the paper-based test (PBT) as it is more practical to use than the most current one, the internet-based test (iBT). There are, of course, some reasons as to why the PBT is more popular to the iBT. First, the PBT is cheaper than the iBT. To date, it only costs about IDR 500,000 to 600,000 to take the TOEFL PBT compared to the iBT which might spend over 2 million rupiahs. Second, the PBT is easier to learn than the iBT since it is more structuralist in linguistic view. Instead of testing students' proficiency in communicative competence, the TOEFL PBT tends to assess grammatical sensitivity (Sulistyo, 2009). Accordingly, many English courses offer grammar classes to those who plan to take the TOEFL PBT. Third, in terms of job vacancies, the TOEFL PBT is preferred to the test of English for international communication (TOEIC). Although TOEIC is designed to measure one's proficiency in communicating in English, the test centres are scarcely found in every province in Indonesia.

The above reasons have led some universities, colleges, and English professionals at the Indonesian testing service centre (ITSC) to develop their own proficiency tests. Big campuses like the University of Gadjah Mada (UGM), the University of Indonesia (UI), and the State University of Malang (UM) have embarked on this project for more than a decade. The developed test is applied to the students who are either wanting to check their level of English or to graduate from the university. A study of Madya et al. (2020) found that the TOEFL ITP (a sort of TOEFL PBT) test could be predicted through TOEP (Test of English Proficiency) – a test created by the Indonesian language testing scholars at the Indonesian Testing Service Centre (ITSC). One thing to bear in mind in their research is that TOEP scores have similar strength of validity to the TOEFL ITP test with the scores ranging from 310 to 656.34, albeit there are some issues in the quality of test items. To date, TOEP is widely used to measure English proficiency of prospective graduate students at the University of Gadjah Mada (UGM), the State University of Yogyakarta (UNY), the State University of Malang (UM) and prospective lecturers at the University of Andalas (UNAND). Besides, the test is a prerequisite to the success of Indonesian lecturers' certification.

Definitely, there are threshold levels that should be achieved in order to succeed in the TOEFL PBT and/or TOEP. According to the English Language Study Program Association as stated in their website, the ability to speak and write in English must be fulfilled by all graduates of the English education study programme in Indonesia. The rule is interpreted to reach at least a 450 in the TOEFL PBT and/or TOEP tests. A critical issue then arises; what can our students do with a score 450 in TOEFL and/or TOEP? Does it guarantee their ease in seeking a job or applying for a master's degree programme? Or, what should we do as teachers and/or facilitators to help our students improve their level of English proficiency? With this in mind, providing our students with lots of English exposure is highly needed. The exposure can be formal such as giving lectures of intensive English to the students as has been conducted at many Indonesian universities and/or colleges, or informal such as creating a reading corner for students to read extensively which has been applied in the Sanata Dharma University Yogyakarta.

At the university of Bengkulu (UNIB), all undergraduate students majoring in English must attend intensive English classes, and those from the non-English departments should take an English subject in a semester. The former aims to equip English students with more language skills and language components such as grammar, vocabulary, and phonetics and phonology, while the latter, which applied to the non-English department students, tends to be the English for academic purposes (EAP). In fact, there are differences in the teaching of non-English department students as some lecturers have different perspectives. The differences have treated our students totally in terms of approaches (EAP/EGP), content, and level of difficulty, thereby resulting in different performances in the English proficiency test.

The English proficiency test employed at UNIB was the test which had been created for more than a decade. The test comprises listening, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension sections which will take 2 hours to complete. Based on an interview with the staff of the language centre, the exact date of the development and creation of the proficiency test is unknown. The students are tested twice during their study, the first is in the first semester of their study, and the second is at the end of their study before taking a viva voce. Having passed the test, every student is given a certificate issued by the language centre as one of the requirements of graduation. Although the certificate seems to be local, it is beneficial to predict their English proficiency level so that they know what level their English is at, and what areas they need to improve.

2.3. Research Questions

Drawing on the studies, some questions then arise. The questions are formulated in the following.

1) Are there any mean differences between the English department graduates and the non-English ones?
2) Have the targeted levels of proficiency as required by the English Language Study Program Association been accomplished?
3) Are there any mean differences between this present study and Sulistyo & Suharyadi's (2018)?

3. Method

This study was carried out in a descriptive quantitative way as Gall et al. (2003, p. 290) stated that such a way is suitable for making careful interpretation in educational phenomena. It is descriptive in the sense that the study aims to capture a comprehensive portrait of Indonesian university graduates' English proficiency. Due to its flexibility, researchers of a descriptive study need to be familiar with the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches.

This study was conducted in the University of Bengkulu in 2019, and the data were obtained from the English proficiency test scores at the language centre of the university starting from the academic year of 2016 to 2019. The scores are the measurement of the university graduates' English proficiency in terms of listening comprehension, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension.

The data were then analysed using the SPSS 22 version software programme. It was analysed to see mean differences across years of graduation, and mean differences between this study and Sulistyo & Suharyadi's (2018). In addition, this also aims to evaluate whether or not the levels of English proficiency required by the English Language Study Program Association have been achieved.

3.1. Participants

The population was 2591 comprising 276 English department senior students and 2315 senior students in non-English departments graduated in the years of 2019, 2018, 2017 and 2016. The non-English department students were from 10 study programmes such as Indonesian education, Math education, Biology education, Physics education, Chemistry education, Elementary education, Sports education, Childhood education, Non-formal education, and Guidance and counselling education study programmes. Since we had full access to obtain the data all the scores were analysed statistically.

3.2. Instruments

The instrument for measuring the students' levels of English proficiency was a set of English proficiency tests employed by the language centre of the University of Bengkulu (UNIB) comprising three sections: listening comprehension, grammar and written expression, and reading comprehension. At UNIB, the language centre has the authority to carry out any proficiency tests such as the Indonesian language proficiency test and the English proficiency test (EPT) as well as their courses. Once the test had been carried out, the answer sheets were then scored on the basis of the English proficiency classification of the TOEFL test. For this reason, the SPSS software programme version 22 was run.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

Table 1. Results of Descriptive Statistical Analyses of All Graduates of English Departments in 2019, 2018, 2017 and 2016

N	Valid	276
	Missing	0
Mean		451.39
Median		453.00
Mode		450
Std. Deviation		42.818
Variance		1833.374
Minimum Score		330
Maximum Score		573

The table shows that majority of English department graduates achieved the minimum requirement for passing the English proficiency test as required by the university (≥450), although the standard of deviation scored 42.818 which meant that there were various scores achieved by the graduates. The figure for mode seems to be similar to the figure for mean which means that the graduates of the English departments achieved only low intermediate in the English proficiency test.

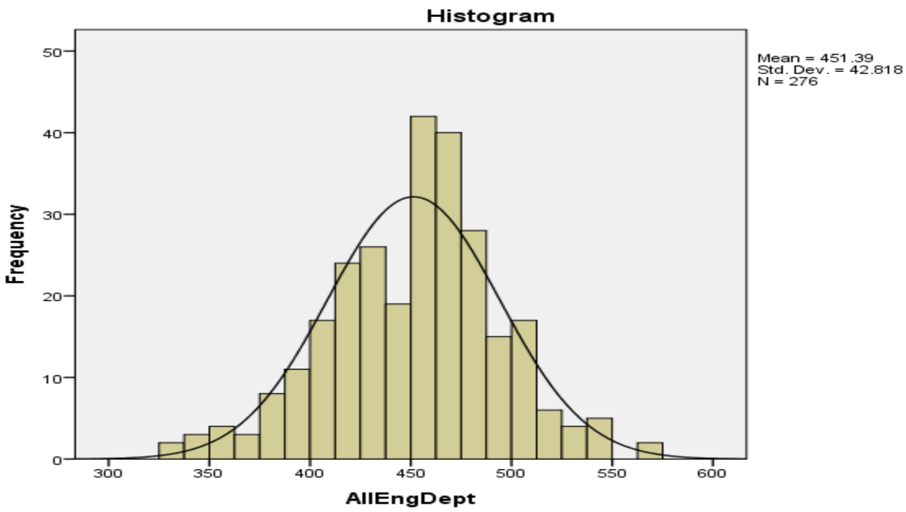

Figure 1. Score Distribution of all English Department graduates on the English proficiency test in 2019, 2018, 2017, and 2016.

The histogram indicates that the scores have normally distributed with around 5 graduates achieving both a 330 and a 550 in the English proficiency test. Interestingly, the number of those who attained a 400 seems to be similar to those whose scores were 500 in the test, standing at more than 10 graduates respectively.

Table 2. Results of Descriptive Statistical Analyses of the English Department Graduates per Year of Graduation

Year of Graduation	n	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
2016	79	350	547	447.53	39.681
2017	67	330	573	456.15	44.656
2018	42	373	547	469.29	41.162
2019	88	337	567	442.70	42.548

Both in the initial and eventual year, the mean scores were below the minimum requirements for graduating from the university (≥450). However, in 2018 there was a rise both in the minimum score and in the mean scores. Overall, all the graduates of the English department have fulfilled the minimum requirements for the English proficiency test.

Table 3. Results of Descriptive Statistical Analyses of All Graduates of Non-English Departments in 2019, 2018, 2017 and 2016

N	Valid	2315
	Missing	0
Mean		376.62
Median		373.00
Mode		370
Std. Deviation		30.967
Variance		958.968
Minimum		310
Maximum		507

In contrast to Table 1, the figure for Table 3 shows that majority of the non-English departments graduates did not fulfil the minimum requirement for passing the English proficiency test required by the University of Bengkulu (UNIB), which stood at 376.62 or rounded up to 377 only. The figure for the standard of deviation shows that the graduates' scores varied with a 310 as the minimum attainment in the test and a 507 as the highest.

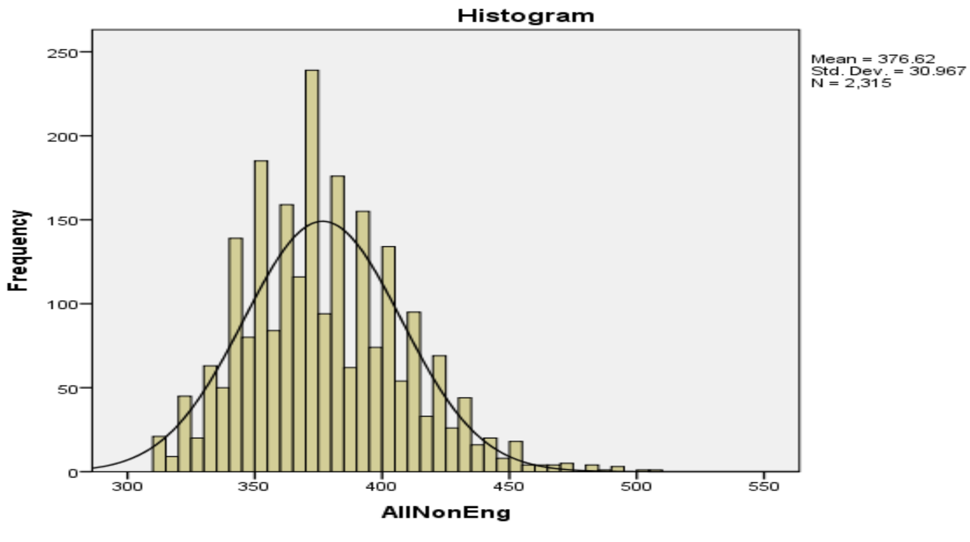

Figure 2. Score Distribution of all Non-English Department graduates on the English proficiency test in 2019, 2018, 2017, and 2016.

The histogram presents that over 200 graduates from the initial to the eventual year achieved more than 350 in the English proficiency test, with only around 130 graduates who passed the minimum requirement for passing the English proficiency test (≥400).

Table 4. Results of Descriptive Statistical Analyses of the Non-English Department Graduates per Year of Graduation

Year of Graduation	n	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
2016	610	310	493	370.91	31.025
2017	597	310	493	376.59	30.919
2018	584	313	507	378.77	30.700
2019	524	310	503	380.91	30.338

The table shows that over the last four years, there was no rise in terms of graduates' mean score in the English proficiency test. The highest mean score attained by the Non-English department graduates stood at 378.77 or rounded up to 377 which lacked 23 points to pass the requirement for passing the English proficiency test.

Mean Differences between the English Department and the Non-English Departments Graduates in 2019, 2018, 2017, and 2016

The first question of this study is to ascertain whether there are mean differences between the English department and Non-English departments graduates in four years which can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5. Mean Differences between the English Department Graduates and Non-English Departments Graduates

Table 5. Results of Descriptive Statistical Analyses of both the English Department and Non-English Department Graduates from 2016 to 2019

Group Statistics					
	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
All Value	English Department	276	451.39	42.818	2.577
	Non-English Departments	2315	376.62	30.967	.644

It is clear that there is a gap of 74.77 points in terms of mean differences between the English department and the non-English department graduates. Such a difference implies that the non-English ones need more deep English training so that they could increase their score prior to graduation.

Table 6. Results of T-Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
All Value	Equal variances assumed	46.852	.000	36.205	2589	.000	74.773	2.065	70.723	78.823
	Equal variances not assumed			28.147	310.224	.000	74.773	2.656	69.546	80.000

The results of the independent sample t-test shows that there are significant mean differences between the English department graduates and the non-English department ones, as shown in the result of the obtained *p-value* which was less than the level of significance of .05 (Sig .000 < .05).

4.2. Discussion

Accomplishment of Targeted Scores of English Proficiency

It is stated on the website of the English Language Study Program Association (apspbi.or.id) that graduates of English education study programmes in Indonesia should at least be able to communicate well in both written and spoken English, regardless of their institution accreditation status. Although it sounds good to keep the graduates' quality, such statements are interpreted in many ways in universities and/or colleges in Indonesia. At UNIB for instance, English graduates must at least achieve a 450, while those who are from the non-English departments must score a 400 in the English proficiency test administered by the language centre. This turned out that the mean score of the English department graduates was 451.39 or rounded up to 452, and the Non-English departments ones was 376.62 or rounded up to 377. In other words, the majority of the English graduates have fulfilled the minimum scores required by the university, but not for the non-English departments' ones, which only achieved a 377 on average.

What made the English graduates of the University of Bengkulu pass only slightly higher than the required score? It might be due to the delay of learning English focusing on proficiency such as TOEFL and IELTS. To the best of our knowledge, our participants had only learned English at schools when they were at senior and junior high school levels, which the learning process emphasised on texts genre analysis. Such a situation was deteriorating when they officially had become the students of the University of Bengkulu (UNIB). At UNIB, English is taught as a compulsory subject consisting of 2 credits and is delivered once or twice to all students regardless of their departments. Again, this is problematic since what the students had learned in their high schools was different from what they faced in the university which had more emphasis on proficiency. As a result, the majority of the graduates are still far from the required targeted scores.

Another reason as to why both the English and the non-English department graduates' scores were still far from the required target is in a way due to the syllabus of the English course. The English syllabus which contains topics taught to the students varied in the sense that they are lecturer-made which to some extent might be questionable in terms of content validation. To date, there are no particular English syllabus and learning sources focusing on English proficiency that have been content-validated and/or are reliable enough to be employed, and this needs to be further researched accordingly. If the university had an up-to-date English syllabus, the quality of students' English proficiency could be controlled and evaluated yearly.

To answer research question number 3 which aimed at comparing and contrasting between this study and Sulistyo & Suharyadi's (2018), we would start from the context of the study. Sulistyo & Suharyadi (2018) conducted their study at the State University of Malang (UM), East Java, Indonesia which ranked as excellent in quality. Surprisingly, what they had found was not significantly different from what we investigated in this study particularly in terms of the lowest achieved score (≥ 360) compared to our lowest attained score (≥ 330) which only differed by 30 points. This slight difference implies that both excellent and good Indonesian universities tend to have similar low-proficiency students. If the national accreditation implies that English is well taught by the highly skilled lectures, this contrasts such an assumption.

Further, our findings are significantly different from Sulistyo & Suharyadi's (2018) in terms of mean score. The majority of English graduates at UM had successfully achieved a 500, but those at UNIB only attained a 451.39 on average. Compared to the lowest achieved scores in both universities, UM and UNIB, this finding seems to have a moderate difference with 48.61 points only. One interesting point is that the average students' English proficiency at UM only reached a 500, a score that is still far from being proficient English users. If this is the case, the Indonesian government needs to put more emphasis on training Indonesian lecturers through sending them overseas to study, allotting much more research fund in English and inviting English native speakers to fully teach at Indonesian universities and/or colleges.

5. Conclusion

Drawing on the results and discussions, some conclusions are drawn. First, we conclude that the majority of the graduates both in English and non-English departments have achieved the required minimum English proficiency scores as can be seen from the average scores in three years. Although such a situation sounds good to the university's achievement, the test delivered to the students were only TOEFL-like tests which might be different to the tests hosted by TOEFL provider, ETS.

Second, it is indeed important to consider developing a suitable syllabus to hone students' skills in learning English. This will help them scaffold their understanding before and after the class. It is suggested to the university to equip their students with a supportive English environment with various sources.

Finally, improving our graduates' English proficiency scores is not that easy. It takes deep analysis to predict our students' journey in learning English throughout their study. This also needs good cooperation among university, students, alumni and stakeholders as a whole in practice.

6. Acknowledgement

This project was the fruit of valuable discussions with the late Professor Gunadi Harry Sulistyo of the State University of Malang (UM), Indonesia, which aimed to provide more comprehensive portraits of the Indonesian university graduates' English proficiency. The research was also funded by the research institute of the University of Bengkulu (UNIB) with registered research grant number 2151/UN30.15/LT/2019. For this reason, we would like to express our sincere gratitude to the late Professor Gunadi for his valuable feedback and the research institute of UNIB for funding this project and making it feasible.

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Conjunctive Markers in Students' Theses; Systemic Functional Perspective

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Abstract

This study explores how conjunctive markers as cohesive devices are realized in introducing students' theses written by English department students of Universitas Sumatera Utara. Content analysis through qualitative and quantitative approaches was chosen as the research design. After being selected based on some criteria, there were 82 theses selected as the source of the data. The theses were published from 2017-2019 and cover both linguistic and literature topics. The data were in the form of clauses since it is centrally based on Halliday's perspective. The data were downloaded and converted to plain text before being processed and analyzed by using AntCont software. The analysis was based on the category of conjunctive markers proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The finding reveals that out of 4 categories, the additive type's conjunctive marker becomes the dominant one totaling 66.41% and successively followed by causal, adversative, and temporal type. It also indicates that students' clauses in the introduction part dominantly complete each other by giving additional information to previous clauses.

Keywords: *conjunctive markers, students' theses, systemic functional, cohesive devices*

1. Introduction

1.1. The Background of the Study

One of the requirements to obtain a bachelor degree, students of the English department of Universitas Sumatera Utara (USU) must write a thesis (Ganie, Sinar, Deliana, & Yusuf, 2020). The final step before their graduation is the submission of a thesis written in English. This step is also compulsory in Indonesian universities and some universities around the world as a partial requirement (Suen, 2021). Thus, it makes the writing ability have a significant role for undergraduate students (Lin, 2020), especially in Indonesia (Syam, 2020). Developing an adequate writing competency is a challenging undertaking for undergraduate students (Robillos & Phantharakphong, 2020). That is why at the English department of USU, writing lecture subject is given in 4 semesters, and one of the materials inserted in the syllabus is *thesis and* *article structure*. The students were given the materials to acquaint the structured way to write the thesis as a final project. This procedure has aimed to ease the students in writing their project. The best academic writing skills are regarded as a significant key to success for studies in various disciplines.

Writing a bachelor thesis needs challenging effort. At USU, by the supervision of two supervisors, students can accomplish the research and write it in a thesis. The supervisor's job is crystal-clear in which the first supervisor deals with the content of the thesis, and the co-supervisor takes action in checking the layout and the cohesiveness. This work is challenging also for students, but it is useful for students. It is supported by the other experts clarifying that the supervision process is needed due to the challenge and difficulties of writing a thesis in foreign languages (Arsyad, Arono, Ramadhan, & Iramaisarah, 2020; Ganie et al., 2020; Ritonga & Yusuf, 2020). This fact is also supported by Al Shamalat & Abdul Ghani (2020), clarifying that writing an academic paper in a foreign language needs students' skill in the form and function of that language. Halliday & Matthiessen (2014) also support that language has three simultaneous meanings: metafunction dealing with interpersonal, textual, and ideational function. Every single function brings a different meaning since language is a meaning-making resource.

A text is categorized based on two things, spoken and written. The written discourse plays a prominent role in the academic world. Globalization brings the world to disseminate their work in the form of thesis, dissertation, and article. That is why it needs excellent skill in writing those (Daniels & Kwabena, 2016). A good thesis must be written based on the standard based on guidance. Technically, it must follow the structure *Introduction* ^ *Review of Literature* ^ *Research Method* ^ *Data Analysis, Result, and Discussion* ^ *Conclusion and Suggestion.* In the introduction part, the study's background, the aims, the research questions, the significance, and the limitation of the study are commonly found. The introduction part is prominent since it usually contains the problems and how to solve the problems (Gustavii, 2008), and it is the first part read by the readers (Arsyad, 2013; Arsyad et al., 2020; Rochma & Triyono, 2019). Writing this part's failure becomes a big mistake since it affects the readers' understanding of what will be explored in the thesis.

In writing a good introduction of the thesis, the writers must consider coherent and cohesive aspects well. This requirement is to make the thesis meaningful and can deliver the message well. Students' way of organizing the idea coherently significantly affects how to comprehend the essay (AlAttar & Abu-Ayyash, 2020). Cohesion employment also plays its significant role in making the thesis academically received (Abbas, Mohd. Yasin, & Ismail, 2016; Afriani, 2018; Syam, 2020). Recognizing the use of cohesive devices can be useful for the students even though its use is always problematic (Hamed, 2014).

Cohesion bridges the meaning in sentences and creates the text organization. It is supported that cohesion is a feature to measure text quality (Afriani, 2018). Then, cohesion is a parameter in deciding whether a text is only a group of unrelated sentences or a well-connected sentence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Rochma & Triyono, 2019). Cohesion is divided into lexical (repetition and collocation) that sees the relation of the words within a text, and grammatical (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction) that see the semantic relationship through grammatical construction of text structure in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Conjunctive elements as parts of cohesive devices are classified into four forms: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). It is critical to connecting the linguistic elements found to appear in sequence (Rochma & Triyono, 2019). The example of the use of conjunction in the introduction part is presented below.

> … protest against the idea of male-domination. **Furthermore**, feminism also happens in a relationship…

Referring to the categorization by Halliday & Hasan (1976), the sentences above use complex additive relations (internal) emphatic showed by the use of conjunction *further(more)*. The additive relation function links one sentence with another sentence to add information linked with the previous one. It is urgent to make the message clear for the readers. Based on the preliminary observation, it was found that some of the students employed conjunction in their introduction part. On the other hand, not all students use conjunction properly, which causes a severe problem that needs to be fixed so that the text's cohesiveness can be achieved. Unsuitable use of conjunction possibly leads to misunderstanding, and readers can catch the writers' point. Thus, it makes the study of conjunctive marker realization in academic writing is worth investigating. Therefore, this study explores how conjunctive markers as cohesive devices are realized in introducing students' theses written by English department students of Universitas Sumatera Utara.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Conjunction as Parts of Cohesion

Cohesive use in academic writing is critical (Drummond, 2017), even though the proper use of cohesive devices is still a big challenge for students (Alfalagg, 2020). The inappropriate use of conjunction as cohesive markers indicates the students' weak writing ability since it can measure students' organizing ideas (Jaya & Marto, 2019) and causes difficulty for readers to comprehend the text (Geraldine, 2018). Cohesion builds the text's strong organization and helps increase the readability of the text, and it can be achieved by using grammatical cohesion (Abbas et al., 2016; Hamed, 2014). Thus, it can help the readers catch the clear meaning of the text.

Cohesion is a parameter in deciding whether a text is only a group of unrelated sentences or a well-connected sentence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Rochma & Triyono, 2019). It is stated through vocabulary and grammar (Klimova & Hubackova, 2014). The text's cohesiveness is understood when the elements are tied together and meaningful to the reader (Bahaziq, 2016). Factors that affect the utilization of cohesive devices are registerial and generic text features (He, 2020). The genre is unique due to its characteristics (Zein, Sinar, Nurlela, & Yusuf, 2019; 2020); cohesive devices used maybe for every genre.

Cohesion falls into lexical (repetition and collocation) that sees the relation of the words within a text, and grammatical (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction) that see the semantic relationship through grammatical construction of text structure in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Conjunctions contribute to the text's semantic organization, thus standing on their own as a category covering the usage of adjunct-like elements in the sentences (Li & Zhao, 2019).

Conjunction, if seen the syntactic behavior in the sentence, it is divided into five groups: 1) coordinating conjunctions, 2) subordinative conjunctions, 3) correlative conjunctions, 4) conjunctions interalimatis (Aditiawarman et al., 2020). Other experts, Halliday & Hasan (1976), categorize conjunctive markers into four types, namely additive, adversative, causal, and temporal type. In this study, the writers choose to use categorization based on Halliday & Hasan (1976). The first category is additive. This category is to show the coordination of the text. It is to show the equal status of the clauses. Bahaziq (2016) adds that this type shares semantic similarity. The second category, the adversative, focuses on the expressions of contrary expectation. The third category, the causal type, describes the cause and the consequence. It is more argues that causal relation comprises of the results, reasons, and purposes. The last type, temporal type, happens in the text with the event's timing (Rochma & Triyono, 2019).

2.2. Introduction Section in Academic Writing

Writing is a complicated and structured process that involves a subtle thinking process. It is not only putting the words to construct phrase, clause, and then sentence. The writer needs to consider and decide on the organization of information and ideas (Al Shamalat & Abdul

Ghani, 2020). The other important point is academic writing needs clarity as to the critical point (Gastel & Day, 2016).

Academic writing has difficulty for students, such as the lack of interest, English language exposure, awareness of the importance of writing skills, and practices (Fitriati & Wahyuni, 2020). These factors become a challenge for students. Bowen & Thomas (2020) also claim that students are also hoped to organize and link this discourse co-textually and contextually in producing academic writing. It is also supported by Gastel & Day (2016) that effective organization of the text helps to reach clarity. It can be adjusting with the template given or in terms of cohesion and coherence. When the idea is organized clearly, the communication to the readers will be disturbed and causes the block of the delivery of the meaning to them.

Writing, as written discourse, has an essential role in academia since knowledge is further shared through some writings such as journal articles, theses, and dissertations (Daniels & Kwabena, 2016). Written discourse has its features to distinguish it from the spoken one. The features of written discourse are lexically dense and grammatically intricate (Hanafiah, 2018). Writing a bachelor thesis in a foreign language also has challenges and needs effort (Arsyad et al., 2020). Bachelor thesis as one of the genres has its generic structure. The standard structure used at Universitas Sumatera Utara is *Introduction ^ Review of Literature ^ Research Method ^ Data Analysis, Findings, and Discussion ^ Conclusion and Suggestion*. This is possible to be different from other universities in Indonesia (both state and private universities).

The introduction part gives the rationale for why the study is done and the purpose of the study. Moreover, in the introduction part, there is background information that readers can use to understand the present study results (Gastel & Day, 2016). Commonly, the introduction part's structure comprises the background, the problems, the objectives, the scope, and the significance of the study. The failure in writing a good introduction causes the insufficiency of the background information to the readers.

2.3. Previous Studies

Research related to cohesive devices and components has been focused by researchers worldwide and also done in multi-perspective. Concerning parts of the article, Syam (2020) explores the use of reference markers in introducing the journal article. By applying a qualitative approach, they took six articles as the source of the data and limit its study on the analysis of reference markers. In his conclusion, he states that the utilization of reference, specifically demonstrative pronoun dominates the occurrences to show the sentences' links.

The use of grammatical cohesion in students’ writing is observed in many backgrounds such as Afriani (2018) in the Indonesian context. She depicts how cohesion is represented in students' argumentative texts. Employing a qualitative approach, she took 36 students as the research participants. She analyzed and concluded that reference is dominantly applied to construct cohesiveness in argumentative texts through writing tests. She suggests that students' should increase their awareness in writing text and the teacher provides motivation and exercise in using cohesion for students. Abbas, Mohd. In the Iraqi context, Yasin, & Ismail (2016) depict the effects of Arabic language as students' L1 on grammatical cohesion. Quantitatively, by involving 90 students as the sample, they distribute the questionnaire to see how students' L1 affects the use of cohesion in their argumentative essay. This study concludes that students can use grammatical cohesion appropriately in their final essay. This study recommends seeing the implementation of grammatical cohesion in spoken discourse.

Daniels & Kwabena (2016) took different participant in their research, namely teacher trainee's argumentative essay in Ghana. This research was done qualitatively by analyzing one hundred essays. Their findings reveal that reference and conjunction were used to realize cohesive participants' essays. An & Xu (2018) explores the trainees' conjunctive adverbials in graduate students' writing. By observing corpus data of 365 essays and through AntConc software's help, they found out that additive and sequential (temporal) types dominate the realization of grammatical cohesion in texts. Those studies took the different focus of the research from this study, so this study is still relevant and essential to be done to bring the significance both theoretically and practically.

2.4. Research Question

The fact stated in the literature review leads the researchers to further explore the use of conjunction in the introduction part of the thesis of English department student at Universitas Sumatera Utara. The research question is formulated as the following.

1) How are conjunctive markers as part of grammatical cohesion realized in the introduction part of the thesis of English department students at Universitas Sumatera Utara?

3. Method

Content analysis by using qualitative and quantitative approaches was chosen as the research design in this study. The writers selected the background part in the introduction as the source of the data. The sources of the data were 82 theses, and those were selected based on some requirements. One of the criteria is the thesis were published from 2017-2019 and covers both linguistic and literature topic. Then, the background's total words are 500 words or higher, and it is checked after the thesis was converted into plain text.

The data in this study were clauses since it is centrally based on the SFL perspective. To obtain the data, the researchers visited the English department library of USU to check the data availability. Then, the researchers downloaded the theses based on the list arranged purposively after checking the thesis manually.

In data analysis, the researchers converted the pdf files of these downloaded from repository.usu.ac.id into plain text. The name of the authors remains confidential. This process is essential before being processed and analyzed using AntCont software to find the exact words (concordance) and their data occurrences. The analysis was based on the category of conjunctive markers proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), namely additive, adversative, causal, and temporal types. The researchers used the tools in AntConc to see the occurrences of each category. The data were coded and tabulated quantitatively in order to find out the predominant type of conjunction. The final stage in analyzing the data is the researchers made inferences and conclusions based on the analysis.

4. Results & Discussion

4.1. Results

The cohesive device of conjunction refers to how the writers create and express a logical relationship between the text's parts (Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Conjunctive relation is a part of cohesion that links sentences together. This research is intended to analyze and compare the conjunctive relation in academic writing written by female and male authors. There are four main types of conjunctive relations, i.e., additive, adversative, causal, and temporal (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), and its realization in data can be observed in table 1.

Table 1. The types of Conjunctive Relation in Academic writing

No.		Types of Conjunctive Relation	Frequency	Percentage	∑	Percentage
1		**Additive**				
	a)	Simple additive relation	**4004**	**62.43%**		
	b)	Complex additive relations	**59**	**0.92%**		
	c)	Complex additive relations (internal): de-emphatic	**0**	**0**	**4258**	**66.41%**
	d)	Comparative relations (internal)	**18**	**0.3%**		
	e)	Appositive relations (internal)	**177**	**2.76%**		
2		**Adversative Type**				
	a)	Adversative relations "proper" (in spite of) (external and internal)	**540**	**8.42%**		
	b)	Contrastive relations ("as against")(external)	**8**	**0.19%**		
	c)	Contrastive relations ("as against‟)(internal)	**53**	**0.83%**	**652**	**10,23%**
	d)	Corrective relations(„not...but‟) (internal)	**40**	**0.62%**		
	e)	Dismissive(generalized adversative) relations („no matter..., still‟)(external and internal)	**11**	**0.17%**		
3		**Causal Type**				
	a)	Causal relations, general(„because...,so‟) (external and internal)	**351**	**5.47%**		
	b)	Causal relations, specific	**14**	**0.22%**		
	c)	Reversed causal relations	**985**	**15.36%**	**1370**	**21,36%**
	d)	Conditional relations („if..., then‟) (external and internal)	**15**	**0.23%**		
	e)	Respective relations ("with respect to") (internal)	**5**	**0.08%**		
4		**Temporal Type**				
	a)	Simple temporal relations (external)	**26**	**0.41%**		
	b)	Complex temporal relations (external)	**97**	**1.51%**		
	c)	Conclusive relations (external)	**26**	**0.41%**		
	d)	Sequential and conclusive relations (external): correlative forms	**35**	**0.54%**	**203**	**3.16%**
	e)	Temporal relations (internal)	**0**	**0%**		
	f)	Temporal relations (internal): correlative forms	**5**	**0.07%**		

g)	“Here and now” relations (internal)	**1**	**0,02%**		
h)	Summary relations (internal)	**13**	**0.20%**		
	Total			**6414**	**`100%**

Table 1 shows that conjunctive relation occurs 6414 times in four different types in 82 academic writings of USU's students. Table 1 shows that the students frequently use additive type, which occurs 4256 ties or 64,41% from the total collected data.

1) Additive

Additive relation shows that text gives additional information. The additive relation function links one clause with another clause to add information linked with the previous one. Under the heading additive type, the conjunction form used by students mostly categorized as simple additive relation with 62.43%, which is expressed by ***"and," "and also," "and too*."**

a) Simple additive relation shows by the use of conjunction *and, and also, and…too, nor, not either, neither, or, or else.*

   e.g.

   - .. in accordance with Learning-centered Approaches. **And** as its object of study are the active students of English Department at University of Sumatera Utara … (data 13)
   - … one child in his family which has **neither** brothers **nor** sisters. (data 70)
   - … keep silent than publish their feeling, ideas **or** argument to the public. (data 03)

b) Complex additive relations (internal) emphatic shows by using conjunction *further(more), moreover, besides that, besides, alternatively.*

   e.g.

   - … protest against the idea of male-domination. **Furthermore**, feminism also happens in a relationship… (data 44)
   - … make foreign text to the target reader. **Moreover,** it tends to impose the source language … (data 82)

c) Complex additive relation (internal): de-emphatic shows by the use of conjunction *incidentally, by the way.* In the collected data, this kind of additive conjunction is not found.

d) Comparative relation shows by the use of conjunction *likewise, similarly, on the other hand.*

e.g.

- … make sense of the world around us. **Likewise**, none of us are born believers, but… (data 42)
- … figurative forms of speech, and the like. **On the other hand**, songs are mostly appreciated… (data 02)

e) Appositive relations shows by the use of conjunction *that is, I mean, in other words, for instance, for example,*

e.g.

- … of language in which mostly uses English. **For instance,** in an educational system, there are… (data 61)
- … of the others to cause a change. **For example,** a man said, can you… (data 18)

2) Adversative

Adversative means contrary to expectation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), showing contrastive and dismissal in communication. The adversative type of conjunctive relations found 10.23% of the data, which expressed in the form of simple adversative relations 'proper' (external and internal), conservative relation (external and internal), corrective relation, and dismissive relation. This kind of conjunctive relations expressed by the words **"only," "yet," "though," "however," "actually," "instead,"** which function to show there is a contrasting idea of an expectation with the previous statement.

a) Adversative relations "proper" (in spite of) external and internal shows by the use of conjunction *yet, though, only, but all the same.*

e.g.

- …well because it will demean his pride. **Nevertheless,** Anne and her younger sister, Mary Elliot… (data 17)
- …access to the legal benefits of marriage. **Though** certain rights can be replicated by legal… (data 22)

b) Contrastive relation ("as against") (external) shows by the use of conjunction *at the same time, as against that.*

e.g.

- …express their ideas and feelings, and it, at the same time, helps us to understand… (data 77)

c) Contrastive relations ("as against") (internal) shows by the use of the conjunction.
e.g.
- …applied to be spoken and written language; **in fact**, to any sample of language, it… (data 46)
- …lead to conflict between individuals or groups. **Actually**, the discrimination comes from people who have… (data 29)

d) Corrective relations show by the use of conjunction *instead, at least, rather.*
e.g.
- …in particular religion, death will bring profit. **Instead** of considering death as the end of… (data 24)
- …smoother reading with the term local restaurant **rather than** with restoran Padang. (data 82)

e) Dismissive (generalized adversative) relation shows by the use of conjunction *in any case, in any case, any other.*
e.g.
- …a lot of money take precedence **in any case**. And being poor or middle class… (data 49)
- …found in spoken language, which is realized **in either** monologues or dialogues. (data 56)

3) Causal

Causal relation shows the relation of result, reason, purpose, and conditional relation. The Causal type of conjunctive relations found 1370 or 21.36% of the data which occur on form as causal relation both general and specific reversed causal relation, conditional relation, and respective relation. The causal type expressed by the words **“so”, “thus”, “therefore”, “hence”, “consequently”, “for this reason”, and “as a result”**. This type of conjunctive relation function shows that a sentence is an effect of the previous sentences.

a) Causal relations, general shows by the use of conjunction *so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, because of*
e.g.

- …do not maximally deliver to the audiences. **Hence**, for the importance of the achievement of… (data 8)
- The police come and dissolve the party. **Consequently**, Melinda is shunned by her friends, even… (data 32)

b) Causal relation specific shows by the use of conjunction *for this reason, as a result.*

e.g.

- …lectures must be done gradually and maximally**. For this reason**, USU needs to improve by… (data 72)
- …jealously guarding themselves against rejection. **As a result** of this sexual abuse, the… (data 52)

c) Reversed causal relation shows by the use of conjunction *for, because*

e.g.

- …in a process, the process of communication. **For** Austin (1962) points out, we must consider the… (data 18)
- …length of an anticipated interruption to speech. **Because** by doing that, they will attract people… (data 81)

d) Conditional relation shows by the use of conjunction *then, in such a, otherwise.*

e.g

- …sounds are organized and used in naturally. **Then**, a child need to learn to group… (data 26)
- …authorities, as well as greeting their people. **Otherwise**, there is a president from X country (data 25)

e) Respective relation shows by the use of conjunction *here.*

e.g.

- …branch pragmatic is context-dependent). **Here**, the significance and understanding the fact of… (data 18)

4) Temporal

Temporalis least found in academic writing as it occurs 3.16% of the total data, which appears in the form of both simple and complex temporal, conclusive relation, sequential relation, here-and-now relation, and summary relation. This conjunctive is recognized by the words **"next," "afterward," "subsequently," "previously," "later," "this time," etc**etera, which function to show that a sentence has related sequentially, subsequently, and chronologically to another sentence. Temporal conjunction is applicable to see the related events dealing with the occurrences' timing (Rochma & Triyono, 2019).

a) Simple temporal conjunction shows by using conjunction *next, afterward, after that, subsequently, simultaneously, earlier, previously.*

   e.g., understood in order to teach it and **subsequently,** evaluate it before integrating it with phonology (data 45)

   *e.*g., **After that**, the translator can choose to use which ideology in translation, foreignization or domestication. (data 48)

b) Complex temporal relation shows by using conjunction *on which, soon, presently, later, after.*

   e.g., **Later** in 2019, in terms of narrative text, Zein et al. conducted the research deals with the incomplete structure of narrative text….. (data 50)

c) Conclusive relation shows by the use of conjunction *finally, at last, in the end, eventually.*

   *e.g.***, Finally**, blended learning is expected to be effective (data 72)

d) Sequential relation shows by the use of conjunction *first, second, firstly*

   *e.g.***, Firstly**, it is the urgent phenomena discussing (data 76)

e) Temporal relation (internal) shows by the use of conjunction *as a final point*

f) Temporal relation (internal): correlative forms show by the use of the conjunction, *to begin with, to conclude with*

g) "Here and now" relation shows by using conjunction *up to now, at this point,* and *henceforward.*

   *e.g.***, At this point,** he acknowledges the dark line **(**data 52)

h) Summary relations (internal) show by using conjunction *briefly, in short, anyway.*

   *e.g.***, In short**, lexical ambiguity found in a word (data 62)

   e.g., **Briefly**, the translated text must consider the source text and the target text (Data 66)

4.2. Discussion

Cohesion provides the relation between text and its meaning (Daniels & Kwabena, 2016). Various cohesive devices are considered one of the critical characteristics of good writing (Abbas et al., 2016) even though linguistic features, concordance, and tenses have their roles in constructing good writing. The data found that students in their theses utilized those four categories of grammatical cohesion.

Conjunctive markers with additive type become the dominant one compared to other types Al-Khalidy (2018) found out that additive conjunctions were the most frequent conjunctions followed by adversative conjunctions and then, causal and finally the least occurrences were for temporal conjunctions. It means that the students give additional information in their clauses. Similarly, Afriani (2018) claims that the representation of additive conjunction can be interpreted, as students tend to provide an additional argument to support their claims rather than provide a contradictory argument. It is reasonable since, at the final stage, their theses will be examined in the thesis defense stage by examiners, and facts or reasons must support each claim. This way can be realized by providing or utilizing additive conjunction, as exemplified below.

"Translation is a process to transfer the meaning, **and** it needs proper attention from the translator."

The findings also oppose the previous studies. This finding is radically different from research conducted by Rochma & Triyono (2019). They reveal that causal conjunction dominates the conjunctive markers' occurrences in the introduction part of a research article. They argue that it is possible to happen in showing the cause and effect relationship of a certain problem in the introduction part. Other different finding is also revealed by An & Xu (2018) in their study that shows temporal (sequential) conjunctive markers becomes the dominant one in obtaining text cohesiveness. They add in their conclusion that this is caused by the lack of students' knowledge in constructing discourse.

The clauses, containing conjunctive markers *"and"* as additive type, bridge clauses with interdependency relationship called parataxis. Referring to taxis and logico-semantic relations, it can be seen that in the thesis, the students dominantly use a paratactic extension or particular extension as presented in the following clauses. It means the clauses are linked by that marker having equal status. The categorization of the logico-semantic relation is an extension. Then, the analysis presents that the students repetitively use the word **"and,"** which additive type of conjunction and less use the chronological sequence style of writing as the occurrences of temporal type is only 203 or 3.16% of the total data. The result also shows that the writers tend to use **"but"** in showing a contrasting idea in the sentences as it occurs 211 or 4.17% of the adversative type of conjunctive relation (10.23%) as the following example.

"There are many researchers who have conducted researches in semiotics, **but** only a few focused in the silent comic that the writer explores."

The findings of the study have pedagogical implementation for teaching writing in the English department of USU. The findings tend to use conjunctive additive markers "and" to show additional information and "*but*" to show the contradictory fact. Therefore, it is suggested that the lecturers give more materials, practices, and feedback to the students in conjunction. Then, the students need to be aware of using conjunction since the inappropriate use of conjunction affects the quality of the ideas delivered to the readers.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

Concerning the findings, the conclusion can be drawn that four categories of conjunctive markers appear in the data as one of the cohesiveness characteristics. Then, out of 4 categories, the additive type's conjunctive marker becomes the dominant one totaling 66.41% and successively followed by causal, adversative, and temporal type. It also indicates that clauses written by students in the introduction part dominantly complete each other.

This study is limited to the introduction part of the thesis, and there is no division or categorization based on the students' achievement, such as high, middle, and low achievement. Therefore, for further research, it is suggested to observe other parts such as literature review, discussion, or conclusion to see the cohesiveness built by the writers. The other point that can be explored is based on the research's focus, whether it is linguistic or literature category, or it can be done through interdisciplinary comparison such as linguistic vs. computer science, linguistic vs. health studies, etcetera. Other research can then be done to compare the employment of cohesive devices in academic articles written by undergraduate and graduate students.

6. Pedagogical Implementation

This study has a pedagogical implementation. Students are suggested to enhance their awareness and enrich their understanding related to the function of the conjunction in building text cohesiveness in writing the thesis as a final project. Meanwhile, it is suggested for teachers to provide exercises and feedback related to conjunctive markers and other categories of cohesive markers so that the students know how to achieve text cohesiveness. This feedback is beneficial for the betterment of the thesis (Musyarofah, Setiawan, & Maru, 2021) and minimizes conjunctive markers' errors or unsuitability.

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The Impact of Personality (Extrovert/Introvert) on University EFL Learners' Speaking Achievement

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of personality traits (extrovert and introvert) on speaking achievement of university English as foreign language (EFL) learners in Indonesia. Therefore, quantitative research approach was apllied in conducting the research. Accordingly, University EFL learners were asked to take the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) Personality Test. From the test, 40 extrovert and 40 introvert university EFL learners were identified and selected as the research samples. The study compared their speaking performance on speaking test. Marks of the speaking test were given based on four categories, which are vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and task fulfilment. The collected data were analyzed by using independent sample t-test in Statistical Package in Social Science. The results show that there was no significant difference between extrovert and introvert university EFL learners with regard to their ability in speaking skill. In addition, there were no significant difference on the aspects of task fulfilment, vocabulary and grammar. However, there was significant difference on the aspect of fluency. Bsed on these results, both extrovert and introvert university EFL learners actually have an equal opportunity to be proficient in their speaking skill, but introvert learners must give more attention to fluency.

Keywords: *introversion, extroversion, speaking skill, MBTI Personality Test, EFL learners*

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of Study

English has long been known as a global lingua franca (Marlina & Xu, 2018), which means a language used to communicate by people who do not share the same mother tongue. In academic, where students come from different parts of the world, English has remained as the lingua franca and will remain so in the future (Mauranen, 2003). As a result of this medium of communication, people of the academic world are required to master the four language skills, namely speaking, writing, reading and listening (Alhadiah, 2021). Among these four language skills, speaking is one of the most important skills that need to be mastered by the students. Being able to communicate verbally is vital to be academically successful due to the fact that they need to be engaged orally during lessons.

According to Myers-Briggs (1998), extraversion and introversion is a pair of personality types that associate with the direction of energy. The first one is characterised by being very talkative. The second one is characterised by being more reserved and shy. These traits affect our behaviour and our ability to communicate effectively. It has been found that people who have a high level of extraversion tend to be more outgoing.

Personality traits are considered as a major factor in speaking abilities of an individual. Personality, defined psychologically, is the collection of enduring behavioural and psychological traits that differentiate between particular humans (Sab, 2001). Research was done in abundance on the impact of personality on academic achievement since decades ago such as (De Feyter, et. al., 2012; Komarraju, et. al., 2011; and Vedel, et. al., 2014). Only until recent years that researchers are starting to look into the role of personality in specific subject achievement, quite similar to the present study. According to Richard & Rendaya (2002), various factors affect ESL/EFL learners' speaking performance such as age, aural medium, sociocultural factors, and lastly affective factors. In this case the affective factors can be coming from learners' personality.

Consequently, according to Jung (1971) there are a total of six types of personality. However, extroversion and introversion are closely related to education as they are related to behaviour and long-term and short-term memory. He claims that extrovert is the type of people whose thoughts are focused outside himself/herself. On contrary, introvert belongs to people whose thoughts are fixated on themselves.

Brown claims “extroversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communication competence which requires face to face interaction but not listening, reading, and writing” (2000). Soleimani and Daryabari (2010) and Lestari et al. (2013) concluded that introverts like to read and write rather than to talk and show up to meetings and gatherings.

1.2. Problem Statement

Language learners often find speaking skill is the hardest to learn. The particular reason for the circumstance is that they need to be fluent in the targeted language. Fluency is not something to be learned, but it is something to be acquired in view of the fact that fluency can be connected to cognitive processing (Wood, 2001). Acquiring fluency in any languages takes time and effort. Educators and academicians have been doing research on what is the best way to teach speaking skill to language learners, and they still do (Freed, 1995; Riggenbach, 1999; Hausen & Kuiken, 2009). Educators and linguists have been debating whether personality of learners affects their language proficiency. This issue is not novel. However, an indefinite trend is shown throughout the studies done previously.

The findings of the study in the area of EFL skills especially speaking ability pertaining to their personality of extraversion/introversion are not adequately indisputable. The results, on top of that, are mixed. Some studies resulted in personality traits have significant impact on learners speaking achievement (Naiman et. al, 1978; Krashen, 1981; Skehan, 1989), and some do not (Aziz, 2010; Chen et. al., 2015; Uzer, 2017; Samand et al., 2019). Ergo, the current study will add more findings and literature to the subject matter.

It is also vital to know if there are correlation between speaking achievement and learners’ personality to assume that their speaking achievement equivalents to their speaking proficiency. Hence, this study explored the role of personality (exrovert and introvert) on university EFL Learners. By doing the research, it shall present findings that can help educators and academicians in determining the factors of university EFL learners’ proficiency specifically speaking achievement. In addition, the current study correspondingly aims to add literature on the impact of personality towards speaking achievement in relation to university EFL learners. From the results of the study, academicians can provide more effective methods in teaching speaking.

1.3. Research questions

The present study would find out the answers to the following research questions;

1) Is there a significant difference between extroverted and introverted tertiary ESOL learners in speaking achievement?
2) Is there a significant difference between extrovert and introvert ESOL learners' speaking achievement particularly in each item of a speaking rubric?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Speaking Skills among EFL Learners

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning is an academic course taught in schools and higher education institutions that greatly involves speaking, oral presentations and communication in group work have done in English language. Speaking skill is considered to be the most important skill in any languages yet it is also regarded as the most difficult skill to be acquired. Language learners discover that it is challenging to express idea using second or foreign language especially in classrooms. Regardless of this problem, language learners believe they have acquired the targeted language when they are fluent in using the language orally (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017).

Apart from linguistic components such as syntax and semantics, Mahripah (2014) claims that psychological factors affect ESL/EFL learners' speaking skills. The psychological factors mentioned were personality, specifically extroversion and introversion.

2.2. Extroversion/Introversion and Second Language (L2) Acquisition

Personality traits play significant impact in language proficiencies. Extroversion and introversion are two personality traits that commonly linked to language abilities. The concept of personality traits first comes from psychology discipline. Extroversion is said to be a character of outgoing and over-talkative people, while the opposite is the character of introversion. Statements like "*I have an extensive circle of friends and am acquaintance to many*" or "*I sometimes join too quickly into an activity and don't think through it too deeply*" are traits of extroverts. Some claimed that extroversion is the character of many Westerners and introversion is the character of Easterners (Yip, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Even though this has not been properly studied, the Westerners have been known to express themselves freely whereas the Easterners are more reserved. Apart from the personality traits, this could be another hindrance to ESL and EFL learners.

Extroversion is often associated with cheerfulness, friendly, engaging and talkativeness. Extroverts also incline to reach out to social encouragement and chances to engage with other people (McCabe & Fleeson, 2012), they like to be in the company of others. From these characters, we can see clearly that extroverts have little to no problems in communicating with others.

Introverts on the other hand, are more quiet and more relaxed focusing on their inner attentions and ideas, rather than what's happening externally. They prefer subdued and solitary experiences. However, many are mistaken introversions with shyness but they enjoy one-on-one interaction in calm environments.

Linguists have long believed that extroverts have better opportunities in acquiring languages due to their openness and the tendencies to communicate traits (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Skehan, 1989). Krashen (1981) also agreed that "outgoingness", which belongs to extroverts, is a helpful factor in acquiring language. Marzieh et al. (2014) explained further that extroverts are mentally more easily subdued. This actively demonstrates that they are more vulnerable to mental interval hence do not have as much mental attentiveness as introverts do. This is the main reason why language learners who are extroverts do not mind engaging themselves in speaking activities compared to introvert language learners. The introverts would overthink and making them aware of the possibilities of the mistakes that they would commit, hence hinder the talking. With more practices resulted in more input and success in acquiring L2 for extrovert learners. On the contrary, there is another hypothesis which is introverts will be more successful in building cognitive academic language skill. The reason behind this hypothesis is that introvert learners appreciate academic success since they enjoy reading and writing (Savage, 1966, cited by Handley, 1973; Ellis, 1994).

2.3. Past studies

There were countless researches on the relationship of personality types (extrovert/introvert) and speaking skill. However, the results are varied. Rofi'i (2017) did a study on comparative analysis on introvert and extrovert learners towards speaking skill. Extrovert students were given role-play situations and were paired with introvert students. The criteria that were evaluated were accent, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension and fluency. It is found out that extrovert students scored on fluency, accent and vocabulary while the introverts scored on grammar and comprehension. The findings agree to the theory of extroverts are better in oral skills; fluency and accent. (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Krashen, 1981; Skehan, 1989) and introverts are in cognitive skills, which are grammar and comprehension (Savage, 1966, cited by Handley, 1973; Ellis, 1994).

Additionally, Cao and Meng (2020) conducted a study on personality and its impact on English achievement among Chinese university students. Even though the study did not focus solely on speaking achievement, Cao and Meng agreed that learning language required speaking and communicating in target language greatly. Thus, having extrovert personality means having low second language or foreign language anxiety.

On the other hand, Samand et al. (2019) also did a study on the association of extrovert and introvert students with their speaking achievement. The findings disclosed that there was no connection between personality and speaking performance. The same findings were found in studies by Aziz (2010) Chen et. al (2015) and Uzer (2017). Aziz (2010) concluded that educators can develop and assign speaking assessment without any worries of the students' personality types. Personality types do not help nor hinder oral performance. Uzer concluded that even though personality gives minor impact to the students' speaking achievements, extroverts, in the long run, can benefit the most since they are comfortable to speak and to be around others (2017).

Accordingly, based on previous studies done on the impact of personality on language achievements, hypothesis of the present study is formulated as follows;

H_{o1}: There is no significant difference between the extrovert and introvert university EFL learners' speaking achievement.

H_{a1}: There is significant difference between the extrovert and introvert university EFL learners' speaking achievement.

H_{o2}: There is no significant difference between the extrovert and introvert university EFL learners' speaking achievement particularly in each item of a speaking rubric.

H_{a2}: There is significant difference between the extrovert and introvert university EFL learners' speaking achievement particularly in each item of a speaking rubric.

3. Research Methodology

This recent tudy used quantitative research approach and the research method. This approach is suitable to this research because the objective of this study was to examine the difference between the mean score of extrovert and introvert unicersity EFL learners' speaking achievements and to measure whether the difference is substantial or not.

3.1. Participants

Stratified random sampling technique was applied to select the samples. After the personality test, samples were divided into two groups (extrovert and introvert). The reason for using stratified random sampling is to make this study as representatively as it can and by using this technique, everyone has a chance to be the sample. A total of 240 first year university EFL students at Universitas Negeri Medan, Indonesia from various disciplines were asked to take the Myers-Briggs Personality Test. 40-extrovert and 40-introvert university EFL learners were selected as the samples of this recent study.

3.2. Instruments and Research Procedure

A test was done to identify the personality of the learners. There are 70 questions in the Myers-Briggs Type Indicators (MBTI) personality test, where each answer provides two answer-options. MBTI personality traits questionnaire measured the students' personality on extroversion or introversion. The questions, which relate to examining the respondents whether they are extrovert or introvert (E/I), are number 1, 8, 15, 22, 29, 36, 43, 50, 57 and 64. Although the questions for E/I were only ten (10) questions, these questions could not be separated from the others questions because this questionnaire was united because the other questions only want to classify what kinds of E/I the respondents are. Researchers have shown that The Myers-Briggs Personality Test is reliable and has been widely used in past studies (Carrell, 1995; Wakamoto, 2007; Sanjaya et. al, 2015).

Then, these university EFL learners undergone speaking test. The purpose of the test is to examine their speaking skill in expressing their idea or opinion. There were three questions in which each learner was asked to answer only one question randomly. The three questions are: 1) who is your favourite person in the whole world? 2) What do you think of online learning? 3) Where is your dream travel destination? Each learner was given one minute to prepare for his/her answer. The maximum duration of the speaking test was five minutes.

Moreover, the speaking test was recorded for further analysis. The students were evaluated based on a speaking test rubric. And the criteria of the rubric are task fulfilment, vocabulary, grammar and fluency. The scoring for each criterion in the rubric was also analysed to look at how these two types of learners perform in oral test. The scorings were then analysed by using independent sample *t-test*, which is commonly used to look at noteworthy difference between the means of two groups using *SPSS* version 23. According to de Winter (2013), *t-test* is suitable to be used when a study has comparative samples.

3.3. Reliability and Validity of the Speaking Test

The reliability of the speaking test was measured by using inter-rater reliability using two examiners. The examiners were two English lecturers. The first one was from University

College of Yayasan Pahang as the first examiner and the second one was Universitas Negeri Medan, Indonesia. The result shows that there is no great discrepancy among the score mean of students' speaking from the first to the second result, the result of the inter-rater reliability (IRR) or Kappa on the students' writing score is 0.74 (reliable: between 06 and 0.79)

Two English lecturers (one form Universitas Negeri Medan and other one from University College of Yayasan Pahang) who have been teaching speaking subjects for more than ten (10) years had examined the speaking tests. They have reviewed and evaluated many of the students speaking test. Therefore, the speaking test is intelligibly valid since two (2) experienced and qualified lecturers have examined the tests. They concluded that the test is relevant and valid as the tests ask the students' opinion/idea.

4. **Results and Discussion**

4.1. Results

As mentioned in the methodology section, after the samples took the Myers-Briggs Personality Test, they will have to participate in oral test. Speaking questions given to each sample were selected randomly. In order to find out whether or not learners' personality types weight their speaking achievement, the independent sample t-test in Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. There were two variables involved in this study; one independent variable (Students' Personality Type) and one dependent variable (English Speaking Achievement).

The result of the Myers-Briggs Personality Test;

Table 1: Personality Type of University EFL Learners

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Extrovert	109	45.42
	Introvert	83	34.58
	Neutral	48	20.00
	Total	240	100.00

Table 1 shows that a total of 240 first year ESOL students in Malaysia took the Myers-Briggs Personality Test. Out of 240 university EFL learners, the result of the personality test shows only 83 (34.58%) university EFL learners are introvert while there are 109 (45.42%) university EFL learners are extrovert. Furthermore, 40 extroverts and 40 introvert university

EFL learners were randomly chosen as the sample for this study. Moreover, the same speaking test was given to both extrovert and introvert university EFL leaners.

Table 2: *Descriptive Statistics for extrovert and introvert ESOL learners' speaking score*

	Personality Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total Marks	Extrovert	40	71.33	8.589	1.358
	Introvert	40	70.55	7.676	1.214

Table 2 portrays the values of mean, standard deviation together with standard error mean for extrovert and introvert groups on total score of speaking achievement. The mean of the total score of the extrovert university EFL learners is slightly higher by 0.78 than introvert learners.

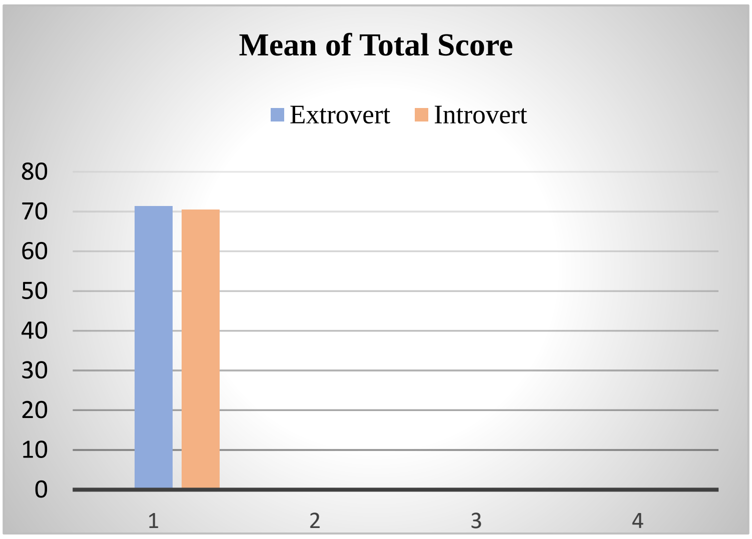

Figure 1: *The mean of the total score of extrovert and introvert ESL learners' speaking achievement*

Table 3: *Independent sample t-test for extrovert and introvert ESL learners' speaking score*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.004	.949	-1.842	78	.069

TOTAL MARKS	Equal variances not assumed	-1.842	77.18 0	.069

Table 3 indicates the independent sample t-test done on the disparity of personality type focusing on the total score of the speaking test. Independent t-test is frequently used to test the differences between the means of two groups. According to the table, the significance index of the Levene's statistic was .949, which means greater than .05 where it could be presumed that the two groups had equal variances. From this table as well, it can be settled that there was no significant difference ($p \geq 0.05$) between the mean scores of the two groups in their speaking test achievement since the 2-tailed score is 0.69 ($p=0.69$, $p \geq 0.05$).

Table 4: *Descriptive statistics of extrovert and introvert ESOL learners' speaking score per item*

	PERSONALITY TYPE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VOCABULARY	EXTROVERT	40	18.20	3.098	.490
	INTROVERT	40	18.38	2.628	.416
GRAMMAR	EXTROVERT	40	16.58	4.113	.650
	INTROVERT	40	17.63	3.578	.566
TASK FULFILMENT	EXTROVERT	40	18.83	2.591	.410
	INTROVERT	40	19.00	1.948	.308
FLUENCY	EXTROVERT	40	17.23	4.016	.635
	INTROVERT	40	15.55	3.551	.562

Table 4 similarly presents descriptive statistics for extrovert and introvert ESL learners' score as Table 2, yet shows the marks for each rubric item, namely vocabulary, grammar, task fulfilment and fluency. The introvert group scored higher than the extrovert group for all rubric item except for fluency. In terms of vocabulary, the mean score for the introvert group was higher by 0.18 than the extrovert group. The introvert learners also outperformed the extrovert in grammar by 1.05. In addition to that, the mean difference of task fulfilment is 0.17, where the introvert group scored higher. In contrast, the extrovert ESL learners outperformed the introvert learners solely in fluency. The mean difference of fluency between the two groups is 1.68, which is the highest of the mean difference compared to all four-rubric items.

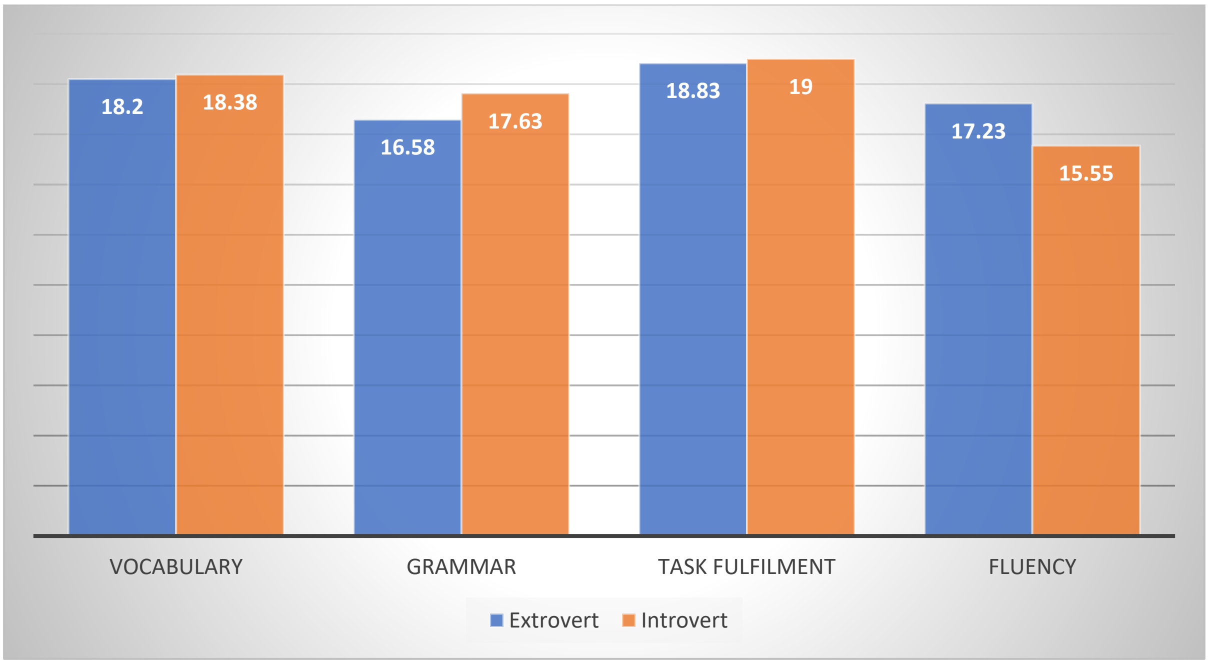

Figure 2: *The mean of extrovert and introvert ESOL learners' speaking score per item*

Table 5: *Independent sample t-test for extrovert and introvert ESOL learners' speaking score per item*

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Vocabulary	Equal variances assumed	.512	.476	-.272	78	.786
	Equal variances not assumed			-.272	75.978	.786
Grammar	Equal variances assumed	2.188	.143	-1.218	78	.227
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.218	76.534	.227
Task Fulfilment	Equal variances assumed	.634	.428	-.341	78	.734
	Equal variances not assumed			-.341	72.417	.734
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	2.240	.139	1.976	78	.05
	Equal variances not assumed			1.976	76.851	.05

While Table 3 portrays the independent sample t-test done on the disparity of personality type focusing on the total score of the speaking test, Table 5 signifies the items in speaking test rubric. There were no significant differences for vocabulary *(F=0.512,*

$p=0.785>0.05$), grammar *($F=2.188$, $p=0.227>0.05$)* and task fulfilment *($F=0.634$, $p=0.734>0.05$)*. However, there was significant difference for fluency ($F=2.240$, $p=0.05\leq0.05$). Both extrovert and introvert groups of learners have no impact of their personality on their speaking achievement in terms of cognitive tasks such as vocabulary, grammar and task fulfilment.

4.2. Discussion

Independent samples t-tests were applied in the analysis of the impact of personality (extrovert and introvert) on speaking achievement of university EFL learners. The results affirmed that extrovert and introvert university EFL learners were not significantly different in terms of their speaking achievement. Thus, the findings in this study are contrast with the findings of studies by Naiman et al. (1978), Krashen (1981), Skehan, (1989) and Rofi'I (2017) saying that extrovert learners perform better orally than introvert learners. The current study has the same results as the study done by Aziz (2010), Chen et al. (2015), and Samand et al. (2019). Similarly, the previous studies suggested that there was no significant correlation between personality and learners' speaking performance.

However, from the analysis of the present study, there was significant difference between the two groups of learners in terms of fluency in their speaking manner. Fluency, therefore elucidating the impression that due to the personality traits of the extrovert learners who are friendly and talkative, does not mind participating in conversations to practice the target language. Thus, since they practice more, they become more fluent compared to the introvert group.

Apart from fluency, grammar, vocabulary and task fulfilment, which are considered as cognitive skills, there were no significant differences between both groups. This denotes that extrovert and introvert learners are not much difference in their cognitive skills. Consequently, the findings from the current study is contradictive with the findings from past studies, such as Ellis (1994) proposed introvert learners are better in cognitive skills rather than their opposite group (extrovert). Therefore, both extrovert and introvert university EFL learners actually have the equal opportunity to perform better in speaking skill but introvert learners need more attention on fluency.

5. Conclusion

To sum up everything that has been stated, from the present study, it is found out that there is no significant difference between extrovert and introvert learners regarding their speaking performance. Hence, it is safe to say that personality does not affect oral achievement among university EFL learners. Even though there are many previous studies that concluded personality had some impacts on the learners speaking achievement, there are many external factors other than personality that affect their achievement specifically speaking skill.

The first one could be from the learners' motivation in achieving certain accomplishment in the target language. Motivation can result in lowering the affective filter that comes within the learners in achieving the desired success. Affective filters, according to Krashen (1986), can aid or hinder language learning. It is a make-believe wall, where the wall can block (filter) language acquisition. In this case, the introvert learners might have the same motivation as the extrovert learners.

Apart from motivation, anxiety can also affect speaking performance among ESL learners. The nature of speaking assessment, where it is normally done in impromptu situation, and the nature of a test itself, can make anyone anxious and nervous, let alone students. In principle, when feelings such as anxiety occur in any language activities – according to Krashen (1986) – deter language performance.

With that being said, External foactors that effect the ESL learners' speaking performances are still debatable and researchable. Therefore, it is suggested that for the exact purpose of future studies, analysis is done to include a survey regarding the external factors, which can contribute to their performance such as anxiety and motivation levels. Another suggestion is to conduct the analysis in the most natural environment such as group discussion where the students do not feel anxious or stressed out to accomplish good results due to the nature of the assessment.

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