DEBUNKING THE MYTHS OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKER TEACHERS: AN INTERVIEW WITH PROFESSOR MASAKI ODA

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Masaki Oda is a Professor of Applied Linguistics at Tamagawa University in Tokyo, Japan, specializing in Sociopolitical Aspects of Language Use. Prof. Oda got his PhD program from Georgetown University, where he also taught Japanese for several years. He returned to Japan in 1990 and began teaching EFL and training EFL teachers at Tamagawa University. He was the 2003 – 2004 Chair of the NNEST Caucus and is now the Director of Center for English as a Lingua Franca (CELF) at Tamagawa University and the AsiaTEFL Vice President. This interview highlights Professor Oda's experiences and opinions regarding NEST (Native English Speaker Teacher) and NNEST (Non-Native English Speaker Teacher). He attempts to raise awareness among the professionals that there should be no divide between NEST and NNEST in the ELT profession.

1. Prof. Masaki, could you start by telling us a little bit about your background? What attracted you to the field of English Language Teaching (ELT)?

   I was born and raised in Japan. I had been to Japanese schools until I went to the US for my MA in TESL/FL at St. Michael's College in 1984. To

tell the truth, I do not have any good memory of my English lessons at schools. However, I have always enjoyed hearing about foreign countries from my father who was a professional painter and had travelled all over the world. In addition, I was interested in operating an amateur radio when I was in the upper secondary school. I was not interested in languages in particular, but English was the language to enable me to know more about foreign countries. It was later in my undergraduate years when I began interested in teaching English to 'invite' more people to something that I enjoyed doing.

2. You were the 2003-2004 Chair of the Non-native English Speaker Teacher (NNEST) Caucus, one of the former leaders of the NNEST Caucus. Could you share any vivid memories from your experience as the 2003-2004 Chair of the NNEST Caucus?

   I still believe that the foundation of NNEST Caucus was a major footstep in the ELT profession. It certainly helped the people recognize that being a non-native speaker of English was not necessarily a disadvantage for us to teach English. As we had had strong leaders such as George Braine, Jun Liu and Paul Kei Matsuda before me, I only had to follow their footsteps as far as the administration was concerned. The difficulty was, however, the fact that TESOL was not really an 'international' but a North American organization. Even though I worked hard to fulfill my duty as the chair, some people criticized me for not attending TESOL's international conferences. So many US based members did not realize how difficult (both schedule and costs) it was for us to attend a conference held in North America during the term-time. I would also like to say that I was not satisfied with the name 'NNEST' Caucus because it created a NES-NNES dichotomy which still exists in the ELT profession. My standpoint has been that there should not be any distinction between NES and NNES in the ELT profession. These experiences have eventually led to my involvement in AsiaTEFL as well as the establishment of CELT at Tamagawa University which I will talk about later.

3. As a former leader of the NNEST Caucus, what improvements have you witnessed in the past 10 years? Is there anything more you would like to see?

Yes, the NNEST Caucus became an Interest Section. However, the entire profession should not be satisfied with it and stop making progress. I strongly believe that it is our long term goal to promote no distinction between NEST and NNEST in the ELT profession.

4. In 2014, as the Director of Center for English as a Lingua Franca (CELF) at Tamagawa University in Tokyo, Japan, you launched ELF (English as a lingua franca) program which is a campus wide program designed for Tamagawa University students (http://www.tamagawa.ac.jp/celf/about/). The ELF courses were first taught by instructors with nine different first languages coming from eleven different countries and offered to 1,000 first and second year students. What inspired you and your colleagues at the CELF to issue such policy?

   It was, and it is a challenging task. However, I was very fortunate that the President as well as the Executive Directors of Tamagawa University strongly supported my idea and gave me a green light when I had been appointed as the chair of the planning committee for reforming our university-wide English language program. As an EFL teacher, teacher trainer and applied linguist, my two decades of attempts to remove NEST-NNEST dichotomy from the ELT profession had not been successful as the dichotomy had already rooted deeply in the profession. What I decided to was, therefore, to build up an entirely new 'core' team including both so-called NESTs and NNESTs. It was very important to get rid of many of my colleagues' misbeliefs as though I had been Anti-NEST. With the help of the team, we decided our hiring criteria for instructors. In addition to the university's general requirements including experiences in teaching and research, our teachers are required to possess 1) an MA in ELT/TESOL/Applied Linguistics, 2) Experience in learning at least one foreign language to advanced level. In addition, we decided to remind the applicants that we would NOT consider whether an applicant is a native speaker or not. In the beginning, we received inquiries from NNESTs if they were really able to apply. A few months later, we began receiving applications from highly qualified professionals who were neither Japanese nationals nor NESTs. I believe that it was a very important moment in Japan as many of them had not even had a chance to apply for

English language teaching positions. As a result, we were able to hire teachers with 11 different first languages and the number of first languages will go up to 18 in 2016. We had originally expected some negative reactions from the students as they had little exposure to some varieties of English. However, the students have appreciated the diversity very much according to the results of the course evaluation. In contrast, it was faculty members (particularly English teachers outside CELF) as well as parents who are still struggling to accept the diversity of the teachers and that of English used by them.

5. You are also one of the current AsiaTEFL Vice President. So far have you witnessed more equality between NESTs and NNESTs in EFL countries in Asia such as in Japan or Indonesia? What could or should AsiaTEFL and other professional ELT organizations do to address the voices of English teachers? What could or should they do to empower both the NESTs and NNESTs and to diminish the divide between the two groups?

   AsiaTEFL is a good example of where English is used as a lingua franca. While there are a few executive council members whose first language is English, the majority of officers as well as general members have acquired English as a second or a foreign language. However, I have rarely felt an existence of NES-NNES dichotomy in the organization. This is a big difference from my experience with TESOL in which so-called native speakers (particularly from North America) were always in the center of ELT by default, and most of us who are NESs from outside North America were treated as peripheral. Unfortunately, this is also the case in the ELT profession in most of the Asian countries. What professional ELT organizations can contribute is to raise awareness among the professionals in the region that NES – NNES dichotomy is no longer necessary. One's background in training and experience in language teaching are more important than being a native speaker of English. This is the direction that AsiaTEFL, in-cooperation with national organizations such as TEFLIN or JACET should follow.

6. What advice would you give to teachers who are interested on NEST and NNEST issues? What other areas of these issues do you think need further research?

If I express in a single word, it is 'Reflection'. We all have to reflect what is going on. It is very important for us to share information with teachers and researchers in the regions with similar situations, e.g., Indonesia and Japan, in which English is taught as a foreign language. In order to develop a background for the approach, I would recommend you to read Adrian Holliday's (2005) *The Struggle to Teach English as an International Language*, Barbara Seidlhofer's (2011), *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*, both of which are published by Oxford University Press, before reading on specific cases such as those in Stephanie Ann Houghton and Damian Rivers, eds. (2013) Native-Speakerism in Japan, or Aya Matsuda, ed. (2012) *Principles and Practices of Teaching English as an International Language*, both of which are published by Multilingual Matters.

7. You have presented and attended some conferences in Indonesia including the 60th TEFLIN International Conference in Jakarta, the 61st TEFLIN Conference in Solo and the 62nd TEFLIN Conference in Denpasar. What inspired you to attend TEFLIN conferences?

   A few years ago, I joined a wonderful *Facebook* group *Teacher Voices* moderated by Dr. Willy Renandya (http://www.facebook.com/groups/teachervoices/). The group has been an excellent source for my own development as a teacher and a researcher. I particularly enjoy exchanging information with many Indonesian colleagues, and often realize that some issues of ELT we are suffering from are not unique to Japan, and thus we can work together a lot. I always enjoy meeting my *Teacher Voices* friends in Indonesia in person at TEFLIN conferences. I also have two personal reasons that I feel attached to Indonesia. In my secondary school days, I used to operate amateur radio. I made many friends in different parts of Indonesia and it was my routine at that time that I put a pin on the map so that I knew the location of the people I talked to on the radio. In addition, I shared a house with someone from Surabaya and Selangor, Malaysia when I first went to the U.S. for my MA. This is why I always miss Indonesia and especially its *sambal* very much.

8. Professionally, I am impressed by your different roles: professor, director, vice president, writer, and reviewer. Have you ever thought or wished you would have gone this far? What inspires and motivates you in your career?

   I often feel that I need 50 to 100 hours a day. But I strongly believe that everything is related, and thus we all need to learn how to maximize the benefits from unique experiences each person has to what we do. No matter which of the above roles I play at a particular time, I try to build myself as a language teaching professional who can contribute to the field as much as I can.

9. Thank you for this inspiring interview. Hope to see you next year in Surabaya for the 63rd TEFLIN Conference.

   Yes. I am looking forward to attending another TEFLIN conference and share ideas with my Indonesian colleagues.

PRACTITIONER OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING AS PART OF NOVICE TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

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Abstract: This paper identifies challenges that English as a foreign language (EFL) novice teachers in Indonesia may face in developing a professional identity, which, in this paper, refers to becoming a practitioner of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning is a mandated teaching method both in the 2006 and 2013 Indonesian curriculum, and is under the umbrella of Communicative Language Teaching approach that has been adopted by English instruction in Indonesia since 1980s. This approach stresses interaction between language learners and the use of the target language in this interaction. Drawing on four related theories of development of selves (Wenger's Concepts of Community of Practice, Lave and Wenger's Concepts of Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation, Gee's Sociocultural Views of Identity, and Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, and Cain's Concepts of Identity and Agency in Cultural Worlds), four challenges to the development of the target professional identity are identified: (1) the unavailability of community of cooperative learning practitioners, (2) hegemony vs. identity development, (3) agency in the midst of tensions, and (4) institutional identity vs. professional identity. These interconnected and overlapping challenges suggest novice EFL teachers to possess agency to attain the target identity and suggest teacher education programs to equip their student teachers with knowledge and skills of teacher identity development and agency.

Keywords: EFL, cooperative learning, practitioner of cooperative learning, novice teachers, professional identity

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This conceptual analysis paper proposes the notion of practitioner of cooperative learning as part of novice teachers' professional identity and discusses challenges that may be faced by these teachers, particularly in the context of English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction in Indonesia, in developing the target identity. Before doing so, with my intent to provide a rationale for why these areas call for our attention, I will first discuss in this section existing studies on teacher identity development and agency in English teacher education programs. Next, key terms— teacher professional identity and cooperative learning—are introduced. I will then talk about the position of cooperative learning in Indonesian curriculum and EFL instruction, especially with regard to the adoption of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and how the principles of this approach appear not to be enacted in Indonesian EFL classrooms.

A number of studies have indicated the need for the inclusion of teacher identity development in teacher education. Kanno and Stuart (2011) studied two graduate students in a master's program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at an American university as they taught their own English as a second language (ESL) classes. Their study demonstrates the intertwined relationship between novice teachers' identity development and their changing classroom practice. Based on their study, Kanno and Stuart argue for the need to include a deeper understanding of teacher identity development in the knowledge base of second language (L2) teacher education. They go on to state that knowledge acquisition is part of this identity development, not the other way around. In other words, the development of L2 teacher identity should be at the center of research and debates on L2 teacher education.

Xu (2012) conducted a 3-year longitudinal case study of the transformation of the professional identities of four teachers of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) in China during their first years of teaching in K-12 schools. The study shows that the novices' professional identities changed from the initial imagined identities formed in the pre-service stage to the practiced identities constructed in the novice stage. The aforementioned researchers argue for the need to include a deeper understanding of teacher identity development in the knowledge base of L2 teacher education and suggest that perseverance and agency be instilled in novice teachers' development. In sum, the two studies demonstrate the necessity for teacher education programs to include knowledge on teacher identity development and agency in their curriculum to

better prepare their graduates for challenges in the early stages and throughout their profession.

Learning that there is a need for the inclusion of identity development and agency in the curriculum of teacher education programs, I am eager to see how these concepts help me to identify possible challenges faced by EFL novice teachers in the attainment of a professional identity, which in this paper refers to becoming a practitioner of cooperative learning. While I am also interested to study how EFL novice teachers in Indonesia develop their expertise in cooperative learning, this paper will focus more on how social interaction and the communities of teachers challenge the attainment of the target identity. It is toward gaining understanding of these challenges and how it would inform the inclusion of knowledge on teacher identity development and agency in teacher education programs that this paper is devoted.

This paper focuses on the identity development of EFL novice teachers in Indonesia as cooperative learning practitioners, positioning it as part of their professional identity. Leuhmann (2008) lends me a definition of teacher professional identity: "being recognized by self or others as a certain kind of teacher" (p. 293). In light of this definition, professional identity in this paper means being recognized by self and others as a kind of EFL teachers who practice cooperative learning. By practitioners, I mean teachers who: (1) understand and master the principles and instructional strategies (techniques) of cooperative learning, (2) implement these techniques in their instruction effectively, i.e., the implementation of cooperative learning that enhances their students' EFL learning, and (3) strive to make this teaching method as a common practice in their EFL teaching community. I limit the scope of the phrase "being recognized by others" to being recognized by other teachers within EFL teaching professional communities.

Kagan and High (2002) describe cooperative learning as a teaching method in which students work in groups and their social interaction in the group is structured to ensure positive interdependence, individual accountability, equal participation, and simultaneous interaction. Cooperative learning has been found beneficial across educational contexts, regardless of age of learners and content-area subjects (Slavin, 1995). It is a teaching method mandated by the Process Standard of Primary and Secondary Education, stipulated as the Decree of the Minister of National Education of the Republic of Indonesia Number 41 Year 2007 for the 2006 curriculum. This Standard mandates teachers to facilitate students' learning in three stages: opening, main, and closing. Cooperative

learning is mandated as one of the teaching methods to be implemented at the main stage of learning. It reads, "Teachers facilitate students in cooperative and collaborative learning" (Board of National Education Standards, 2007, p. 5). Although the most recent Process Standard (stipulated by the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture—previously known as the Minister of National Education—number 65 year 2013) does not explicitly mention cooperative learning, it underscores student-centered learning, active learning and learning in groups (Board of National Education Standards, 2013, p. 2). These learning concepts, as references suggest (e.g., Cohen, 1994; Keyser, 2000; Richards, 2002; Sharan, 2002), are some of the underlying concepts of CL. Above all, the Law Number 20 Year 2003 on the Indonesian Education System prescribes active learning to take place in our classrooms. Keeping the Decrees and the Law in mind, hence, it is a legitimate endeavor for teachers in Indonesia to aim at becoming and being recognized by other teachers as practitioners of cooperative learning, and making it part of their professional identity. Moreover, as cooperative learning is a mandated teaching method, supposedly all teachers in Indonesia know and will not be against it when their colleagues make it their educational philosophy and practice.

Indonesia has taken a firm political stance toward English language since 1960s, i.e. positioning it as a foreign language. It is taught as a subject at schools. Despite curriculum changes, CLT has been one of the approaches to EFL instruction in Indonesia in the past three decades (Lie, 2007) and still remains in place today (Agustien, 2015). This approach to language teaching highlights the importance of student-student interaction in their learning and the use of the target language in this interaction; students learn the language by using it to communicate with their peers (Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Richards (2002) states that cooperative learning is under the umbrella of CLT approach. Literature shows that the use of cooperative learning has a positive effect on ESL/EFL learners' mastery of language skills and components (e.g., Bejarano, 1987; Ghaith, 2003; Liang, 2002; Sachs, Candlin, & Rose, 2003). These provide affirmation for English teachers in Indonesia to aim at becoming practitioners of cooperative learning and making it part of their professional identity.

As in many contexts of education, where what is mandated is far removed from classroom reality, cooperative learning hardly takes place in classrooms in Indonesia. Zulfikar (2009) noted that teacher-centered instruction and rote learning were prevalent in Indonesian classrooms. Marcellino's study (2008) suggested that ineffective classroom interactions in most EFL classrooms in

Indonesia were due to the teachers' performance. Most Indonesian EFL teachers tend to faithfully follow textbooks and student work sheets; they barely provide opportunities for students to use the target language and to interact with their peers (Alwasilah, 2012; Lie, 2007; Musthafa, 2009). This reality of EFL instruction affected the achievement of EFL learners in Indonesia. Anderson (2012) reported a survey involving 1.7 million adults from 54 non-English speaking countries, which focused on these adults' English proficiency. The study ranked Indonesia at 27th, categorizing the country as one of the low English proficiency countries.

Literature suggests that student teachers would usually teach the way they were taught. Keeping this notion in mind, and considering the fact that CL was a mandated teaching method and endorsed by the literature for enhancing EFL learning, as well as the fact that cooperative learning hardly takes place in EFL classrooms in Indonesia, I see the need for EFL teacher education programs to revisit their curriculum. Specifically, cooperative learning needs to be an integral part of Indonesian EFL teacher education's curriculum. However, this paper will not focus on how these programs develop their teacher candidates' identity as cooperative learning practitioner. Different EFL teacher education programs in Indonesia may approach courses of EFL teaching methods differently, and cooperative learning may or may not be present in their teaching method courses. Instead, throughout this paper I position graduates of these programs as novice teachers who understand and master the principles and instructional strategies of cooperative learning. It is because I am more interested to see how EFL novice teachers could develop the target identity in real communities: community of teachers, community of EFL teachers, community of novice teachers, community of novice EFL teachers, and any other available communities. Using theories of development of selves and identity, I hope to uncover challenges that these novices might face in developing themselves as practitioners of cooperative learning.

In the section that follows, I will explore Wenger's (1998) community of practices, Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning: legitimate peripheral participation, Gee's (2000-2001) sociocultural views of identity development, and Holland et al.'s (1998) identity and agency in cultural worlds, to provide insights into how EFL novice teachers construct their practitioner of cooperative learning identity. I argue that these novices' trajectory of pursuing this part of their professional identity is full of challenges. The aforementioned theories will shed light on ways that teacher education programs can do to support their

novice teachers' emerging identities, and inform ways for the incorporation of knowledge of teacher identity development and agency in their curriculum.

CONCEPTS OF IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT AND AGENCY

This section briefly discusses four concepts of identity development and agency under sociocultural views of the development of selves. Following each of them are the overarching questions that later will guide the discussion in this paper.

Wenger's Concepts of Community of Practice

Wenger (1998) posits that learning is social participation. Participation, in his view, "refers not just to local events of engagement in certain activities with certain people, but to a more encompassing process of being active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities" (p. 4). Wenger then proposes four components of this learning theory: meaning, practice, community, and identity. Wenger suggests that people need a community to develop their practice. Through this community, people can engage with other community members and acknowledge each other as participants. Through this engagement, people gain experience of their participation and learn from how other people in the community reify their participation. Identity develops because of this participation, reification from others, and this experience and its social interpretations.

Further, Wenger proposes three dimensions of community: mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire. Besides experience, he also stresses the importance of a display of competence in one's identity development processes. The following overarching questions are generated from Wenger's concepts of community of practice: 1) What do EFL novice teachers need to do if the community of practitioners of cooperative learning is not available and perhaps not valued?; 2) What to do if the three dimensions of practice: mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and shared repertoire are hardly present in the available communities (community of teachers, EFL teachers, novice teachers, EFL novice teachers)?; and 3) How will the target identity develops if these novices hardly have opportunities to display their cooperative learning competence in these available communities?

Lave and Wenger's Concepts of Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation

In simple words, Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) means learning by doing in particular communities of practice. They posit that LPP is the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice and a full participant in a sociocultural practice by learning the knowledgeable skills. This concept highlights the importance of community as one of the dimensions of learning (Wenger, 1998). Lave and Wenger (1991) propose LPP as, "a descriptor of engagement in social practice that entails learning as an integral constituent" (p. 35). Implied in this concept is the importance of engagement that involves learning. They warn us, however, that hegemony over resources for learning and alienation from full learning might impede learning processes.

Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest that once people develop the knowledgeable skills in their community of practice, their next calling will be the reproduction and transformation of this community. These tasks are doable if people go through this series of role changing: "from entrance as a newcomer, through becoming an old-timer with respect to newcomers, to a point when those newcomers themselves become old-timers" (p. 56). Yet, going back to the notion of hegemony, Wenger and Lave remind us that there is this reality of conflict between forces that support processes of learning and those that work against them. Forces that work against learning could be in the form of the unavailability of opportunity to talk during the learning processes in the community of practice. In fact, such an opportunity is essential in developing transparency of practice; i.e., people are doing what is accepted by the body of knowledge. The hegemony and outside forces that hinder people's development of identity call for their motivation and agency. Questions to ponder based on Lave and Wenger's LPP are as follows: 1) What do the EFL novice teachers need to do in dealing with hegemony over resources for learning and alienation from full learning?; 2) What do these novices need to do if opportunities to talk are not available?; 3) How should these novices deal with the fact that cooperative learning is not a common practice in their community?; and 4) What should these novices need to do to keep their agency high in their identity development processes?

Gee's Sociocultural Views of Identity

Gee (2000-2001) defines institutional identity as a position that is authorized by authorities within an institution. He explains that this identity is not naturally given or can be accomplished by individuals. The "power" that determines this identity, in Gee's view, works through laws, rules, traditions, or principles of various sorts set by the authorities to "author" the position and people with this position "in terms of holding the rights and responsibilities that go with that position" (p. 102).

Another type of identity that Gee proposes and suits the discussion in this paper is affinity identity, that is, "something that one must actively choose to join" (p.105). By joining a group, people can share practices that are specific to every group member's experience. A key to one's growth in this affinity group is their participation. Questions from this theory of identity that relate to the issue being discussed are: 1) How would institutional identity impede the EFL novice teachers' professional identity development?; and 2) How would the available affinity groups help these novices' professional identity development?

Holland et al.'s Concepts of Identity and Agency in Cultural Worlds

In discussing the idea of identity and agency, Holland, et al. (1998) eloquently state:

> Thus persons and, to a lesser extent, groups are caught in the tensions between past histories that have settled in them and the present discourses and images that attract them or somehow impinge upon them. In this continuous self-fashioning, identities are hard-won standpoints that, however dependent upon social support and however vulnerable to change, make at least a modicum of self-direction possible. They are possibilities for mediating agency. (p. 4)

These authors suggest that although community plays a crucial role in people's identity development, people need to have the self-drive, human striving, or agency to face tensions between what has been established by people before them and a new discourse and image that they are trying to embrace in themselves and in their community. In other words, people need agency in their identity development.

Holland et al. (1998) also posit, "Identities are lived in and through activity and must be conceptualized as they develop in social practice" (p. 5). This notion relates to two of Wenger's (1998) four dimensions of learning: practice and identity. Through practice, people develop their identity. As they develop a particular identity that they are trying to attain, their practice becomes practice with perspective, which could include reflexivity, agency, and change. Holland et al. (1998) say it best:

> A person engaged in social life, a person involved in an activity or practice, is presumed to have a perspective. One looks at the world from the angle of what one is trying to do. Persons look at the world from the positions into which they are persistently cast. (p. 44)

Drawing on the above concepts of identity and agency, I have the following questions that relate to the topic under discussion: 1) How do the EFL novice teachers preserve and enact their agency in the midst of tensions between past histories and the new discourses and images?; 2) How do these novices organize their act of practices with perspectives?; and 3) Who would be the recipients of these novices' practice with perspectives? These questions, along with the ones related to the concepts previously discussed, help us to better understand challenges that may be faced by Indonesian EFL novice teachers in attaining their practitioner of cooperative learning identity.

CHALLENGES FACING PRACTITIONERS OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING

The four theories (community of practice, LPP, sociocultural views of identity, and identity and agency in cultural worlds) discussed in the previous section and the overarching questions generated from them help me to identify four themes concerning the issue being discussed. These themes are: 1) the unavailability of community of practitioners of cooperative learning, 2) hegemony vs. identity development, 3) agency in the midst of tensions, and 4) institutional identity vs. professional identity. These themes also symbolize the challenges that the EFL novice teachers may face in developing their professional identity, where the key component is being a practitioner of cooperative learning.

The Unavailability of Community of Cooperative Learning Practitioners

According to Wenger (1998), the connection between identity and practice is very close. He argued that developing a practice requires the formation of a community whose members can engage with one another and thus acknowledge each other as participants. In the case of novice EFL teachers in Indonesia, teacher communities available are the community of Indonesian teachers (*Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia*—PGRI) and community of EFL teachers in Indonesia (The Association for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia—TEFLIN). These are two formal national level teacher communities where the former includes all teachers and the latter embraces only Indonesian EFL teachers.

A smaller scale community available for EFL teachers is *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran (MGMP) Bahasa Inggris* (English Teachers Professional Learning Network), consisting of English teachers from some schools within the same district or region. Sumardi's (2010) evaluative study reveals the effectiveness of revitalization of English *MGMP* as a medium for fostering and developing English teachers' professionalism. Involving 25 teachers, the study follows Kirkpatrick's (1996) model of evaluation, employing observation, questionnaire, and interview as data collection methods. The study indicates that the revitalization program of the English *MGMP* increased teachers' skills and knowledge of philosophical foundations and theories of English teaching at high school level. However, the program does not yield significant impacts on practical level, specifically on the quality of learning; the teachers still tend to employ conventional models of teaching. The study highlights the importance of a trigger from external supports. For example, supports from school principals, colleagues, and teacher education programs, for teachers to apply in their instruction the knowledge and skills gained from the English *MGMP*.

Based on my observation, what is not available for novice EFL teachers who aim to be practitioners of cooperative learning as part of their professional identity is a community of cooperative learning practitioners. I attended three consecutive TEFLIN conferences and did not hear teachers talking about this community. As discussed earlier, cooperative learning is in fact a mandated teaching method and under the umbrella of Communicative Language Teaching that has governed English instruction in Indonesia for more than three decades. Two online communities of EFL teachers of which I am a member barely discussed this teaching method. I also did Google search to see whether there

was a community of cooperative learning practitioners within the field of EFL teaching in Indonesia. It yielded no results.

Since the needed community is not yet available, I directed my gaze to the available community for the EFL novice teachers at school level: community of EFL teachers. Participating in this community can enable these novices to get a sense of what constitutes the accepted practices and knowledgeable skills. Knowing and understanding these two are important before the novices can go to the highest level of identity development: reproducing and transforming the community. However, these novices may need to be cautious about their membership in this community. As these novices begin their practice in this community of EFL teachers, after some time they might feel that they are, to some extent, different from the other members in the community. These novices might ask themselves question such as: Why are they not implementing cooperative learning? Don't they know that it is a mandated teaching method? Don't they know that it can promote EFL learners' communicative competence? Later on, and this can be more dangerous, these novices might consider that what their senior colleagues are practicing is the "oughtness" (Hicks, 2004) in the community. The real danger is when these novices follow their senior colleagues' practice and forget the identity they are trying to attain.

Wenger (1998) suggests that practice defines a community through three dimensions: mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire. Are there studies that reveal whether these three dimensions exist in school-level community of EFL teachers? I have not found such studies, especially those carried out in Indonesian contexts. However, studies showing the prevalence of teacher-dominated learning in Indonesian EFL classrooms (see Alwasilah, 2012, 2013; Intansari, 2010) indicate that perhaps only a few Indonesian EFL learners learn through cooperative learning. These studies also made me assume that the three dimensions of community proposed by Wenger are not present in the available community for the novice EFL teachers, i.e., the communities of EFL teachers at schools. The absence of these three dimensions of community of practice can hamper these novices' development of the target professional identity: cooperative learning practitioner. Challenges are ahead of them. They might ask themselves questions, such as: Who will I turn to when I have problems in implementing cooperative learning? How will I learn from others' practice of cooperative learning? How will I share best practices of cooperative learning? Referring to Wenger's (1998) social theory of learning, identity is developed through practice. Membership in a community of practice

is thus imperative for people to make meaning of their practice and what they learn. Making meaning through practice will lead to identity development. The novice EFL teachers may find it hard to develop the target identity because of the absence of such practice, such as having discussions on cooperative learning and making meanings of it.

Hegemony vs. Identity Development

Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest that changing locations of practice and getting others' perspectives are important for identity development. These can be achieved by attending to a wider context of community. In the case of the novice EFL teachers, it can mean attending seminars, conferences, or professional development programs in which they can: 1) meet other practitioners of cooperative learning who might face the same struggles, 2) listen to presentations that might affirm their practice, 3) have opportunities to talk about their practice, and/or 4) get people enthusiastic to learn about this mandated teaching method. Such activities will be beneficial for the development for the target identity. However, in most cases, opportunities to attend seminars, conferences, or professional learning programs are given first to more experienced or senior teachers. This is an example of hegemony over learning resources and opportunity to learn. According to Apple (2004), hegemony means the controlled meanings, practices, values, and actions that might not be visible but continue to exist and that can be found in routine practices. Hegemony is present in schools and communities of teachers because authority or power is there. Therefore, the absence of the three dimensions of community of practice (mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire) in the available communities of EFL teachers, which may make novice teachers not have the opportunity to display their competence before their colleagues, can be due to the presence of this hegemonic system.

Outside their school, the novice EFL teachers might have the opportunity to talk about their practice, e.g. in seminars or conferences. However, if they strive to make cooperative learning a common practice in their schools, what is more important is having a chance to display their competence (mastery of cooperative learning) before their colleagues. Getting a chance to display their competence might not be easy for them as novices in the community. At least two identities are at play here: newcomers and practitioners of cooperative learning (the latter being an identity that the novices are trying to develop).

Therefore, on the one hand these novices are newcomers who need to listen to and learn from their senior colleagues. On the other hand, they feel the urge of displaying their mastery of cooperative learning, not only in their own classrooms but also before other people in the community.

On dilemmas of multiple identities, Holland (2003) concludes, "Dilemmas of orchestrating multiple identities are ignited by and deeply shaped in local practice. These dilemmas become significant if, and only when, improvised resolutions of them prove unintelligible or otherwise unaccepted either socially or on intimate terrain" (p. 47). With regard to the novice EFL teachers' dilemmas of having two identities, Holland's conclusion suggests that local practice contributes to the growth of the dilemma and becomes apparent if what they do is socially unacceptable. For example, during the implementation of a cooperative learning technique, students might become a little loud. This may disturb classes next door. It can happen especially if the students are new to cooperative learning. If these novice teachers explain to the their senior colleague about what they are doing and its benefits, this could be something that is not socially accepted in Indonesian contexts especially if these novices sound like they are lecturing or preaching.

Ways to confront this dilemma is portrayed in Carbaugh's (1996) phrase, "decision making as social drama" (p. 159). Inspired by Victor Turner's and Goffman's concept, Carbaugh explains the phrase this way, "Some processes of decision making, and some conflicts among social identities, begin with some sense of rupture, or a breach, or a violation" (pp. 158-159). Either continuing their practice of cooperative learning or spreading the method through word of mouth, these novices might feel a sense of rupturing, breaching, or violating the norms in their community. A study conducted by Cohen and Tellez (1994) confirmed Carbaugh's portrayal (1996) of decision making. They found that high implementers of cooperative learning viewed rules and regulations of their schools as more confining, and their willingness to try new instructional strategies may be contributed by their perception of themselves as rebels in the school culture.

Being violators of the norm, the novice EFL teachers might get comments behind their back from the senior teachers, such as: Why do these novices bother doing it? What is wrong with our practice? Well, they are new and too energized. These novices need to understand that a feeling of violating the norm is inevitable and should not stop them in achieving the target identity.

Agency in the Midst of Tensions

The following excerpt exemplifies tensions that a novice English teacher faces in her early teaching career:

> Conversely, Toni felt supported by her principal, but ignored by her mentor and fellow English teachers. While her first year started off positively, she soon learnt that the departmental culture was not conducive for collaboration or mentoring. Throughout her time at the school, Toni described her departmental colleagues as cold and her theory was only reinforced by the other faculty members. Whereas she wanted professional collaboration and the sharing of teaching resources and activities, things she had in her teacher education program, others were content or remain in their rooms and maintain their autonomy. (Scherff, 2008, p. 1328)

Toni experiences tension in herself between what she sees as beneficial (collaboration, mentoring, and sharing of teaching sources and activities—things she learned in her teacher education program) and the reality, i.e. what has been established and become departmental culture (cold, content, and showing autonomy colleagues). Referring to Wenger's (1998) dimensions of a community of practice, i.e. mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire, we can say that these dimensions are not present in Toni's department.

Novice EFL teachers in Indonesia most likely face a similar situation that can challenge the attainment of the target identity. How will these teachers be recognized by other teachers in the community as practitioners of cooperative learning if collaboration, mentoring, and sharing of teaching resources and activities are not happening? How to navigate these "recognition works" (Leuhmann, 2007, p. 14)? How will these novices transform and reproduce the community, making it a community of teachers who value cooperative learning as an educational philosophy and practice in the community, if the community does not value cooperation among its members? These novices need to carry out practice with perspectives that come from themselves (agentic). In discussing agency in identity development, Holland, et al. (1998) state:

> Persons develop more or less conscious conceptions of themselves as actors in socially and culturally constructed worlds, and these senses of themselves, these identities, to the degree that they are conscious and objectified, permit these persons, through the kinds of semiotic mediation described by Vygotsky, at least a modicum of agency or control over their own behavior. (p. 40)

The above quote suggests that novice teachers like Toni need to keep in mind that in attaining a target identity, they are an actor in their community. Because they are an actor, what they practice is within the role and perspectives of this actor. It indeed takes initiative, courage, and perseverance to take action to improve (Xu, 2012). If Toni and EFL novice teachers in Indonesia had these traits or agency in them, changes would likely take place. Collaboration, mentoring, and sharing would happen in Toni's department. Cooperative learning would likely be a common practice in Indonesian EFL classrooms.

Institutional Identity vs. Professional Identity

Referring to Gee's (2000-2001) notion of institutional identity, a law is one of the forms of authorization. It authors people's position, including their rights and responsibilities. The Law Number 14 Year 2005 on Teacher and Lecturer defines teachers as "Professional educator whose main jobs are educating, teaching, guiding, directing, training, assessing, and evaluating learners in early childhood education, formal education, primary education, and secondary education" (p. 2). Regarding teachers' responsibilities, the Law states that they include: lesson planning, carrying out quality learning, assessing and evaluating learning outcome, improving and developing academic qualification and competence sustainably that is in line with the development of knowledge, technology, and art. Teaching profession as an institutional identity in Indonesian contexts, therefore, constitutes doing teaching jobs and bearing the responsibilities as mandated by the Law. While the definition does not suggest teacher-learning throughout teaching profession, the aforementioned responsibilities suggest teachers to improve their competence. How do Indonesian EFL teachers perform their institutional identity?

Alwasilah's (2012) study on aspects of professionalism of 200 middle school EFL teachers in Jakarta and West Java showed that instructional technology was the weakest area of EFL teaching followed by curriculum implementation and methods of teaching. While the number of teachers involved in the study was small, as there are approximately 130,000 EFL teachers in Indonesia, the study suggests that institutional identity does not guarantee one's professionalism. According to Gee (2000-2001), institutional identity is not something that people could accomplish by themselves. He highlights authority as the source of an institutional identity. This authority makes the institutional

identity available and thus, ideally, should let people either to take (and help them achieve it) or challenge the identity.

The Law Number 14 Year 2005 on Teachers and Lecturers details 11 rights of teachers. Three of these rights, which correlate to the idea of teacher professional identity discussed in this paper, are: (1) the opportunity to develop their competence, (2) the opportunity to develop and improve their academic qualification and competence, and/or (3) training and professional learning in the field. If these are some of the rights of Indonesian teachers, have they received them? The answer to this question is worth researching. Undeniably, it is the responsibility of the authority to provide and make sure that the teachers receive their rights.

Gee's (2000-2001) concept of identity lends perspectives of why teaching method is one of the weakest areas of EFL teaching in Indonesia; they are: access, networking, and experience. EFL teachers in Indonesia might not have: "access to specific networks of people and information spread across the country and the world and to specific experiences connected to these networks" (p. 121). Again, whose responsibility is it to make sure that teachers have these three? It is the authority.

The notion of practitioner of cooperative learning as part of Indonesian EFL teacher professional identity that I propose in this paper could serve as a counter discourse to institutional identity. With that said, I do not mean that institutional identity needs to go away. This is not possible. What I mean is that, since EFL teachers in Indonesia have issues in their teaching method, why not impose a counter identity, i.e. practitioner of cooperative learning as part of EFL teacher professional identity? It is because the institutional identity given and maintained by authority does not always guarantee one's professionalism. In a world where access, networking, and experience appear not to be present, Gee (2000-2001) suggests the formation of new identities that "reinvigorate the local and empower the "locals" [original emphasis] through new forms of discourse and dialogue—forms that remain aware, however, of the fact that in our world, the global has utterly "infected" [original emphasis] the local" (p. 121). In other words, a new identity that Gee proposes is for reviving a community of practices. Setting cooperative learning practitioner as part of teacher professional identity is also intended to revive a community of practice important for teachers' professionalism.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

As demonstrated in the previous sections, the challenges that are ahead of EFL novice teachers who aim at becoming practitioners of cooperative learning as part of their professional identity are somewhat interconnected and overlapping. Because the community of practitioners of cooperative learning may not be available, EFL novice teachers need to make use of the available community around them, e.g., the community of EFL teachers in their school. This community may not be a supportive community of practice because of the incomplete presence of mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998). Hegemonic system might also be prevalent in this community. As hegemony is usually invisible, these novice teachers might not be aware of it and regard the world they live in as normal. In fact, hegemonic system might hamper the attainment of the identity development. Hence, what they need in a community like this is their agency, i.e. their striving to change what is not normal, and later reproduce or transform this existing community into a community of practice (i.e., cooperative learning is practiced by its members and together they develop a better understanding of this practice to better facilitate students' learning).

All in all, I propose a number of suggestions for the betterment of EFL teacher education programs, specifically on how they equip their teacher candidates with knowledge and skills of professional identity development and how these programs provide support for novice teachers' emerging identities. First, teacher education programs need to provide links to professional communities that are supportive of novice teachers' identity development. Perhaps, these programs could collaborate with TEFLIN to hold events such as "TEFLIN goes to campus" through which teacher candidates learn, for example, how the association provides professional development programs for its members. Second, teacher education programs need to consider having a course on teacher identity development and agency, or address these issues in the existing English language teaching courses, to equip their candidates with knowledge and skills so that they could grow and succeed in their early stages of and throughout their professional life. In addition, by having knowledge and skills of teacher identity development and agency, teacher candidates would see the value of community of practice for themselves as well as for practicing teachers. Third, Holland and Lachicotte (2007) state, "identities are of key importance of social change" (p. 135). This proposal of practitioner of coopera-

tive learning as part of teacher professional identity is an effort to bring about betterment in two arenas: EFL instruction and teachers' teaching performance. Social change is never an individual effort; it has always been a collective effort. Surely it will not be a too-high aim for EFL novice teachers as long as they are not alone.

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CHARACTER EDUCATION IN CONTENT COURSES: SELF-SCORING AS A MEANS FOR DEVELOPING HONESTY IN STUDENTS

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Abstract: As character education is gaining currency, some institutions have started to incorporate character education into its instructional practices. However, this is not an easy task. Limited hours of contact and teachers' insufficient know-how of teaching and evaluating students' characters have hampered the efforts. This paper reports a small effort to shape students' honesty through self-scoring techniques. An intact class of 19 students who were taking a content course were instructed to self-score their own works in two different tests. Their scores were then compared to the lecturer's scoring. It was found that the students tend to be honest when the test was not weighted substantively, but increasingly over-rated themselves on a high-stake test. The paper then discusses the potential and possible weaknesses of self-scoring technique as a means of cultivating honesty.

Keywords: character education, test, self-scoring, honesty

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In recent years, there has been a growing interest in character education. The newest Law no. 20 Year 2003 on Indonesia's National Education System posits that national education aims to develop students' abilities and shape them to become persons with strong faith to God who have noble characters, and are healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative, independent and democratic. This implies that education institutions at all levels have to incorporate character education. Since then practically all schools and universities have been making

an effort to instill good characters in their students' attitude through a variety of curricular and extracurricular activities.

Formally, character is defined as all traits and attributes that are unique to a group of people and make them different from the others. Latif (2014) defines character as "a basic personality that consists of moral integrity, toughness, and unique potentials shaped by habits and culture where it originates from." It has also been defined simply as acts that someone usually does even when nobody is watching him or her.

In a formal institution, integrating character education into the existing curriculum has not proved easy. Activities that are aimed at developing character usually stand separately from regular content courses. They also take up time outside regular courses which otherwise could be used for studying the main subject matters. Added to this is the difficulty in assessing such an elusive concept like character. However, integrating character development into academic activities seems to be a necessity among educators because apparently it is in such activities that teachers can see the actual daily behavior of their students and thus have the best moments to shape their character. A handful of studies have been carried out in this area. Yunan (2014), for instance, conducted a study on teachers' strategies for overcoming the problem of cheating among students. She suggested that teachers should help students raise their self-confidence, lower their anxiety level, and instill in them a stronger sense of responsibility. In another study which focused on plagiarism, Bretag (2013) argues that students at all levels are not free from this issue, and therefore a deliberate guidance needs to be given to students. He also addresses the need of education field to take on a broader, more encompassing approach than the existing approach of detecting and punishing the perpetrators. This seems to hint at the necessity of integrating character education into daily teaching practices.

Miller (2013, p. 213) states that "most college faculty care about the characters of their students, especially when it comes to honesty", and goes on to ask whether students can be trusted to exercise honesty when completing their assignments or doing exams. In Indonesia, a recent issue that concerns honesty is obvious in the implementation of School Integrity Index. It is clear, then, that honesty has been a central focus in character education that needs to be incorporated in daily teaching practices.

This paper sets out to report an effort to integrate honesty as a desired character into a content course. Students in a class of Language Testing were instructed to occasionally score their own works. Based on an agreed scoring

guideline, they scored their own papers after comparing their works with a standard. The only instruction given to them was to be as honest as possible. After the class hours, the lecturer scored the papers and did a simple statistical analysis to see whether there was a large difference between the students' self-scoring and the lecturer's scoring.

Universitas Ma Chung, like many other universities elsewhere, has long been making serious endeavors to provide character education for the students. Formerly, from 2007 to 2010 it ran 3 courses for all students under the name Character Building 1, Character Building 2, Character Building 3, and Character Building 4. The first was designed for the students to identify their own weaknesses and strengths. The second was aimed to promote their awareness of God and how they can make a good relationship with God. The third was intended to shape their interpersonal skills, and the fourth promoted the awareness about healthy environment. The students were put into groups with other fellow students from different majors, and each group was guided by a mentor. Together, the mentor and the groups attended a series of lectures on various topics, and gathered to engage in projects that were aimed to shape their good characters along the major themes mentioned above.

Difficulties arose when it comes to evaluating the students' character. Many mentors, who had already been busy with teaching load, research assignments, and other administrative works, could rarely spend effective hours with their mentees during which assessment of their characters could be carried out objectively. Some of the mentors were simply overwhelmed by the large number of mentees in the groups they had to supervise. As a result, most mentors got stuck in the evaluation, and, worse, some eventually produced scores haphazardly out of their frustration. Students' protests in response to this unfair evaluation brought this approach to a halt.

The ensuing year of 2011 saw the university revamp the character education courses. The series of Character Building courses were replaced by Religions, Pancasila (Indonesia's state ideology) and Civics, Basic Natural Science, and Leadership. Added to this is an elective program named OBOR (Reflation-Based Orientation), and community service. The latter program has the students go into several local communities around the town and help them plan solutions for their immediate problems.

Claraintia (2014) wrote an evaluation from her personal viewpoint as a student who underwent those programs. She states that despite all the efforts, most students felt that the character education has not been successful. At least

three main reasons were mentioned behind the failure: the lecturers and facilitators, the materials, and the overall relevance of the entire execution to the objectives.

In an attempt to improve the character building programs and eliminate all those weaknesses, the Directorate of Character Building and Leadership at the university has been making an endeavor to integrate character education into the regular curriculum of each study program. While the effort is still underway and has yet to achieve the final stage, the writer took the initiative to try integrating honesty in a regular course in his own study program.

Meanwhile, a few studies that deal with the same issue needs to be discussed here. The two studies outlined here focus on the correlations between self-rating by students and their teacher's ratings. Tavakoli (2010) found a modest correlation between the two in a speaking test. He interprets this as a potential for learner autonomy in assessment. Likewise, Lew, Alwis and Schmidt (2010) found a weak correlation between students' self-rating and their instructors' assessment.

The moderate correlation of the two ratings indicates a relatively shared area of skills that they jointly measure, but it does not tell whether they are in agreement with each other. This study attempts to see if such agreement exists between the teacher and the learners.

METHOD

A quasi experimental design was used to achieve the objective because there was no control group involved, no randomization, and no pre-test post-test were given. The study was done in an intact class of 19 students who were taking Language Testing at the English Letters Study Program at Universitas Ma Chung. The course was worth 2 credit hours, which translated into 100-minute session each week. There were 16 sessions, and the assessment was done in the form of 2 Small Quizzes, 3 Major Quizzes, and a final test. The Small Quizzes measured their understanding of the basic concepts of the topics being discussed, the Major Quizzes measure higher cognitive levels of applying and analyzing, and The Final test measured their ability to create a language test. The small quizzes account for 10 percent of the final grade, while the major quizzes and the final examination account for 45 percent of the final grade. Thus, the major quizzes contribute more to the students' chance of passing, making the quizzes a form of high-stake test.

Self-assessment by the students was done for the 2 Small Quizzes and the first Major Quiz. Before they did the self-assessment, the lecturer explained the criteria of scoring and ensured the students' agreement on the criteria. It was at this stage that the lecturer emphasized the importance of honesty in the self-scoring. They were told that this kind of assessment was the chance to exercise honesty, and that cheating would be a betrayal to their own conscience. After the self-assessment was done, the papers were scored again by the lecturer by referring to the agreed guideline. The guideline itself is as follows:

50 - 60: Lacks essential points; very different from the standard
70 - 80: Contains some essential points but misses a few other/important details
90 - 100: Contains all essential points; very similar to the standard

The following table shows the scores given by the students themselves and the lecturer.

Table 1. The Scores from the Quizzes

		Small Quiz I		Small Quiz II		Major Quiz	
	Student	**Teacher score**	**Self score**	**Teacher score**	**Self score**	**Teacher score**	**Self score**
1	Ad	60	60	75	78	50	70
2	Wu	60	60	60	70	60	70
3	Vi	60	60	60	60	50	65
4	Re	70	70	78	75	55	60
5	Au	90	90	60	65	-	-
6	Be	50	50	60	60	-	-
7	Dh	80	80	80	80	50	60
8	De	90	90	88	81	50	50
9	Fi	70	70	60	75	60	70
10	Ili	100	100	72	70	90	90
11	Je	75	75	-	-	80	80
12	Lui	70	70	80	70	50	60
13	Mel	-	-	75	60	-	-
14	Mau	85	85	-	-	-	-

		Small Quiz I		Small Quiz II		Major Quiz	
	Student	**Teacher score**	**Self score**	**Teacher score**	**Self score**	**Teacher score**	**Self score**
15	Nad	89	80	88	88	60	80
16	Nat	80	80	88	75	55	70
17	Rah	75	73	80	80	60	70
18	Ti	75	75	80	80	80	80
19	Cla			60	70	50	65

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Because the data were unlikely to meet the requirements for a parametric statistical analysis, Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze the data. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Means of the Scores and Results of Mann-Whitney Test

Small Quiz 1		**p-value**	**Conclusion**
Self score	74.588	0.900	$p > 0.05$
Teacher score	75.235		
Small Quiz 2			
Self score	72.765	0.828	$p > 0.05$
Teacher score	73.176		
Major Quiz			
Self score	69.333	0.014	$p < 0.05$
Teacher score	60.000		

Thus, as the p-value in the Major Quiz is smaller than the alpha set at 0.05, it can be stated that in the Major Quiz there is a significant difference between the students' self-scoring and the teacher's scores, with the teacher's mean being significantly lower than the students' mean.

The results indicate the changes in the students' scoring behavior across the three tests. In the first Small Quiz, their scores were practically very similar to those given by the teacher. In the second Small Quiz, again their self-assessment differed very little from the teacher's scores. But then the students' tendency to deviate increasingly greater from the lecturer's scoring was in-

creasingly evident in the major quiz, when they realized that this quiz was a high-stake factor that would determine their grades. In the Major Quiz, their scores were markedly different from the scores assigned by the lecturer. The students apparently scored themselves higher than did the lecturer.

The discussion that follows addresses the possible causes of the findings, and the potential of such integration of character education into regular courses. The paper highlights the possibility of expanding the integration of honesty to other courses, bringing up possible obstacles and steps to ensure success.

The debate in education sphere is now revolving around character education. Some proponents of character education maintain that it calls for a deliberate and conscious action on the part of the educators to instill good values in the students' behavior. Some others argue that character education is unlike theoretical concepts and other hard facts that can be subjected to direct teaching and easily conform to cognitive mechanism. Character is influenced by one's natural predisposition; it is an innate, in-built feature that is not readily subservient to changes. As such, shaping character is not like teaching math or tenses. It requires a certain set of custom and good model which incessantly demonstrate the desired characters in addition to direct teaching. The demonstration of good model may make students subconsciously adopt the desired values, while the direct and explicit teaching may foster explicit and conscious understanding about the good character.

This is in line with what Nugrahani (2011, p. 4) states as basic steps in developing good characters, namely teaching the good values, and then inculcating those values through repeated actions that in time will become good habits. Likewise, Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964) state that affective domain covers receiving, responding, appreciating, and showing good behavior, which eventually culminates in the internalization of the good values. At the final stage one is regarded to have internalized the values which control his or her behavior. The values is consistently present in all of the behaviors, which is another word of saying that the values have become one's characters.

Likewise, schools in other countries, too, have also been focusing on the same issue. North (2015) maintains that personality education is now part of school curriculum in USA. She also shows that it relates even stronger to academic performance. For example, conscientiousness and open-mindedness are more highly correlated with student performance than intelligent is.

Why Honesty

Questions might arise as to why there is a need to emphasize honesty, especially at Ma Chung. Such need originated from its founders, who stressed honesty as an individual characteristic they highly value in their employees. Thus they expect that Ma Chung graduates will be imbued with honesty. Moreover, a small survey carried out among these founders ranked honesty as the second most important characteristic that they look for in potential applicants. It is not surprising then that academics at Ma Chung strive to build a character education system and seek ways to incorporate this into the existing curriculum.

Self-assessment in Practice

The idea of students scoring themselves based upon a certain predetermined criteria has been around for sometime, and even the focus of a few studies. Essentially, according to McMillan and Hearn (2008) self-assessment not only means students' checking their own works and scoring themselves, but also involves comparing their works with a predetermined criteria. Mistar (2011) found in his research that self-assessment is a relatively reliable means for measuring students' language skills. Kasanen and Raty (2002) conducted an ethnographic research that explored the practice of self-assessment in a first grader class. Observation, data recording, document reading, and interviews with teachers and students were done to gather the data. Their investigation revealed that self-assessment is regularly done in mathematics, writing, and social skills. The students assessed themselves according to the ways outlined by the teacher, and adhere to criteria, which include objectiveness (compliance to a standard) honesty, and individuality. It was concluded that the students are capable of carrying out self-assessment due to long training.

Beneficial as it may seem, self-scoring is not free of problem. Lee (2008) contends that in self-assessment, a common problem is what is called a bias factor, in which students tend to be subjective in their assessment. They tend to rate down what actually constitutes a good work, and rate up what actually constitutes a poor work.

Another study by Bello, Hernandez, and Lopez (2011) turned out a similar result. They assigned two different groups of university students and secondary school teachers to self-assess their knowledge of the content of a lab experiment and their own attitude. Rubrics were designed to guide them in the self-

assessment. The results indicate that both groups had difficulty in assessing their mastery of knowledge and their own attitude. They tend to overrate themselves, but are not always aware of this lack of objectivity.

Students' self-confidence in rating is also an issue. Andrade and Du (2007) found from their research that although students generally favored self-assessment after some training, they felt there was likely to be a marked difference between their ratings and their teacher's ratings.

The foregoing discussion implies that without sufficient efforts to imbue students with honesty, self-assessment runs the risk of being corrupted by cheating. That is the reason behind a deliberate effort to integrate such noble value into daily lessons, which also involves teachers' explicitly calling the students to be honest in their self-scoring. Still, another important element in the self-assessment is the provision of a reliable and clear scoring guideline. The guideline, as in many other cases of testing that involve subjective judgment, will keep the students' self-scoring within the correct direction.

High-stake Test

A test is said to be a high-stake test if the result plays a central role in the decision making, which can range from assigning grades to students, granting academic degrees, accepting job applications, or simply permitting students to pass a certain course. Because of this decisive nature, students usually pay most attention to a high-stake test, exerting their most energy and time to pass it.

Another side effect of a high-stake test is the temptation to commit every act, including cheating, that will help the test taker to pass the test. Madaus, Russell, and Higgins (2009) report a survey among teachers who were weighing the advantages and the disadvantages of high-stake test, and most of them state that majority of the students admit they would cheat if they had the opportunities. The authors later assert that "while there is no solid data on how much cheating occurs, the pressure exerted by high-stakes tests motivates some students to cheat" (p. 160).

In an earlier publication, Jones, Jones, and Hargrove (2003) argue that while high-stake tests often lead to cheating, there is something that can be done to counter it. They suggest "to return tests to their appropriate roles, i.e. "not as an absolute determinant of students' progress but as one source of information which is to be combined with teachers' judgments and grades" (p. 73). Along with these findings and suggestions, questions arise concerning

high-stake tests: where should we stop giving high-stake tests? Is there a limit? If it turns out to interfere with honesty, should we stop it? Should we seek other ways than testing to cultivate honesty? These are issues to be resolved by further research and deeper thinking in the area.

In light of my finding, I can suggest that self-assessment may be one of the alternatives to cultivate honesty among students. Several small tests may be good for the students to practice self-scoring and simultaneously exercise honesty. Yet, when it comes to high-stake assessment, care should be taken so as not to rely too much on the students' self-rating. A proper amount of teacher's intervention in arriving at the final scores is still needed.

Other Ways to Instill Honesty

Classroom has always been a fertile ground for honesty to be exercised. Reasons for coming late, for instance, is an opportunity for students to exercise honesty. Whether they will lie or not, or whether they can resist the temptation to lie, are questions that they personally have to battle with deep in their hearts. Education is intended to sharpen this conscience that will drive them to choose the right value of being honest.

Another area which tests an academic's honesty is acknowledging others' works in writing academic papers. All the efforts to detect plagiarism through the notoriously easy copying-and-pasting reflect a society that still gets easily tempted to plagiarize. Again, it is the obligation of educators to teach students to be honest by teaching them techniques of paraphrasing and proper referencing.

Still, another way of embedding character molding into daily teaching practice is peer-assessment. Similar to self-assessment, peer-assessment also relies on honesty in addition to objectivity because students are to score their classmates' works without being influenced by personal feelings toward them.

To reiterate the above concern, educators need to figure out how to embed character building in daily teaching activities. Self-assessment is offered as one of the many ways to inculcate the good values in the students.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

As character education is gaining importance in the education domain, many educators seek ways to shape their students' character through daily

teaching and learning practices. In an attempt to integrate honesty into daily lessons, a small experiment was done. Students in a content subject were asked to rate their own works according to predetermined criteria. The analysis of their scores from three different tests reveals their tendency to be less honest when realizing that the assessment was becoming more of a high-stake test.

Potential as it may be, self-assessment needs to be exercised with caution especially when the test becomes high-stake in nature. Still, provided there is sufficient scoring guide and monitoring by the teacher, it harnesses potential to mold students' character.

There are several other ways of instilling honesty. Giving reason for tardiness, writing academic papers with proper citation, and peer-assessment are three ways by which educators can cultivate a sense of honesty among their students.

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PROMOTING LANGUAGE LEARNERS' CROSS-CULTURAL AWARENESS THROUGH COMPARATIVE ANALYSES OF ASIAN FOLKTALES[i]

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Abstract: With the global spread, the English language has become a lingua franca and a component of basic education in many Asian countries, making Asia one of the regions in the world with the largest number of English speakers. However, due to the rich cultural diversities of Asian societies, using English as a lingua franca in Asia implies that speakers need to develop not only communicative competence but intercultural communicative competence, so as to ensure successful communication among people from different Asian societies. Given that successful intercultural communication requires the speakers' appreciation of their cultural diversities, while celebrating certain similarities, promoting learners' cross-cultural awareness has become one of the important objectives of English language teaching in Asia. In this paper, I will draw on some sample analyses of Asian folktales which have been translated into English to (i) identify and explore the features of narrative structures and contents which can be seen as transcultural and others which can be highlighted as culture-specific, and (ii) discuss how such comparative analyses of narrative structures and contents in Asian folktales can be used to promote the cross-cultural awareness of English language learners in Asia. Implications for the socio-cultural-based English language teaching are offered.

Keywords: Asian folktales, narrative structures and contents, English as a lingua franca, language learners, cross-cultural awareness

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With more Asian societies becoming increasingly cosmopolitan in the 21st century, the education systems in several Asian countries have continued to reform themselves toward 21st century learning (Lee, Hung & Teh, 2014; Teo, 2015). Among these education goals for 21st century learning, one of the aspects which have been emphasized for the 21st century competencies is for learners to develop global and cross-cultural awareness (e.g., See the Singapore Ministry of Education framework of 21st century competencies and desired outcome). Specifically, 21st century learners need broader worldviews and the ability to communicate and work with people from diverse cultural backgrounds, with different ideas and perspectives. In this context, it is imperative that the teaching and learning of English, which has been a component of basic education in many Asian countries, recognize such a need to promote learners' cross-cultural awareness. With the global spread, the English language has been a lingua franca in many Asian countries, making Asia one of the regions in the world with the largest number of English speakers. However, due to the rich cultural diversities of Asian societies, using English as a lingua franca in Asia implies that speakers need to develop not only communicative competence but intercultural communicative competence so as to ensure successful communication among people from different Asian societies and beyond.

Intercultural competence can be explained as realization of one's own culture locatedness, that is, the ability to contextualize one's own cultural practices, assumptions, beliefs, etc. and the ability to successfully deal with other cultures (Luciana, 2005). In her intercultural framework for oral communication, Luciana (2005) has identified attitudes of curiosity and openness as the prime catalyst for developing knowledge of self and others, and has stressed that such knowledge is not automatically grasped by learners and should, therefore, be made explicit to them. Similarly, Chen and Starosta (1999) define intercultural communicative competence as "the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviours that negotiate each other's cultural identity or identities in a culturally diverse environment" (p. 28). These definitions imply that development of learners' intercultural communicative competence can be facilitated by promoting their critical understanding of own culture as well as of others'.

In the field of language teaching, with the advent of communicative approaches there have been many studies on developing learners' communicative competence, following the introduction of Canale and Swain's (1980) framework for teaching and testing communicative competence. Nevertheless, only

few studies have made attempts at defining and describing intercultural communicative competence (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; Byram, 1997, 2009; Chen & Starosta, 1999; Luciana, 2005). Studies which specifically explore methods or ways to promote learners' cross-cultural awareness are even fewer. In this paper, I will draw on some sample analyses of Asian folktales which have been translated into English to (i) identify and explore the features of narrative structures and contents which can be seen as transcultural and others which can be highlighted as culture-specific, and (ii) discuss how such comparative analyses of narrative structures and contents in Asian folktales can be used to promote the cross-cultural awareness of English language learners in Asia. Given that successful intercultural communication requires the speakers' appreciation of their cultural diversities, while celebrating certain similarities, promoting learners' cross-cultural awareness should be one of the important objectives of English language teaching in Asia.

Folktales are traditional stories that have been passed on by words of mouth before writing systems were developed. They include fables (i.e., tales with animals as the main characters and an explicit moral lesson), fairy tales (i.e., tales with some magical elements), myths (i.e., tales which are considered sacred), among many other sub-types (Taylor, 2000). Being part of folk literature, folktales typically address themes and issues that are profound for all humanity and significant for all ages. It has been claimed that "[a] knowledge of folk literature is of prime importance for a fuller understanding of human behaviour and culture" (Eugenio, 1995, p. 1). At the same time, the "folk literature of a people is a very valuable part of its cultural heritage, for in it one finds the roots of the culture of that people (Eugenio, 1995, p. 1). Specifically in the Asian context, efforts have been made to preserve and disseminate the rich folk literature including folktales of Asia. For example, volumes which include the most popular examples of tales from different Asian countries having been collected and translated into English have been published to promote the understanding and friendship among the people of Asian countries (e.g., *ASEAN folk literature: An anthology*). Taking advantage of the availability of such collections of folktales from different countries in Asia, I will first conduct a comparative analysis of Asian folktales to identify and explore features of narrative structures and contents which can be seen as transcultural (or) culture-specific, before exploring the pedagogical implications for promoting learners' cross-cultural awareness.

METHOD

Folktales are typically regarded as the simplest form of narrative, and tales from various cultures have been analyzed in terms of their structures and contents. The structural analysis of tales (i.e., a description of the tale according to the sequence of events which make up the storyline of the tale) can be claimed to have begun with Propp's (1968) *Morphology of the folktale*. Following Propp's ground-breaking morphological classification of Russian tales, there have been studies of structural typology of folktales from different cultures. However, most of these studies were done on a collection of tales from a particular culture or a particular type of tales. Hence, development in this line of inquiry has not been cumulative. A comparative analysis of narrative structures and contents in folktales of different cultures, especially those from neighboring nations such as countries in Asia, is an area that warrants further research. Neighboring countries, each with its own unique culture, are likely to have some influence on each other's culture and share certain common cultural features. Thus it would be interesting to explore and identify what elements in their folktales can be claimed to be transcultural and what elements are culture-specific by comparing them from the standpoint of narrative structures and contents. While any similarities across tales of different Asian countries will highlight possibly transcultural elements, any distinctiveness will highlight uniqueness of a particular culture. Understanding of such similarities and differences is in turn likely to facilitate appreciation of cultural diversities in Asia.

For a comparative analysis of folktales, I will begin with the extraction of all functional events making up the storyline of each of the tales. Propp (1968) posits that functional events, as an act of a character defined from the point of view of its significance for the course of the action, can be extracted as basic components of the tale. Similarly, Toolan (2001) suggests that labelling of events and states in terms of Propp's functional events is one of the methods to analyze the basic story structure; given that an event, bringing a change of state, is the most fundamental requirement in narrative. As for the distribution of narrative roles by the characters in each tale, a major character carrying out the functional events in the plot will broadly be identified as the Protagonist. When a tale has more than one major character, they will be identified as Protagonist A, B, C, etc. Moreover, following Propp (1968), a character who prepares and/or provides Protagonist with the magical agent will be identified as the Donor. A character who assists, rescues, solves and/or transfigures the Pro-

tagonist will be identified as the Guide or Helper. Following the classification of characters in each tale to the appropriate narrative roles, the functional events constituting a storyline will be identified.

For example, in the Myanmar folktale *The Golden Crow* (Maung Htin Aung, 1976), there are two protagonists, one of whom behaves according to certain specific rules, and is rewarded. The other breaks these rules and is punished. The four narrative roles in the tale are distributed as follows.

Good-natured girl:	Protagonist A
Bad-tempered girl:	Protagonist B
Golden Crow:	Donor
Tray of paddy:	Guide

The events making up the narrative structure or story line of this tale are extracted as follows.

Move 1	Protagonist A is introduced. Long ago there lived an old widow who was very poor. She had a daughter who was pretty and good-natured.
Event 1	Guide leads Protagonist A to Donor. One day while the good-natured girl was watching over a tray of paddy which was being dried in the sun, a crow with gold feathers came and ate up the entire tray of paddy.
Event 2	Protagonist A meets Donor. To pay for the paddy, the Golden Crow asked the good-natured girl to come to the big tamarind tree outside the village at sunset. When the girl went there, she saw a little house of gold at the top and the Golden Crow looked out of a window of the little golden house.
Event 3	Donor sets Protagonist A tasks/tests. The crow asked the girl if she wanted the golden ladder, the silver ladder or the brass ladder to come up. The crow asked the girl if she wanted the gold dish, the silver dish or the brass dish to eat the food from. The crow asked the girl if she wanted a big box, a medium-sized box, and a small box to give to her mother.
Event 4	Protagonist A performs the tasks/tests successfully. The girl chose the brass ladder for the first question. The girl chose the brass dish for the second question.

The girl chose the little box for the last question saying that paddy the crow ate was not much.

Event 5 — Protagonist A is rewarded.
When the girl reached home, she gave the little box to her mother. Together they opened it and found in the box a hundred priceless rubies.

Move 2 — Protagonist B is introduced.
There was another widow in the village and she also had a daughter who, however, was greedy and bad-tempered.

Event 1 — Guide leads Protagonist B to Donor.
While the bad-tempered girl was watching over a tray of paddy which was being dried in the sun, a crow with gold feathers came and ate up all the paddy.

Event 2 — Protagonist B meets Donor.
To pay for the paddy, the Golden Crow asked the girl to come to the big tamarind tree outside the village at sunset. When the girl went there, she saw a little house of gold at the top and the Golden Crow looked out of a window of the little golden house.

Event 3 — Donor sets Protagonist B tasks/tests.
The crow asked the girl if she wanted the golden ladder, the silver ladder or the brass ladder to come up.
The crow asked the girl if she wanted the gold dish, the silver dish or the brass dish to eat the food from.
The crow asked the girl if she wanted a big box, a medium-sized box, and a small box to give to her mother.

Event 4 — Protagonist B fails.
The girl chose the golden ladder for the first question.
The girl chose the gold dish for the second question.
The girl chose the big box for the last question and left without remembering to thank the crow.

Event 5 — Protagonist B is punished.
When the girl reached home, she gave the little box to her mother. Together they opened it and found a big snake coiled inside the big box.

The above sequence of events in this type of tales can be summarized as the reward/punishment model or structural pattern:

Tasks → Success → Reward
Tasks → Failure → Punishment

For an illustration of contrastive analyses of Asian folktales, I will focus on the following two structural patterns or models which have been identified in my earlier studies of Myanmar folktales (Lwin, 2010) as a basis:

- reward/ punishment
- interdiction/violation

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Reward/Punishment

As explained above, the narrative structure of a folktale with the reward/punishment model can be summarized as:

Tasks → Success → Reward
Tasks → Failure → Punishment

The parallel sets of contrasting narratives in this type of tales shows how good actions are rewarded and evil actions are punished. Interestingly, this reward/ punishment model or the contrastive narrative structure identified in the analysis of Myanmar folktales is also found in tales from other Asian cultures. For example, Grayson (2002) in his study of Korean folktales has also found that there is a large set of Korean folktales which are composed of parallel sets of contrasting narratives showing how good actions are rewarded and evil actions punished. It is claimed that the contrastive narrative structure can be found in tales throughout East Asia. However, Grayson distinguishes Korean tales from similar tales in China and Japan as an illustration of the Confucian concept of moral suasion, in addition to the common theme of rewards and punishments. The narrative roles and structures of a Korean reward/ punishment folktale, *The Story of Hungbu and Nolbu*, can be identified as follows:

Kind-hearted younger brother Hungbu: Protagonist A
Greedy older brother Nolbu : Protagonist B
Swallow: Donor
Snake: Guide

Move 1:	The younger brother is introduced.
Events:	The good actions of the younger brother
	The younger brother's reward
Move 2:	The older brother is introduced.
Events:	The evil actions of the older brother
	The punishment of the older brother

Similar to the Myanmar folktale *The Golden Crow*, the Korean folktale *The Story of Hungbu and Nolbu* is also composed of two equal narrative sections or acts/moves, each consisting of two scenes which balance each other with parallel narrative content but come to a different conclusion, or dénouement. The first act or Move 1 gives a didactic moral point by showing the good motives and their consequences, while the second act or Move 2, which is formally identical to the first, contrasts the narrative content of the previous act to emphasis on the punishment which arises from bad motives.

Interestingly, a similar parallel set of contrasting narratives on how good actions are rewarded and evil actions are punished is also found in *The King of the Mosquitoes* - a folktale of Brunei Darussalam (Eugenio, 1995). The four narrative roles in the tale are distributed as follows.

Good-natured younger sister:	Protagonist A
Bad-tempered older sister:	Protagonist B
King of the mosquitoes:	Donor
Mosquitoes and *nipah* leaves:	Guide

Similar to the Myanmar folktale *The Golden Crow*, and the Korean folktale *The Story of Hungbu and Nolbu,* a folktale of Brunei Darussalam *The King of the Mosquitoes* is also made up of two narrative sections or acts/moves, each consisting of the mother (a widow) asking the two girls (younger and older sisters) to gather *nipah* leaves for their house roof. While they were gathering *nipah* leaves, a few mosquitoes came and bit them. To express their anger, the

sisters (each in turn) asked the mosquitoes to bring them to their king. The king of mosquitoes set the tests/tasks – asking them to cook their own food using worms as rice, blood as water, animal bones as firewood and an old skull as the cooking pot. The younger sister reacted calmly and humbly and was rewarded with a box of gold and diamonds. The elder sister failed the test, and the box given to her contained poisonous snakes.

A comparison among the folktales with the reward/punishment narrative structure from Myanmar, Korea and Brunei Darussalam reveals that different cultures may offer different tasks or tests for the protagonists; nevertheless, the underlying message of what is morally or ethically right, what is wrong and what can be their consequences is proved to be the same. Although a comparison of narrative content in the three tales reveals certain culture-specific elements, for example, the choice of Protagonists (widows and their daughters versus the elder and younger brothers), Donor (a golden crow versus a swallow versus the king of the mosquitoes), and Guide (a tray of paddy versus a snake versus mosquitoes and *nipah* leaves); the nature of rewards and punishments and the social purpose of teaching morally significant issues on what is right and its consequences are common in tales from all the three cultures. Moreover, such morally significant issues are foregrounded in all the three tales when they are placed in parallel against what is wrong and its consequences.

Interdiction/Violation

In this model, the violation of an interdiction or a contract between the two protagonists will lead to a movement from equilibrium to disequilibrium. The preservation of an interdiction or a contract between the two protagonists, on the other hand, will lead to the continuation of equilibrium. Thus the structure of those tales with Interdiction/ violation model can be summarized as

Interdiction → Preservation → Equilibrium maintained (or)
Interdiction → Violation → Disequilibrium

In a Myanmar folktale *The Great King Eats Chaff* (Maung Htin Aung, 1976) as an example, the narrative roles and functional events making up the story line of the tale can be outlined as follows.

Protagonist A: The King
Protagonist B: The Attendant

Protagonists are introduced.
The great king, with only one attendant, went incognito for a stroll in his city. He stopped to watch an old woman pounding paddy.

Event 1 Equilibrium between the protagonists.
The chaff which the old woman threw away after her pounding smelt very sweet, and the king was seized with an overmastering desire to eat it. He walked on for a few yards, and then ordered his attendant to go back and bring some of the chaff as he wanted to eat it. The attendant was shocked and protested that it was a disgraceful thing for a great king to eat chaff, which was food fit only for animals. But the king insisted. So the chaff had to be fetched, and the king ate it with relish.

Event 2 An interdiction is made between the protagonists.
Then the great king said to the attendant, "If you tell about this to anyone, off goes your head."

Event 3 Protagonist B is tested.
When the attendant reached home he was seized with an itch to tell. He tried to eat, he tried to sleep, and he tried to sing, but to no purpose, the itch to tell remained. "If only I could whisper it out," he thought. Two or three days passed, and the attendant became ill and haggard, but the itch to tell still tortured him.

Event 4 Interaction is violated.
In the end, he went to the forest and, putting his head in the hollow of a big tree, whisper fervently, "The great king eats chaff. The great king eats chaff. The great king eats chaff."

Event 5 Discovery of violation and the end of equilibrium.
Many months later, as the big palace drum which announced the hours to the people becoming too old to remain serviceable for long, a new drum had to be ordered. The drum-makers went to the forest and cut down a big tree, to use its wood for the new drum. It happened that the tree they cut down was the very tree in the hollow of which the attendant had whispered out his secret. At last the new drum was ready. It was a beautiful thing. With great ceremony, and before a huge crowd of people, the new drum was installed; but when the drum was beaten, it did not say "boom, boom" as is usual with all drums, but said instead, "The great king eats chaff. The great king eats chaff."

A similar narrative structure is also found in an Indian folktale *BabbanHajjaam* (BabbanHajjaam and Other Stories, 1979).

Narrative roles:	
Protagonist A:	Nawab Anwar (the ruler)
Protagonist B:	BabbanHajjaam (the court barber)

An interdiction was made to keep the secret between the ruler Nawab Anwar and the court barber BabbanHajjaam, after BabbanHajjaam found out that Nawab Anwar was born with donkey's ears. BabbanHajjaam was seized with an itch to tell. In the end, he disclosed the secret to a hole dug near a deodar tree. When the tree was cut and made into musical instruments, the instruments revealed the secret at a recital. Similar to the Myanmar folktale *The Great King Eats Chaff,* the narrative structure of the Indian tale *BabbanHajjaam* can be summarized as:

Interdiction → Violation → Disequilibrium

A comparison between the two common structural patterns identified in the analysis of folktales of Myanmar and those folktales from other Asian cultures shows that despite certain culture-specific narrative contents, tales with similar social purposes (e.g., a didactic moral purpose) exhibit similar structural patterns. Such findings suggest that certain structural patterns are used commonly (if not universally) by various cultures for similar social purpose of storytelling. At the same time, the findings also imply that although different cultures may share the same structural pattern, the narrative contents of a tale (e.g., elements taking up the narrative roles) remain to be culture-specific.

Pedagogical Implications: Promoting Learners' Cross-cultural Awareness

It is often claimed that in most Asian cultures, folktales have been preserved for generations not only as a reflection of a particular culture but also as a means of instilling certain concepts in the society (Eugenio, 1995; Grayson, 2002). Understanding their similarities and differences (as shown in the above comparative analyses of some sample folktales from Myanmar, Korea, Brunei Darussalam and India) point to the possibilities of using such

Asian folktales having been translated into English for promoting English language learners' cross-cultural awareness.

According to Bean (1999), the characteristic of universality or similarity of the fundamental event sequence in folktales from various cultures makes these tales "one of the most accessible vehicles for language learning" (p. 58). Familiar themes of honesty, kindness, jealousy, greed or other moral issues and familiar narrative structures such as the reward/punishment and interdiction/violation models in these tales can also motivate learners to listen or read with confidence (Taylor, 2000). In other words, familiarity with the underlying narrative structure and messages in a tale allows learners to use more cognitive space to pay attention to the language features. This in turn tends to facilitate their understanding of how specific vocabulary and grammatical patterns of English can be used to realize meanings which are familiar to them. Above all, folktales can be used as a pedagogical springboard to help learners develop skills in using the language to make critical or imaginative responses, and to explore language and culture simultaneously (Bean, 1999; Taylor, 2000). Tales with familiar themes or similar types of characters and events from other cultures can motivate learners to make comparisons, highlight similarities and differences, provide critical responses and justify opinions.

To illustrate, in the Myanmar folktale, through the kind actions and modest choices made by Protagonist A and the ways rewards were given for her contentment, the tale appears to be instilling the concept of contentment, a virtue particularly valued in Theravada Buddhism and the Burmese culture. Conversely, through the inhospitable actions and greedy choices made by Protagonist B and the punishment she received for her greed, the tale exposes the negative association of greed. In the teaching of Theravada Buddhism, greed is an element, along with anger and delusion, which is believed to be the root of immoral *kamma* (a Pali word meaning action). Accordingly, greed is an element that one needs to eradicate in the quest to attain *nirvana* (i.e., the state of being free from suffering) in Theravada Buddhism, the religion of the majority of Burmese people. In similar ways, the example of the Korean folk tales shows how the kind actions are rewarded and the malicious ones are punished; this illustrates how the cultural norms of social assistance are (re)affirmed by the tale and how seriously the violations of cultural norms are treated. However, it is claimed that through the portrayal of how the kind and virtuous younger brother whose generous actions and kind life is rewarded while the greed and maliciousness of the older brother is severely punished, the

tale's purpose is not simply to show good is rewarded and evil punished (Grayson, 2002). The tale also reflects certain Confucian values, specifically the social relationships between the elder and younger brothers, which have been embedded in Korean society.

Similar comparisons can be made between the Myanmar folktale *The Golden Crow* and the folktale of Brunei Darussalam *The King of the Mosquitoes*. In the Myanmar folktale the two mothers (the widows) asked their respective daughter to watch a tray of paddy which was being dried in the sun. In the folktale of Brunei Darussalam, which has a similar narrative structure, the mother (a widow) asked her two daughters (younger and older sisters) to gather *nipah* leaves for their house roof. After having learners read the two tales, teachers might pose a series of questions as follows:

- Why do you think "a tray of paddy" was featured in the Myanmar tale? Why was it not "a loaf of bread"?
- Why do you think "*nipah* leaves" was featured in the tale from Brunei Darussalam?
- Why do you think the crow was chosen to be the bird that came and ate up the paddy?
- What do you think gold and its color (as in "gold feather" "gold ladder" and "gold plate") symbolize for the people and culture in which this tale was originated?
- Why do you think the worms, blood, animal bones and old skull were featured as ingredients for cooking in the test set for the two sisters by the King of Mosquitoes in the tale from Brunei Darussalam?

Comparing the Myanmar folktale *The Great King Eats Chaff* and the Indian folktale *BabbanHajjaam,* teachers can ask questions such as:

- Why do you think chaff was featured in the tale from Myanmar?
- Why do you think a barber was featured in the tale from India?
- How important is keeping an interdiction set by the King/the Ruler in a particular culture?
- In your opinion, how fair was the interdiction made between the King/the Ruler and the attendant/court barber?

Learners from different cultures tend to have different beliefs, attitudes and experiences about humor, wits and wisdom, and thus are likely to respond differently to the interdiction and preservation/violation made in such tales.

In sum, teachers can facilitate learners in carefully examining the cultural assumptions present in folktale of different countries, and help them explore and learn how these cultural assumptions match or differ in tales from various cultures. The aim of the above sample questions is to help learners recognize the close relationship between language and culture. Language, as a system for organizing the experience of people, emphasizes whatever is prevalent or important to the culture of the people. For example, the paddy and the crow in a Myanmar folktale represent the staple food of the Myanmar people and a common type of birds found in that country respectively. Even though a folktale from another culture may share the same reward/punishment storyline with *The Golden Crow,* a comparison between the two tales will reveal certain culture-specific narrative contents in each. By having learners discuss and share their responses to these similarities and differences using the target language – English, teachers can use folktales to provide opportunities for learners to develop skills in using the target language to make critical responses (e.g. to questions on why a particular type of food, bird and color was chosen to be featured in the tale) and imaginative responses (e.g. to questions on what if the other types of food, bird and color were to replace those featured in the tale). When done in class, folktales can serve as a springboard for such task-based talk among learners, supporting the socio-cultural-based English language teaching and learning.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

According to Taylor (2000), folktales fit well with communicative approaches that focus on teaching language for communicating meaning. When folktales are used in language classes, the cultural elements of folktales also help to bridge common ground between cultures and at the same time bring out differences between them (Taylor, 2000). That is to say, folktales are useful for developing in the learners what Luciana (2005) calls attitudes of curiosity and openness – which is the prime catalyst for developing intercultural competence. Through a comparative analysis of folktales from the learners' culture and those from other Asian cultures, and an understanding of similarities and differences among them in terms of narrative structures and contents, learners can

develop not only a critical understanding of their own culture but also an awareness of the rich cultural diversities of Asian societies. Such cross-cultural awareness can then be developed into the ability to effectively and appropriately communicate and work with people from diverse cultural backgrounds in Asia, using English as a lingua franca in the 21st century.

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MOBILE LEARNING TO IMPROVE WRITING IN ESL TEACHING

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Abstract: This article reports on the results of a study concerning the type of texts and their features produced by a student after using mobile technology as a support to improve the development of the students' writing skills in a second language. The Functional Systemic Linguistic (FSL), Genre Pedagogical Approach (GPA), and mobile learning concepts were employed as theoretical framework. The participant of the research was a freshman student that belongs to an English narrative course in a private university of the Caribbean region, Universidad Del Norte in Barranquilla, Colombia. This case study analyzed the student's writing during a period of eight-week course, which was then complemented with an interview conducted by the researcher. The results reveal that genre approach can be implemented with mobile technology to increase students' writing ability.

Keywords: genre pedagogy, second language, writing skills, mobile learning

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The gradual inclusion of new information and communication technologies in educational contexts has not been a new or a unique element. Hanson-Smith (2000) states that discussion on the use of technology (the use of cassettes, tape recorders, etc.) in classrooms had already started in the 1960s; at that time technology was mentioned as an instrument to facilitate the teaching of second language. Currently, technology in classroom has included the implementation of mobile devices to support the teaching and learning processes (Naish, 2005; O'Connell & Smith, 2007).

Mobile Learning

Teaching languages especially foreign languages assisted by computers or CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) and by mobile device or MALL (Mobile-Assisted Language Learning) is an example of how new communication technologies can be used to serve the learning objectives (Stockwell, 2010). Within this approach, mobile learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge through mobile devices. This means that learning takes place anywhere and any time. Its implementation apparently serves not as a new way to learn languages but rather as a complement to specific learning activities in the educative context (Venkatesh, Nargundkar, Sayed, & Shahaida, 2006; Martin & Ertzberger, 2013). This was done because not all learning contents can be transmitted through mobile technology (Taylor, 2007). Contents used in mobile learning must be short and light so they allow for feedback and periodical revision due to the mobility implied (Looi, et al., 2010).

One of the options for mobile learning includes "Podcasts" (audio or video files transmitted through Internet) which are media to show contents and are considered useful to facilitate learning English as a foreign language (McCarthy, 2005) because they allow students to practice their skills outside the classroom. The great benefits of podcasts include their easy download, not only on PCs but also on any mobile device, which then leads to increasing mobility of their users.

The Functional-Systemic Approach

Functional Systemic Linguistics (FSL) conceives language as a resource to build, elaborate and explain meanings immersed in the social and cultural context (Eggins, 2004). Its main objective is to know how language works in particular settings and cultural background that allows an understanding of what takes place in the context (Ghio & Fernández, 2005).

A text genre is determined by the culture in which the text is used. For this reason, different cultures reach their objectives through language in different ways (Derewianka, 1990). This is to say that people belonging to the same culture share social objectives using language and taking into account the topic discussed both in written or spoken contexts. Social contexts are molded by people who use the language (Colombi, 2009).

On the other hand, Schleppegrell (2006) defines FSL as a theory of language which offers tools to identify linguistic characteristics which are relevant

in the construction of different kinds of texts. This way, using LSF, students learn to be conscious of three language functions: *ideational* (language is used to represent experiences), *interpersonal* (language is used to interact with others), and *textual* (language is used to construct coherent discourses (Lirola, 2006).

Genre Pedagogical Approach (GPA)

Former pedagogies to approach the study of this ability emphasized on the form of the text. This is to say that the development of writing skills in a foreign language was centered in the ability to construct coherent grammatical structures, especially in the formal aspects of the text, leaving apart the relation existing between the context and the written text. Additionally, the role of the teacher consisted of presenting students model texts to simply be adapted (Tribble, 1996; Lirola & Cuevas, 2008). At the same time, students were not taught the common linguistic characteristics of a specific genre, which allow them to predict their context (Lirola & Cuevas, 2008).

In contrast with the former pedagogy, the pedagogic approach based on genre (types of texts) which appeared in the 80s, has become a central concept in the studies of teaching writing in a second language (Tardy, 2011). Several scholars (Martin, 1985; Christie, 1987; Martin 1992; Feez, 1998) within the context of Functional Systemic Linguistics (FSL) initially developed this approach in Australia.

In the genre approach, language is a dynamic and open system where genres are used as a starting point to model, deconstruct and understand language (Rose, 2008). For many language teachers, this pedagogical approach has been favorable because it offers valuable resources to help all kinds of students to produce efficient texts (Hyland, 2007; Tangpermpoon, 2008; Lirola, 2006).

The GPA is used to design the content of the podcasts in this study because the narrative course in which the research is carried out is taught under the Genre Pedagogical Approach.

Text Qualities

Other characteristics of texts were analyzed in this study, such as coherence. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), coherence is defined as the meaning relations existing within a text. Likewise, Nunan (1999) describes it as

words or phrases, which allow the writer to establish links that helps to put sentences together.

The genres used in this study were personal recounts, autobiography and short story. Firstly, personal recounts are texts that reconstruct a past experience containing a series of events, and its aim is to retell them with the purpose of entertaining or informing (Martin & Rose, 2008; Derewianka, 1990; Feez, 2002). The genre structure contains a first stage called orientation where basic information for contextualization for the reader or listener is provided. Then, a series of events are described, and the last stage called reorientation is a personal comment to evaluate the experience.

Secondly, autobiographies are texts used to tell significant events in the life of the writer. The structure usually explicitly identifies time periods of life (*When I lived with X)*. According to Rose (2008), the genre structure presents an orientation and a series of significant events in the participant's life. Lastly, short stories are texts that require the following structure: an orientation, a complication and a resolution (Feez, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2008). Its purpose is for entertainment or to deal with an issue. The particular language characteristics of this kind of text are: a series of clauses in the past tense, linked with time markers such as: *yesterday*, *last week,* etc.

This study is focused on how the genre pedagogy through mobile learning improves English text qualities of a Colombian student in a private university. These following two research questions guide the study:

1. What type of texts does the participant produce better after the implementation of genre pedagogy with podcasts?
2. What are the patterns of the texts elaborated by the participant after the use of genre pedagogy with podcasts?

METHOD

This research was developed with the case study modality, as defined by Sampieri and Mendoza (2008, p. 162): "a research, that through quantitative and qualitative or mixed processes analyzes an integral unit in depth to respond to the problem stated, to prove a hypothesis and to develop theory". Subjects were selected taking into account their availability to participate in the research experience.

This case study follows Sampieri and Mendoza's (2008) guidelines for the study of mixed and sequential cases implemented in one single subject. In other

words, it examines one single human unit with qualitative and quantitative methods implemented in a sequence. The advantages of a case study make it a conventional tool for using it in quantitative and qualitative research, as they offer deeper and richer information (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2007).

The subject of this research was an International Relation student from Universidad del Norte, Colombia. The 19-year-old freshman student attended a narrative class with the researcher, and volunteered for the study. Her English level according to the Common European Framework was B1. This process was developed in an eight-week period.

The case study was developed from a semi-structured interview, which aimed at eliciting several aspects of student's experience with podcasts. This includes the way the student used the podcasts and how it influences her motivation and attention in class. Some of the questions respond to topics already studied in her narrative class, which have helped create a framework to understand the study object (see Appendix 1).

First of all, the participant produced an initial text of each type (personal recounts, autobiography and short stories) before receiving the explicit instruction (in class) of the aim of each stage of the types of texts (the genre structure) and the linguistic characteristics of the different types of texts with the purpose of identifying the state of her writing skills. After the first production, a mobile device with a podcast about the type of text studied in class is given to the student. The podcasts previously designed by the teacher contained the structure of the types of narrative texts with graphic organizers.

The participant took the mobile device home for two weeks. In the third week, prior to instutional tests, the participant rewrote the type of text already checked to identify the state of the writing skills after using the podcast. The intention was to distinguish which aspects (steps of the genre structure, text unit, graphology and spelling) had improved.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

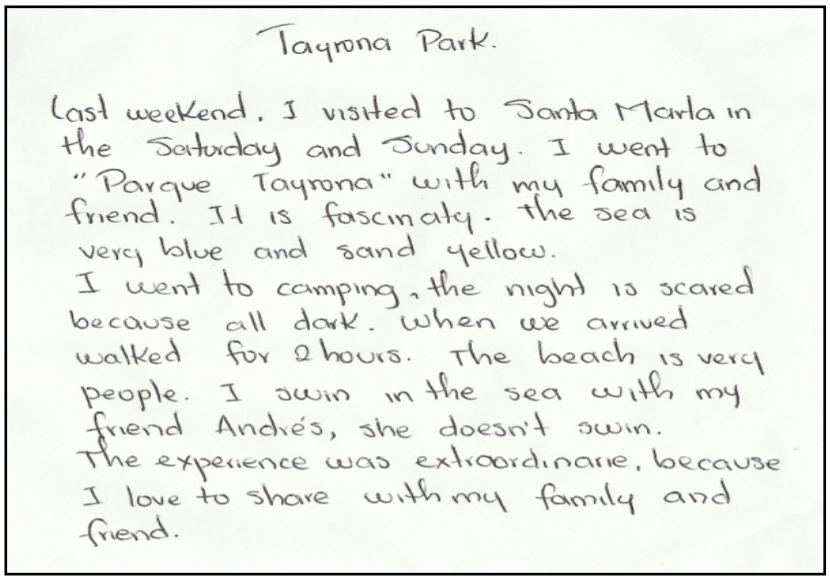
Findings

The written production of the participant was analyzed in relation to linguistic patterns and genre characteristics presented before and after checking the podcasts. The analysis of the texts (personal recounts, autobiography and

short stories) was based on four aspects: the genre structure, the text unit, and the graphology aspects. The first one, the genre structure, refers to the organization of steps that a genre must complete to achieve its aim (Rose, 2008). The text unit refers to cohesion; the grammatical aspects refer to sentence construction in declarative ways and the group of processes (verbs) and, finally to spelling and punctuation (Feez, 2002). When writing personal recount text, the participant was asked to narrate the events developed during the weekend. In autobiography she wrote about the most significant events in her life. Finally, in short story, she was asked to rewrite a brief story after reading it. In this case the short story was "*The window*", an anonymous short story with a moral.

Analysis of Personal Recount Text

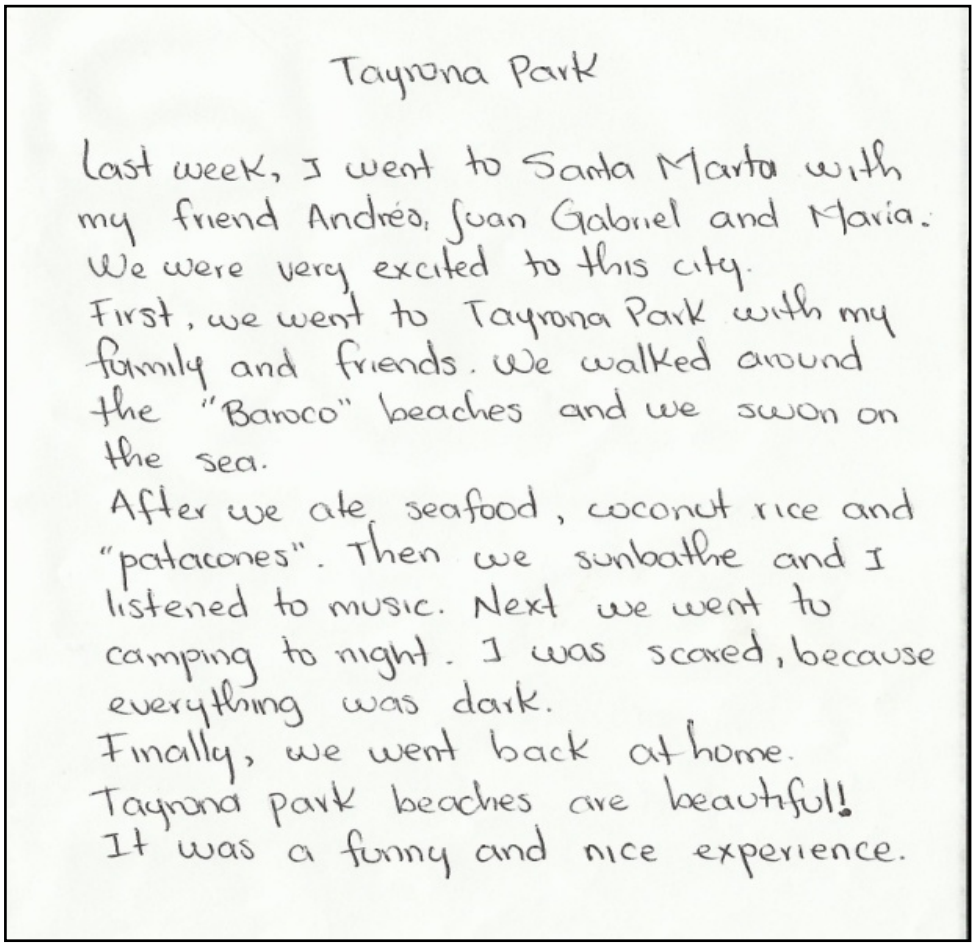
Figure 1 and 2 describe the comparison of the student's writing before and after the implementation of podcasts in mobile devices. The student took approximately 25 minutes writing the initial personal recount. While in the second production, the student took less time. The podcast showed a fish graphic organizer with the structure of a personal recount.



Tayrona Park.

Last weekend, I visited to Santa Marta in the Saturday and Sunday. I went to "Parque Tayrona" with my family and friend. It is fascinaty. the sea is very blue and sand yellow.
I went to camping, the night is scared because all dark. When we arrived walked for 2 hours. The beach is very people. I swin in the sea with my friend Andrés, she doesn't swin.
The experience was extraordinarie, because I love to share with my family and friend.

Figure 1: Subject's Initial Recount



Tayrona Park

Last week, I went to Santa Marta with my friend Andrés, Juan Gabriel and Maria. We were very excited to this city.
First, we went to Tayrona Park with my family and friends. We walked around the "Banco" beaches and we swon on the sea.
After we ate seafood, coconut rice and "patacones". Then we sunbathe and I listened to music. Next we went to camping to night. I was scared, because everything was dark.
Finally, we went back at home.
Tayrona park beaches are beautiful!
It was a funny and nice experience.

Figure 2: Subject's Final Recount

Having compared both texts, it can be observed that the quality of the second text was better, and the student seemed to have developed in several aspects. Table 1 lists a short summary of the main aspects in which the quality of both products differs quite significantly.

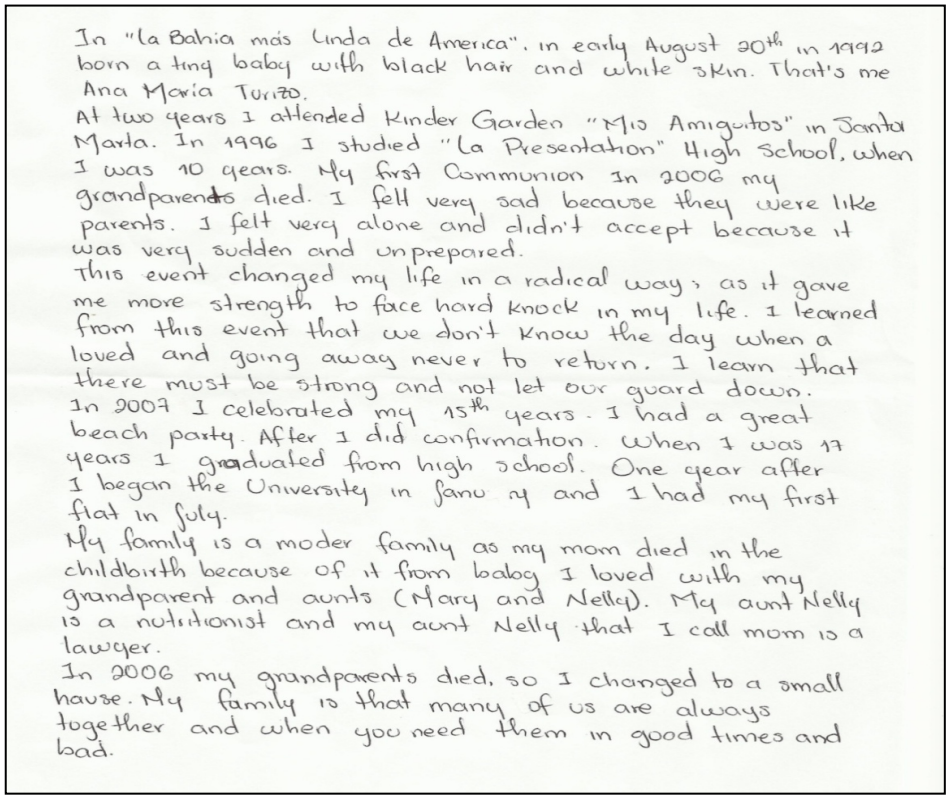
Table 1. Difference in Recounting: Initial and Final

INITIAL	FINAL
Genre Structure	
The text hardly shows the fundamental parts of recounting. There are no defined separations between the sequence of events and the orientation. There is no description of the trip events, although there is a reorientation which fulfills the objective of evaluating the travelling experience.	The text shows clearly the three stages of recounting: orientation, events and reorientation. In the reorientation, she adds another participant, which she had not included in her first recount. She also shows a clearer and more elaborate language when compared with the first text. For example, she changes the action of visiting for: *I went to Santa Marta.*
Text Unit- Cohesion	
There is a weak use of logic connectors and referents that allow a better understanding of the context. Likewise, the text lacks the use of appropriate pronouns to refer to what has been previously mentioned. There is no lexical variety. That is, she needs more terms for every sub-topic. For example in line 3, when she mentions the place (Parque Tayrona, she tries to describe it.	It includes some of the sequence connectors corresponding to narrative texts, such as: *first, after, finally,* which allow a better text organization and the establishment of a logical order of ideas. The text shows an improvement in lexical cohesion. For example, at the end of the text she includes words to describe the experience: *It was a funny and nice experience.*
Spelling and Punctuation	
There are spelling mistakes, such as: *fascinaty* and *extraordinarie.* It seems to be a negative transfer from French to English.	Absence of spelling mistakes shows improvement.
Grammatical Aspects	
Most actions are in the past tense, such as *visited, went,* and *arrived.* Nevertheless, there are state actions in the present tense that should be in the past form, such as: *is.* There is a mixture of present and past:	The text shows appropriate language characteristics for recount text. This means that all the actions that happened in the past are expressed in the past tense. Nevertheless, there is an action which is still in the present tense: *we sunbathe.*

She doesn't swam. There is transfer from the mother tongue: the appropriate order of adjectives: *sand yellow*. There are also inadequate grammar constructions: *The beach is people. The night is scared.*	

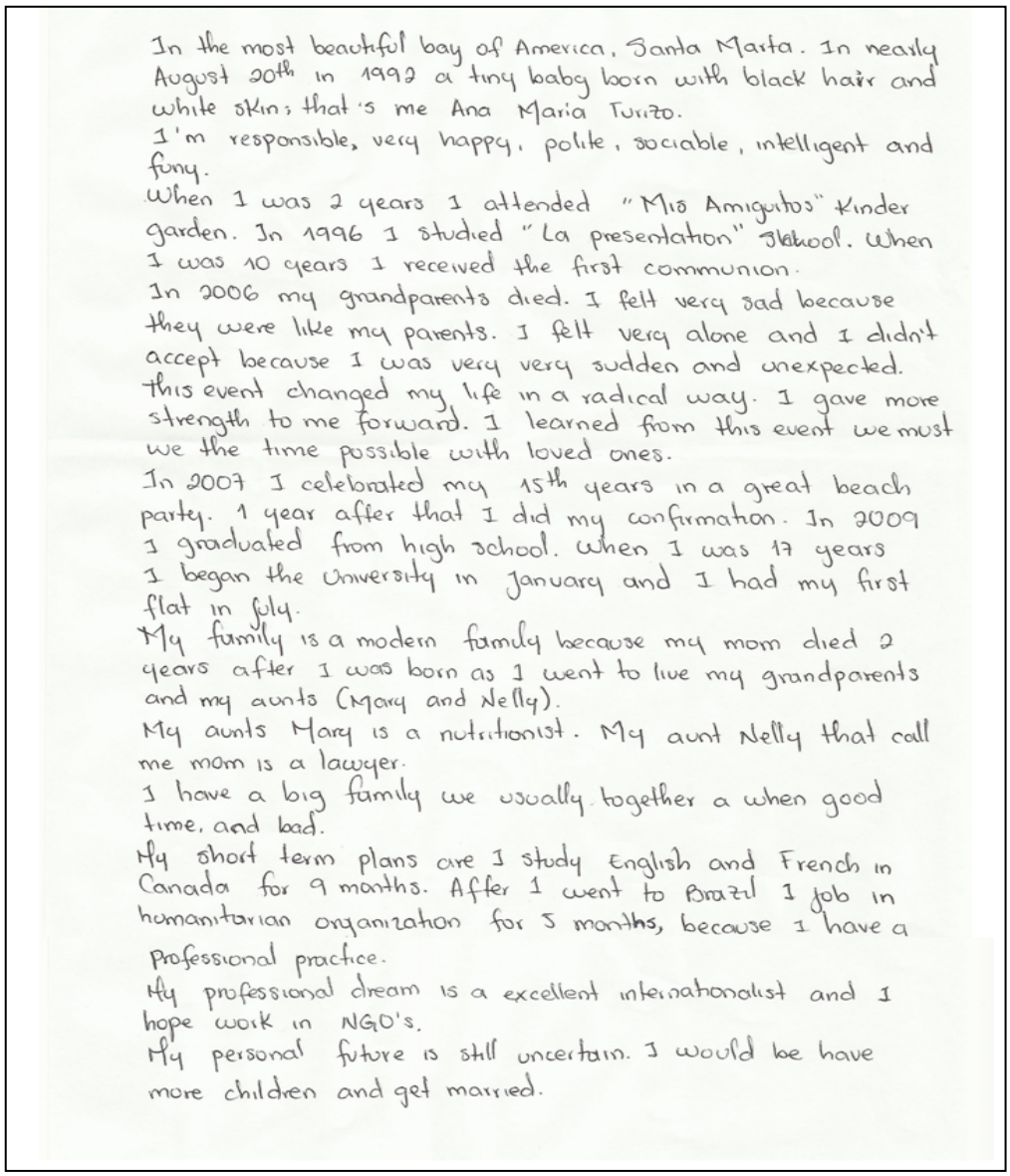
Analysis of Autobiography Text

Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the autobiographies recounted by the participant before and after the experience of the implementation of podcasts.



In "la Bahia más Linda de America", in early August 20th in 1992 born a ting baby with black hair and white skin. That's me Ana María Turizo.
At two years I attended Kinder Garden "Mis Amiguitos" in Santa Marta. In 1996 I studied "La Presentation" High School, when I was 10 years. My first Communion in 2006 my grandparents died. I felt very sad because they were like parents. I felt very alone and didn't accept because it was very sudden and unprepared.
This event changed my life in a radical way; as it gave me more strength to face hard knock in my life. I learned from this event that we don't know the day when a loved and going away never to return. I learn that there must be strong and not let our guard down.
In 2007 I celebrated my 15th years. I had a great beach party. After I did confirmation. When I was 17 years I graduated from high school. One year after I began the University in Janu ry and I had my first flat in July.
My family is a moder family as my mom died in the childbirth because of it from baby I loved with my grandparent and aunts (Mary and Nelly). My aunt Nelly is a nutritionist and my aunt Nelly that I call mom is a lawyer.
In 2006 my grandparents died, so I changed to a small hause. My family is that many of us are always together and when you need them in good times and bad.

Figure 3: Subject's Initial Autobiography



In the most beautiful bay of America, Santa Marta. In nearly August 20th in 1992 a tiny baby born with black hair and white skin; that's me Ana Maria Turizo.
I'm responsible, very happy, polite, sociable, intelligent and funy.
When I was 2 years I attended "Mis Amiguitos" Kinder garden. In 1996 I studied "La presentation" School. When I was 10 years I received the first communion.
In 2006 my grandparents died. I felt very sad because they were like my parents. I felt very alone and I didn't accept because I was very very sudden and unexpected. this event changed my life in a radical way. I gave more strength to me forward. I learned from this event we must we the time possible with loved ones.
In 2007 I celebrated my 15th years in a great beach party. 1 year after that I did my confirmation. In 2009 I graduated from high school. when I was 17 years I began the University in January and I had my first flat in July.
My family is a modern family because my mom died 2 years after I was born as I went to live my grandparents and my aunts (Mary and Nelly).
My aunts Mary is a nutritionist. My aunt Nelly that call me mom is a lawyer.
I have a big family we usually together a when good time, and bad.
My short term plans are I study English and French in Canada for 9 months. After I went to Brazil I job in humanitarian organization for 5 months, because I have a Professional practice.
My professional dream is a excellent internationalist and I hope work in NGO's.
My personal future is still uncertain. I would be have more children and get married.

Figure 4: Subject's Final Autobiography

The following Table 2 shows in detail the analysis of the autobiography of the participant before and after the use of podcasts designed by the teacher.

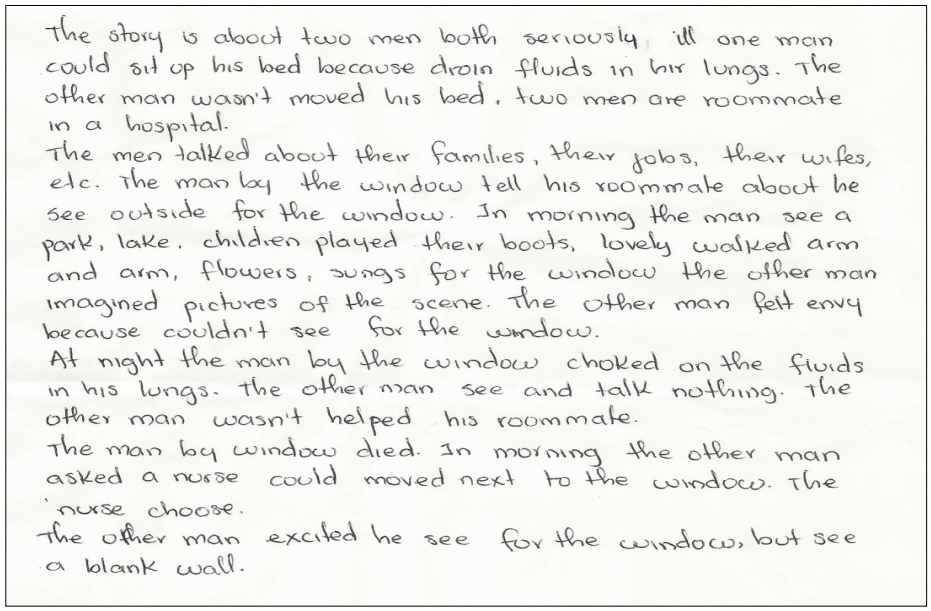
Table 2. Differences in the Autobiography Production

INITIAL	FINAL
Genre Structure	
The text shows orientation and events recount but it does not have a reorientation. In the orientation we could observe how the participant identifies herself and mentions her birth date and place. Then, she mentions a series of chronological events about her life. Nevertheless, there is a short non-logical description of her family at the end of the events.	The text describes the stages of the autobiography: an orientation where the participant describes details about her personality, a sequence of events, and a reorientation where she expresses her future plans.
Text Unit-Cohesion	
Absence of logical connectors or their inappropriate use is observed. These make events appear in a compact manner without demarcation, which affects logic and sense of narration. An example of the incorrect use of connectors is in line 15: *I had a great beach party. After I did a confirmation.* One good example is in paragraph 3: *one year after* where she presents an appropriate use. There is transfer from L1 to L2: *It gave me more strength to face hard knock in my life*.	Although the text has few connectors in relation to the autobiography genre, there is more clarity of the ideas. Nevertheless some connectors are used inappropriately. For example, in line 20: *My family is a modern family because my mom died 2 years after I was born.* She uses terms related to her future plans in the reorientation stage: *My short term plans, my professional dreams, and my personal future*. The text shows improvement in the construction of sentences with simple arguments: *I learned from this event that we must use the time possible with loved ones.*
Spelling and Punctuation	
The text does not have relevant spelling problems.	The text does not show spelling problems. It is similar to the first one.

Grammatical Aspects	
There is confusion of process verbs: *I would be have more children.* There is also confusion with verbal forms. For example, she uses future expressions, but the actions are in the past.	There is more coherence in the ideas even though there is negative transfer from L1 to L2 (Spanish). For example, in line 6: *When I was 2 years I attended….* and line 8: *…I received the first communion.*

Analysis of Short Story Text

The following Figures 5 and 6 show in detail the short story genre production before and after the experience of podcasts implementation.



The story is about two men both seriously ill one man could sit up his bed because drain fluids in his lungs. The other man wasn't moved his bed, two men are roommate in a hospital.
The men talked about their families, their jobs, their wifes, etc. The man by the window tell his roommate about he see outside for the window. In morning the man see a park, lake, children played their boots, lovely walked arm and arm, flowers, sungs for the window the other man imagined pictures of the scene. The other man felt envy because couldn't see for the window.
At night the man by the window choked on the fluids in his lungs. the other man see and talk nothing. The other man wasn't helped his roommate.
The man by window died. In morning the other man asked a nurse could moved next to the window. The nurse choose.
The other man excited he see for the window, but see a blank wall.

Figure 5: Subject's Initial Short story

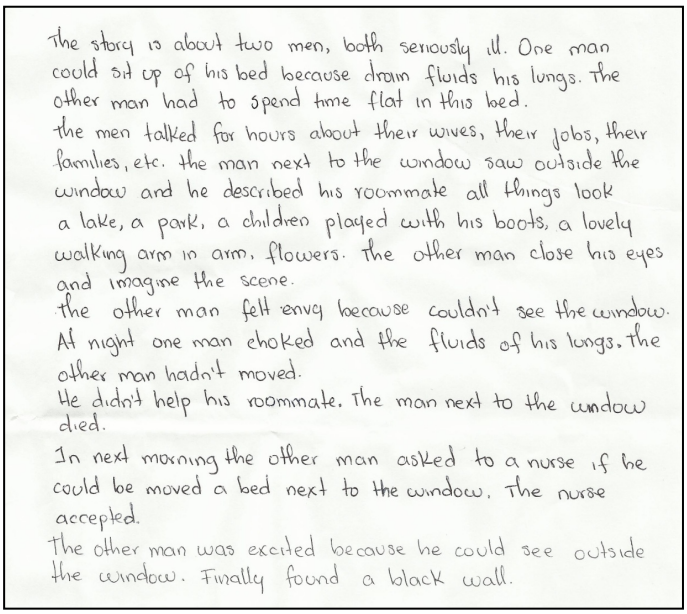

The story is about two men, both seriously ill. One man could sit up of his bed because drain fluids his lungs. The other man had to spend time flat in this bed.
the men talked for hours about their wives, their jobs, their families, etc. the man next to the window saw outside the window and he described his roommate all things look a lake, a park, a children played with his boots, a lovely walking arm in arm, flowers. the other man close his eyes and imagine the scene.
the other man felt envy because couldn't see the window.
At night one man choked and the fluids of his lungs. the other man hadn't moved.
He didn't help his roommate. The man next to the window died.
In next morning the other man asked to a nurse if he could be moved a bed next to the window. The nurse accepted.
The other man was excited because he could see outside the window. Finally found a black wall.

Figure 6: Subject's Final Short story

The following table summarizes the differences observed in the short story text.

Table 3. Differences in the Initial and Final Short Story Production

INITIAL	FINAL
Genre Structure	
The text has an orientation. However, the sequence of events is not clear and therefore, the knot stage is not identified. It also does not have a resolution stage.	The text shows orientation, and the events in the different stages of the story have details. It is clear also that she has tried to finish with a resolution when she includes the connector *finally*. Nevertheless, she lacks precision. The knot dilutes in the events and it is hard to identify it. It is worth mentioning that the participant uses almost the same terms as in the first production.

Text Unit- Cohesion	
The text needs logical connectors to make the story flow smoothly and help readers understand the story events. There are pronoun references, but in some occasions, they are inappropriate. For example, in line 2: *one man could sit up of his bed because drain fluids in her lungs.*	The text has very few connectors. It only mentions two: *in next morning* and *Finally*. Moreover, they do not help to connect ideas and make them coherent. The text only shows reference to the personal pronoun *she* and the possessive adjectives *his* and *their*. Other than that, lack of cohesion still remains.
Spelling and Punctuation	
There is lack of appropriate punctuations to help understand the events better. There are problems with the use of capital letters. Very few spelling mistakes, e.g.: *Their wifes*	There is an improvement in the use of capital letters. No spelling mistakes are observed.
Grammatical Aspects	
The text shows sentences lacking processes and therefore understanding is difficult. For example in line 2: *… because drain fluids his lungs. The other man wasn´t moved his bed*. There is negative transfer from L1 (Spanish) to L2, for example in line 9 and 18: *for the window*. Another case is the omission of pronoun *he*; see line 18:*…but see a black wall*. It contains unclear sentences. For example:*...he described his roommate all things look a lake , a park, , a lovely walking arm in arm*.	There is improvement concerning the verbal tenses used although there are still actions in the present simple. For example, in line 8:*…the other man close his eyes and imagine the scene* There is also a better use of the auxiliary verbs as can be seen in line 13: *She didn´t help his roommate.* The text shows some connectors, but they are not used properly.

The text describes some past events using verbs in the present tense. For example, in line 7:

In the morning the man see a park...

On some occasions, she omits the main action of the sentence. See in line 18: *The other man excited she see...*

Analysis of the Interview

The interview dealt with three aspects: (1) learning results which concern the changes perceived by the subject in her abilities to develop written texts of different kinds of narrative genres, (2) the role of podcast in the learning process, and (3) affective factors such as attention and motivation related to the use of technological tools for improving the production of written texts.

Learning Results

The first question concerns the changes observed by participant when writing the three types of texts. The student mentioned that she felt most satisfied with the change in the register of her written production.

After the experience with the podcasts, the texts not only showed appropriate structure as suggested by the narrative course, but also, according to the participant, were more coherent.

During the interview, the participant expressed that aspects such as grammar, coherence and vocabulary improved in her writing as a product of the intervention; this was reflected in a less frequent use of online translators and the construction of more clear and concise sentences. It is important to highlight that the participant acknowledged that autobiographies were the easiest texts to write. The participant stated that referring to a personal and more vivid past experience made it more possible to organize the events chronologically.

Podcasts and the Learning Process

Concerning the question about the use of podcasts for learning, the student reported that she had already used web tools. Nevertheless, she added that she

used the tools mostly for searching information, reproducing music and videos and others. It is worth mentioning that the participant had never thought about the potential use of mobile devices to support her learning process. The student revealed that they undoubtedly had played a crucial role in learning about the structure of types of texts.

During the study sessions, the element the participant considered most important were the summaries she wrote of each topic and of each production. The participant also used the podcasts to guide and revise the production of her writings. Among other aspects, she also described that the mobile device allowed her to access other types of resources, such as websites which gave her support for the development of activities in different topics.

Attention and Motivation in Class

The participant was asked about how the use of mobile devices affects her motivation to attend classes and the attention devoted to them. She acknowledged that the digital materials summarized great part of the class content and therefore, face-to-face teaching was not essential to understand the topics.

> *"You did not really have to go to class to understand a topic because nowadays there is so much technology that you do not have to be there to understand because there (on the video) was everything".*

Regarding the attention, she expressed that she was more attentive, especially during the regular evaluations carried out in the narrative course.

> *"Obviously attention increased as it was the easiest way to understand the topics".*

Discussion

Regarding the first question of this study, personal recounts seem to be the type of texts that are better produced. One of the reasons for this may be the short time taken to retell recent experiences and also, it is one of the most frequent genres used in teaching writing to students in their mother tongue (Chen, 2008). Additionally, recounting is considered one of the simplest narrative text types since events are presented one after the other in their order of occurrence (Feez, 2002). This finding coincides with Chaisiri´s study (2010) that the im-

plementation of genre-based approach may produce promising improvements in students' writing.

On the other hand, concerning the second aspect related to linguistic patterns, there is no significant change in the before and after the written productions, except in the appropriate use of the past tenses. It also seems that irregular verbs were among items that the participant improved the most. It was observed in the second productions that the participant still uses present tenses instead of the past when recounting past events, especially when regular verbs are used. This is in line with the study about the universal order of morpheme acquisition carried out by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) where it was found that the irregular verbs were more promptly absorbed by learners.

Cohesion is another aspect that shows lack of improvement, especially in the appropriate use of connectors, which is recognized as one of the common problems faced by L2 learners (Chen, 2008). In this study a limited use of connectors was found in the second productions of the texts. It is possible that the participant avoided using connectors because she did not know how to use them appropriately.

Additionally, pronouns to substitute information were used the most. Production did not show lexical variety. There is a tendency to repeat the same words along the text (Ong, 2011). All these results agree with what was found in other studies (De Haan, & van Esch 2008; Ong, 2011) where conjunctions and lexical cohesion are found to be the aspects which show more difficulties to manage appropriately.

The implementation of genre-based approach with mobile learning in the study helped the participant to feel interested and motivated in checking the contents related to the types of texts in the mobile device frequently. In other words, the participant showed a positive attitude towards writing activities. This is coherent with the experts, Emilia, Hermawan & Nurhayati (2008) where they concluded that genre approach could empower students personally and cognitively. In general terms, university students have found in those devices the perfect allies to carry out academic activities (Al-Mukhaini, Al-Qayoudhi, & Al-Badi, 2014; Olufadi, 2015).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study implies that the use of mobile technology could be incorporated into a traditional English class, specifically the use of genre approach to work with writing skills. The analysis of the texts produced by the student showed an improved use of the language as well as some progress in the organization of the stages of the genre structure.

These results reveal that the genre approach to increase writing abilities with the support of mobile technology might generate positive results because the participant optimized the quality of the texts she produced in a short period of time. The explicit instruction of the aim of each stage of the types of texts by the teacher plus the support of podcasts where there was also an explanation helped the student to be more aware of how the different stages of text work.

The use of podcasts could also contribute to making students become the main actors of their own learning as they are encouraged to become independent and motivated students who are able to regulate their own learning pace and identify their weaknesses.

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STUDENTS' ABILITY IN USING DISCOURSE MARKERS TO BUILD COHERENCE IN COMPOSITIONS

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Abstract: The study attempts to find out how Indonesian students apply Discourse Markers (DMs) to build coherence in English compositions. It employs a descriptive design, analyzing 52 target DMs and how they are used in 21 argumentative papers. The participants of the study were 21 Master's students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT). The results reveal that the participants employ 44 DMs in 234 occurrences, and use some DMs inappropriately in 118 occurrences. The problematic matters cover: non-equivalent exchange, overuse, surface logic, misinterpreted relation, and mistranslation. The study concludes that although the participants have shown their awareness of using DMs to build coherent compositions, there are areas where improvement is needed to increase their ability in using DMs appropriately and effectively to make their writing better and more logically connected. Recommendations to English teachers are also given as pedagogical implications of this study.

Keywords: discourse markers, coherence, cohesion, argumentative essays.

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Coherence and cohesion are two indispensable aspects in a good writing, including but not limited to writing in English as a second language (L2 writing). A text is coherent if it makes sense and its elements connect one another by the use of cohesive devices such as referents, substitutions, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical cohesions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In writing beyond sentence level, however, using cohesive devices only is not enough to make the text coherent. According to Schiffrin (1987), Tyler and Bro (1992), and Muller (2004), the presence of discourse markers (e.g. *however, accordingly, for example*) can contribute to the coherence of a text in the same way as cohesive devices do.

Although it has long been a subject of research, there is no universal term and definition for DM yet. One of the most influential definitions is from Fraser (1999, p. 931).

> "… a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from a class of conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases and with certain exceptions they signal a relationship between the interpretations of the segment they introduce S1 and the prior segment S2. They have core meaning which is procedural, not conceptual, and their more specific interpretation is 'negotiated' by the context, both linguistic and conceptual."

In his definition, Fraser (1999) elaborates that DM encodes a semantic relationship between units of discourse without changing the semantic relation between them. Based on his definition, DM in this study is defined as a word or a phrase, a conjunction, an adverbial or prepositional phrase that can be used to signal a relationship between the segment they introduce and the previous segments.

As far as writing is concerned, the appropriate use of DMs helps the writer produce an effective text. The presence of DMs in written discourse is similar to things as gestures or non-verbal language in spoken discourse; showing the writer's awareness in organizing the text by marking the development of their argument and guiding the readers towards the writer's preferred interpretations (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Insufficient knowledge and the inappropriate use of DMs may therefore cause difficulty in the coherence interpretation.

Despite its important role, many studies have shown that applying DMs is not an easy matter for second language (L2) learners of English (Cho, 1998;

Bolton, Nelson & Hung, 2002; Narita, Sato & Sugiura, 2004). They report some problems encountered by L2 learners, such as misuse, overuse, and underuse of some DMs. Different from the mentioned studies, Kao and Chen (2011) propose six types of problem commonly encountered by Taiwanese students; they are non-equivalent exchange, overuse, surface logicality, wrong relation, semantic incompletion, and distraction.

The results of a preliminary study conducted by the researchers reveal that composing a coherent text is difficult to Indonesian students. It is not the grammaticality that makes writing become incoherent, but it is the organization and the relationship between ideas. The problems encountered by Indonesian students in using DMs can be categorized into: non-equivalent exchange, overuse, surface logic, misinterpreted relation, and mistranslation problem as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Problems with DMs

Non-Equivalent Exchange	DMs are used to convey the same textual relation in an interchangeable manner when they are not.
Overuse	The context would be coherent in itself without the use of the DMs or that the use is redundant.
Surface Logic	DMs are applied to impose logicality to texts or bridge the gap among propositions when there is no deep logicality in texts.
Misinterpreted relation	The connection represented by the DM does not correspond to the relation that exists between sentences.
Mistranslation	The DMs used are derived from Indonesian-English word-by-word translation, which does not match with the intended meaning in English.

With regard to the previous research findings, the current study attempts to find out the extent to which the Indonesian students learning English use DMs to build coherence in compositions. Before describing the study in details, it needs to be noted that the use of DMs to link units of discourse above the sentence level in written discourse is the only variable examined in this study. Hence, the research problems in the study are: (1) What DMs do students use to build coherence in their compositions? (2) What problems do students encounter in using DMs in their compositions?

METHOD

This is a descriptive study conducted at a Graduate Program in English Language Teaching. The participants are twenty-one (21) Master's (*Magister* Program) students of ELT from the 2nd semester class. During the investigation, the participants were taking the Critical Review of Applied Linguistics (CRAL) course. The sources of the data are participants' CRAL papers of an argumentative genre.

The target DMs in the study are 52 DMs adapted from Fraser's (1999) and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of DMs. Given that some of the DMs are made on the basis of spoken discourse, some alterations are made so that it is applicable for the analysis of DMs in an academic writing context (see Table 2). The semantic relations are partly based on Parrot (2000), Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Swartvik (1985) and *Merriam-Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus* (2012).

Table 2. Taxonomy of DMs Adapted from Fraser's (1999) and Halliday and Hasan's (1976)

Elaborative Markers	
Additive Markers	and, in addition, further, besides, additionally, moreover, furthermore, similarly, likewise
Appositive Markers	otherwise, in other words, that is, in one word
Illustration Markers	for example, for instance
Summative Markers	in short, in sum, in brief, in summary, in conclusion, to sum up
Adversative Markers	
Concessive Markers	but, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, yet, still, though
Corroborative Markers	in fact, indeed, of course
Corrective Markers	instead, on the contrary, rather
Contrastive Markers	on the other hand, in contrast, by contrast, conversely, alternatively
Causal-Inferential Markers	thus, so, therefore, (in) this way, then, hence, in this respect, in this case, consequently, as a result, as a consequence, for this reason, accordingly.

In order to be classified as DMs, certain words and expressions must meet several criteria. Firstly, they must belong to one grammatical class: conjunc-

tions, adverbs, or prepositional phrases. Secondly, they must link linguistic units above the sentence level. Thirdly, the withdrawal of the expression does not affect the grammaticality of the sentence. Lastly, they must perform the function to indicate logical relationship between the two segments they link.

The study involves some steps. The first step is extracting every word and expression that functions as DMs along with their adjacent sentences. The extracted DMs are coded, categorized, and analyzed to identify if they are used properly. To increase the credibility and validity of the results, a triangulation procedure is done by assigning a native speaker who has a Master's degree in TESOL to help the researcher examine the use of individual DM. In addition, there is also participants' verification, aiming to verify and confirm the researcher's interpretation as to why the participants apply such DMs in their writing.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the findings and discussion for each research problem. It is necessary to note that all of the examples here are excerpts extracted verbatim from the participants' compositions without any revision on grammatical errors.

DMs Used by Indonesian ELT Students

The findings show that the participants use 44 different DMs in 234 occurrences, 219 of which are used in the beginning of the sentences, and are always followed by a comma. This shows that participants tend to break a complex sentence into a simple one and simply add a DM at the beginning of the second segment to indicate a change of topic. Their use of DMs supports McCarthy's (1993) claim that a DM can constitute and extend the content of discourse better than a conjunction.

Based on DMs taxonomy adapted from Fraser (1999) and Halliday and Hasan (1976), the results of the study show that there are 234 occurrences of using DMs in the students' argumentative writing. The number of occurrences of each type of taxonomy is in Table 3.

Table 3 shows that there is high frequency for the use of both adversative and causal inferential markers. It is probably related to the nature of the argumentative text. Adversative markers have the highest frequency of occurrence for the participants to show the need in demonstrating their differences on

some issues and to anticipate the opposite ideas from the reader's point of view and try to refute them. The presence of causal inferential markers is predicted for the participants as the need to establish evidence for argumentative claims. In addition, the participants' high-frequency use of additive and illustration markers demonstrates that they elaborate their ideas by giving additional information and showing examples.

Table 3. The DMs Category in the Students' Writing

Types	Occurrences
Adversative Markers	85
Causal Inferential Markers	76
Elaborative Markers	73

Unfortunately, not all adversative markers employed by the participants correspond to the relation between the segments. Often they use adversative markers in additive relations implying that Indonesian ELT students tend to organize their additional information in contrastive manners to achieve what is called argumentative writing. The following excerpts are the illustration of the use of DMs.

1) Many Chinese students were being investigated as they are claimed to have the largest English learning population (Cheng, 2001in Ong, 2011). ***Nevertheless***, Indonesia also has a large number of English learning populations since English has been taught since a very beginning level of education.
2) Mostly, students do mistakes on grammar (Subject-Verb agreement and Noun Phrase), misspelling the words (in the discussion focus on the adjective). ***On the other hand***, students' lack of vocabulary especially adjectives made them difficult to create longer descriptive paragraph.

In both excerpts, the participants use **adversative markers** *nevertheless* (example 1) and *on the other hand* (example 2) to connect segments which have additive relations instead of adversatives. In example 1, the subject is explaining the similarities between China and Indonesia in terms of the number of English learning population. The suitable marker to link the preceding and subsequent segments is *similarly*. In example 2, the subject is elaborating the errors that hinder students from composing a good writing. The error is not only on grammatical accuracy and spelling, but also on the use of vocabulary. Since

the relation between these two segments is additive, the marker is best replaced with *in addition*.

The findings also show that the participants are still unable to differentiate between DMs and conjunctions. Some participants employ a subordinate conjunction (*even though, while, whereas*) in the place of DMs, making the sentence choppy and semantically inappropriate. The example is as follows.

3) Temporary teacher in private school tend to improve they professionalism because they have opportunity to progress their career if they have better achievement in teaching process. ***Eventhough**, temporary teachers who teach in public school tend to be civil servant oriented because there is less attention from government about they career progression.

Example (3) demonstrates the subject's inability to differentiate between subordinate a conjunction and DM. He/she uses *even though* instead of *on the other hand* assuming that *even though* is a DM which is used to connect two contrasting ideas in two different sentences.

Based on the evidence of using subordinate conjunctions instead of DMs, it is obvious that the writers had problems in linking ideas using logical connections, and therefore, it is incoherent. In other words, as ideas are not logically connected, they fail to produce an effective text. Consequently, it may cause difficulties for the reader in interpreting meaning.

Problems Encountered by the Participants in Applying DMs

The findings show that from 234 occurrences, there are several problems in the use of DMs found in the participants' argumentative writing (in 118 occurrences). The problems are classified into: non-equivalent exchange (41 occurrences), overuse (32 occurrences), surface logic (27 occurrences), misinterpreted relation (11 occurrences), and mistranslation (7 occurrences).

When the origin of the problems is traced from their proficiency and a closer examination is done, it reveals that those who are more competent in writing use a wider range of DMs compared to those who are less competent. They use DMs in an interchangeable manner to avoid repetition of the same DM. Another characteristic of the more competent participants is they tend to use DMs as style enhancer to make their writing more sophisticated.

On the other hand, participants of a lower proficiency tend to be consistent in using the small cluster of DMs that might be due to the lack of familiarity with other DMs. In terms of relations between sentences, they tend to turn to DMs they are familiar with when they find difficulties in organizing the arguments in their writing, implying that they have problems in organizing their arguments into a coherent text.

Non-Equivalent Exchange Problems

Non-equivalent exchange is the most common problem found in the participants' compositions, as seen in example (4).

4) Nowadays, information can be obtained from other's writing. ***Yet,*** many people complain that writing is not an easy skill.

The example presents the importance and the problem of writing. In combining the sentences, subject uses DM *yet*. It has been mentioned earlier that *yet* is the less formal equivalent of *nevertheless*, which is used to denote unexpected information with negative to positive ordering. The more appropriate DM is *however* as it is commonly used to introduce a problem.

The non-equivalent problem might stem from how DMs are presented in the textbooks (Zamel, 1983; Field & Yip, 1992). The list of markers in textbooks offer students a wide range of DMs categorized based on the pragmatic function they carry (e.g. additive, adversative) without semantic and grammatical restriction of each marker. Due to this reason, the students may assume that DMs can be used interchangeably as long as they are under the same pragmatic categorization. The students' assumption seems to be confirmed by the absence of an explicit instruction on how each DM may carry different semantic roles in writing.

Overuse Problems

The case of overuse happens when the relation between sentences is so obvious that it does not require any DMs, as seen in the excerpt from the subject's composition below.

5) They are forgiven, religiously; but are they academically being let go? Are there students, ***in fact***, especially at university level that are unaware of the policy of plagiarism in academic life? (sample 12)

In example (5), the subject uses DM *in fact* to emphasize the question on whether or not the students at the university level are aware of the consequences in doing plagiarism. The use of DM *in fact* was unnecessary because the participants already used the word *especially*, and without DM *in fact* the sentences are already coherent.

The reasons for the occurrence of the overuse problem can be classified into three kinds. First, it may come from the writers' perception of the readers. There is a possibility that the writer underestimates the readers' knowledge; or, the writer assumes that the readers would understand their writing as they see it. In both assumptions, the writers strongly believe that sentences must be linked with linking words, in this case, DMs. Second, it might be caused by instruction-induced problems, where the instructors and textbooks over emphasize the use of DMs. The latter source may cause the students to have the idea that there is a positive relationship between the quality of writing and the number of DMs used.

Surface Logic Problems

Surface logic is a type of problem where participants use DMs to impose logic to text, or to bridge the gap among propositions where there is no relation between sentences. Excerpt from the subject's writing below may illustrate the problem.

6) While fluency may in many communicative language course be an initial goal in language teaching, accuracy is achieved to some extent by allowing students to focus on the elements of phonology, grammar, and discourse in their spoken output.
Therefore, teacher can use task-based language teaching and communicative language teaching as the approaches for teaching language to improve learner accuracy and fluency. ***In addition***, jigsaw group technique, play a game, or discussion solutions. ***However,*** make sure that your tasks have a linguistic objective and seize the opportunity to help students to perceive and use the building blocks of language. ***In addition***, don't bore your students to

> death with lifeless, repetition drills, but make the drill as meaningful as possible.

As shown in example (6), there are 4 sentences in one paragraph, all of which begin with a DM. It might be due to misconception about the use of DMs in writing, which is believed to be better. The most glaring example of the surface logic problem is the presence of DM *however* when the segments it connects have no concessive nor adversative relation. The problem might also result from the shortcomings in logic in the participants' thinking process. The relations between arguments are not organized coherently since it relies on DMs to bridge the logical gap. As a result, the ideas are overtly connected by DMs without the existence of such logical relations. In other words, when they find difficulties in expressing their ideas and argument, they turn to DMs to build "superficial link" (Crewe, 1990). From the participants' side, the reason for employing DMs to impose logic is that their argumentative compositions are written for and to their lecturer to read and assess, so they are written with more DMs to avoid incoherent compositions and lower scores.

Misinterpreted Relation Problems

Misinterpreted Relation is a problem where the relation represented by the DM does not correspond to the relation that exists between sentences. It can be attributed to the participants' lack of understanding about the logical relationship within the units of discourse. They misinterpret the relation between sentences, thereby misleading the DMs' use. An example for this is as follows.

> 7) Tasuki (1999) stated that this would indicate that if vocabulary learning is going to be measured by productive use, video is certainly facilitative. ***On the other hand***, video will be most efficient if learners are provided with contextualized sentence models.

The first sentence of the example presents the advantage of using video in vocabulary learning. The second sentence is supporting information on the topic "the advantage of video in language learning". The relationship between the first and the second sentence should be additive instead of contrastive. The appropriate marker for the relation is *in addition* as it describes the characteristic of video in language learning.

Mistranslation Problems

Mistranslation problem occurs when the participants transfer their L1 writing practices to their L2 writing. It might be due to the participants' lack of knowledge and instruction in applying certain markers in writing. It also confirms the previous findings in a way that DMs usage has been shown to be closely linked to L1 and culture (Biber & Finegan, 1988; Altenberg & Tapper, 1998; Mauranen, 1993). The case of mistranslation is provided in the following example.

8) It is clear that Yuwono and Harborn conclude that motives for entering profession influence how teachers in Indonesia construct their professional development. ***On the other side***, teachers reward does not, significantly, influence teacher professionalism.

In example (8), after discussing the influence of teachers' motivation in applying a job on their professional development, the subject continues to present somewhat contrast information. In contrasting his/her information, the subject uses the phrase, *on the other side*, as Indonesian-English word-by-word translation for "*di sisi lain*". The intended meaning is *on the other hand*, but due to the lack of lexical repertoire and practice, the subject translates the phrase into *on the other side* instead of on the other hand.

The findings have shown that EFL learners find problems in using DMs appropriately in compositions. In fact, as a requirement for writing effectively, the use of DMs helps the writer produce a coherent text and get the message across to the readers effectively. However, due to inadequate knowledge of DMs, the absence of DMs does not always necessarily make the text ineffective because in this case the relationship between ideas is implicit. The uses of DMs make it explicit. If the DMs are inappropriately used, sometimes it may disturb the readers in interpreting the meaning or the message, although the meaning may be successfully interpreted. So, such phenomena, basically, indicate the stage where learners are still developing their ability to produce effective text by using DMs.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the findings, it is concluded that although the participants have shown their awareness of using DMs to build coherent compositions, there are

still areas that requires improvement in their ability in using DMs appropriately and effectively.

To increase the efficacy of the use of DMs in Indonesian ELT's writing program, the following points should be of more concern especially to English language teachers. English language teachers/lecturers must give explicit instructions about the role of DMs, particularly how the absence, the misuse and overuse of DMs may reduce the quality of writing. The semantic and syntactic restriction of DMs and conjunctions must be addressed to avoid problems. In addition, lecturers should make it clear to the students that DMs do not create but make the relationship between ideas explicit, and thus clearer. Therefore, it is important for the students not to rely too much on DMs in their writing, but how ideas are well and logically connected, and focus on organizing their arguments smoothly and clearly, instead.

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THE INFLUENCE OF STUDENTS' L1 AND SPOKEN ENGLISH IN ENGLISH WRITING: A CORPUS-BASED RESEARCH

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Abstract: Academic writing requires both style and grammatical correctness; however, efforts in improving the quality of English academic writing by non-native students have been focused on grammar. Structures observed in this study were grammatically correct, but considered unnatural in academic writing genre. This research involves a group of non-native English speaking students who were assigned to submit two different kinds of writing to an online repository: a research paper abstract and a free writing article. A survey to understand the sources of English exposure is also conducted. The objectives of this study are to describe unnatural sequences/Multi Words Units (MWUs) used by the students and to identify the motives of using such sequences. The tools for corpus processing used are *Unitex* and *Antconc*. Corpus of Contemporary American English and British National Corpus are also used as reference corpora for English while the SEAlang Indonesian Corpus is used to validate the influence of first language (L1). The analysis of these sequences with comparison to reference corpora indicated the influence of spoken English and students' L1 (Indonesian). This corresponds to the results of the survey that most of the students are exposed to English mostly via spoken, and non-academic sources (songs, movies, social media, etc).

Keywords: corpus, recurrent patterns, lexical bundle, L1, L2, Academic Writing

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Students pursuing higher education are always required to write academic works such as essays or papers. This can be a challenging task, given that writ-

ten language needs to be distinctive from spoken language (see Biber (2006a); Biber (2006b); and Swales (1990)). For that reason, even a native speaker of a language may find academic writing demanding. As for writing academically in a foreign language, the problem is definitely more complicated. Consider some evaluative expressions that are commonly present in everyday spoken English, but rarely used in academic texts as shown by example (1):

(1) *It's fantastic. That is a fabulous work. I love this method*

Authors of academic writing are most likely to resort to more objective evaluation structures such as: *This research is of a crucial importance. The work is significant,* or *The method is commonly preferred*. As for students whose L1 is not English, the evaluation of the writing is mostly on grammar; which is how the students can express their ideas logically through grammatically correct sentences. However, errors still happen, particularly for beginner students. One of the reasons for these errors to take place is L1 influence (interference or negative transfer) as evidentially shown by Sawalmeh (2013), Isaac (2008), Figueredo (2006) and Arabski (2006). In countries where English is not widely used, the curriculum of English departments normally begin with some basic competence skills, including writing/composition. This writing/composition classes are usually the primary requirements for academic writing. At this point, teachers start to introduce the stylistics of academic writing papers.

The general purpose of this research is to collect data on the academic writing performance of non-native speakers of English, whose L1 is Indonesian. Specifically, it seeks confirmation whether unnatural sequences used by the students are under the influence of L1 or spoken English (or both). The processing is completely carried out by corpus processing softwares and the analysis of this data is cross referenced with two reference corpora to confirm the validity of the author's evaluation. This research also attempts to validate whether performance, as expressed in the writing, corresponds straight to the sources that the students have been exposed to.

Some following sub-sections here also review related studies about interference specifically related to Indonesian as L1. The relevancies of these studies to the present research and in what respect it differs will be explained here. Methodology section describes in detail how this study was carried out. It also describes the tools and corpora used in this study. The core of this study is

presented in the finding and discussion section. While the finding section focuses more on the quantitative analysis, the discussion section explores the data with more qualitative approach. The conclusion section correlates the corresponding qualitative to quantitative natures of the data as well as proposes recommendation for further studies.

Written and Spoken Language: Corpus Validation

The distinction of spoken and written languages is necessary especially in the field of genre analysis and text production, as described by Halliday (1989) and Hasan (1986). They focused on providing concepts and baselines that characterize the difference between spoken and written language. More recent works, such as Biber (2006), Szmrecsanyi & Hinrichs (2008), applied these concepts to more controlled variables, which are college students. The results of research in spoken and written language is also documented in standard dictionares. The documentation of written language in specific domain is usually shown by <written> special annotation to the related entries. Consider the annotation for entry <exclaim>, as shown by figure 1.

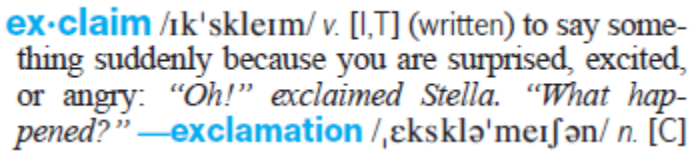


Figure 1: Annotation for Entry <exclaim>

Figure 1 is taken from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, where the entry <exclaim> is marked (written) as it is used more frequently in written language as compared to spoken language. However, since features of language may change from time to time, we need to make sure that the dictionary is recent or we can validate this using dynamic corpora (corpora that are regularly updated). Focus on the retrieval of <exclaim> in Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and its genre distinction are shown in Figure 2.

The result indicates that <exclaim> is used widely in fiction and other text types (note that in COCA, besides spoken section, all data are taken from written texts). The lowest frequency is on spoken section. Thus, it validates the claim that <exclaim> is widely used in written language.

Besides the choice of word, the distinction can also be shown by sequence or pattern preference. The term sequence or pattern refers to a string of words, which is considered pre-fabricated expressions. These expressions are syntactically composed, but used paradigmatically. A variety of terms have been proposed. Hyland (2008) and Allen (2009) refer to the sequence as lexical bundle, as also used in Allen (2009) and Chen and Baker (2010). While in the field of computational linguistics, the term lexical chain or multiword units (MWUs) is also used (see Paumier, 2008).

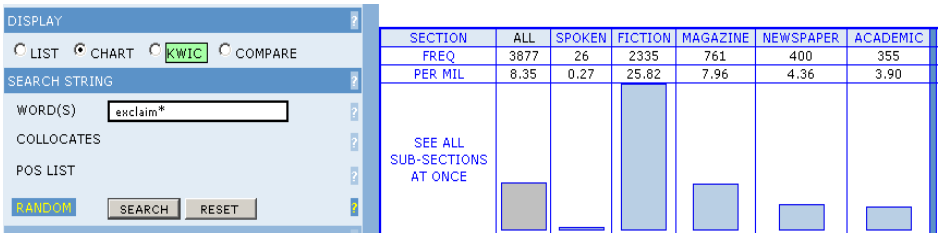


Figure 2: Lowest Frequency of <exclaim> in Spoken Section of Corpus Data

It is important to understand what makes MWUs essential in the field of language learning. Rather than concatenating words by words, using pre-fabricated sequence will reduce the risk of making mistakes. In turn, this will improve the quality of students' academic writing. Besides, this will also help characterize the texts to a specific domain, as the identification of a text to a specific genre may derive from lexical bundles (Hyland, 2008). Meanwhile, Figure 3 below introduces us to the expression <it is commonly believed> which according to COCA has zero occurrences in spoken section, but the frequency is very high in academic section.

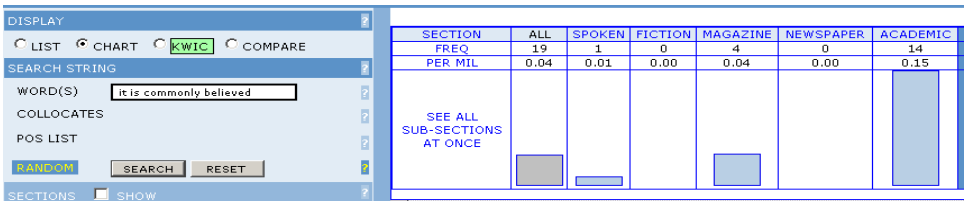


Figure 3: Frequency Chart of <it is commonly believed> in COCA

How corpus data can be used to validate judgment is relevant to my research as the dynamic corpus is always updated to record the actual language use. Besides amplifying the analysis, corpus data is also useful to show the influence of L1. There are some patterns observed in L2 writing that correspond to L1 structure. This early hypothesis can be validated with help of reference corpora.

Studies on Interference

Some of the research in academic writing, especially where the subjects of research are students, whose L1 is not English, is often focused on error analysis. The research usually describes and categorizes students' errors. The categories where errors take place are prioritized target of improvement for teaching. Error analysis patterns may further be compared to the linguistic features of students' L1 to validate whether the error is transferred from L1. When writing in English, for example, it is quite common for Indonesian students to drop articles since this linguistic feature is not present in Indonesian (Wijaya, 2012). In the languages where such markers are absent, similar problems tend to occur (Bautista & Gonzalez, 2008).

Some other academic research focuses not on grammar, but on the style and word choice of the writing. It tries to measure how appropriate the style and the word choice of the writing to the genre where the language is used. One of such research studies the preference of pronoun 'I' that is getting more and more common these days in academic writing (Harwood, 2005).

Some of the works dedicated to the interference of Indonesian in English were conducted by Fauziati (2003), Roni (2006), Yembise (2011) and Moehkardi (2012). While Fauziati's (2003) respondents were middle schoolers, my respondents in this research are all college students. Roni's (2006) respondents were college-level students, but they were not from English majors. In my research, the students were all from English department and they were all senior undergraduate students who received minimum B- (grade) on Academic Writing. Moehkardi (2012) describes some lexical bundles in English and lists some possible L1 transfers patterns. Unlike Mohkardi (2012) whose research did not take account of authentic data, my research is fully data driven, and all the data are processed by using a corpus processing software. None of the previous research employed any corpus processing software and none of them used reference corpus as well. The validation with corpora

reference, not to disregard the introspective competence of the researchers, is of a crucial importance as the variables of corpora are overt, and most importantly, the data in the corpora are authentic, updated and evidential. Reasons for interference to occur may vary, but one classical factor, as also mentioned in the previous studies, is the L1 of the students (Husein & Mohammad, 2012).

Another factor that may contribute to interference is the spoken language. Šimčikaitė (2012) discovers that students use some English spoken discourse markers in writing like *I mean, anyway,* and *by the way*. The interference of spoken language is well documented by Krauthamer (1999). He refers to the interference as SLIP (Spoken Language Interference Patterns). The present study is aimed at testing whether these two factors contribute to students' writing. Cross reference is conducted by using COCA (Davies, 2008), BNC (Aston & Burnard, 1998) and SEAlang Indonesian Corpus (Scannel, 2010).

This research is also digital data driven, which means that all data are digitally processed. The corpus methodology in this research follows the works of Pang (2010), Allen (2009), Hyland (2008) and Yoon (2008), where the recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns were retrieved by corpus processing software and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

METHOD

The respondents of this study are a group of Undergraduate English Department students of the 6th semester from *Universitas Diponegoro*, Indonesia. I accessed the on-line academic information system and screened the students with the following variables: 1) students who have passed academic writing class, 2) students with at least a final grade of B-. Of around 120 students, 117 passed the first screening, and 79 passed the second one. Of this number, 69 students volunteered. Of the 69 students, 65 responses were collected; two students failed to submit the tasks due to failure in establishing a stable Internet connection while the other two dropped the tasks for unknown reasons. There are two types of responses; the first one is response to questionnaires, and the second one is response to writing tasks.

Questionnaires and Writing Tasks

The questionnaire is crucial as it describes the students' exposures to English via different sources. It will be used further in data processing to con-

firm whether the exposure corresponds to their academic writing skills or not. In the survey, students can score the source of exposure to English from the lowest (1) to the highest (5), as is shown in Figure 4 below.

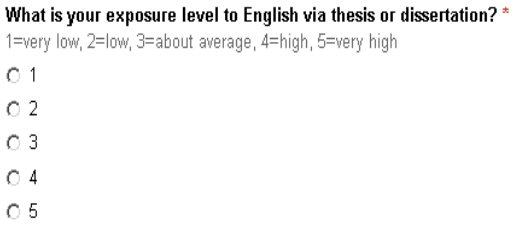


Figure 4: Screenshot of the On-Line Questionnaire

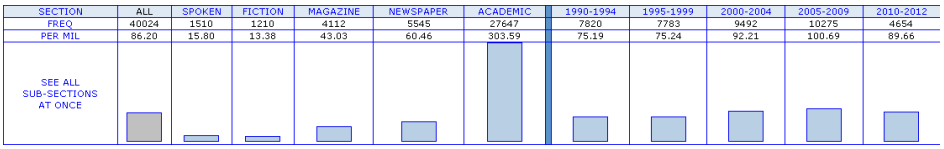
The second crucial task is the task to write two articles. The first one is to write a research paper abstract, and the second one is free writing.

Corpora and Corpus Processing Software

Results of the survey are saved in a spreadsheet file, while the articles are saved in a raw text file allowing *Unitex* and *AntConc*, the corpus processing software used in this research, to further process the texts collection as a corpus. Word Frequency computation and concordance extraction is performed to obtain necessary information that will be presented in the findings section. Analysis to the findings is performed with reference to COCA and SEAlang Indonesian corpus. While *Unitex* is used to analyze the texts used in the research, COCA provides an online reference to standard corpora. The analysis is fully presented in the discussion section. Prior to the writing of this paper, the result of the analysis was presented to the students. Interview session was also held to understand the motivation of why such unnatural sequences were selected by the students. As for COCA, the presentation may include more than concordance lines (see Figure 5).

Figure 5 shows a chart generated by COCA to show frequency of occurrence on the basis of corpus section (left side) and historical trend (right side). The highest frequency corresponds to the other section and it always reaches the top ceiling in the section as shown by academic section on the left side. The historical trend itself is grouped in a four-year term. As a companion to the concordance, this chart takes a very significant role. Actual concordance lines

correspond directly to the frequency. Presenting all concordance lines can be wordy; therefore, I decided to randomly choose any concordance lines to be shown and explained. These selected concordance lines that are presented in the findings and discussion section are representative to the aims of this study.



SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	ACADEMIC	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012
FREQ	40024	1510	1210	4112	5545	27647	7820	7783	9492	10275	4654
PER MIL	86.20	15.80	13.38	43.03	60.46	303.59	75.19	75.24	92.21	100.69	89.66

Figure 5: Chart Showing Sections, Historical Progress and Frequency in COCA

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The survey showed that the students' largest exposure to English included movies, songs and social media (>4). It is important to notice that lecture and assignment are only one level below (3-4). This was expected, as the students are English department students and the classes and assignments are conducted in English. The level of exposure to textbook is 3, which is equal to direct conversations, comic books and newspapers. Theses, dissertations and journals, which are actually significant reference for academic writing are down on level 0-1.

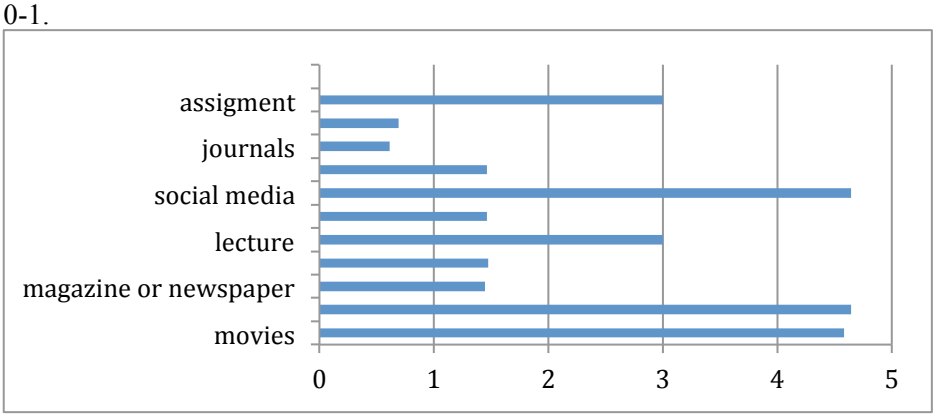


Figure 6: Student Exposure to English

Ironically, students were least exposed to academic sources such as journals, theses and dissertations. Students also claimed that the highest exposure came from social media like *Twitter*, *Facebook*, *Path*, etc. A round score (0) was obtained for corpus as a source of exposure. Overall responses indicated that students were more exposed to non-academic, and spoken languages as compared to academic and written language. This is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Data Segmentation

Data Segmentation			
Written	Spoken	Academic	Non-Academic
31%	69%	37%	63%

The survey also showed that students were exposed more to spoken than written English. I categorized direct conversations, lectures, songs and movies as spoken English, while the rest (journals, theses, assignments, social media, comic books, magazines, assignments and newspapers) as written English. Even though the variables of written English outnumbered spoken English, the average of spoken English (69%) is higher than that of written English (31%).

Token Frequency

Table 2. Token Frequency Extraction

Type	Frequency	Type	Frequency	Type	Frequency
The	481	in	188	English	110
And	219	study	177	Foreign	99
Be	207	language	151	students	97
		but	111	need	90

Token frequency extraction is useful in determining topics and keywords. The result shown in Table 2 suggests a focus on English as Foreign language in the collection of abstracts. It is an interesting notion since the term 'foreign' is used instead of 'second language'.

Lemma Distribution and 3-Gram

While word frequency is useful in determining the topics or keywords, some other means are required to retrieve sequences/MWUs. With this in mind, I decided to first observe lemma distribution. The processing indicates that

there are three lemmas, content words, which occurred in almost each of the students' writing (both abstracts and free-writing) as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The Distribution of <suggest>, <help>, and <goal>

	Suggest	Help	Goal
Present	94%	97%	92%
Absent	6%	3%	8%

The identification of sequences used on the left and right context is performed by Local Grammar Graphs (LGGs). LGGs is one of the machine-readable grammars in *Unitex* used to retrieve words or sequences (Paumier, 2008).

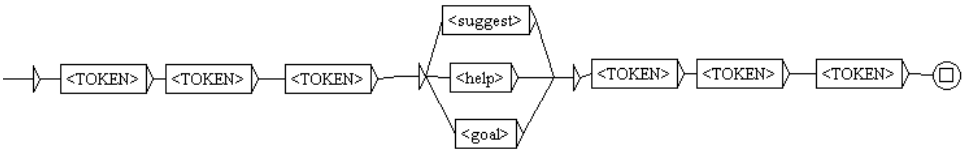


Figure 7: LGGs to Extract 3-Gram Sequences

The LGGs, as shown in Figure 7, extracted three tokens on the left-right context of target lemma <suggest; help; goal>. This process gives reason to name it 3-Gram. When necessary, the retrieval of N-gram (where N may refer to any number) is possible. The angle brackets are required to indicate all word forms of a lemma. As an illustration, the use of angle brackets in <go> retrieve all word forms conceived by corpus-processing software lexical resource which include *go, went, gone, goes* and *going*. LGGs in Figure 7 retrieved 3-gram sequences as shown in Figure 8.

For <suggest>, and <help>, the recurrent sequence patterns are on the right context. The nouns that the verb <suggest> specifies are almost all human nouns, and some are represented by pronouns. After the nouns, <to><Vinf> are used. The same specification also applied for <help>; only, there are two patterns after the nouns, which is to use <to><Vinf>, or just <Vinf>. As for <goal>, it is interesting to observe the left context, especially the verbs that col-

ligate with <goal>. These patterns are explored more with concordance in the discussion section.

Therefore,	the	author	**suggests**	the	students	to
was	finished	I	**suggest**	them	to	watch
The	program	will	**suggest**	them	to	press
as	well	Teachers	**suggest**	this	to	improve
As	many	researchers	**suggests**	the	students	to
not	supposed	to	**help**	the	students	to
now.	This	paper	**helps**	us	to	deal
perform.	The	results	**help**	the	author	take
because	it	will	**help**	them	to	understand
those,	It	will	**help**	the	students	to
very	passionate	to	**goal**	to	equalize	the
amazing!	He	created	**goal**	only	in	his
have	the	same	**goal**	and	equally	work
had	her	private	**goal**.	Without	this	effort
sure.	But	making	**goal**	in	Chelsea	was

Figure 8: The 3-Grams for Left-Right Context <suggest;help;goal> in Abstracts Collection

Students' Feedback

As stated previously, the findings of the study had been presented to the students where they were asked to provide some reasons as to why the suggested structures were not used. Most of the students said that they were not aware of the presence of such structures. As for those who were aware, the reasons for not choosing the structures varied. See Table 4.

Table 4. Awareness of Suggested Structures

	Positive (28%)	Negative (72%)
6%	Strong belief in the source	
10%	Strong belief in frequency	
12%	Strong belief in teacher's instruction	

There are three main reasons why they had the confidence in using the structures, even though they know that the suggested structures exist. The faith derived from consulting, specifically, existing final projects as the source of their writing (6%). The second one is because of the degree of frequency of the overall exposure. The third one is the strong belief in previous teacher's instructions/ descriptions, which are mostly spoken and acquired during the lecture.

Discussion

In this section, I discuss the frequent Multi Word Expressions (MWUs) obtained from the 3-gram extraction of students writing corpus. The MWUs are as follows:

MWU 1	Suggest that you do	- Suggest you to do	
MWU 2	Help you to do	- Help you do	
MWU 3	Score goal	- make goal	- print goal

Should the results of the questionnaires be parallel to the findings, it is possible that domain shift from spoken to written may take place. It is also possible that to some extent, learners replicate the L1 pattern, in this case Indonesian, to English as the foreign language. The description is validated by corpora analysis. In doing so, I consulted two well-known English corpora from two different dialects: British English (BNC) and American English (COCA). To investigate language transfer possibility, the SEAlang Indonesian Corpus is also consulted. Analytical information from each corpus that corresponds to the MWUs will be presented to show the gap between authentic language and language used by learners of English as a second language.

MWU 1: Corpus Data

In this section, I will show how students use the verb <suggest>. The presence of this verb in my corpus is quite significant as students usually use this verb in the end of their writing to give recommendation. The retrieval was aimed at all verb forms of <suggest>: *suggest, suggests, suggested, suggesting*. Among these four forms, 'suggesting' was not found in the retrieval. As for the patterns, there were two verb patterns in use. The first one (---1) was <suggest><PRO><to><V>, and the second one (---2) is <suggest><that><PRO><Vinf>. Figure 9 below shows Concordance 1 that is generated by *Unitex*.

1	Therefore, the author	**suggests**	the students to do the tasks ----------	1
2	was finished. I	**suggest**	them to watch the video first, then`----------	1
3	The program will	**suggest**	them to press the red button ----------	1
4	as well.Teachers	**suggest**	this to improve listening skills, but ----------	1
5	As many researchers	**suggests**	the students to read and listen a lot without	
6	writing styles are	**suggested**	to be analyzed	
7	and students. It	**suggests**	us to believe that ----------	2
8	language, and teacher	**suggests**	that the students do classroom observation ----------	1
9	while the author	**suggests**	the parents to mix codes in the family and ----------	1
10	do. Parents are	**suggested**	to be selective in choosing sources ----------	1
11	However, I have	**suggested**	that the students begin from the easiest ones ---------	2
12	good. The result	**suggests**	the readers to learn phrasal verbs ----------	1

Figure 9: Concordance 1: The Retrieval of <suggest> in Abstracts Collection

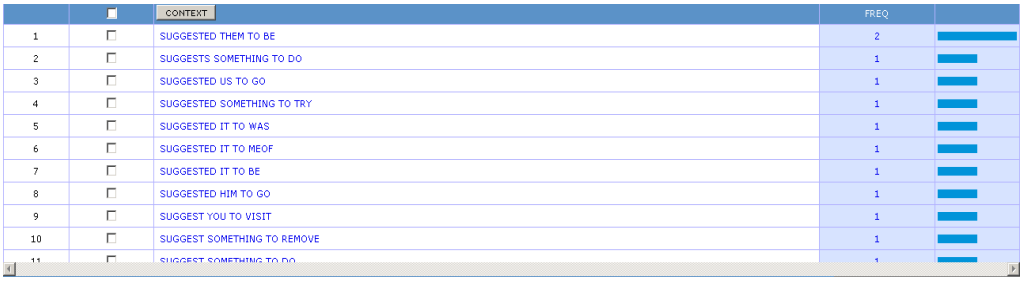
Concordance lines are presented on the left, and pattern variation is shown on the right. Although some other patterns are observed, but these two patterns were quite similar with respect to the nouns that they specify. The nouns that each pattern specifies is human noun, and some of them are replaced by pronoun. Other patterns occur, but the two patterns dominated the use. In the research abstracts, <suggest>Pers.PRO><to><Vinf> is observed to occur more than 75%. The same, even higher, domination was also observed in free writing:

1	the journey. Then he	**suggested**	us to see sunrise in Sikunir ----------	1
2	from. Ancelloti always	**suggests**	Ronaldo to take every free kick ---------	1
3	by local confederation	**suggest**	them the otherwise.	
4	whenever possible. we are	**suggested**	to look for information related	
5	just fine. His boss keeps	**suggesting**	him to work hard and prepare ----------	1
6	in the world must	**suggest**	their children to have ----------	1
7	the coach always	**suggests**	the players to do their best ----------	1
8	the incident, they are	**suggested**	to take leave off the team by the	
9	done. And he also always	**suggested**	me to do houseworks ----------	1
10	matter of time? I cannot	**suggest**	him to take rest, as he is ----------	1

Figure 10: Concordance 2: The Retrieval of <suggest> in Free Writing Collection

MWU 1: Corpus Validations

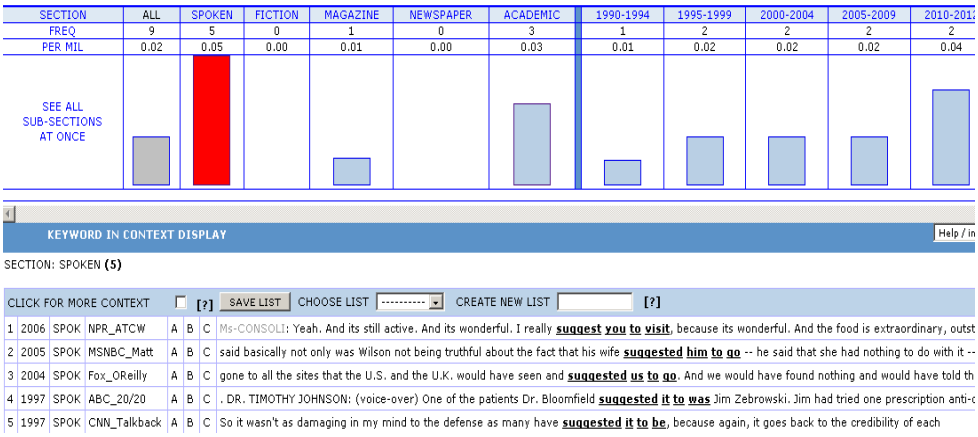
Instead of determining the correctness of particular structures, I navigated the corpus to discover how the structures are present in actual use. The result of the first pattern retrieval in COCA is shown in Figure 11.



		CONTEXT	FREQ	
1	☐	SUGGESTED THEM TO BE	2	
2	☐	SUGGESTS SOMETHING TO DO	1	
3	☐	SUGGESTED US TO GO	1	
4	☐	SUGGESTED SOMETHING TO TRY	1	
5	☐	SUGGESTED IT TO WAS	1	
6	☐	SUGGESTED IT TO MEOF	1	
7	☐	SUGGESTED IT TO BE	1	
8	☐	SUGGESTED HIM TO GO	1	
9	☐	SUGGEST YOU TO VISIT	1	
10	☐	SUGGEST SOMETHING TO REMOVE	1	
11	☐	SUGGEST SOMETHING TO DO	1	

Figure 11: Concordance of <suggest><PRO><to><V>

Figure 11 shows that the first pattern is in actual use, but very low in frequency. The figure indicates that they are used only one or twice. At this point, I then refined the retrieval by focusing the pronouns to personal pronouns (you, him, them, us and etc.):



SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	ACADEMIC	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012
FREQ	9	5	0	1	0	3	1	2	2	2	2
PER MIL	0.02	0.05	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04

SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE

KEYWORD IN CONTEXT DISPLAY Help / in

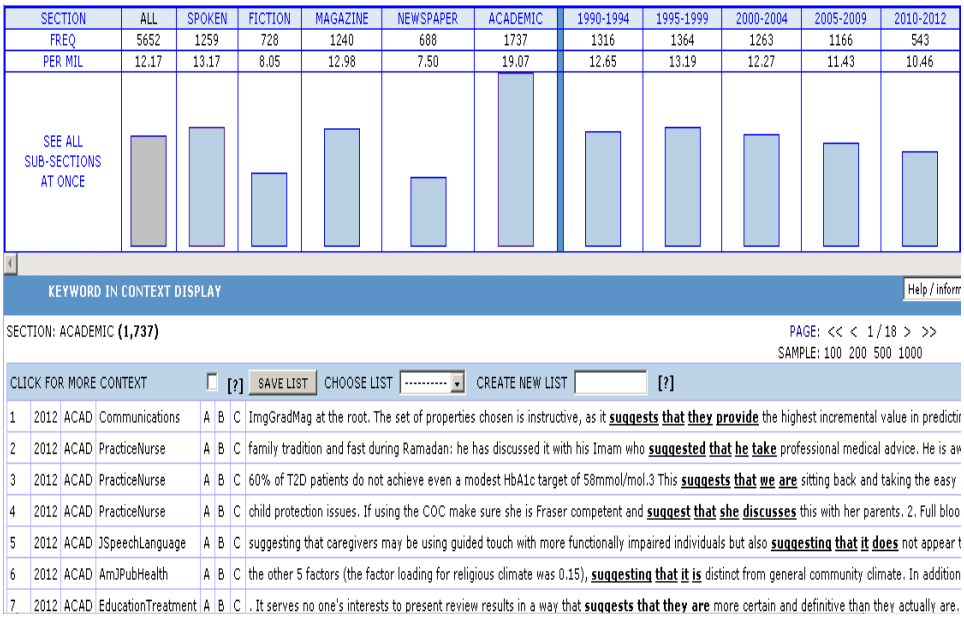
SECTION: SPOKEN **(5)**

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT ☐ [?] SAVE LIST CHOOSE LIST --------- CREATE NEW LIST [?]

1	2006	SPOK	NPR_ATCW	A	B	C	Ms-CONSOLI: Yeah. And its still active. And its wonderful. I really **suggest you to visit**, because its wonderful. And the food is extraordinary, outst
2	2005	SPOK	MSNBC_Matt	A	B	C	said basically not only was Wilson not being truthful about the fact that his wife **suggested him to go** -- he said that she had nothing to do with it --
3	2004	SPOK	Fox_OReilly	A	B	C	gone to all the sites that the U.S. and the U.K. would have seen and **suggested us to go**. And we would have found nothing and would have told th
4	1997	SPOK	ABC_20/20	A	B	C	. DR. TIMOTHY JOHNSON: (voice-over) One of the patients Dr. Bloomfield **suggested it to was** Jim Zebrowski. Jim had tried one prescription anti-c
5	1997	SPOK	CNN_Talkback	A	B	C	So it wasn't as damaging in my mind to the defense as many have **suggested it to be**, because again, it goes back to the credibility of each

Figure 12: Concordance of <suggest><Pers.PRO><to><V>

The result of the retrieval indicated by Figure 12 showed that the first pattern is most frequently used in spoken English, and the frequency is very low (5). Further, let us consider how the second pattern <suggest><that>, is used:



SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	ACADEMIC	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012
FREQ	5652	1259	728	1240	688	1737	1316	1364	1263	1166	543
PER MIL	12.17	13.17	8.05	12.98	7.50	19.07	12.65	13.19	12.27	11.43	10.46

SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE

KEYWORD IN CONTEXT DISPLAY

SECTION: ACADEMIC **(1,737)**

PAGE: << < 1/18 > >>

SAMPLE: 100 200 500 1000

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT [?] SAVE LIST CHOOSE LIST ---------- CREATE NEW LIST [?]

1	2012	ACAD	Communications	A	B	C	ImgGradMag at the root. The set of properties chosen is instructive, as it **suggests that they provide** the highest incremental value in predictir
2	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	family tradition and fast during Ramadan: he has discussed it with his Imam who **suggested that he take** professional medical advice. He is aw
3	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	60% of T2D patients do not achieve even a modest HbA1c target of 58mmol/mol.3 This **suggests that we are** sitting back and taking the easy
4	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	child protection issues. If using the COC make sure she is Fraser competent and **suggest that she discusses** this with her parents. 2. Full bloo
5	2012	ACAD	JSpeechLanguage	A	B	C	suggesting that caregivers may be using guided touch with more functionally impaired individuals but also **suggesting that it does** not appear t
6	2012	ACAD	AmJPubHealth	A	B	C	the other 5 factors (the factor loading for religious climate was 0.15), **suggesting that it is** distinct from general community climate. In addition
7	2012	ACAD	EducationTreatment	A	B	C	. It serves no one's interests to present review results in a way that **suggests that they are** more certain and definitive than they actually are.

Figure 13: The Source Text of the Concordance <suggest><that><PRO><Vinf>

The frequency of this sequence is quite high in the corpus. The highest frequency of the concordance <suggest><that> is observed in the academic English section (1737). This indicates that the second pattern is widely used in written academic English, even though both are used. In addition, it is necessary to check the occurrence in another corpus.

British National Corpus (BNC) is another corpus of English that are composed by different text types. In this corpus, the result of the retrieval also showed the same tendency. The pattern <suggest that> displayed 169 hits in academic section, while only 69 hits in spoken section. The retrieval of <suggest><PRO> in academic section resulted in zero hit, while it only had one hit in spoken section and one hit in magazine section.

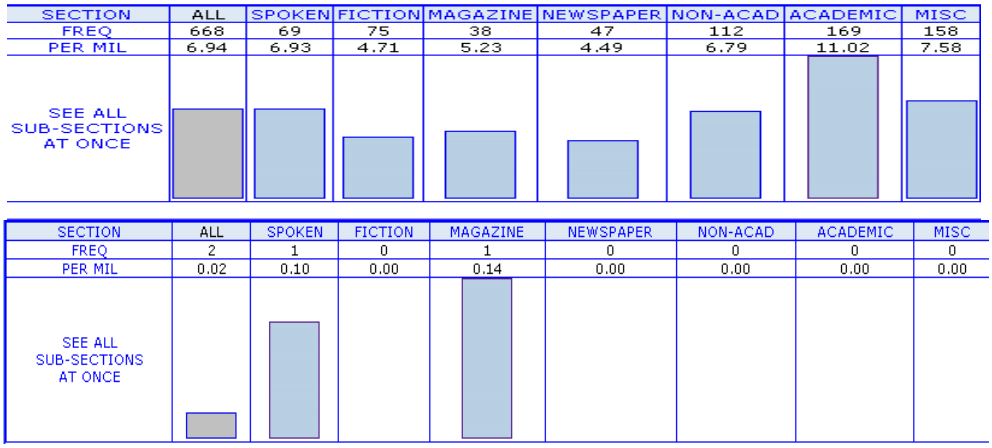


Figure 14: <suggest that> VS <suggest><pro> in BNC

MWU 1: Analysis

Negative transfer may take place not only from first to second language, but also across domains, for instance from spoken to written language. Krauthamer (1999) refers to the interference patterns of spoken language as SLIP (Spoken Language Interference Pattern). It ranges from vocabulary to style. One of the means to help determine whether the writing task is influenced by spoken language is by evaluating its lexical density. For this purpose, I used *AntConc* vocabulary profiler (Anthony, 2006) to measure the density of academic words. The list of academic words (which contains the token and type) is obtained from Coxhead (2000). The list was then improved by Davies (2008) with the help of COCA. The profiling here excludes function words like conjunctions and prepositions.

Table 5. Comparison of Vocabulary Profile: Scientific Writing and Free Writing

Vocabulary Profile (Token of academic word list)	Number	
	Scientific Writing Tasks	Free Writing
More than 60%	4	0
Less than 60%	61	65

Kwary (2013) asserts that when the token percentage of the vocabulary profile is more than 60%, it is statistically significant. Table 5 shows the evaluation of scientific and free writing profile. It shows that the number of scientific writing tasks where the profile receives evaluation more than 60% is only 4, while the number of writing tasks that receives less than 60% is 61. One of the reasons is the use of words that are not included in the academic wordlist such as: *well*, *anyway*, *I mean*. This is in line with Šimčikaitė (2012) when identifying spoken language vocabularies in the writing task. The presence of these words reduces the academic vocabulary densities. Krauthamer's (1999) SLIPs also documented the influence of spoken language stylistics. Nuruzi, Farahani, and Farahani (2012), in studying the stylistics of academic writing, suggests that students use nominalization feature in academic writing.

MWU 2: Corpus Data

The previous sub-section has described how two structures differ under the influence of the text type (spoken and academic). Both structures are correct, but one is more frequently used in the written academic section (another is used more in spoken section).

There are some lemmas in which the word forms are more frequently used in spoken language but less in written language, or vice versa. As for the verb <help>, the structure without 'to' infinitive is less dominant than its counterpart in student's writing corpus.

1	Teachers are not supposed to	**help**	the students to do the assignment ----------	1
2	assessment now. This paper	**helps**	us to deal with linguistic phenomena --------- 1	
3	does not perform. The results	**help**	the author take conclusion ----------	2
4	be beneficial because it will	**help**	them to understand more about English ---------- 1	
5	besides those, It will	**help**	the students to understand conditional sentences----	1
6	plan. The description will	**help**	readers to understand ----------	1
7	foreign language. It will	**help**	them to develop their language performance ----------	1
8	in English. It also	**helps**	them satisfy their individual and social need ---------	2
9	can last forever. It could	**help**	the researcher to get and to find more ---------- 1	
10	whenever ready. This paper	**helps**	us to know the various codes ---------- 1	

Figure 15: Concordance 3: The Retrieval of <help> in Abstracts

1	not the goal. It can	**help**	you to increase your leadership skill ----------	1
2	same match. It can	**help**	many students to enrich their knowledges -------	1
3	scores well. They	**helped**	me to believe that I will be a success ------- 1	
4	moment. It will	**help**	you to explore your business potential ------- 1	
5	level up. It can	**help**	us to get a good job---------- 1	
6	fair. The supporters	**helped**	the team to win the match ----------	1
7	now. He cannot	**help**	Madrid to win more trophy ----------	1
8	Then he said, 'god,	**help**	me to survive this 90 minutes ---------- 1	
9	make three goals.	**Helping**	Chelsea to maintain Drogba is useless. ------- 1	
10	position now. I	**helped**	the players to win, and they helped me to stay ------	1

Figure 16: Concordance 4: The Retrieval of <help> in Magazine/News Article

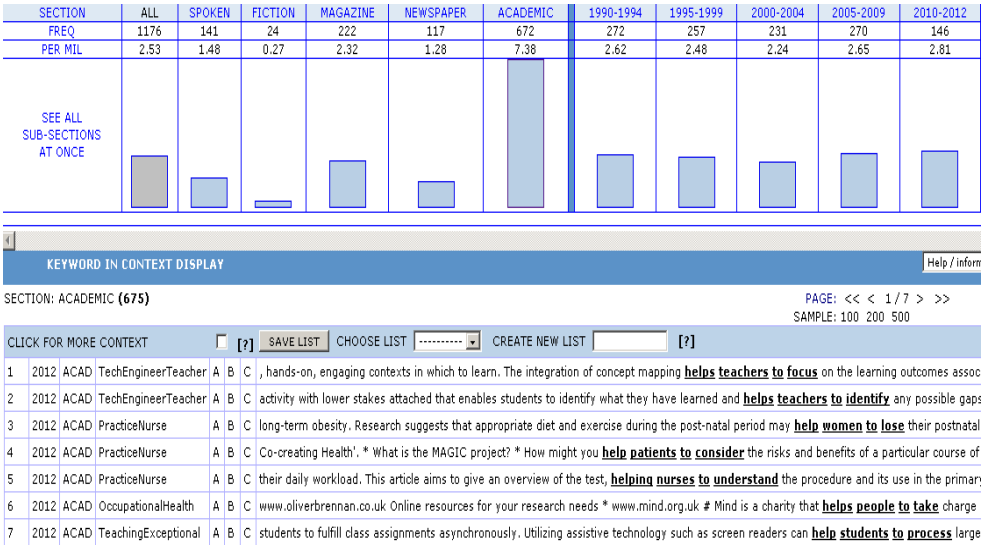
Both concordances indicate two structures <help><to><Vinf> and <help><N><Vinf>. The first one is used more frequently in both abstracts and free writing article. But the second pattern is used in abstracts writing only. Whether there is a preference of one genre over the other still requires a corpus validation.

MWU 2: Corpus Validation

Moving on from MWU 1, this section presents BNC and COCA validation. Consider Figure 17, which presents the concordance of <help><N><Vinf> by COCA:

Figure 17: The Concordance of <help><N><Vinf>

Figure 17 suggests that first, there is a steady rise from 1990 to 2012 on how the structure <help><N><Vinf> is used. Second, both structures are present in actual use. Third, this structure is most frequently used in academic setting (see the highest frequency shown in the academic section (4547)). Further, a validation is required to observe whether the same trend applies to the second pattern <help><N><to><Vinf>. The result of COCA retrieval of this pattern is shown in the following figure:



SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	ACADEMIC	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012
FREQ	1176	141	24	222	117	672	272	257	231	270	146
PER MIL	2.53	1.48	0.27	2.32	1.28	7.38	2.62	2.48	2.24	2.65	2.81

SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE

KEYWORD IN CONTEXT DISPLAY

SECTION: ACADEMIC **(675)**

PAGE: << < 1 / 7 > >>
SAMPLE: 100 200 500

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT [?] SAVE LIST CHOOSE LIST --------- CREATE NEW LIST [?]

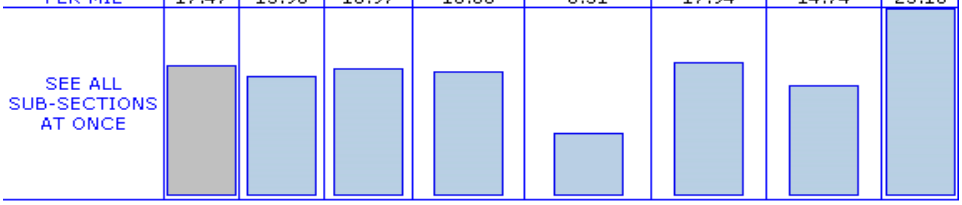
1	2012	ACAD	TechEngineerTeacher	A	B	C	, hands-on, engaging contexts in which to learn. The integration of concept mapping **helps teachers to focus** on the learning outcomes assoc
2	2012	ACAD	TechEngineerTeacher	A	B	C	activity with lower stakes attached that enables students to identify what they have learned and **helps teachers to identify** any possible gaps
3	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	long-term obesity. Research suggests that appropriate diet and exercise during the post-natal period may **help women to lose** their postnatal
4	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	Co-creating Health'. * What is the MAGIC project? * How might you **help patients to consider** the risks and benefits of a particular course of
5	2012	ACAD	PracticeNurse	A	B	C	their daily workload. This article aims to give an overview of the test, **helping nurses to understand** the procedure and its use in the primary
6	2012	ACAD	OccupationalHealth	A	B	C	www.oliverbrennan.co.uk Online resources for your research needs * www.mind.org.uk # Mind is a charity that **helps people to take** charge
7	2012	ACAD	TeachingExceptional	A	B	C	students to fulfill class assignments asynchronously. Utilizing assistive technology such as screen readers can **help students to process** large

Figure 18: The Concordance for <help><N><to><Vinf>

Figure 18 suggests that the structure is present in actual language use. Second, the structure is used in the academic setting, but is lower in frequency (672). Third, unlike <help><N><Vinf> that undergoes a steady rise since 1990, the use of <help><N><to><Vinf> seems to be consistently used over the past 22 years. However, the frequency of the first pattern (as compared to the second one) is high. Hence, this <help><N><Vinf> sequence seems to be more preferable in academic writing. Further, the following Figure 19 shows the comparison of the two structures in BNC.

SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	NON-ACAD	ACADEMIC	MISC
FREQ	1682	159	270	121	87	296	226	523
PER MIL	17.47	15.96	16.97	16.66	8.31	17.94	14.74	25.10

SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE



SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	NON-ACAD	ACADEMIC	MISC
FREQ	3210	306	555	316	415	489	250	879
PER MIL	33.35	30.71	34.89	43.51	39.65	29.65	16.31	42.19

SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE

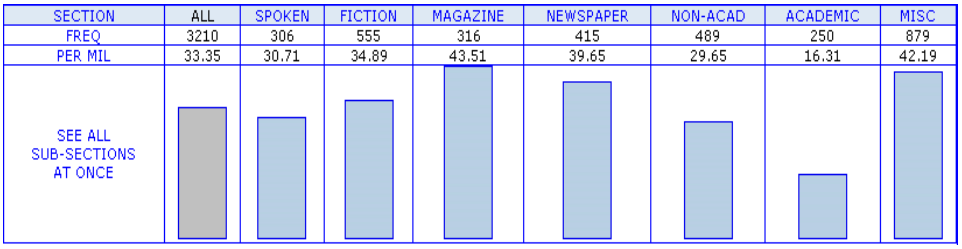


Figure 19: Help you to do VS Help you do in BNC

In BNC we can see that the two structures are in use both in academic and spoken sections. The occurrence in spoken and academic section is almost equal for the first structure, while for the second structure, the occurrence is relatively lower in academic section than in spoken section. The second structure differs in a way that there is a striking difference between non-academic (489) and academic writing (250).

MWU 2: Analysis

Similarities are observed from corpus validation. First, corpora investigation to both BNC or COCA suggests that both structures (with or without 'to' infinitive' are present in actual use (see Figure 17-19). However, COCA and BNC differ in terms of domination in academic domain. A closer observation can help us understand how COCA data suggests that the use of the structure without to infinitive is more frequent (see Figure 17 and 18). BNC data, however, is interesting as the frequency of the structure with 'to' infinitive is almost equal in academic (226) and non-academic (296) domains. Significant difference, however, is observed for structure without 'to' (489-250). That can be seen in Figure 16.

Therefore, we can safely assume that domain shift is relevant case-per-case. Studies in terms of the difference of spoken/written English, such as Biber (2006), and Carter & McCarthy (2006), or academic/non-academic English, like Allen (2009) and Annelie & Erman (2012), cannot be generalized as there are a number of lexis or structures applied in more than one domains. Even when we notice Coxhead's (2000) academic wordlist, which was later refined by Davies (2014) in COCA, some words are treated equally in spoken/written domains, such as negative (S2/W2). COCA data however, provides an interesting historical finding that the use of the structure with 'to' steadily increase over years (see Figure 17), while the use of the structure without 'to' is constant despite remaining higher in frequency.

MWU 3: Corpus Data

L1 seems to interfere when the vocabulary is similar to L2, not always on the lexis but it can also apply on the grammar. This happens to <goal>, in which its Indonesian equivalence is *gol*. Negative transfer from students' L1 affect certain lemmas with similar surface forms as their Indonesian translation. Clear-cut distinction of the lemma <goal> is observed between the two tasks. In the abstracts collection, the lemma is used completely in the sense of goal as an aim or objective. This is because the semantic of <goal> in Indonesian (*tujuan*) is not of the same equivalence. This might be the reason why students preferred to use *purpose* and *intention* instead of *goal* to express the same concept.

Table 6. Expressions for Aim and Score

Sense	Lemma (frequency)	
	Scientific Writing	Free Writing
Aim	*purpose (51), aim (19)*	*purpose (11), intention (7)*
score	-	*goal (39)*

Another sense of <goal> may also refer to points scored by team players in a sport game. In this case, the equivalence of <goal> in Indonesian, *goal*, is similar in form. This is the sense that is also present and dominating in the free writing. It is interesting to observe some verbs that collocate with <goal> as it suggests the interference of L1. Number --1,2,3,4, refers to the left context <make, create, score, print> respectfully:

1	for sure. But making	**goal**	in Chelsea was not easy for Torres, as ----------	1
2	very amazing! He created	**goal**	only in his first 5 minutes after the recovery ----------	2
3	while they have the same	**goal**	and equally work hard	
4	made. She had her private	**goal**	Without this effort, everything is	
5	are very passionate to	**goal**	to equalize the match, avoiding Atletico from	
6	Sturridge who has scored 19	**goals**	and 4 assists ----------	3
7	again? What made the	**goal**	of this movie seems----------	1
8	for sure. But making	**goal**	in Chelsea was not easy for Torres, as ----------	1
9	everytime a player print	**goal**	it is rewarded in Champion League ----------	4
10	"Dortmund will not make	**goal**	with time" Mourinho said as he was ----------	1

Figure 20: Concordance 5: The Retrieval of <goal> in Free Writing

I listed four verbs that collocate with <goal>. The first one, and the highest in frequency is <make> (line 1, 7, 8 and 10), <create> (line 2), <score> line 6, and <print> (line 9). One pattern in line 7 is not valid as it is grammatically wrong (*goal* is used as a verb).

MWU 3: Corpus Validation

The pattern <V><goal> is interesting to research as students have the tendency to choose verbs under the influence of Indonesian collocation patterns. The results of pattern matching of <V><*gol*> from Indonesian corpus indicated the same result. There are four verbs in Indonesian that collocate with <*gol*>, which are: <*mencetak*>, <*membuat*>, <*bikin*> and <*menciptakan*>. In this respect, <*membuat*> and <*bikin*> are similar; these verbs can be translated literally as the followings: 'to print', 'to make', 'to make (informal), and 'to create', respectively. See Figure 21.

The first part of Figure 21 from SEAlang Indonesian corpus (Scannel, 2010) has shown that there are three verbs that collocate with <gol> in Indonesian. The literal translation of the verb <score> in pattern 3 is not observed in this corpus. The three verbs that have been mentioned previously were often preferred by the students, but the strings resulted by the collocation patterns are odd; they are merely the concatenation of the literal translation of those verbs. In this case, the verb <score> is the perfect collocate to <score>. This hypothesis can be validated by retrieval on COCA as the standard corpus of English. See Figure 22.

SEAlang Corpus	*mencetak,membuat, bikin*	
setelah Gerd Muller mencetak	**gol**	dua menit menjelang turun minum
setelah David Trezeguet mencetak	**gol**	emas penentu kemenangan pada
Rummenigge dan Rudi Voller mencetak	**gol**	pada menit ke-74 dan 80.
ai tersebut pula, Maradona membuat	**gol**	yang sangat buruk pula.
setelah Lopez tak kunjung membuat	**gol**	Bermula dari bola liar yang
Maradona membuat	**gol**	terbaik sepanjang masa yaitu ketik
ersebaya, M. Afif, dan menciptakan	**gol**	tunggal untuk timnya. Ketidaklogi
lagi Engkau main tangan, bikin	**gol**	ke gawang salah satu dari kami yang
ia bisa bikin	**gol**	tanpa ada penjaga gawang
yang suka bikin	**gol**	sembarang tendang. "Ada uang, Tuan
Pan Localization Corpus	*membuahkan, membuka, mementahkan, menambah, mencetak, membukukan*	
-14 yang nyaris membuahkan	**gol**	namun berhasil digagalkan oleh Cerny
. Pemain depan Argentina itu membuka	**gol**	awal dari titik penalti pada
turnamen Piala Nasional Afrika, membuka	**gol**	awal pada babak pertama dan
Milan sedangkan United membukukan	**gol**	menit akhir lewat Carlos Tevez
di Nou Camp ketika mereka mementahkan	**gol**	pembuka Xavi dari titik penalti
Frederic Kanoute menambah	**gol**	bagi Sevilla pada malam yang
pertama tetapi Sevilla kembali menambah	**gol**	mereka mendekati turun minum,
ke-76 dan menambah	**gol**	keduanya dua menit menjelang pertandingan
dalam pertemuan kedua itu, mencetak	**gol**	kemenangan pada menit ke-
asal Venezuela Arango mencetak	**gol**	dari jarak dekat untuk menempatkan
Valladolid Sisi untuk mencetak	**gol**	kemenangan pada menit terakhir ditepis
usai ketika Hosni mencetak	**gol**	keduanya melalui tendangan sejauh 2

Figure 21: Comparison of verbs specifying <gol> in Indonesian Corpus

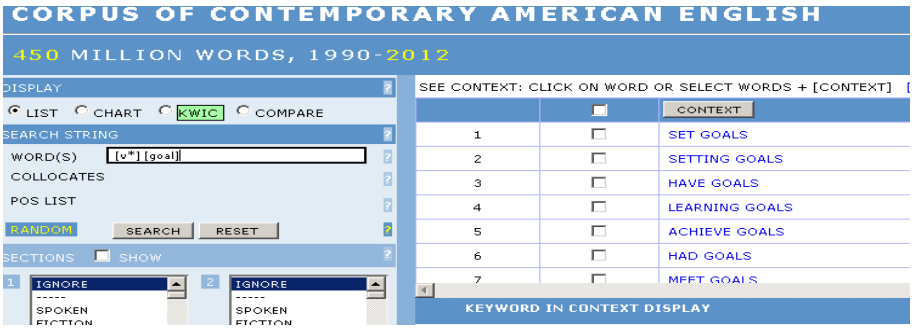


Figure 22: Concordance < V><goal>

Figure 20 describes verbs that do not necessarily relate to <goal> in the senses of points earned. The top six verbs (set and setting are two tokens of the same verb) do not seem to be the verbs that suffice the sport-definition of goal. However, this corresponds to the frequency. Figure 23 explains that <goal>, as 'aim/purpose', is frequently used more in the genre of 'academic' as compared to others.

SECTION	ALL	SPOKEN	FICTION	MAGAZINE	NEWSPAPER	ACADEMIC	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2012	
FREQ	2014	128	50	361	352	1123	465	421	390	484	254	SECTION
PER MIL	4.34	1.34	0.55	3.78	3.84	12.33	4.47	4.07	3.79	4.74	4.89	
SEE ALL SUB-SECTIONS AT ONCE												# TOKENS
												SIZE

Misc	News_Intl	News_Natl	News_Local	Money	Life	Sports	Editorial	
106	9	17	41	27	32	106	14	PER MILLION
3.40	**2.11**	**2.58**	**6.80**	**3.42**	**2.01**	**7.56**	**3.17**	

Figure 23: The Distribution Chart of <V*><goal>

In order to understand what verbs collocate with <goal> in the sense of scores, I refined the search to magazine section (Figure 24) specifically to the sport page (Figure 25).

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT [?] SAVE LIST CHOOSE LIST --------- CREATE NEW LIST [?]

1	2010	NEWS	NYTimes	A	B	C	net with his right foot. #" I'm not used to **scoring goals**, so I'm a little bit surprised,' Fernandes, 23, said
2	2010	NEWS	AssocPress	A	B	C	Ryan scored late in the first period, and David Backes and Ryan Malone **added goals** in the second period. Ryan Miller was solid in the net, although he
3	2010	NEWS	AssocPress	A	B	C	Fla. (AP) Brooks Laich scored twice and five other Washington players **had goals** to lift the short-handed Capitals past Florida. # The Capitals were without star Alex
4	2010	NEWS	AssocPress	A	B	C	sixth time this season. # Steven Reinprecht, Kamil Kreps and Michal Repik **got goals** for the Panthers. # Jose Theodore stopped 34 shots for the Capitals, while Florida
5	2009	NEWS	Chicago	A	B	C	your fingers crossed that he can return soon.'... Sixteen Hawks have **scored goals**. No other NHL team has as many goal-scorers.... The Hawks and Canucks
6	2009	NEWS	Chicago	A	B	C	would probably be necessary to target five to seven years out to accomplish this **needed goal**,' Manning wrote." A statewide referendum may be needed, but
7	2009	NEWS	Atlanta	A	B	C	James Wisniewski Anaheim 10 1 # Dainius Zubrus New Jersey 15 1 # Game **Winning Goals** # Name Team GP GW # Ryan Malone Tampa Bay 15 4 # Michal Handzus
8	2009	NEWS	Denver	A	B	C	# Broncos 21, Raiders 12 # Denver " D " holds Janikowski to **field goals**, giving Kyle Orton all the cushion he needs. # Mark Kiszla # (
9	2008	NEWS	USAToday	**A**	B	C	higher level. It's his job to do the dirty work and to **score goals**. GM Ray Shero's decision to sign Sykora is among his best moves.
10	2008	NEWS	AssocPress	A	B	C	health, will be a concern. // EXPECTATIONS: Winning in playoffs now **is goal** for a franchise that has rebuilt through the draft and low-key free agent signings.
11	2008	NEWS	WashPost	A	B	C	He and Catherine had other plans. His grandmother provided stability, insisting he **set goals** and follow them. She died when Thompson was 11. // " I didn't
12	2008	NEWS	Chicago	A	B	C	, there will have to be a reconvening of something like Conservation Congress to **delineate goals** and objectives,' he said.' Then talk to the administration and whoever
13	2008	NEWS	WashPost	A	B	C	that hard work and determination were the only ways to be successful and to **reach goals**, " Clemens said. " Shortcuts were not an option. " // Those
14	2008	NEWS	Atlanta	**A**	B	C	. But one of the most serious was that the team's approach to **scoring goals** became, essentially, let Kovalchuk do it. # He scored 52. Only
15	2008	NEWS	Atlanta	**A**	B	C	a new season tonight, there is one pressing question: Just who will **score goals** besides Kovalchuk? # Help from the defense # Anderson knows how to win and

Figure 24: <V*><goal> in Magazine Corpus

News/Opin	Financial	Sci/Tech	Soc/Arts	Religion	Sports	Entertain	Home/Health	Afric-Amer	Children	Women/Men
60	31	37	21	16	51	9	61	35	27	51
3.23	**5.90**	**2.93**	**2.74**	**3.75**	**4.71**	**2.21**	**3.82**	**9.63**	**16.52**	**5.23**

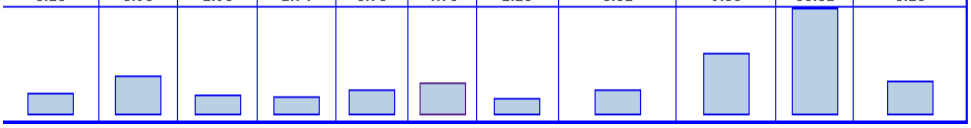


Figure 25: <V><goal> in Sport Section of Magazine Corpus

This refined search seems to generate positive result. As we specify closely, we begin to understand that the pattern <score><goal> is the most frequent pattern, which refers to the sense that we are looking for under sport domain within magazine section.

MWU 3: Analysis

Corpus data and corpus validation verify my proposition that the preference of other verbs such as <creates, make> is under the interference of students' L1, in this case Indonesian. It is also parallel to the findings of Husein and Mohammad (2012), Annelie and Erman (2012), and Arabski (2006) that concerned the negative impact of L1 to L2.

Although this negative transfer is common, to some extent it is dangerous when the choice of structures and vocabulary are considered peculiar. For peculiar use of the lemmas <create, make>, the readers perhaps can still deduce the meaning contextually. Domain shift is a common phenomena of metaphor study (Deignan, 2006). However, using <print> as a collocate to <goal> in terms of sport does not make any sense in English as <print> is a creation of textual image. It is true that some domain shift in metaphors might be shared across languages (Deignan & Potter, 2004), but *cetak* <print> and *gol* <goal> is a common metaphor in Indonesian but not in English. The shift might confuse native speakers of English.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This research concludes that 1) students involved in this research were more exposed to spoken English rather than written English; 2) degree of exposure, as well as the students' L1, has a great influence on their preference over

certain structures; and 3) although the degree of exposure varies, teacher's instruction is still prioritized.

Considering the importance of teachers' instruction in this research, I recommend that teachers, especially in colleague-level academic writing class, instruct the students to consult different sources proportionally, and use the reference appropriately in accordance to the aim of their writing. Students cannot just rely completely on the teachers, or undergraduate final projects. I also strongly suggest that various corpora be used in the classroom in order to show authentic evidence of how language is used academically. Teachers can navigate the corpora together with the students in the class. The students are also encouraged to share the result of corpus exploration with teachers and other students. At this stage, teachers can always facilitate them in improving corpus exploration techniques, correcting false conclusions, or suggesting that they use a more specific/general corpus to explore.

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