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Articles and correspondence on editorial matters should be addressed to:

Dr Su-Hie Ting
Chief Editor
Issues in Language Studies
Centre for Language Studies
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak
94300 Kota Samarahan
Sarawak
Malaysia
shting@cls.unimas.my

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Page 3 onwards: Text in single-spacing and margins – top and bottom, left and right – should be 1.25 inches wide, Calibri 11 point.

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Table 1
Types of communication strategies used across age groups

Figure 1. Frequency of communication strategy use across age groups

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Follow APA style (6th ed.) for citation and referencing, with the exception of Malay names which should be spelt in full in the text and the reference list.

Contents

FACTORS INFLUENCING MALAYSIAN ESL LEARNERS' ENGAGEMENT IN ACADEMIC WRITING (IN L2)

Ida Fatimawati bt Adi Badiozaman
Faculty of Language and Communication, Swinburne University of Technology Sarawak Campus

ifaBadiozaman@swinburne.edu.my

Abstract

This paper examines Malaysian learners' engagement in academic writing (AW) in a second language (L2) in a higher learning institution. A quantitative means of exploring students' engagement was incorporated as a starting point to capture a broad cross-sectional snapshot of Malaysian learners' engagement in academic writing and identify pertinent issues of the target population. The quantitative analysis revealed that the majority of the students were highly engaged and that they responded differently in the engagement domains (e.g., high behavioural engagement and low cognitive engagement). The subsequent exploration in the qualitative phase affirmed that the socio-historical aspects of the Malaysian context (e.g., position of English, identity conflicts, and emphasis on education) were also pertinent factors influencing student engagement in the AW class. While a psychological perspective has helped elucidate how engagement dimensions interacted in the learning process, the broader sociocultural aspects helped provide further insights into the role of contextual influences on student engagement in the AW class, and how these were driven by, and also drive motivation towards academic literacy and legitimacy.

Keywords: academic engagement, disengagement, academic writing, academic literacy, English as a second language, Malaysia

Introduction

Over the last three decades, engagement research has been perceived as vital in understanding student learning and development (Coates, 2010; Hu & Kuh, 2002). Engagement was understood as involvement, time and quality of effort students put into their learning (Pace, 1980). Hu and Kuh (2002) defined student engagement as "the quality of effort students themselves devote to educationally purposeful activities that contribute directly to desired outcomes" (p. 555). Krause (2005) on the other hand defined it as "the time, energy and resources students devote to the activities designed to enhance learning at university" (p. 3). In the same vein, three decades of research have linked students' positive educational outcomes with their

expended time and effort (Newmann, Wehlage, & Lamborn, 1992; Pace & Kuh, 1998; Pascarella, 1991; Wang & Eccles, 2013)- which explains why these earlier definitions tended to describe engagement predominantly as the students' responsibility.

The understanding of student engagement gradually expanded and institutions were perceived to be accountable for engagement, especially in higher education (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Kuh (2009) maintained that policies and practices of "how the institution allocates its resources and arranges its curricula, other learning opportunities, and support services" (p. 685) could greatly enhance student engagement. Student engagement then began to be perceived as an indicator of collegiate quality (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2007).

With increasing research and interest in student engagement (Kahu, 2011; Leach, 2014; Wilson, 2010) the understanding of this construct became more developed. Kuh (2009) merged the two views above and defined engagement as, "the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college *and* what institutions do to induce students to participate in the activities" (p. 683). The academic and non-academic aspects such as level of academic challenge, active and collaborative learning, student-faculty interaction, enriching (consider "enriched") educational experiences and supportive campus environment (Kuh, 2003) formed the basis of many surveys on student engagement such as the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) and Australasian Survey of Student Engagement (AUSSE) (Trowler, 2010). Government reports and policies in countries such as Australia, the UK and the USA, citing student engagement as an educational goal (Harris, 2010) further highlight the value of the construct, particularly in higher learning institutions.

Research on student engagement has ascertained that it is an important factor for improving student retention (James, McInnis, & Devlin, 2002). Students who feel a sense of disconnection and isolation in their learning experience are prone to withdraw from the course or the institution (Tinto, 2010). This is disconcerting since it not only alludes to disengagement, but also unsuccessful transition to higher learning (Kift & Moody, 2009; Kift, Nelson, & Clarke, 2010) and inability to adjust (Heirdsfield, Walker, & Walsh, 2008) at a crucial stage of the student's academic experience. Indeed, it is crucial that the students' learning experience be supported effectively as it is a means of establishing foundations of successful later years of study (Leach, 2014).

It is evident that the factors that influence student engagement need to be better understood. The focus on academic writing in this study is due to the role of writing in tertiary education (Othman & Mohamad, , 2009). Students' achievement at tertiary level is evaluated mainly on written assessments; be it in the form of large extended writing (e.g., projects, proposal and reports) or short response essays (e.g. examinations and quizzes). Nonetheless, writing (in English) for Malaysian learners at university level is still reported to be unsatisfactory (Ali & Yunus, 2004; Che Musa, Koo, & Azman, 2012), and in comparison with speaking and listening, has been identified to be one of the most difficult skills to master (Yah Awg, Hamzah, & Hasbollah, 2010).

Consequently, this study highlights opportunities for improvement within the writing curricula. This is said because it provides a better understanding about the nature of challenges and issues that these tertiary learners face as they learn academic writing in English in Malaysia. This may lead to a more fitting policy for improving the students' academic literacy level. When considering these potential contributions, research on factors that influence student engagement in the Malaysian ESL context becomes an issue worth investigating.

Review of Literature

Academic Engagement and Disengagement

According to Hockings, Cooke, Yamashita, McGinty, and Bowl (2008), engagement and disengagement are complex concepts. Consequently, the identification of academically-engaged or disengaged students is an intricate process. It is useful to refer to NSSE, which "focuses on dimensions of quality in undergraduate education and … assess[es] the extent to which they [students] engage in educational practices associated with high levels of learning and development" (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2011, p. 2). In recent findings, it was identified that effective and frequent use of learning strategies by engaged students included "taking careful notes during class, connecting course content to things already known, and identifying key information from readings" (National Survey of Student Engagement, 2011, p. 16). The survey findings reflect an earlier study by Hockings et al. (2008) in which an academically-engaged student was found to be "intellectually, socially and personally involved in learning what has meaningful outcomes for her" (p. 192).

Since engagement is a process that develops over time and patterns of student engagement may change and evolve (e.g. McInnis, 2001; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010), the notion of engagement as a continuum is propagated. For example, Bryson and Hand (2007) maintained that student engagement exists in a continuum in which students can be engaged and disengaged at various levels and intensity. Hockings et al. (2008) expanded on this by adding that "a student could show signs and degrees of dis/engagement over short or long periods, within a task or session, or over the period of a module or course" (p. 192). Moreover, based on their study, indicators of disengagement may include students who "take a 'surface' approach to learning (copying out notes, focusing on fragmented facts and right answers, jumping to conclusions, accepting)" (p. 350). McInnis (2001) observed that disengagement was detectable through the declining level of commitment to university. In particular, this was evident in the time spent on campus, motivational issues, study habits and also difficulty in managing study workload. Additionally, mismatched expectations (Tinto, 1993) and inadequate preparation for higher learning (Deil-Amen, 2011) have also been argued to be the reasons why students experience academic disengagement.

McInnis (2001) emphasised the need to "reconceptualise the undergraduate experience as a process of negotiated engagement rather than assuming that disengagement is an intractable problem and that students are to blame" (p. 1). This implies that there are many causes that lead to disengagement, other than the

students themselves. For example, studies have found that student engagement or disengagement is reliant on the nature and quality of feedback and interaction from peers and teachers, as well as the overall experience in the learning context (Kuh, 2003). In some cases, some students are unable to access resources and the opportunities provided by their respective learning institutions (McInnis, 2001); a factor which also led to disengagement and marginalisation.

The perspective of student engagement adopted in the study

The current study acknowledges that the many perspectives of student engagement (i.e. behavioural and holistic) have contributed great insights to the understanding of the subject's construct. However, the position taken on by this study is the psychological perspective. The psychological perspective of engagement provides an opportunity to focus on the internal processes of engagement in individual students. In doing so, it is hoped that engagement could provide a better understanding of learning academic writing in a second language (L2) in a higher learning institution; in a setting where English is a second language. The psychological perspective views engagement "as an internal psycho-social process that evolves over time and varies in intensity" (Kahu, 2011, p. 761). Furthermore, Fredricks, Blumenfeld and Paris (2004) listed three dimensions of the psychological perspective on student engagement and they are: behavioural, affective and cognitive.

Cognitive engagement is one of the well-researched dimensions of engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). Newmann et al. (1992) defined cognitive engagement as "a student's psychological investment in and effort directed towards learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge skills or crafts" (p. 12). This may be observable through students' preference for hard work, willingness to make an investment and also engagement of the mind (Darr, Ferral, & Stephanou, 2008). Zimmerman (1990) suggests that the intensity of students' cognitive engagement can be identified through self-regulated metacognitive strategies used. In fact, self-regulatory processes have been linked predominantly to the study of academic achievement in terms of strategic learning behaviours, cognitive engagement or specific academic performance measures (Bandura, 1997 as cited in Chong, 2007, p. 63). In this manner, cognitive engagement can help differentiate students' engagement through the range of strategies they adopt (e.g., deep processing strategies and effective strategy use).

Behavioural engagement has three elements: positive conduct, involvement in learning and participation (Fredricks et al., 2004). Furlong et al. (2008) stated that "behavioural engagement is reflected in attendance … active participation in classes (e.g. asking questions, participating in discussions)" (p. 366). Glanville and Wildhagen (2007) added to the notion of participation by stating that it "encompasses both basic behaviours such as attendance, following school rules and avoidance of disruptive behaviours" (p. 1021). Conversely, Finn and Voelkl (1993) extended the notion of participation to a wider school context (e.g. participating in extracurricular activities) in their participation-identification model. In this model, "most children begin school as willing participants, encouraged to become involved in classroom

activities by parents and teachers. Continued participation over the years, accompanied by a degree of academic success lead to an internalised sense of identification with school" (Finn & Cox, 1992, p. 144). This model provides a useful link between emotion and behaviour as part of understanding student engagement and disengagement.

In the psychological perspective, affective dimensions are included as an important component for understanding student engagement. Affective engagement refers to the dimensions of feelings and connection, sense of belonging, safety and attachment (Furlong et al., 2003). Fredricks et al. (2004) also includes "interest, boredom, happiness, sadness and anxiety" (p. 63) as part of affective engagement. Kahu (2011) argues that this dimension of engagement can discern learners' instrumental (e.g. high grades) and intrinsic motivation (e.g., interest).

Overall, engagement provides a crucial framework for understanding students' actions in class. In this study, the term student engagement is used in a broad sense to refer to students' cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions in relation to academic writing and their participation in academic writing-related tasks. Conversely, the term disengaged is used to characterise students who do not feel that they belong in the Academic Writing class and have withdrawn significantly from learning-related activities.

Engagement with Academic Writing

Prior to further exploring students' engagement with academic writing in a second language, it is useful to refer to what writing constitutes. Writing requires a series of processes which lead to a completed product. These processes involve multiple cognitively-oriented skills ranging from simple to complex and then finally, demanding, such as comprehension, application and synthesis of new knowledge, reflection and revision that results in a completed manuscript. Thus, when it comes to writing in L2, a "sufficient level of lexical, syntactic and spelling knowledge in the target language" (Ransdell & Barbier, 2002, p. 3) is required in order to express ideas in the correct linguistic form.

The current literature on academic writing tends to shy away from providing a definition of this subject area. In particular, researchers tend to describe its features, characteristics and function or make comparisons to other writing genres (MacDonald, 1987). Academic writing incorporates elements of hedging (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Swales & Feak, 2004), nominalisations (Biber & Gray, 2010) and voice (Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). Notwithstanding the various operational terms, the general consensus is that academic writing entails high-level cognitive functions (Sheldon, 2009) and grammatical complexity. It involves skills such as identifying, locating, analysing and synthesising information. Furthermore, academic writing necessitates an active production of all the above within the accepted academic writing conventions (Canagarajah, 1999; Steinman, 2003). Zhu (2004) suggests that academic writing "serves different purposes in different courses and requires students to assume different social roles, and that communicative conventions are intricately intertwined with the content for, the aims of, and student roles in writing" (p. 30). Academic writing can therefore be discipline-specific (e.g., Science

and Humanities) and may vary in terms of its conventions. This has implications for the academic writing class in Malaysian universities, where students may be studying in different disciplines. The challenge is further intensified for L2 writers because they need to be aware of the conventions of academic writing, be knowledgeable of content, assume a specific role as a writer and be able to write to a particular audience. Thus, it is not surprising that much of the literature on academic writing in a second language links students' inability to engage with weakness in L2 proficiency (Leki, 2011; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Santos, 1988). Anstrom et al. (2010) propagated that that academic English is the reason for the discrepancy between English language learners and English-proficient student. In this light, L2 writers learning academic writing in English not only have to master English, but also gain advanced writing skills

The notion of multiple writer identities, particularly for ESL learners has also been reported to influence students' engagement with academic writing (Li, 2007; Stacey, 2010). In fact, in order to perform successfully in the academic community, learners need to adopt the appropriate writer identity (Ivanic, 2006; Wenger, 1998) in order to gain acceptance as a full member of the community of practice (Huhtala & Lehti-Eklund, 2010, p. 273). Krause (2005) maintained that "reshaping identity, letting go of long-held beliefs and approaches to learning and social interaction" (p. 10) was necessary for learners' engagement. In other words, their already established identity is challenged to transform, relocate and reposition the self as an academic writer (Harklau, 2006; Hirano, 2008, 2014). This restructuring supports the notion of peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) which believes that, in order to be an expert, you have to start as a peripheral participant and gradually increase your participation. Nonetheless, this restructuring is also contingent on students' willingness to engage and invest in these goals (Petrides & Frederickson, 2011). Thus, in the current study, the challenge is set for Malaysian learners who have an established and successful L1 writer identity. They may need to adopt a new writer identity, one that is deemed appropriate for the discourse (academic writing) and the larger community (university/ academia) in L2.

This overview of relevant literature not only offered a different way of thinking about engagement, but also highlighted the complexity of the concept when it pertains to L2 learning. In this retrospect, Learning academic writing in a second language entails more than just an accumulation of skills as, there are multiple factors influencing students' engagement with academic writing in L2. Clearly, the learners in the study are not homogenous as their needs, abilities and legitimacy to participate will vary. Exploring the students' experience of learning L2 writing, as indicated by their engagement (or disengagement) in the context is central to this study. It entails numerous complex processes which involve the cognitive, psychological and affective domains. It is anticipated that as a result, the process will be embedded with many challenges, and learners may have to negotiate and reconstruct appropriate and competent writer identities thus necessitating the need to negotiate and reconstruct appropriate and competent writer identities for the learners.

Methodology

The study utilised a mixed methods design, in which priority was given to the qualitative phase. This approach was seen as instrumental in providing comprehensive evidence with regard to student engagement in academic writing. Incorporating both qualitative and quantitative approaches was intended to provide various types of data, thus giving the research the rigor, and also quantitative breadth and qualitative depth. Figure 1 provides a visual model of the sequential investigative procedures for the study.

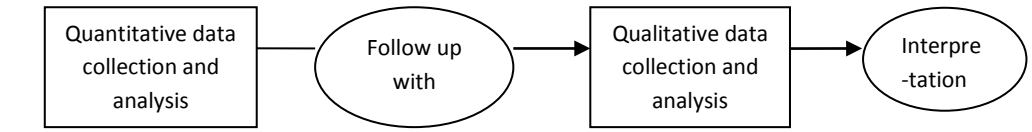

Figure 1. Designing and conducting mixed methods research

(Adapted from Creswell & Clark, 2010, p. 69)

Phase One

The first phase of this study utilised a survey questionnaire. Several questionnaires such as Me and My School by Darr et al. (2008) and the Student Engagement Questionnaire (Australasian Survey of Student Engagement [AUSSE], 2008), informed the development of items for the questionnaire. Items were also contextualised to fit into the discipline-specific context of the AW class. Since the aim of the study was to explore factors that influence students' engagement, the psychological perspective provided an opportunity to focus on the internal processes of engagement (behavioural, affective and cognitive) in individual students. For this reason, learners' engagement in the AW class was measured through items such as "I often look for ways to improve my English" (behavioural engagement), "I look forward to going to the writing class" (affective engagement) and "Academic writing helps me to do well in my content papers" (cognitive engagement).

Responses were rated on a 4-point Likert scale (1= False; 4= True). The 4-point Likert scale was specifically adopted to avoid having midpoints as an option. In measuring engagement, a student responds to an item in a way that reflects the strength of the item in relation to his/her position with the engagement that is being measured (i.e. cognitive, behavioural and affective). The questionnaire therefore allowed aspects of engagement of the large target population to be systematically identified. Additionally, the data from the survey also helped facilitate the development of the interview protocol in Phase Two.

Phase Two

The second phase utilised semi-structured interviews. The qualitative data and its analysis would explain in detail, the influences engagement in academic writing (in

L2) for individual students. In the qualitative phase, each student was interviewed twice to increase the depth and richness of the data. This allowed the complexity and distinctness of engagement to be further understood by the researcher. The interviews took a maximum of one hour per student and were digitally audio-recorded. The gap between the first and second interviews in each case was no more than one week. The interviews were conducted in English and *Bahasa Melayu,* the native language of the research subjects and the researcher. The interview process was flexible (Janesick, 2000); more questions were added, refined and readjusted in the subsequent interviews due to emergent findings.

The semi-structured interview data was later transcribed using the denaturalised convention (MacLean, Mechthild, & Alma, 2004). This is a verbatim depiction of speech- perceived to be an antidote to the naturalised transition often used alongside conversation analysis. The emphasis on informational content is particularly relevant to the study as it is concerned with the substance of the interview or specifically "the meanings and perceptions created and shared during a conversation" (Oliver, Serovich, & Mason, 2005, p. 4). During the study, it became necessary to check the translations of transcriptions to avoid potential inaccuracies and errors. The participants were contacted about this via email to seek their consent and ensure that they were informed. Participants' confidentiality was maintained as the language expert signed a confidentiality agreement.

The analysis of data from this qualitative phase was supported by the use of NVivo 8 software and involved several (but not necessarily distinct) steps, namely, transcription, coding, analysis and interpretation. Transcribed and field notes data were transferred into the NVivo 8 software for further analyses. Upon completing the transcription, Bogdan and Biklen (2007) suggested several steps in developing a coding system. These include: (i) searching for regularities and patterns as well as for topics in the data; (ii) writing down words and phrases to represent these topics and patterns; and (iii) developing a list of coding categories. The identified words and patterns became the initial coding categories for the descriptive data. For the data reduction stage, the process was "dynamic and fluid" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 101). It required the researcher to read the whole transcription repeatedly for code refinement. Coding categories had to be limited to ensure that there are no overlaps or redundancies, so major and sub-codes were established. Through NVivo 8, the systematic analysis of interview data was carried out by grouping coding strips (coded parts) into nodes in the project database, with each node representing a category (see Table 1).

As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998) and Bogdan and Biklen (2007), the analysis required several rigorous steps. For coding, the steps were subjected to several rounds, and *meaning units* were used that "preserve the psychological integrity of the idea being expressed" and "neither fragment the idea into meaningless truncated segments nor confuse it with other ideas that express different themes" (Ratner, 2002, p. 169). The researcher thus coded coherent, related statements as one meaning unit. In cases where participants combined two themes in one sentence, the researcher coded the sentence twice and each theme was placed in two categories. Table 1 presents an overview of the steps involved in coding through NVivo 8 software.

Table 1
Overview of coding steps using NVivo 8

Step	Procedure	Product
Step 1	Relevant parts of each interview were highlighted and were given a code name based on the theme they expressed	Free nodes (coding strips unconnected to one another)
Step 2	Free nodes were compared, revised or deleted Free nodes were clustered based on thematic affinities into a higher code level	Tree nodes (coding strips that have category / subcategory relationship)
Step 3	All free nodes and tree nodes are compared across participants Emergent themes are categorised	Casebook / Matrix Query

Participants

The participants in the first phase of the study were selected with opportunity and convenience taken into account (Bryman, 2008). As the chosen university required the students to take an academic writing (AW) course all the students who were currently taking the AW paper were invited to participate. As such, all the 199 students who enrolled in the AW class in that semester (semester one) participated in phase one of this research. The composition of these participants varied as they were from different faculties such as Economics and Business, Engineering, Computer Science and Information Technology, and Social Science. The eight participants in the second phase were selected based on those who expressed interest in the interviews by leaving their email and contact details in the final section of the questionnaire.

Results

Phase One

The percentages for each response were calculated for each item. Statistical data obtained from the quantitative method employed allowed the identification of basic tendencies and significant relations with regard to student engagement. These data helped create baseline information and provided reliable explanation on the issue at hand (Drew, Hardman, & Hosp, 2008). In particular, these statistical data were useful because they could be further investigated in the subsequent phase of the study.

findings on behavioural engagement.

Engagement items in the questionnaire included statements which could gauge the respondents' behavioural engagement in the AW class. It was inferred through positive conduct, involvement and commitment. The overall mean values of the respondents' behavioural engagement seemed to indicate that they have a

relatively high behavioural engagement in the AW class. Table 2 summarises the distribution of responses for behavioural engagement items.

Table 2
Distribution of responses for behavioural engagement items

Item		Mean	Distribution of responses %			
			F	MF	MT	T
E30	I pay attention in class	3.24	2.4	8.2	52.4	37.1
E29	When writing gets difficult, I stop trying*	3.18	38.8	44.7	12.4	4.1
E28	I do as little as possible; I just want to pass*	3.09	34.1	46.5	14.1	5.3
E27	I work hard in my Academic Writing class	3.01	4.1	15.9	55.3	24.7
E31	I always participate in class discussions	2.88	5.3	25.3	45.9	23.5
E32	I prepare two or more drafts of an assignment before final submission	2.69	11.2	29.4	38.8	20.6

Note. F = False; MF = Mostly False; MT = Mostly True; T = True. Items are arranged from the highest to lowest mean.
* Refers to negatively worded items.

The highest mean value was represented by Item E30, where an overwhelming majority of the students noted that they paid attention in class (MT = 52.4%; T = 37.1%). These encouraging responses for the behavioural engagement subsection were further supported by Item E29, where the majority of the students reported False (38.8%) and Mostly False (44.7%) to the statement " when writing gets difficult, I stop trying"*;* indicating the determined and persistent nature of the respondents. Very similar responses were reported for Items E28 and E27. The majority of the students disagreed with statement E28 "I do as little as possible; I just want to pass". (MF = 46.5%; F = 34.1%). This item (which is intended to gauge the work culture in the AW class) indicated that the majority of the students who responded were of the opinion that merely passing is not sufficient. This is supported by Item E27, which indicated that most students worked hard in the AW class (MT = 55.3%; T = 24.7%). In addition, the students responded positively to the statement on class participation (Item E31).

The majority of the students stated that they "always participate in class discussions", implying that commitment and involvement are generally confined within the parameters of the AW class. This finding resonated with earlier findings where the majority of the students indicated that they spent minimal hours studying academic writing independently. An interesting finding was identified for item E32 "I prepare two or more drafts of an assignment before final submission". This item had the lowest mean (2.69) in the behavioural engagement subsection. Although 20.6% responded True and 38.8% responded *Mostly True* to the statement, a considerable number of respondents responded *False* (11.2%) and *Mostly False* (29.4%). This statistic is alarming, since it demonstrates that the

academic writing process for the majority of respondents involve not producing drafts or multiple drafts for writing tasks.

Findings on affective engagement

Statements in the affective engagement subsection are intended to gauge the students' feelings and connections to the AW class. They are represented by learners' positive attitude towards learning, sense of relatedness, and belonging in the AW writing class. The distribution of responses for affective engagement is presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Distribution of responses for Affective Engagement items

Item	Mean	Distribution of Responses %			
		F	MF	MT	T
E36 I think that academic writing is important for my future	3.64	1.2	1.2	30	67.6
E35 The writing class feels like a waste of time*	3.58	62.9	32.9	2.9	1.2
E38 In class, I really care that I do my best work	3.33	0	10	47.1	42.9
E34 I am proud to be in the Academic Writing class	3.16	3.5	13.5	46.5	36.5
E33 I look forward to my Academic Writing class	2.67	10.6	30.6	40	18.8

Note. F = False; MF = Mostly False; MT = Mostly True; T = True. Items are arranged from the highest to lowest mean. A * Refers to negatively worded items

Item E36, which aims to gauge students' identification with the AW paper through the statement "I think that academic writing is important for my future" scored the highest mean value (3.64) among the affective engagement items. An overwhelming majority of the students reported *True* (67.6%) and *Mostly True* (30%) to this statement, indicating that they viewed academic writing as a priority. The identification with what the course has to offer, be it academic literacy or L2 proficiency also highlights issues related to the sense of belonging in the AW class and their academic identity.

This sense of relatedness was further supported by Item E35, where a majority of students disagreed with the statement, "*the writing class feels like a waste of time"* (F=62.9%. MF= 32.9%). This infers that the students have an affinity with the AW class and this could have been attributed to the value of the AW subject. The identification with academic writing was also supported by Item E38 in which the majority of the students reported *Mostly True* (47.1%) and *True* (42.9%) to the statement, "in class I really care that I do my best work". The responses to this item were also indicative of a positive attitude towards learning and the effort and

students put in as a result of the identifying with AW subject. A majority of the students also reported *Mostly True* (46.5%) and *True* (36.5%) to Item E34, "I am proud to be in the Academic Writing Class"*;* further affirming that the participants were engaged affectively and possessed a positive self- concept in the AW class.

Findings on cognitive engagement

This subsection in the questionnaire aims to capture the respondents' cognitive engagement. Cognitive engagement refers to the psychological investment and effort directed towards learning and understanding. The breakdown of responses for cognitive engagement is presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Distribution of responses for Cognitive Engagement items

	Item	**Mean**	**Distribution of responses %**			
			F	**M**	**MT**	**T**
E40	I take care to ensure that my essays are done properly (e.g. formatting, referencing)	3.42	1.2	2.4	50	46.5
E43	I feel that academic writing helps me to do well in my content papers	3.41	1.8	4.1	45.3	48.8
E41	I often look for ways to improve my English writing	3.36	1.2	4.7	50.6	43.5
E39	Writing in English helps me organise my ideas	3.24	2.9	5.3	56.5	35.3
E42	It is easy to organise my thoughts into sentences in English	2.46	12.4	42.4	32.4	12.9
E44	I find it hard to express my ideas effectively in English*	2.31	9.4	28.8	45.3	16.5

Note. F = False; MF = Mostly False; MT = Mostly True; T = True. Items are arranged from the highest to lowest mean.
* refers to negatively worded items.

There are variations in the cognitive engagement in this section. Item E40, which aims to identify the respondents' cognitive engagement with regard to tasks in academic writing, revealed that half of the respondents reported *Mostly True* (50%), while the other half (46.5%) reported *True* to the statement, "I take care to ensure that my essays are done properly". A considerable number of students also agreed that the course had helped them to perform better in content subjects and consequently they would look for ways to improve their writing. A similar positive response was reported for Item E43 "I feel that academic writing helps me to do well in my content papers" where 45.3% of the students stated *Mostly True* and 48.8% stated *True.* This contrasts with the finding

on students not seeing the value of successive drafts. Items E39, E42 and E44 further explored cognitive engagement, to see whether the learners faced cognitive challenges in writing due to the level of their English language. The results from Item E39 indicated that for a majority of the respondents, writing in English actually facilitated the organisation of ideas for the writing process (T = 35.3%; MT 56.5%). However, the actual task of constructing sentences appeared to be the main obstacle. Therefore, to a certain extent, English proficiency may impede the students' cognitive engagement in academic writing as represented by the lowest two mean values (E42 = 2.46; E44= 2.31).

Overall, the quantitative analysis identified that a majority of learners appear to be highly engaged students in the AW class, since an overwhelming majority of the respondents agreed that it was important for them to do well in the paper. Although this seemed to reflect the consensus, further analysis of the separate domains indicated that students responded differently in the engagement domains (e.g., high behavioural engagement and low cognitive engagement), which therefore highlights possible contextual influences and affirms the dynamic nature of student engagement. Educational psychologists Bandura (2008) pointed out that learners' beliefs influence their experiences and actions in their learning. Thus, if beliefs predispose action, instances in which students indicated what seems to be lack of effort or cognitive disengagement (e.g., minimal drafts and minimal hours of studying) can be better understood. For example, if a learner's particular belief is that language is an innate ability, this could explain why they invest in it minimally. On the other hand, if students believe that proficiency is not fixed but rather acquired through effort and hard work, they may expend additional effort.

The differences between responses could also be due to the context. Academic Writing was a subject developed for language and academic competency, and is not discipline-inclined. Jary and Lebeau (2009) established that student engagement may vary based on discipline. Thus, in the context of this study, it seemed useful to find out whether the responses elicited on their engagement in AW class were shaped in any way by the nature of the academic writing curriculum and objectives of the course or the respondents' major in their respective faculties.

Linking Phases One and Two

The goal of the qualitative phase was to elaborate and explain the results in Phase One, further exploring areas potentially related to the formulation of students' engagement in the writing class. Thus, the design of the interview protocol was focused on obtaining a more holistic picture of how learners came to have particular engagement in academic writing. The formulation of the open-ended semi-structured interview questions and their respective probes was based on the following themes which emerged from the quantitative findings: (i) the academic writing process, (ii) challenges of academic writing, (iii) the value and relevance of academic writing and (iv) variation of engagement and disengagement (see Figure 2).

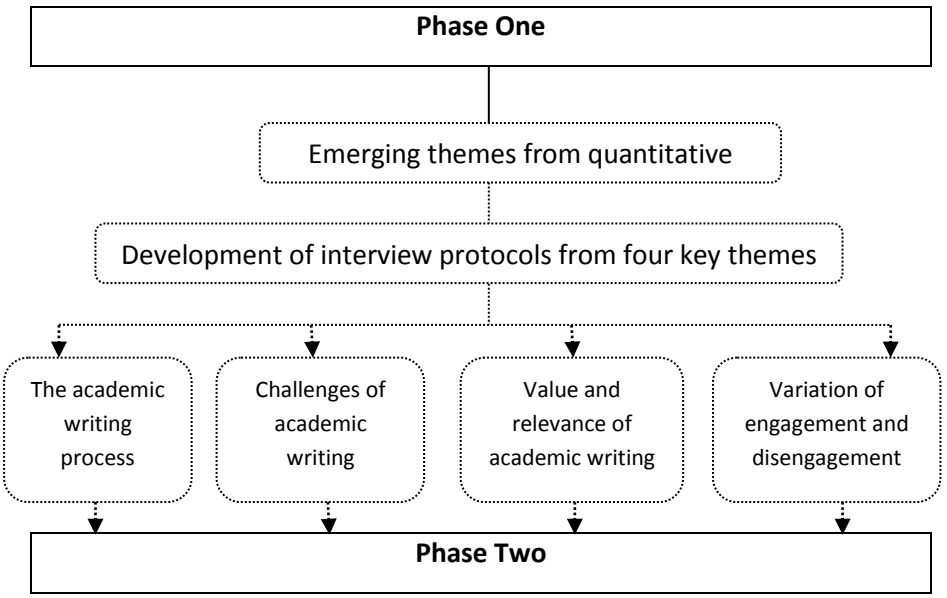

Figure 2. Linking phase one and phase two
(The dotted lines represent the integration of quantitative and qualitative phases)

Phase Two

The questionnaire results informed and guided the data collection in the qualitative phase of this study. The learners reported in this article are Nurul and Mustafa. The two were selected from the eight students, as their data were particularly rich and detailed, showing how they uniquely conceptualised engagement in academic writing.

Nurul: the outsider looking in

Nurul is a Malay student, originally from State X. When she was interviewed, Nurul was in her final year of study as a Biotechnology student. Nurul spoke only in a local dialect throughout the interview. There were minor code-switching instances (in English) when Nurul felt confident enough of the meaning, but they were limited to only words or short phrases. In the questionnaire, Nurul described her engagement in the AW class as average. Her responses in the interview presented a similar view.

When asked about her educational background, Nurul explained that she had been accepted into a fully residential school in State X, after doing well in her primary school exams. In her Form 3 exams she continued to do well (getting an A for English) and was then enrolled into the science stream in her upper secondary school. Although Nurul's parents were very involved in her education and encouraged Nurul and her younger sibling to speak English at home, Nurul refrained from using English and would only respond in Malay. Nurul explained, "*I am just not interested to speak in English" (*Interview 1). Nurul's quiet demeanour in the first interview could be seen to depict the stereotypical persona of the Asian student (Kiley, 2003). Nevertheless, she was very forthright

and candid with her answers throughout the interview. This was particularly obvious when she was asked about her experience of learning English and the tasks done in the AW class; "*I can say I have never felt motivated to write" (*Interview 1), and *"As long as it is completed … done ... I don't really care"* (Interview 1).

Based on the responses given, it would be easy to fall into the trap of writing Nurul off as an unmotivated student who showed strong resistance to instruction. Nonetheless, Nurul's resistance and minimal participation seemed to stem from the challenge of the rapidly increasing tasks and the complex learning demands of academic writing. She explained: "*Language feature [for academic writing] ... it's different ... we have to ensure formality and objectivity. The tenses used ... it's all quite tedious"* (Interview 1). Nurul was also unwilling to accommodate any changes represented by the tasks and participation in the AW class. She explained: "*Things that are hard take time. So I stick to things that I know"* (Interview 2). In Nurul's case, her inability to cope with the complex demands of academic writing in L2 exemplifies how as part of the learning process, she became marginalised and became an outsider of the AW class community.

Nurul's engagement is complex, as there seemed to be an internal struggle between her reluctance to learn academic writing and the realisation that she still had to pass the paper in order to graduate. This was reflected during the second interview when she spoke about her goal of graduating and finishing her studies. Nurul expressed that, as she was in her third year, she needed to be more focused in completing her Final Year Project. As this was her most important goal, Nurul put in the effort to be more engaged. In relation to her most recent writing task, she commented, *"I will start, but after one paragraph I will feel fed-up and then stop. And that will happen many times … so that will upset me. But then I will tell myself ... I need to do this … so I will force myself until I finish"* (Interview 2). Based on the interview excerpt, Nurul's conflicting goals seemed to imply competing demands, where she had to betray one principle in order to pursue another goal. This conflict appears resolved in her statement: *"Final year I have to be serious now … I have repented … for my final year project, I will make sure I do my best"* (Interview 1).

In Nurul's case, it appears that a goal that has high value is the gaining of proficiency in English for assessment purposes. However, she was not motivated to pursue this if she considered the likelihood of attaining it is low. Thus, Nurul perhaps redefined the parameters of the writing task and aimed for a more proximal goal, where she would get immediate gratification (task completion or merely passing). Therefore, it seems that Nurul's English proficiency issues became an impediment which impacted on her efficacy and willingness to engage in learning academic writing. This resulted in her putting in minimal effort with activities and tasks in the writing class. For example, when Nurul perceived a lesson to be irrelevant or just valueless, she would disengage and produce the absolute minimum. She expressed this concept twice in the interviews: "*If I could be invisible I would"* (Interview 1) and "*I will try my best to be hidden. If I can be transparent I would"* (Interview 2).

Mustafa: holding on to my L1.

Mustafa is a 21-year-old Biotechnology student. Having several younger siblings still in school, Mustafa explained that he would help them with homework whenever he could; especially if it is a Science or Mathematics subject in English. He clarified that it is his responsibility as an older brother to make sure that they do well in their studies since his parents are unable to do so. He explained, "*My parents are not educated*" (Interview 1). Due to his parents' circumstances, education seems to be regarded very highly in this family. Mustafa stated that at the age of 12 he was sent to tuition classes so that he could do well in his *Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah* (Primary School Evaluation Test). This investment paid off, as Mustafa did well in the exam, and was selected to go to a boarding school at the age of 13. This residential school is religiously-oriented, and learning Arabic is compulsory. Mustafa consistently did well in his studies and, soon after the Penilaian Menengah Rendah (Malay for Lower Secondary Assessment), he was accepted by another residential school to continue his upper secondary studies and continued his academic success in the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (Malay for the Malaysian Certificate of Education).

Mustafa listed two main goals that he currently had in mind: to be a lecturer and to be a scientist. Mustafa seemed to believe that academic writing does not play the same role in these goals. When asked whether he felt that academic writing is important for his future, Mustafa initially explained, "*No, I don't think academic writing is very important for my future" [as a Scientist]* (Interview 1). However, later on he stated, *"I want to be a lecturer and I want to do my Masters. So yes, academic writing is directly involved"* (Interview 1). Although not all his goals might necessarily have an immediate connection with academic writing, Mustafa was very aware that both goals could only be achieved through outstanding academic success.

Mustafa appreciated that his efforts to become involved in the lesson were recognized by the instructor. He reported that his assessments had consistently received positive feedback and high marks from the instructors, and this in turn made him "*more confident about my writing"* (Interview 2). This confidence seems to be linked to his engagement in the class, as he was actively involved in answering questions, giving opinions and becoming involved in discussions and presentations in class. He explained, *"I can remember in one class, I was the only one who answered her [the instructor] and then she asked others why they were not as involved [as me] in the class"* (Interview 2). Despite getting recognition for contributions in the class, Mustafa did not want to be a "popular" student. He emphasised, *"I don't need to be popular. There is no benefit. Maybe you will make a lot of friends, but nothing more. Learning is more important"* (Interview 2).

The quote above reveals not only Mustafa's high emphasis on learning, but also his satisfaction about being acknowledged by lecturers for participating in educationally purposeful activities in the AW class. While, for specific tasks, he exhibited an individual orientation for engagement, at other times he had a more social orientation. In a language class where learners are continuously trying to improve their skills, such as speaking and writing, Mustafa would take risks and put in the effort for more public participation. When asked whether he felt anxious

about talking in front of others, Mustafa admitted that the fear would always be there, but, "*It prepares me. If I keep presenting and with a lot of practice, the confidence will come and I won't be as nervous the next time"* (Interview 2).

Discussion

Although the psychological perspective (in Phase One) has illuminated significant internal factors influencing student engagement, the socio-historical aspects, especially in the Malaysian context could not be ignored. For example, the findings (in Phase Two) have ascertained that when students attempt to engage, multiple factors (both internal and external) can impede or enable this process. These findings resonate with that of Kahu's (2011), who maintained that the diversity of students' experience attribute to their willingness and ability to engage or disengage.

Within the Malaysian context, great emphasis was put on education due to its post-colonial history. At present, this emphasis is further exacerbated due to the demands of globalisation, thus making academic English language a commodity for graduates, and therefore an important investment. For this reason, two factors emerged as significant in influencing student engagement in the academic writing class: motivation for academic literacy and motivation for academic legitimacy.

The Motivation for Academic Literacy

The position of English in Malaysia is unique due to socio-historical exigencies and this is manifested in the learners' responses regarding their motivation for learning academic writing in English. The learners engaged in the AW class with a clear sense of purpose and direction. In fact, the majority of them purposefully elected to take the AW subject in order to improve their learning outcomes and overall academic achievement. To illustrate, despite the reported difficulty of AW in L2, students' engagement was still discernible through their perseverance and the range of strategies adopted in the AW class. In this sense, their engagement in the writing tasks and activities in the AW class was influenced by the need to read and write academic texts effectively at university level, not only in the subject of academic writing itself, but also for their own majors and faculties (academic literacy) and personal goals. Upon gaining academic literacy, numerous other opportunities and pathways would be accessible to these learners in terms of furthering their studies at postgraduate level and achieving a promising career in the future.

It is apparent that academic literacy is essential for a successful learning experience at university level, and these students have been motivated to engage in the AW class for the purpose of acquiring academic literacy. The benefits of academic literacy included increased academic writing knowledge; increased English proficiency (for some); increased knowledge for writing research proposals and final year thesis; and other communicative skills relevant to their future career. The promise of employment upon acquiring the knowledge and skills from the AW class was also observable in Mustafa's response. He explained that he wanted to be a lecture**r** and he wishes to do his Masters "*So yes, Academic writing (the paper) is directly involved"* (Interview 1). In this sense, the learners' engagement in the AW

class can be seen as being influenced by their motivation toward academic literacy and its connection with their future goals, be it to further their studies or to gain better career prospects. This finding thus affirms the notion that "people tend to invest in goals that they value more" (Petrides & Frederickson, 2011, p. 99) as evidenced by the time, energy and effort the students put into learning and into the academic writing-related tasks.

Students' engagement in the AW class, influenced by their motivation of academic literacy, was also ultimately the investment of a young person going into adulthood, whereby the outcomes extend the academic learning experience in the university. In a similar way, learners' investment in educationally purposeful activities has been noted to be advantageous by Kuh (2009):

> Engagement increases the odds that any student-educational and social background notwithstanding - will attain his or her educational and personal objectives, acquire the skills and competencies demanded by the challenges of the twenty-first century, and enjoy the intellectual and monetary advantages associated with the completion of the baccalaureate degree. (p. 698)

The high emphasis put on education (Tan, 2012) and scholastic achievement (Komarraju, Karau, & Ramayah, 2007) in the Malaysian context, and that these students were embedded in a highly academic setting, may also provide reasons for the intensification of these reported engagement during the tertiary education period.

The Motivation for Academic Legitimacy

Based on the findings, it becomes apparent that learning academic writing in a second language is not only an act of acquiring linguistic and academic literacy, but it is also a negotiation of legitimacy (Chen, 2010; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). This legitimacy is attributed to two main reasons; (i) students are peripheral members who have yet to gain legitimacy within their new academic community, and (ii) students are learning academic writing in English. These two main reasons are intricately linked, as discussed below.

The English language plays an important role and it can be seen clearly as a symbolic resource for students. In fact, Norton (2000) confirmed that language plays the role of a gatekeeper; providing or denying learners access to the learning process, especially for second language learners. Since learners are peripheral members of the academic community, they have to negotiate their way into becoming legitimate peripheral members (Boylan, 2010; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Warriner, 2010). In the context of the AW class, these students (as newcomers), had to become familiar and adhere to the conventions of academic writing-and the English language students' negotiation for legitimacy was observable from their effortless transition to overcome internal conflicts of conformity. Some students readily accommodated the new writing conventions, participated in class activities and conceptualised the rules of academic writing conventionsvis-à-vis the existing

academic community. These students' sense of legitimacy was also evident in the reported established networks they had with peers, senior students and instructors. This further raises the possibility of instances which may result in depersonalised relationships and learners relinquishing the actual community (as in the case of Nurul).

One possible reason for the variation of peripherality is learners' proficiency in English. This factor was often responsible for determining the intensity and ability of the students to engage and to access resources and artefacts within the AW class. This is evident in cases where students who had the appropriate level of English proficiency (e.g. Mustafa) or self-efficacy in English were able to engage more effectively in the AW class. On the other hand, students such as Nurul, who wished to acquire academic literacy and also negotiate legitimacy, were unable or limited in terms of their ability to participate in teaching and learning sessions due to their perceived weakness in English proficiency. These two cases further highlight how English proficiency could influence not only their academic legitimacy, but also their academic socialization (Morita, 2009).

Nevertheless, since legitimacy is granted through various ways (Chen, 2010; Norton, 2010), such as practice, activities in the AW class and interaction with the "expert" members, it was evident that the students in the study were doing the best that they could and they continuously tried to participate in the AW class whenever they felt it was possible. For some students, legitimacy may be gained by engaging behaviourally in the class, or by establishing a good relationship with the instructors, and for some other students it may be ensuring that essays were done properly through multiple drafts. The variations within the cognitive, behavioural and affective of engagement in this study therefore depict the various stages that learners were at as they navigated their way from peripheral to fuller participation.

Limitations

As with all research, this investigation had limitations. Firstly, it must be acknowledged that the information in this study was based on the students' perception of their engagement in the AW class. This study realises that the self-reports from both the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews have shortcomings. For one, it is acknowledged that not all elements of engagement would have been readily accessible through the students' conscious reflections. This may make it difficult to construct a holistic depiction of student engagement and to identify all salient factors within a particular situation. It is also important to recognise the factor of meaning ambiguity in terms of students' understanding of engagement when responding to the questionnaire and interview items. The fact that the students were interviewed based on the overall result of the whole sample may also mean that some of the individual features pertinent to each of the subjects interviewed may have been overlooked. Nonetheless, the data from both methods have provided rich insights into these areas.

Conclusion

In this study, the findings have ascertained that when students attempt to engage, multiple factors (both internal and external) can impede or enable this process. Thus, the understanding of student engagement in this study has not only been enriched by awareness of the socio-historical context, but also through the insights into how student engagement can be enhanced and sustained meaningfully through capitalising on internal and external factors that impact on student actions.

In investigating factors that influenced student engagement, it was revealed that the activities related to academic writing are highly regarded by the students. The relevance and value of academic writing and the tasks associated with academic writing enable students to access not only their own disciplinary communities of practice, but also to the overall university community whereby the opportunity for legitimacy is afforded by competency in academic writing. This highlights how the purposeful activities in the AW class were perceived to lead to gains, hence offering a way in to better understand how engagement can be enhanced in the AW class.

Overall, this study reveals that the student engagement in the AW class is shaped by multiple internal and external influences. This finding affirms that in order to fully understand and enhance student engagement in the AW class, all dimensions should be taken into consideration. While a psychological perspective has helped to elucidate how engagement dimensions interacted in the learning process, the broader sociocultural aspects have helped to provide further insights into the role of contextual influences on student engagement in the AW class, and how these have been driven by (and also drive) motivation towards academic literacy and legitimacy. Thus, the understanding of student engagement in this study has not only been enriched by awareness of the participants' socio-historical context, but also through the insights into how student engagement can be enhanced and sustained meaningfully through capitalising on internal and external factors that impact on student actions vis-a-vis to circumvent disengagement.

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FONOLOGI VARIASI KUMPANG DI SUNGAI KETUNGAU: ANALISIS PERBANDINGAN

Chong Shin
Institut Alam dan Tamadun Melayu (ATMA), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

chong@ukm.edu.my

Abstrak

Makalah ini mendeskripsikan fonologi variasi Kumpang, salah satu variasi Ibanik di Sungai Ketungau, Kalimantan Barat. Kajian ini merupakan sebuah kajian sinkronik yang mendeskriptif bahasa Ibanik kontemporari. Aspek linguistik yang dibincangkan ialah sistem vokal, diftong dan konsonan Kumpang. Dengan membandingkannya dengan data-data Ibanik yang lain, misalnya Demam, Sebaru', Bugau, Banjur dan Iban, kajian ini mempersoalkan kajian-kajian terdahulu tentang jumlah vokal yang terkandung dalam bahasa Ibanik. Analisis terhadap diftong mendapati bahasa Ibanik kaya dengan kosa kata yang berdiftong /-ay/ justeru kerana wujud penjelmaan /*-aŋ/ dan /-an/ > /-ai/. Dari segi aspek konsonan, didapati fonem yang sepadan dengan /ɣ/ dalam variasi Kumpang adalah berdiversiti, misalnya muncul sebagai /r/, /ʁ/ ataupun /h/. Begitu juga dengan /-s/. Pada posisi akhir kata, /-s/ muncul sebagai alofon [-ç] atau [-h], bergantung kepada variasi Ibanik tertentu. Berdasarkan data perbandingan, kajian ini telah membuktikan kadar diversiti bahasa Ibanik sebenarnya sangat tinggi di Borneo Barat.

Kata Kunci: Ibanik, Kumpang, Vokal, Diftong, Konsonan, Diversiti

The Phonology of Kumpang in Ketungau River: A Comparison Study

Abstract

This article describes the phonology of Kumpang, an Ibanic variation spoken in Ketungau River, West Kalimantan. In this synchronic study, the vowels, diphthongs and consonants of Kumpang were discussed and compared with other Ibanic varieties such as Demam, Sebaru', Bugau, Banjur and Iban. By analyzing the Kumpang's vowels, it has critised the previous discussions on vowel phonemes in Ibanic studies. The mass of vocabularies with diphthong /-ay/ existed in the Ibanic varieties is identified related to the innovations of /-aŋ/ dan /*-an/ > /-ai/ in this language. In consonants, the discussions of /ɣ/ revealed that this phoneme in correspondence with the consonants of /r/, /ʁ/ or /h/ in other Ibanic varieties, and the /-s/ in the final word position appeared as allophones [-ç] or [-h]. In conclusion,*

this comparison study has proved that Ibanic is indeed a diversification variety in Western Borneo.

Keywords: *Ibanic, Kumpang, Vowel, Diphthong, Consonant, Diversity*

Pendahuluan

Berdasarkan salasilah kekerabatan dan sastera Iban, suku Iban di Sarawak adalah berasal dari lembah Sungai Kapuas, Kalimantan Barat, Indonesia (Sandin, 1968). Pada hakikatnya, di tanah asal Iban, variasi-variasi bahasa yang mirip dengan bahasa Iban (dinamakan sebagai *bahasa Ibanik* oleh Hudson, 1970) adalah beragam. Begitu juga nama-nama untuk suku ini, dikenal pasti selain suku "Iban", terdapat lebih dari 10 suku yang dikenalpasti setakat ini, misalnya suku Demam, Sebaru', Kupang, Ntabun, Sigarau, Seklau, Skapat, Bugau, Banjur , Kantu', Desa, Ketungau *Sesat*, Mualang, Semarak, Kumpang dan lain-lain. Istilah Bahasa Ketungau merujuk kepada variasi bahasa Ibanik yang dituturkan di sepanjang Sungai Ketungau, iaitu salah satu cabang Sungai Kapuas; lihat Peta. Antara variasi Ibanik yang terangkum dalam kategori bahasa Ketungau adalah bahasa Demam, Sebaru', Bugau dan Kumpang. Pada hakikatnya, di luar sistem Sungai Ketungau, bahasa Ketungau tersebar di lembah Sekadau (juga satu cabang sungai di hilir Sungai Kapuas). Dari segi struktur linguistik, bahasa Ketungau di lembah Sekadau mempunyai perbezaan fonologi yang jelas dengan variasi di Sungai Ketungau. Di antaranya, bunyi *-aŋ menjelma sebagai /-ai/ dalam bahasa Ketungau (contohnya /pulaŋ/ → /pulai/) manakala memaparkan ciri nasalisasi pada bunyi velar di posisi akhir kata dalam bahasa Ketungau Sesat (contohnya /pulaŋ/ → /pulã:/) (lihat Collins, 2004). Justeru kerana wujud perbezaan yang nyata, variasi bahasa ini digelar sebagai bahasa Ketungau *Sesat* oleh penduduk setempat iaitu bahasa yang telah kehilangan ciri-ciri yang ada pada bahasa asli (Lampiran A).

Sorotan Kajian-kajian Lepas

Di Sarawak, tradisi kajian bahasa dan masyarakat Iban mempunyai sejarah yang agak lama dan penelitian telah mencakupi pelbagai displin ilmu. Hal ini dapat dibuktikan melalui Bibliografi Kajian Iban di Sarawak oleh Lam (2006). Di seberang sempadan politik Sarawak, iaitu Kalimantan Barat (Indonesia), kenyataan adalah sebaliknya. suku peribumi yang menuturkan bahasa yang mirip dengan bahasa Iban yang amat kurang diteliti. Perhatian hanya bermula pada akhir 60-an apabila Hudson memulakan kajian bahasa-bahasa di Borneo Barat (lihat Hudson, 1970). Hudson merupakan peneliti pertama yang mengkategorikan bahasa di Borneo Barat yang memperlihatkan inovasi *-an, *-aŋ dan *-ar kepada /-ai/ sebagai bahasa Ibanik. Selepas usaha Hudson, beberapa penelitian telah dilakukan oleh Collins (2004), Rahim (2005) dan Chong (2006). Collins merintisi pembahasan tentang nomenklatur, distribusi dan aspek fonologi beberapa variasi Ibanik di Kalimantan Barat. Rahim dengan khususnya membincangkan ciri-ciri fonologi dan morfologi dengan varian Mualang dan Kantuk. Kajian Chong pula melengkapi dan mendalami kajian Ibanik

dengan menghuraikan ciri-ciri Ibanik di Sungai Ketungau dan Sungai Belitang–dua cabang sungai yang menjadi tanah leluhur penutur bahasa Ibanik.

Sekilas tentang Variasi Kumpang

Makalah ini secara khusus membincangkan salah satu variasi bahasa Ketungau oleh suku Ibanik "minoriti" di Sungai Ketungau, iaitu variasi Kumpang. Dari segi lokasi persebaran, penutur variasi Kumpang terdapat di bahagian hulu sungai tersebut. Antara kampung-kampung yang menuturkan variasi ini adalah seperti Nanga Bayan, Sungai Tanjung, Lebuk Moli, Idai, dan Sepan Peturau. Data yang digunakan dalam makalah ini dikumpulkan dari Nanga Bayan. Secara keseluruhannya, di sepanjang sistem Sungai Ketungau, terdapat dua variasi Ketungau yang menjadi bahasa pengantar, iaitu variasi Demam di bahagian hilir dan varian Sebaru' di bahagian hulu. Setakat ini, belum ada statistik tepat menunjukkan bilangan penutur variasi Kumpang, namun berdasarkan maklumat dari lapangan, suku ini adalah golongan yang minoriti dan mereka adalah masyarakat multilingual dengan menguasai pelbagai variasi bahasa di sekitaranya, misalnya Iban, Bugau, Sebaru', Lebang dan Mualang, selain bahasa Indonesia dan Melayu.

Rekabentuk Kajian dan Metodologi

Kajian ini merupakan sebuah penelitian berbentuk sinkronik, iaitu kajian deskriptif yang mempelajari bahasa kontemporari tanpa dibandingkan dengan waktu-waktu lain (lihat Chaer, 2003). Kajian diakronik tidak diaplikasikan memandangkan makalah ini hanya berhasrat mengemukakan ciri fonologi linguistik kontemporati bahasa Ibank variasi Kumpang.

Data yang dibincangkan dalam makalah ini diambil dengan kaedah yang sistematik. Sebuah daftar kata yang diolah dari Daftar Kata Swadesh digunakan sebagai panduan mengumpulkan kosa kata. Kata-kata dalam daftar kata ini merangkumi pelbagai aspek, misalnya kata-kata untuk bahagian anggota badan, aktiviti-aktiviti manusia, kata sifat, kata ganti nama, kata nama dan sebagainya. Semasa mengambil data, kata-kata ini diungkapkan dalam bentuk gerak badan dan informan diminta menyebutkan dalam bahasa mereka. Dari segi pemilihan informan, penutur asli bahasa Kumpang (dewasa) yang mempunyai penyebutan yang jelas telah dipilih. Data lisan yang dibekalkan oleh informan dicatatkan dengan menggunakan lambang fonetik standard.

Untuk menganalisis data Kumpang, data-data Ibanik yang lain, iaitu Demam, Sebaru', Banjur, Bugau dan Iban digunakan sebagai data perbandingan. Data-data ini kebanyakan dikumpulkan oleh penulis sendiri, melainkan data Iban yang dipetik dari Dedy (2004) dan Remmy (2009). Tujuan data-data ini dimanfaatkan adalah untuk melihat hubungan linguistik antara variasi-variasi Ibanik secara sepintas lalu.

Ciri-ciri Linguistik

Perbincangan seterusnya menghuraikan ciri-ciri linguistik variasi Kumpang. Aspek yang ditinjau meliputi sistem bunyi vokal, konsonan, diftong, serta membandingkan ciri-ciri fonologinya dengan variasi Ibanik yang lain.

Vokal

Secara kumulatif, terdapat empat vokal, iaitu [i], [u], [a], [ə] dalam variasi Kumpang. Berikut merupakan inventori vokal-vokal tersebut:

	Depan	Tengah	Belakang
Tinggi	i		u
Madya		ə	
Rendah		a	

Rajah 1. Rajah inventori vokal variasi Kumpang

Secara perbandingan, variasi Iban di lembah Saribas (Dedy, 2004) dan Kantuk (Rahim, 2005) masing-masing dilaporkan mengandungi enam vokal, iaitu: [a], [e], [i], [o], [u], [ə]. Ini ternyata berbeza dengan variasi Kumpang yang hanya mengandungi empat vokal sahaja, iaitu: [i], [u], [a], dan [ə].

Dari segi persebaran, vokal [i], [u], dan [a] wujud pada semua posisi dalam kata, tetapi [ə] wujud di posisi suku praakhir pada kata dwisilabik dan suku kedua, ketiga dari akhir pada kata trisilabik. Contohnya:

Vokal	**Contoh**
[i]	[in^{d}ay] ‘ibu’, [kibaʔ] ‘kiri’, [bətieç] ‘betis’, [kakiy] ‘kaki’
[u]	[uɣaŋ] ‘orang’, [tuɲuok] ‘jari’, [biluok] ‘belok’, [siku] ‘siku’
[a]	[akaɣ] ‘akar’, [man^{d}iʔ] ‘mandi’, [ɲabaʔ] ‘menangis’, [pa:] ‘paha’
[ə]	[kədənaŋ] ‘berenang’, [dəbuw] ‘debu’

Bunyi /u/ dalam data Kumpang didapati mengandungi satu alofon, iaitu [o]. Pada posisi suku kata akhir, /u/ wujud sebagai [u] dan juga [o], contohnya:

<u>/u/ sebagai [u]</u>

[təluʔ]	‘telur’
[butul]	‘botol’
[tuŋkuʔ]	‘tungku’

/u/ sebagai [o]

[tumpol] 'tumpul'
[ŋiloʔ] 'ngilu'
[masoʔ] 'membasuh'
[paloʔ] 'memukul'

Untuk /u/ yang wujud sebagai [o], [o] ditafsirkan sebagai alofon kepada /u/ dan bukannya fonem. Dakwaan Dedy (2004) dan Rahim (2005) bahawa /o/ merupakan fonem dalam bahasa Iban perlu disemak lagi kerana /o/ memang tidak pernah wujud pada posisi lain, selain posisi suku kata akhir. Untuk kata Iban yang bentuk leksikalnya sama dengan bahasa Melayu, misalnya kata [uraŋ] (bandingkan dengan [oraŋ] dalam bahasa Melayu), bunyi yang wujud tetap [u].

Terdapat dua ragam bunyi /u/, iaitu sama ada sebagai [u] atau [o], diduga berpunca daripada cara informan melafazkan bunyi tersebut. Memang menjadi satu kelaziman informan bersilih ganti menggunakan kedua-dua bunyi ini. Sebagai contoh, dalam bahasa Iban di Melaban (Saribas), juga didapati mengandungi perbezaan sebutan untuk "telur" dan "basuh", iaitu "telur" sebagai [təluʔ] dan "basuh" disebut sebagai [basoʔ] (lihat Chong, 2003).

Setelah meneliti data-data, kewujudan bunyi [o] dalam bahasa Kumpang dan juga Iban berkaitan dengan ciri geluncuran bahasa-bahasa berkenaan. Sesungguhnya bahasa Iban dan sesetengah bahasa Ibanik (terutamanya variasi bahasa Ketungau) kaya dengan bunyi geluncuran. Terdapat dua bunyi yang lazim terlibat dengan geluncuran, iaitu bunyi [e] dan [o]. Contohnya:

[manies]	'manis',
[blakeaN]	'belakang'
[bien]	'van (kenderaan)'
[sien]	'sen'
[labuoh]	'jatuh'
[duduok]	'duduk'

Dalam erti kata lain, bunyi [o] yang wujud dalam variasi Kumpang turut berstatus bunyi geluncuran kerana variasi bahasa ini mengandungi ciri bunyi ini. Kalau diperhalusi, bunyi geluncuran ini muncul pada kata yang berakhir dengan bunyi velar, seperti seperti /k/, /ɣ/, /h/ dan /ŋ/. Contohnya:

[ɣusuok]	'rusuk'
[gəmuok]	'gemuk'
[jamuoɣ]	'jengger'
[dapuoɣ]	'dapur'
[bulouh]	'buluh'
[labouh]	'jatuh'

[kampuoN] ‘hutan’
[ləmpuoN] ‘ringan’

Perlu juga dijelaskan bahawa varian Kumpang tidak mempunyai vokal /e/. Dua kata yang ditemui, iaitu: [le:ɣ] ‘leher’ dan [jenela] ‘tingkap’ mungkin diletakkan dalam kategori kata pinjaman sama ada dari bahasa Indonesia ataupun bahasa Melayu. Dalam kata [məɲadeʔ] ‘adik’ atau ‘beradik’, berkemungkinan [e] turut merupakan alofon kepada /i/.

Dalam dialek Melayu di Sarawak (Collins, 1987), ketinggian bunyi vokal mempengaruhi jenis konsonan nasal velar yang mengikutinya. Contohnya apabila bunyi tinggi [i] muncul di depan nasal /ŋ/, nasal tersebut akan menjadi /n/. Sekiranya yang mengikutinya ialah bunyi rendah, bunyi nasal tetap tidak berubah; lihat contoh berikut. Gejala ini ternyata berbeza dalam bahasa Ibanik. Variasi Kumpang memperlihatkan bunyi tinggi [i] pada kedudukan sebelum bunyi nasal /ŋ/ mengalami geluncuran vokal rendah [a]. Perendahan bunyi vokal dari tinggi ke rendah turut berlaku, iaitu [i] → [e]. Berikut adalah antara contohnya:

Dialek Melayu Sarawak	**Kumpang**	
[kənin]	[kəneaŋ]	‘kening’
[dindin]	[dindeaŋ]	‘dinding’
[dagin]	[dageaŋ]	‘daging’

Diftong

Terdapat sejumlah tiga diftong dalam varian Kumpang, iaitu: /-ai/, /-ui/ dan /-au/. Contohnya:

Maksud	**Kumpang**
pulang	pulai
anjing	ukui
bau busuk	buntau

Seperti yang diterangkan sebelum ini, dalam sesetengah kata, penjelmaan /*-aŋ/, /*-an/ dan /-ar/ (khas untuk kata “besar”) kepada diftong /-ai/ merupakan suatu ciri dignostik untuk bahasa dalam kelompok bahasa Ibanik. Dalam erti kata lain, bahasa Ibanik yang terletak di bawah cabang bahasa Melayik (lihat Adelaar, 1987) dibezakan dengan variasi-variasi Melayik melalui ciri diftong /-ai/ ini. Sekiranya dilihat dari segi kekognatan bahasa Melayik dan Ibanik (misalnya antara dialek Melayu Sarawak dengan bahasa Iban), terdapat banyak kosa kata yang sangat mirip. Boleh dikatakan bahawa bunyi diftong /-ai/ merupakan ciri penanda asas perbezaan kedua-dua bahasa ini. Contohnya:

Jadual 1
Contoh persamaan dan perbezaan kata-kata dalam Melayik dan Ibanik

Persamaan		
Kosa Kata	**Dialek Melayu Sarawak (Melayik)**	**Bahasa Iban (Ibanik)**
Kera	kəɣaʔ	kəraʔ
Dua	dua	dua
Hujan	ujan	ujan
Ayam	manuk	manuok
Perbezaan		
Pulang	Pulaŋ	pulai
Datang	Dataŋ	datai
Makan	Makan	makai
Besar	bəsaɣ	bəsai

Walaupun dalam penelitian Collins (2004), bunyi /*-aŋ/ dan /*-an/ mengalami nasalisasi, iaitu bukan sebagai /-ai/ seperti kelaziman, tetapi sebagai [-ṽ)], tinjauan kepada data Ibanik yang lebih banyak, misalnya bahasa Mualang, Seberuang, Demam, Sebaru', Bugau, Remun termasuk Kumpang dan sebagainya, variasi-variasi ini tetap memaparkan bunyi diftong /-ai/. Sesungguhnya sebab wujud bunyi nasalisasi dalam bahasa Ketungau *Sesat* di lembah Sekadau perlu diteliti lebih lanjut.

Konsonan

Terdapat 19 konsonan dalam variasi Kumpang. Konsonan-konsonan tersebut adalah seperti dalam rajah inventori berikut:

p	b	t	d	c	k	g	ʔ
	m		n	ɲ		N	
		s				ɣ	h
				j			
		l					
w				y			

Rajah 2. Inventori konsonan variasi Kumpang

konsonan /ɣ/.

Daripada 19 konsonan yang disenaraikan, terdapat beberapa konsonan yang wajar diberi huraian. Antaranya, konsonan /ɣ/ merupakan antara konsonan yang berupaya menentukan variasi-variasi Ibanik. Kalau merujuk kepada data Ibanik yang banyak,

didapati wujud kesepadanan konsonan tertentu untuk setiap variasi Ibanik. Pada posisi awal kata, bahasa Seberuang (Kampung Temanang) menyaksikan frikatif velar bersuara /ɣ/ dilafazkan berserta dengan onset frakatif velar tak bersuara [x]. Pada posisi akhir kata, /ɣ/ disebut sebagai [x], contohnya: [ˣɣaŋ] 'rahang' dan [ipaˣ] 'ipar' (Collins, 2004). Chong (2006) menjelaskan bahawa varian Ketungau (Sebaru' dan Demam), dua variasi Ibanik yang berhubungan sangat erta hanya dapat dibezakan melalui ciri fonetik ini, iaitu bunyi geseran velar /ɣ/ digunakan dalam variasi Demam dan bunyi uvular /ʁ/ digunakan dalam varian Sebaru'. Bunyi /ɣ/ dalam variasi Kumpang menyerupai varian Demam, iaitu memaparkan konsonan /ɣ/. Contohnya:

Jadual 2
/ɣ/ dalam variasi Demam, Sebaru' dan Kumpang

Maksud	**Demam**	**Sebaru'**	**Kumpang**
Darah	daɣah	daʁah	daɣah
Kerak	kəɣak	kəʁak	kəɣak
Rahang	ɣa:ŋ	ʁa:ŋ	ɣa:ŋ
Ipar	ipaeɣ	ipaʁ	ipaɣ

Berdasarkan huraian, jelas bahawa di Kalimantan Barat, konsonan /ɣ/ memaparkan pelbagai kesepadanan dalam variasi Ibanik, iaitu sebagai [-x], [ɣ] atau [ʁ]. Begitu juga dengan bahasa Iban di Sarawak. Walaupun di bawah satu nama yang seragam, iaitu "bahasa Iban", ini bukan bermaksud bahawa bahasa Iban tidak bervariasi. Kajian Remmy (2009) telah menunjukkan konsonan /r/ digunakan dalam variasi Iban Standard, Saribas dan Lundu manakala /h/ yang sepadan dengan /r/ digunakan di daerah Samarahan dan Sibu. Contohnya:

Jadual 3
Kesepadanan bunyi /r/ dalam variasi Iban di Sarawak

Maksud	**Saribas**	**Samarahan**	**Sibu**
Rumah	rumeah	humeah	humeah
Orang	ureaŋ	uheaŋ	uheaŋ
Darah	dareah	daheah	daheah
Kerak	kəreak	kəheak	kəheak

konsonan /-s/.

Konsonan /-s/ pada posisi akhir kata yang sepadan dengan bahasa Melayu baku turut menarik dibahaskan. Dalam variasi Ibanik seperti Demam, Sebaru', Bugau, Mualang, Seberuang, Banjur, dan Iban (Saribas dan Ulu Kapuas), kesepadanan untuk bunyi ini adalah: [-h] atau [-ç], lihat contoh berikut.

Jadual 4
/-s/ dalam variasi-variasi Ibanik Sungai Ketungau

Maksud	Demam	Sebaru'	Kumpang	Bugau	Banjur
Putus	putuyç	putuyç	putuç	--	putuç
Tikus	--	tikuyç	--	--	--
Lurus	--	--	--	luʁeh	--
Nipis	nipi^{e}yç	--	lipi^{e}ç	nipeh	--
Manis	manieç	maniyç	mani^{e}ç	maneh	mani^{e}ç
Malas	--	--	ləntu^{e}ç	--	--
Panas	panayç	--	--	paneah	--

Jadual 5
/-s/ dalam variasi Ibanik Mualang

Maksud	Mualang (Chong, 2006)
Putus	putuyh
Nipis	nipieyh
Manis	manieh
Panas	panayh

Jadual 6
/-s/ dalam variasi Iban Saribas dan Kapuas Hulu

Maksud	Iban Saribas (Dedy, 2004)	Iban Kapuas Hulu (Penyusun, 2006)
Putus	putuyh	putuyh
Tikus	--	tikuyh
Lurus	--	--
Nipis	nipi^{ey}h	--
Manis	mani^{e}h	maniyh
Malas	--	--
Panas	panayh	--

Daripada perbincangan, dapat dirumuskan bahawa konsonan /s/ dan kesepadanan-kesepadanannya (dalam variasi-varasi Ibanik di Kalimantan Barat ataupun di Sarawak) merupakan alofon untuk /s/ pada posisi akhir kata. Pada posisi lain, /s/ tetap tampil sebagai [s]. Dalam kata lain, pada posisi akhir kata, /-s/ menunjukkan keberagaman variasi dalam bahasa Ibanik secara kumulatifnya. Berikut merupakan buktinya:

Jadual 7
Contoh /-s/ sebagai alofon dalam variasi-variasi Ibanik di Sungai Ketungau

Maksud	Demam	Sebaru'	Bugau	Banjur	Kumpang
Kuku	siluwʔ	siluwʔ	siluwʔ	siluʔ	siluwʔ
Besar	bəsaey	bəsay	bəsaey	bəsay	bəsay
Manis	manieç	maniyç	maneh	mani^{e}ç	mani^{e}ç

Jadual 7 merupakan data Ibanik yang kesemuanya dituturkan di satu sistem sungai yang sama, iaitu Sungai Ketungau. Kalau diteliti, didapati alofon untuk /-s/ dalam variasi Demam, Sebaru' Banjur dan Kumpang adalah [ç]. Variasi Bugau kelihatan memaparkan kelainan, iaitu sebagai [h]; lihat juga Jadual 4. Faktor wujud perbezaan sedemikian sedangkan variasi ini turut tersebar di Sungai Ketungau? Hal ini dapat diterangkan dengan mengatakan bahawa variasi Bugau merupakan variasi tersendiri, yang secara fonologi berbeza dengan variasi Ibanik lain, seperti Demam, Sebaru', Banjur dan Kumpang. Dalam Jadual 8 berikut, deretan vokal yang mengalami geluncuran, iaitu [-auo-] atau [-auə-] pada variasi Demam, Sebaru', Banjur dan Kumpang didapati mengalami asimilasi dan wujud sebagai vokal belakang separa bundar panjang [ɔ:] pada variasi Bugau.

Jadual 8
Kelainan fonologi dalam variasi Bugau

Maksud	**Demam**	**Sebaru'**	**Banjur**	**Kumpang**	**Bugau**
Tahun	tauᵊn	tauᵊn	tauᵊn	tauᵊn	tɔ:n
Jauh	jauoh	jauoh	jauoh	jauoh	jɔ:h
Daun	dauᵊn	dauᵊn	daun	daun	dɔ:n

Kesimpulan

Kajian perbandingan terhadap ciri linguistik salah satu variasi Ibanik di Sungai Ketungau, iaitu variasi Kumpang telah menghasilkan beberapa penemuan dan mampu memperhalusi kajian terhadap bahasa Ibanik sebelum ini, misalnya yang telah dilakukan oleh Collins (2004) dan Chong (2006). Pertama, dari segi sistem vokal, variasi Kumpang hanya mengandungi empat vokal sahala, iaitu: /i/, /u/, /a/ dan /ə/. Jumlah vokal ini jauh kurang daripada variasi Ibanik lain, misalnya Iban di Saribas (Sarawak) dan Kantuk. Vokal /i/, /u/, /a/ berdistribusi pada semua posisi dalam kata, manakala /ə/ hanya tersebar pada posisi suku praakhir pada kata dwisilabik dan suku kedua, ketiga dari akhir pada kata trisilabik. Walaupun terdapat beberapa kata yang tampil dengan fonem [o], namun seperti isu /i/ dan /e/ dalam bahasa Melayu baku (misalnya [ade] ditulis sebagai "adik"), [o] ditafsirkan sebagai alofon kepada [u]. Kedua, variasi Kumpang dikenal pasti mempunyai 19 konsonan dan 3 diftong. Dengan membandingkan konsonan-konsonan seperti geseran velar bersuara /ɣ/ dan geseran alveolar tak bersuara /-s/ dengan variasi-variasi Ibanik lain, didapati variasi-variasi Ibanik di Kalimantan Barat cukup diversiti dan kompleks dari segi fonologi. Buktinya ialah di Sungai Ketungau sahaja, terkandung variasi Ibanik yang tersendiri (iaitu variasi Bugau) dan variasi yang berbeza dialektal.

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Lampiran A: Lokasi Persebaran Variasi Ketungau dan Ketungau Sesat di Kalimantan Barat, Indonesia, didapati melalui http://www.google.com.

Kawasan persebaran variasi Ketungau

Kawasan persebaran variasi Ketungau *Sesat*

ISU ISTILAH, KATA DAN DIKSI DALAM BERBAHASA

Roslan Ali
Centre for Language Studies, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak

aroslan@cls.unimas.my

Abstrak

Ramai yang melihat "istilah" dan "kata" sebagai suatu perkara yang sama. Padahal, kedua-duanya berbeza antara satu sama lain. Lebih menghairankan lagi, ada pengguna bahasa yang menggunakan istilah bahasa dan diksi (pemilihan kata) yang salah tanpa ada perasaan malu sedikitpun. Selain itu, ada juga yang suka menggunakan bahasa Melayu yang bercampur baur dengan bahasa Inggeris kerana mereka tidak pandai lagi menggunakan bahasa sendiri sebagai alat komunikasi dan ilmu. Pengaruh dan proses peminjaman bahasa asing ke bahasa Melayu juga menjadi salah satu faktor penyebab kurangnya penggunaan kata-kata asli bahasa Melayu dalam berbahasa. Akibatnya, kata-kata jati tersebut semakin dilupai dan mungkin tidak akan diketahui maknanya nanti oleh generasi akan datang. Kalau itu yang terjadi, benarlah peribahasa yang berbunyi 'hilang bahasa, lenyaplah bangsa'. Peribahasa ini menunjukkan bahasa perlu disanjung dan tidak dipinggirkan demi menjaga maruah sesuatu bangsa. Dalam konteks bahasa Melayu, kita rakyat Malaysia seharusnya berasa bangga sekiranya kita dapat bertutur menggunakan bahasa Melayu dengan baik dan tepat tanpa bercampur aduk dengan bahasa lain.

Kata Kunci: Istilah, Kata, Diksi

ISSUE OF TERMINOLOGIES, WORDS AND DICTION IN LANGUAGE

Abstract

Many people perceive "words" and "terms" as the same when both are different. Even more surprising are those who carelessly use incorrect terms and diction (word choice). There are also those who are fond of using Malay mixed with English as they are yet able to use their own language i.e. Malay, as a tool for communication and knowledge. One of the factors contributing to the lack of use of Malay words in their original terms is the influence and process of borrowing foreign language terms into Malay when communicating. Consequently, these original terms are gradually forgotten and their definitions are lost in time. When that happens the language vanishes and so does the race. As such, it is imperative that a language is not marginalised but its dignity upheld to preserve a nation's honour. Therefore in the context of the Malay language, all Malaysians should be proud if they are able to speak the language competently without the need to mix it with other languages.

Keywords: *Terminology, word, diction*

Pengenalan

Setiap bangsa di dunia ini mempunyai bahasa dan budaya tersendiri. Hasilnya, timbul berbagai-bagai ungkapan seperti "Bahasa jiwa bangsa", "Bahasa menunjukkan bangsa" dan sebagainya. Ini menunjukkan betapa pentingnya sesebuah bangsa itu dalam aspek kehidupan manusia demi menjamin kelangsungan budaya (Roslan Ali, 2011). Namun kini, pengguna bahasa Melayu lebih banyak menggunakan istilah asing atau kata serapan daripada kata asli bahasa Melayu itu sendiri, sama ada dalam penulisan mahupun pertuturan. Dari satu sudut, ia dianggap baik kerana dapat menambah perbendaharaan kata dalam bahasa Melayu di samping dapat meningkatkan keupayaan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu di persada dunia. Dari sudut yang lain pula, ia dilihat boleh menenggelamkan penggunaan kata jati bahasa Melayu itu sendiri sehingga mungkin ada generasi yang tidak mengetahuinya lagi seperti perkataan ruai, awah dan lain-lain. Oleh itu, sebagai pendidik, jangan sampai pelajar bertanya kepada kita perkataan dalam bahasa Melayu, sedangkan kita sendiri tidak mengetahuinya (Darwis Harahap, 1991).

Tiada salah jika bahasa Melayu menerima kata pinjaman atau serapan daripada bahasa asing akibat pertembungannya dengan bahasa-bahasa tersebut. Namun, itu tidak bererti kata asli dalam bahasa Melayu perlu dihakis atau dibiarkan sirna ditelan zaman. Pada saya, perlu adanya usaha untuk mempopularkannya kembali. Kita tidak mahu ada orang luar mengkritik bahawa bahasa Melayu sudah kemuflisan kata sehingga terpaksa meminjam daripada bahasa lain (Naathesan, 2002). Sebagai pengguna bahasa, sepatutnya mengutamakan bahasa Melayu asli sebelum menggunakan kata serapan kerana bahasa mencerminkan budaya masyarakat. Tambahan pula, dalam buku *Pedoman Umum Pembentukan Istilah Bahasa Malaysia* (1977), dinyatakan beberapa langkah yang perlu diambil oleh pengguna bahasa sebelum terus menggunakan istilah bahasa Inggeris kerana dalam soal peminjaman kata bahasa Inggeris atau kata serapan, ada kata merupakan peminjaman yang membazir, khususnya dalam penggunaan umum seperti *sale* untuk jualan, *business* untuk perniagaan dan sebagainya.

Berbalik kepada langkah-langkah yang diperkatakan di atas tadi, pengguna bahasa Melayu mestilah mengutamakan bahasa Malaysia yang lazim terlebih dahulu sebelum terus menggunakan istilah bahasa Inggeris. Jika tidak didapati, barulah ke bahasa Malaysia yang sudah tidak lazim. Sekiranya masih juga tidak menjumpainya, barulah berpindah ke bahasa serumpun yang lazim dan tidak lazim. Seandainya keempat-empat langkah tersebut sudah dicuba dan masih tidak membuahkan hasil. Pilihan terakhir barulah menggunakan bahasa Inggeris dan bukannya diambil secara semberono sahaja langkah-langkah tersebut tetapi harus mengikut langkah demi langkah.

Selain itu, tidak dinafikan juga terdapat segelintir pengguna bahasa Melayu yang menganggap beberapa kata dalam bahasa Melayu sudah mundur dan tidak sesuai lagi digunakan pada masa sekarang. Tanggapan seperti ini tidak seharusnya berlaku, kerana kalau bukan orang Melayu sendiri, siapa lagi yang hendak memartabatkan bahasa bangsa. Bukan bererti kata serapan tidak boleh digunakan dalam penulisan atau percakapan, tetapi biarlah pengguna bahasa mengetahui kedua-duanya sekali, antara yang asli dengan pinjaman, yang penting kata asli

bahasa Melayu masih lagi dipertahankan dan tidak dihilangkan kemurniannya. Biarlah ia kekal sepanjang zaman seperti ungkapan kata "Tidak Melayu hilang di dunia".

Di bawah ini dinyatakan serba sedikit istilah-istilah bahasa Inggeris yang digunakan oleh penutur bahasa bagi menggantikan istilah-istilah bahasa Melayu ketika berbahasa (Nathesan, 2002).

Jadual 1

Istilah-istilah bahasa Inggeris yang digunakan oleh penutur bahasa bagi menggantikan istilah-istilah bahasa Melayu ketika berbahasa

Istilah Asing	**Istilah Bahasa Melayu**
Koridor	Awah
Aktiviti	Kegiatan
Inspektor	Merinyu
Program	Rancangan
Sofistikated	Canggih
Dekad	Dasawarsa
Fenomena	Gejala
Fungsi	Peranan
Skim	Rancangan
Minoriti	Kumpulan kecil
Universal	Sejagat/Sarwajagat
Komersial	Perdagangan
Simple	Sederhana
Trend	Kecenderungan
Progresif	Maju
Projek	Rancangan
Servis	Khidmat
Dialog	Perbualan
Komunikasi	Perhubungan
Tradisi	Warisan
Nasionalisme	Kenegaraan
Nasional	Kebangsaan
Aspek	Perkara
Intelektual	Cendekiawan
Media	Wahana
Minimum	Paling kurang
Memo	Catatan
Serius	Tegas
Fizikal	Lahiriah
Konteks	Pergertian
Simbol	Lambang
Generasi	Keturunan/Zuriat
Editor	Penyunting
Lobi	Ruai

Oleh itu, perlu ada kawalan untuk memelihara ketulenan bahasa kita agar kita rakyat Malaysia yang berbilang kaum mampu untuk menggunakan bahasa Melayu baku dengan baik, pemilihan kata atau istilah yang tepat ketika berbicara. Dengan ini, barulah bahasa Melayu dapat memainkan peranannya sebagai asas pembinaan negara bangsa dan kebudayaan masyarakat.

Selain itu, terdapat juga pengguna bahasa yang suka menukarkan kod bahasa seperti Melayu-Inggeris dan menjadikan bahasa pertuturan mereka bersifat rojak. Ini menunjukkan kekurangan pemahaman mereka mengenai makna, diksi dan juga fungsi kata yang boleh menyebabkan mereka gagal menguasai bahasa Melayu dengan baik. Kebarangkalian juga, pendidikan bahasa Melayu di sekolah tidak berjaya menanamkan kesedaran terhadap pentingnya bahasa ini sebagai alat pemikiran, alat budaya dan alat kemajuan bangsa dan negara. Berikut ialah istilah atau kata yang sering berlaku penukaran kod Melayu – Inggeris (Darwis Harahap, 1991).

Jadual 2
Istilah atau kata yang sering berlaku penukaran kod Melayu

Susulan	Follow up
Canggih	Sophisticated
Mapan	Establish
Santai	Relax
Kendala	Constraint
Lugas	To the point
Wahana	Vehicle
Baku	Standard
Citra	Image
Dampak	Impact
Luwes	Flexsible
Mantan	Ex
Lewah	Redundance
Undil	Bank
Jerayawara	Roadshow
Lintas langsung	Live
Maklum balas/Tindak balas	Response
Rumah sakit	Hospital
Taman haiwan	Zoo
Khas/Istimewa	Special
Mesin kira	Calculator
Belanjawan	Budget
Tunai	Cash
Jualan	Sale
Perniagaan	Business
Tandas	Toilet
Bulatan	Roundabout

Selain isu-isu yang dibincangkan di atas, timbul juga isu peminjaman kata dari bahasa Arab ke bahasa Melayu yang sudah mengalami pemalingan makna. Dengan kata lain, maknanya telah berubah sedangkan sebutannya masih lagi sama dengan bahasa asal. Antara perkataan-perkataan tersebut ialah:

Jadual 3
Peminjaman kata dari bahasa Arab ke bahasa Melayu yang sudah mengalami pemalingan makna

Perkataan	Makna Arab	Makna Melayu
Taufan	Banjir	Ribut
Maktab	Meja	Institusi
Khalwat	Mengasingkan diri	Berdua-duaan di tempat sunyi
Kuliah	Fakulti	Syarahan
Nafsu	Diri/Roh	Syahwat
Daftar	Buku tulis	Daftar
Khilaf	Perselisihan pendapat	Salah
Usul	Kaedah	Cadangan
Bab	Pintu	Bab
Ustaz	Guru (penggunaan umum)	Dibataskan dengan guru agama sahaja
Madrasah	Sekolah (penggunaan umum)	Dibataskan untuk sekolah agama sahaja
Musabaqah	Pertandingan (penggunaan umum)	Dibataskan untuk pertandingan membaca al-Quran sahaja

Bertolak dari situ, perlu diingatkan kepada penterjemah-penterjemah Arab-Melayu agar perlu lebih berhati-hati apabila membuat terjemahan daripada bahasa Arab ke bahasa Melayu agar kepersisan (ketepatan) makna kata tidak disalahertikan oleh pengguna bahasa Melayu yang tidak ada pengetahuan langsung dalam bahasa Arab. Begitu juga dengan bahasa-bahasa lain yang telah mengalami proses pemalingan makna, perlu diberi perhatian yang sewajarnya.

Perbincangan di atas dipanjangkan lagi dengan isu diksi, iaitu isu tentang pemilihan kata. Hal ini penting, kerana terdapat dalam kalangan pengguna bahasa Melayu yang tidak dapat membezakan antara istilah yang betul atau salah seperti contoh-contoh berikut.

Merbahaya atau Berbahaya

Antara kedua-dua perkataan di atas, yang gramatis ialah berbahaya. Hal ini berlaku demikian kerana kata dasar bagi perkataan tersebut ialah bahaya. Sekiranya diimbuhkan dengan imbuhan awalan, ia menjadi ‘berbahaya’ dan bukannya merbahaya kerana tidak ada imbuhan ‘mer’ dalam bahasa Melayu.

Tunang atau Tunangan

Perkataan yang betul ialah tunang. Hal ini berlaku demikian kerana jika kita menerima istilah tunangan dalam bahasa Melayu, bererti kita juga harus menerima istilah suamian, isterian, kakakan dan abangan dalam daftar kata bahasa Melayu. Namun, hal ini tidak pernah terjadi.

Mampan atau Mapan

Perkataan yang betul ialah mapan. Hal ini berlaku demikian kerana istilah mampan tidak pernah wujud dalam kamus bahasa Melayu, yang ada hanyalah mapan. Ironinya, penggunaan kata mampan lebih dominan dibandingkan dengan mapan.

Kesilapan mengenai isu diksi ini (pemilihan kata) bukan sahaja berlaku dalam bahasa Melayu, tetapi juga dalam bahasa Inggeris. Contohnya adalah seperti berikut:

Chop atau Stamp

Sebagai pendidik, kita mungkin pernah didatangi oleh pelajar yang memerlukan pengesahan dokumen. Kadangkala, mereka menggunakan perkataan chop dan kadangkala juga mereka menggunakan perkataan stamp. Antara keduanya, yang mana satukah yang betul? Perkataan yang betul ialah stamp,. Hal ini berlaku demikian kerana perkataan chop bermaksud mencincang. Bayangkanlah, kalau ada pelajar bangsa Melayu yang berjumpa dengan pensyarah berbangsa Inggeris atau Mat Saleh menggunakan perkataan chop untuk mendapatkan pengesahan dokumen, apa akan terjadi? Pensyarah tersebut mungkin akan mengoyak-ngoyakkan dokumen pelajar tersebut. Keadaan ini akan mencetuskan keadaan riuh-rendah antara kedua-dua belah pihak. Pertanyaan yang timbul, siapakah yang patut dipersalahkan? Oleh itu, isu diksi dalam berbahasa ini juga dianggap penting dan tidak boleh dipandang remeh atau ringan. Sikap cakna bahasa perlu ada dalam diri seseorang agar kesilapan berbahasa dapat dikurangkan.

Bonnet atau Boot

Bonnet membawa maksud tempat menyimpan enjin kereta. Perkataan *bonnet* ini juga digunakan oleh penutur bahasa Melayu untuk merujuk kepada tempat menyimpan barang-barangan yang terletak di belakang kereta. Bayangkanlah, jika penutur bahasa Melayu tersebut berurusan dengan Mat Saleh, tidakkah mereka pening kepala kerana tidak memahami yang dimaksudkan oleh penutur bahasa Melayu tersebut kerana dalam bahasa Inggeris, tempat menyimpan barang disebut *boot* (UK) atau *trunk* (US). Itulah apa yang mereka faham dan ia berbeza benar dengan yang kita amalkan di Malaysia.

Stroller atau Baby Pram

Kedua-dua perkataan di atas digunakan bagi merujuk kepada kereta untuk menolak bayi. Namun, jika dirujuk dalam Kamus Oxford Fajar, perkataan *stroller* bermaksud orang yang bersiar-siar. Bukannya merujuk kepada kata nama alat yang beroda empat untuk menolak bayi ketika bersiar-siar. Sementara, kata *baby pram* pula dalam Kamus yang sama merujuk kepada kereta tolak beroda empat untuk bayi. Daripada kedua-dua definisi yang diberikan di atas, penggunaan istilah *baby pram* lebih tepat daripada *stroller* yang berleluasa digunakan oleh masyarakat.

Dalam membahaskan isu-isu berkaitan dengan bahasa di atas, tidak terkecuali juga isu yang berlaku dalam teks agama. Teks agama yang dimaksudkan ialah teks yang bersumberkan bahasa Arab. Kecuaian atau ketidakcaknaan kepada diksi yang tepat boleh menimbulkan pemahaman yang salah dalam melaksanakan suruhan agama. Nanti lain yang dianjurkan oleh agama, lain pula yang dikerjakan. Sebagai contoh;

Muhrim atau Mahram

Kedua-dua istilah di atas betul jika diletakkan sesuai pada tempatnya. Istilah muhrim merujuk kepada orang yang memakai pakaian ihram semasa mengerjakan haji atau umrah. Sementara istilah mahram pula merujuk kepada orang yang diharamkan menikahinya, sama ada atas sebab nasab atau perkahwinan.

Samak atau Sertu

Kedua-dua istilah ini juga sering menimbulkan kekeliruan dalam kalangan pengguna bahasa. Istilah samak bermaksud menyucikan sesuatu daripada kulit binatang dengan menggunakan bahan-bahan yang bersifat tajam (peluntur) seperti tawas, bahan kimia dan sebagainya supaya dapat dimanfaatkan kegunaannya seperti membuat rebana, gendang dan sebagainya. Manakala, istilah sertu pula bermaksud menyucikan sesuatu daripada najis mughallazah seperti anjing, babi dan keturunan daripada kedua-duanya menggunakan 7 kali basuhan air mutlak dan sekali dicampurkan dengan tanah.

Sunah atau Sunat

Kedua-dua istilah ini juga kadang-kadang masih menimbulkan kekeliruan dalam masyarakat. Istilah sunah merujuk kepada peraturan atau adat yang berdasarkan perbuatan dan perkataan Nabi Muhammad SAW. Sementara istilah sunat pula merujuk kepada hukum menggalakkan sesuatu perbuatan dalam Islam yang menjanjikan pahala jika dilakukan dan tidak berdosa jika ditinggalkan.

Penutup

Dalam kehidupan kita hari ini, kita sebenarnya masih banyak menggunakan istilah atau kata yang salah ketika berbahasa. Oleh itu, peri pentingnya seseorang untuk mendalami serta menguasai sesuatu bahasa. Pemilihan kata (diksi) yang tepat dalam persuratan dan pertuturan dapat mencerminkan keperibadian dan keintelektualan seseorang. Marilah sama-sama kita menjadikan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu, bahasa wahana budaya yang tinggi sekali gus membudayakannya sebagai bahasa sarwajagat yang diiktiraf oleh semua.

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MALAY, ENGLISH AND RELIGION: LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE IN MULTILINGUAL SINGAPORE

Mukhlis Abu Bakar
National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University

mukhlis.abubakar@nie.edu.sg

Abstract

The ideologies underlying Singapore's language-in-education policy drive home the message that students should feel some form of emotional connection to their mother tongue. At the same time, English is privileged leading many to index it with education, upward mobility, modernity and prestige. Singapore parents are cognisant of these ideologies and play an important role in mediating their children's affiliation to the respective languages and influencing their language use patterns. This study seeks to obtain a sense of how parents of 8-year old children struggle with competing ideologies when enrolling their children in one of two Islamic religious education programmes: English-medium Kids aL.I.V.E. and Malay-medium mosque madrasah. Parents of 35 children from the two programmes reported on their use of Malay and English, and their children's proficiency in, and use of, the two languages. Their reports suggest that the children were equally proficient in both languages but English was their dominant language. Parents were highly supportive of the language medium of the respective programmes, but irrespective of which language they supported, many were strongly affiliated to Malay citing reasons that mirror the state ideology that calls on its citizens to stay rooted in their ethnic heritage through their mother tongue.

Keywords: Islamic religious education, bilingualism, medium of instruction, language maintenance, language ideology

Introduction

Singapore's language-in-education policy is officially bilingual: from the start of schooling, English is the medium of all subject-area instruction, but students are also required to study their official mother tongue (MT henceforth) as a single subject (Mandarin for the Chinese, Malay for the Malays, Tamil for the Indians).[1] English is intended to serve the mainly instrumental function of providing access to scientific and technological knowledge while the MTs provide Singaporeans with a sense of ethnic identity. The premium placed on English has resulted in a significant number of Singapore children starting to come from homes where English (rather than the MT) is the spoken language (Vaish, 2008). The Malay community is not spared of this

phenomenon despite being more successful than the other communities in keeping the MT as the dominant language (Stroud, 2007). English as a home language among Malay Singaporeans rose from 6.1% in 1990 to 7.9% in 2000, and more than doubled to 17.0% in 2010 (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2001, 2011). The family as the stronghold of the Malay language in Singapore (Cavallaro & Serwe, 2010) thus seems to be under threat.

The Malays are a minority community in Singapore constituting 13.4% of the resident population of 3.8 million (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2011). Almost all Malays profess Islam as their religion. For a long time, Malay (other than Arabic) mediated their learning of Islam (Sa'eda Buang, 2010) with religious classes and Friday sermons all delivered in the language. However, in recent years, to cater to the increasing number of non-Malay Muslim foreign workers and professionals and their families as well as the increasing preference for English among Malay children, mosques have begun giving sermons in English and more religious classes are being conducted in the language. Religion which hitherto is an important domain for Malay language maintenance in Singapore (Chong & Seilhamer, 2014; Stroud, 2007) no longer appears to be a safe haven for the language.

Two studies at the interface of language and religion offer two contrasting results. A survey by Norhaida Aman (2009) shows that 67% of her 205 ten-year-old Malay respondents used mainly Malay in learning about Islam and in prayer. In contrast, a survey by Rohan Nizam Basheer (2008) shows that only 36% of his 108 respondents aged 12-17 years enrolled in an English-medium Islamic religious education programme preferred to be taught in Malay; the majority (64%) preferred English. This contradictory set of findings sets the stage for the present study which elicited responses from parents of children enrolled in English- and Malay-medium Islamic religious education classes. The study aims to ascertain in more detail the extent of preference for Malay and English as the choice of language for the learning of Islam and the ideologies that underpin those preferences. The paper will also explore home language use, and children's language proficiencies. Overall, these would give an indication of the position of religion as the domain for Malay language maintenance.

Malay Language in the Singapore Context

Language shift and language maintenance of the MTs – Chinese, Malay and Tamil – have been well documented. Some appear as detailed studies of census data (Kuo, 1980; Kuo & Jernudd, 2003) while others as detailed analyses of the language shift of particular ethnic groups such as the Chinese (Kwan-Terry, 2000; Xu, Cheng, & Chen, 1988), Indians (Schiffman, 2002), and Malays (Cavallaro & Serwe, 2010; Norhaida Aman, 2009; Roksana Bibi Abdullah, 2003). Some salient points pertaining to the Malay language are discussed here.

Section 152 of the Singapore Constitution recognises the Malays as Singapore's indigenous community and Malay as the national language. It used to be that speaking Malay in Singapore was never a purely ethnic affair because Malay also functioned as the language of wider communication (Kuo, 1980). Today, however, with the English-plus-MT policy in place and the learning of the national language

being squeezed out of the curriculum, most non-Malays do not speak the language. In fact, many Singaporeans are not aware that Malay is the national language, believing that there are only four official languages (Ong, 2006). After Singapore's independence in 1965, Malay lost its traditional role and gradually evolved into a more exclusive ethnic language spoken only by Malays (Kuo, 1980).

Within the Malay community, Malay is losing ground, albeit slowly, as the home language – from 92% in 2000 to 83% in 2010, with the 9% that dropped Malay adopting English instead (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2011). Census 2010 reports that the youngest age group (5-14 years old) showed the highest increase in the use of English as the home language – from 9.4% in 2000 to 25.8% in 2010. In contrast, those aged 55 and above only saw an increase from 1.7 to 5.5%. Records from the Ministry of Education (MOE) show that more Primary 1 Malay pupils are coming from English-speaking homes – 13% in 1991 to 37% in 2010 (Ministry of Education, 2010). An MOE survey on Primary 6 students in 2010 shows a more nuanced picture of language use. For Malay language students, the use of Malay at home was still prevalent (50%) with only 17% using predominantly English. The remaining third used both English and Malay at home. Future census reports are likely to show further increases in the use of English (as a primary language or in concert with Malay) across all age groups and in domains such as religion where Malay used to dominate.

Amidst the shift to English, Malay is still well-maintained by older members of the community (Cavallaro & Serwe, 2010). They play an important role in helping the young keep a close connection with the language. It is useful to note that the greater use of English among the young need not imply a diminished sense of inheritance and affiliation towards Malay. A study by Chong and Seilhamer (2014) shows that among the young and highly educated segment of the Malay population, there was a strong sense of inheritance and affiliation with Malay, even as English became an increasingly integral part of their lives. Much of this was attributed to the crucial role played by parents and grandparents in cultivating in these young educated Malays a sense of language inheritance for Malay which in turn helped develop an affiliation for the language.

Language and Ideology

The language shift demonstrates the importance of status and power between languages in multilingual societies. Scholars have used the term "dominant language" to acknowledge the power particular languages has on other languages. This term makes explicit the socio-historical processes – how certain languages achieve dominance over other languages – which are often hidden through the use of terms that appear neutral such as "standard" language (Grillo, 1989). In Singapore, English is the dominant language and is emphasised from the beginning of formal schooling. It stems from the belief propounded by Lee Kuan Yew, main architect of the language policy, that children will learn English better the earlier they start learning the language, and that the path to academic success in English is to use English more. Urging Malays to increase their use of English in order to improve the educational achievement of the children, Lee remarked that:

> parents have to decide on the trade-off between the convenience of speaking Malay or the mother tongue at home with their children at the cost of EL1 (English studied at a "first language" or L1 level). If they want their children to do well in EL1, their children must also, besides Malay, speak in English at home. If parents cannot speak English, then their children should use English with brothers, sisters and neighbours ("Education is the Road to Success," 1982, p. 16).

Lee made clear the separation of Malay and English. He did not consider the development of Malay usually spoken at home as helpful in gaining proficiency in English, that proficiency in one language could be helpful in gaining proficiency in another. There is growing evidence for this. Research has shown that L2 (English) is learned more easily from a solid base in one's L1 (MT) in the case of reading and writing skills and vocabulary (Cummins, 1984; Dixon, 2011; Lanauze & Snow, 1989). Dixon's (2011) study on Singaporean kindergarten children's English vocabulary knowledge shows that children with higher MT vocabulary tended to have a higher English vocabulary. In a study in Miami, a city which maintains a high-status, politically strong Spanish-speaking community within the larger monolingual English-speaking context of the United States, Oller and Eilers (2002) compared two models of education: (a) English immersion programmes where children studied Spanish as a subject, much like Singaporean children study MT as a single subject, and (b) two-way Spanish-English bilingual programmes where children studied subject-area content through both English and Spanish. In both models, children perform at about the same high level in English, but the two-way programme produces much superior results in Spanish.

Lee's position appears to be based on the belief that individuals are expected to maintain cognitive separation of the linguistic systems, and that "properly" bilingual individuals are those in complete control of compartmentalised sets of monolingual proficiencies, such as English and Malay (Wee, 2011). This is in contrast to the idea that the general cognitive skills which underpin language use operate from a common central function, and that the ability to make sense of print transfers readily even when scripts are different (Cummins, 1991). It is thus not surprising that Malay, as is the case with the other smaller official languages, is a subject to be learnt, rather than a medium for subject-area instruction, in a system that aims to develop English-MT bilingualism, consistent with Lee's beliefs.

The above are instantiations of language ideology at work. Language ideologies are conceptualisations about languages, speakers, and discursive practices. They are pervaded with political and moral interests, and are shaped in a cultural setting (Irvine, 1989). Scholars have outlined the ways in which language ideologies are created, sustained and ultimately abandoned in favour of alternative ideologies. Wee (2006), for instance, explored the interaction between language ideology and official language policy in the Singapore context, and showed how certain beliefs, rationalisations, and conceptions of language use have been instantiated, mediated, and altered by a range of governmental practices.

Islamic Religious Education

Singapore is a secular state. With the exception of about 400 Malay/Muslim children who enrol in one of the six full-time Islamic religious schools (madrasah) each year, all other children attend the government-regulated national schools where religion and religious subjects have no place in the curriculum. Those who attend these national schools receive religious instructions either at home or in part-time religious education classes (Mukhlis Abu Bakar, 2009). The Islamic Religious Council of Singapore (MUIS), a statutory body, is entrusted to look after the interests of the Muslim community including the full-time madrasah and the part-time religious classes in the mosques.

For some time, Islamic religious education in Singapore has been perceived to suffer from shortcomings – over-emphasis on the cognitive skills of memorisation and rote learning, and attention to rituals. Such emphases appear to depart from ideas on education in contemporary society (Noor Aisha Abdul Rahman, 2006). In 2004, armed with the objective of making Muslims in Singapore remain rooted in their Islamic traditions yet well-adjusted to living in a modern society, MUIS introduced a new system of religious education in the mosques that develops students "intellectually, spiritually and emotionally into a responsible social being" (Youth Education Strategic Unit, 2007). Called the Singapore Islamic Education System but popularly known as aL.I.V.E. ('Learning Islamic Values Everyday'), it comprises a series of programmes targeted at different age groups – Kids aL.I.V.E. (for children aged 5-8 years old), Tweens aL.I.V.E. (9-12 year olds), Teens aL.I.V.E. (13-16 year olds) and Youth aL.I.V.E. (17-24 year olds). Offered on weekends in the mosques for an average of three hours per week, these programmes exist alongside the more traditional mosque madrasah programme which is to be gradually phased out and replaced by aL.I.V.E.

The change in curriculum and pedagogy extends to the medium of instruction, from Malay to English, to cater to Malay children who prefer English and to accommodate non-Malay-speaking Muslim students. This is a departure from the traditional practice of using Malay and Arabic as mediums of instruction in religious classrooms. Other than aL.I.V.E. and mosque madrasah programmes (both run by MUIS), there are other Islamic religious education classes (mostly in Malay) provided by community organisations such as Andalus, Pergas and Jamiyah. Prior to aL.I.V.E., the best known English-medium classes are those run for adult learners by the Muslim Converts' Association of Singapore.

This paper draws data from a study on children attending the Kids aL.I.V.E. (KA henceforth) and the mosque madrasah (MM henceforth). While the full study was on the impact of the programmes on their respective students and the parents' evaluation of the programmes, this paper focuses on a component of the study that looks at the issues around language from the parents' perspective. As stated previously, the study examined parents' language preferences in their children's learning of Islam and the ideologies behind those preferences. It also investigated language use in the KA and MM children's homes, and parents' assessment of their children's language proficiency.

Methodology

Participants

Three mosques which offered the KA programme and another two which run the MM programme were selected for the study. The participants, all 8 years old, were randomly selected from the cohort of children in the final year (Year 4) of KA and in Year 2 of MM. The selection process entailed the supervisors of the respective mosques telephoning parents in alphabetical order from the class lists (Compton-Lilly, 2003). The first 10 girls and 10 boys from KA whose families agreed to participate, were chosen for the study. Similarly, 10 girls and 10 boys from MM participated in the study. Five of the 20 children from the KA group were non-Malays and were not included in the analysis for this paper.

Data Collection

Following a pilot study, data from the 35 participants described above were collected over a period of four months. For each of the 35 children, one visit was made to the home lasting about two hours. The parents understood the visit as a means to gather feedback from them and their focal child about the programme. The researcher carried out face-to-face interviews with the parent(s) in attendance while a Research Assistant (RA) spent time with the focal child chatting up with him/her on some relevant topics. The data which this paper draws on are based on the interview with the parents (see Mukhlis Abu Bakar, 2012, for the report on the interview with the children).

The interview was conducted as the parents answered a questionnaire which consisted of 41 questions most of which were multiple choice questions. Some questions asked for additional comments with the possibility of more than one comment (open questions). The questions covered issues such as language use, attitude on education, curriculum appropriateness, children's learning, and parental engagement. Data for this paper are limited to questions on language use, language proficiency, and attitudes towards the instructional language of the programmes. All interviews were audio recorded.

During the interview, both parents could be present but one would be the primary respondent who was allowed to confer with his/her spouse for the latter's input such as the language(s) in which they speak with each other. The respondents were given a copy of the questionnaire in a language they preferred (English or Malay). The researcher went through the questions with them, and where their comments were solicited, they expressed them orally. Occasionally, they would be asked for elaborations after they finished a question. For example, a KA parent might choose "Extremely supportive" to a question that asked respondents to rate their support for the use of English but choose "Supportive" to a similar question that quizzed their support for Malay had it been used. The researcher would then ask them the reasons for their choices. Oral explanations allowed for a freer flow of information and further probing than written (Fink, 2012). Parents expressed themselves in either English or Malay, or both.

Data Analysis

Responses to the multiple choice questions in the questionnaire were subjected to a descriptive analysis where percentages were obtained for each scored item. The recorded interviews were transcribed by Malay-English bilingual transcribers, and from the close examination of the transcripts, the researcher analysed for expressions of beliefs or ideologies about English and Malay.

Results

Language Use in Malay Homes

All the families declared Malay as their MT. One KA family spoke only Malay at home; the others spoke English and Malay. For the MM families, all spoke English and Malay at home. For 60% of KA and MM families, English was reported to be the most frequently used language at home. A breakdown in the patterns of language use at home is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Language use in the homes of KA and MM children

Percentage of language use	KA		MM	
	Malay or more Malay than English	English or more English than Malay	Malay or more Malay than English	English or more English than Malay
Parents to each other	**67**	33	**79***	21*
Parents speaking to children	40	**60**	20	**80**
Children speaking to parents	50	50	30	**70**
Siblings to each other	36[+]	**64**[+]	20	**80**

* *Discounting one family where the parents were divorced*
[+] *Discounting one one-child family*

Parents to each other

The majority of the parents preferred to use Malay (67% KA; 79% MM) when they spoke to each other. Two mothers explained their inclination towards Malay as follows (English translations in square brackets):

> We have always been speaking our native language when we were courting. *Kalau cakap dengan my husband* [If I speak with my husband] …, I mean

> naturally *mesti bahasa Melayu* [it must be Malay]. *Bila* [when] in the company of our kids, *kita terus macam* [we'll make a] 180 degree change. Yah, *so kalau ada kids* [So, with the kids], mixture English and *Melayu*, but with my husband, *Melayu aja lah*! [only Malay!] (Mother of KA7)

> I prefer Malay *pasal Bahasa Melayu ni dia kira indah. Ada tata susilah dia*. [I prefer Malay because it is aesthetically pleasing. There is moral order.] (Mother of KA9)

Parents to children

The linguistic scenery changes when children are factored in. The majority of parents were found to use more English than Malay when initiating talk with their children. This was especially seen with MM parents who were far more inclined to using English with their children (80%) compared to KA parents (60%). One mother admitted to using English as a matter of course and one father saw the need to expose his children to English:

> I'm quite used to it so automatically we just converse in English ah. That's why. (Mother of MM7)

> It's good to talk to them in English so that they are very fluent in English ah. Because I've experienced my first two… when we talked to them in Malay. So hopefully by talking to them (younger children) in English… especially those that when, the understanding of the concept. (Father of KA18)

Children to parents

The preference to use English extends to situations when children initiated talk with their parents. Comparing this with the preceding data on the languages parents spoke with their children, we see that more parents than children used English to initiate talk with the other. For MM, 80% of the parents chose English to speak to their children while 70% of their children used English to speak to their parents. For KA, 60% of the parents chose English to speak to their children while 50% of their children used English to speak to their parents.

Siblings to each other

The clearest trend of using more English can be seen when children speak to each other. Again, overall, parental reports show greater prominence among MM children (80%) to use English than among KA children (64%).

English and Malay Language Proficiency

The parents were asked to rate their children's proficiency levels for the two languages they spoke on a scale of 1 to 4 with a rating of 1 being "poor" and 4 being "very good" (Table 2).

Table 2
Mean ratings of language proficiency of child respondents

Mean ratings	Malay	English
KA	2.7	2.7
MM	3.1	3.3

Parental reports of the mean ratings for Malay and English were both 2.7 for KA children, while for MM children the mean ratings were 3.3 for English and 3.1 for Malay. This indicates roughly equal proficiency in the two languages for both KA and MM children. Overall, MM children appeared to be bilingually more proficient than KA children given the former's higher scores for both languages.

Reasons for selecting a programme

Parents responded to a question on why they enrolled their children in the respective programmes. Their single or multiple answers were grouped in nine categories as shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Reasons for enrolling children in the respective programmes

32. What made you decide to put your child in the programme?	KA (% of total)	MM (% of total)
It is conducted in English (for KA, and Malay for MM)	6 (19)	7 (26)
It has a good curriculum and pedagogy	5 (16)	4 (15)
It is held in the mosque	5 (16)	5 (18)
The venue is conveniently located	3 (9)	4 (15)
It has no examination	3 (9)	-
It is run by MUIS	2 (6)	1 (4)
The time is convenient for the family	2 (6)	3 (11)
It is not stressful/has a relax environment	2 (6)	-
Miscellaneous reasons	4 (13)	3 (11)

The parents' reasons were mixed. Language was the most cited reason but it did not stand out. However, language was a weaker reason for KA parents than for MM parents (19% and 26% respectively). This suggests that KA parents might not be as fixed on English as the medium of instruction than MM parents were on Malay.

Support for the language of instruction

Parents were quizzed specifically on their support for the instructional language of the respective programmes. Table 4 shows the pattern.

Table 4
Extent of support for English or Malay as a medium of instruction

	English			Malay		
Percentage of respondents	Extremely or very supportive	Supportive	Not supportive	Extremely or very supportive	Supportive	Not supportive
KA	**85**	15	0	**50**	30	20
MM	**10**	60	30	**90**	10	0

For English, the number of parents who were "Very Supportive" or "Extremely Supportive" of the use of the language is high among KA parents (85%) but very low among MM parents (10%). In contrast, 90% of MM parents were "Very Supportive" or "Extremely Supportive" of the use of Malay in the programme with some 50% of KA parents also at least "Very Supportive" if Malay was used instead. There is therefore a 75 percentage point difference in extensive support for English between KA and MM parents in contrast to only 40 percentage point difference in extensive support for Malay between these two groups. In other words, KA parents were more supportive of Malay than MM parents were supportive of English, and that Malay was not too far behind English as the preferred medium to deliver the KA curriculum as far as KA parents were concerned. It is possible that they could still be drawn to the programme if the curriculum was delivered in Malay.

Ideological Underpinnings of Language Choice

Some of the mainstream discourses on language were evident in the way the parents expressed their support for the respective languages:

English as the premium language for learning

For KA parents, particularly those whose dominant household language was English, using English as a medium of instruction in KA fulfilled a practical purpose – they as parents were comfortable helping their children learn through the language.

> It meets our needs. (Mother of KA2)

> … *pasal kat sekolah biasa belajar bahasa inggeris kan? Jadi kalau ini pun bahasa Inggeris, OK jugak lah*. […in school they are used to learning English. So continuing it here (in KA) is fine] (Father of FC12)

> Yes, it's good. In fact, when I get them Islamic books, *macam* [like] 'My Qur'an Friends' books … it's all in English … when they go to the bookstore, they will go to the English section first. (Mother of KA20)

Both English and MT are equally important

Some KA parents were not adverse to the idea of using Malay in the programme and were neutral with respect to which language was the medium of instruction:

> Neutral (about which language to use), as long as he can understand what he is learning, I am very happy already. I *tak ada* [don't have] particular, (that) you must say in Malay. *Kadang-kadang, kita orang manusia, kita boleh* grasp *in different language*. [Sometimes, we human beings can grasp different languages.] (Mother of KA6)

> Actually, urm, language, I have no issue *lah*, frankly speaking. The most important thing is the subject, the structure that they … deliver to our children. I mean, if they understand, they know the values, *ah*, I'm okay with it *lah* you know. (Mother of KA18)

Some parents wanted their children to be exposed to their weaker language (English for KA, Malay for MM) by enrolling them in the programme where their weaker language is the medium of instruction:

> I notice my number three (focal child), struggle a little bit more at madrasah (because of Malay). But I welcome that struggle because I want her (to) balance (in the use of English and Malay). (Mother of MM9)

Malay as a marker of identity

Some parents had an affinity towards Malay as a signature of their identity. For some MM parents, they rated their children's proficiency higher in English than in Malay and supported English more than Malay as the medium of instruction. Yet, they were acceptable to the existing arrangement of using primarily Malay, with English being used whenever the students had difficulty understanding:

> You know … because *kalau* [if] we don't support the use of Malay *pun* [also] very difficult … yeah … the best is of course is what they are currently doing now when I spoke to the Ustazah she said it's in Malay but she tries whenever the kids don't understand she will … use some terms or phrases in English … *kalau* [if] the child looks very blur or don't understand … (Mother of MM2)

> … but we still want Malay to be used even though the child learns better in English … (Mother of MM1)

Some KA parents too preferred Malay over English:

> … would rather Kids aL.I.VE. *dalam bahasa Melayu supaya dia dapat belajar bahasa Melayu lebih lagi* … [in Malay so that he can learn more Malay]. (Father of KA12)

Malay as the language of religion

Some parents, KA and MM alike, insisted on using Malay to teach Islam as they were used to using the language in the religious domain:

> I don't like them (KA) teaching them (children) in English. I rather that Islam teach in Malay. For me, *kalau ugama, I lebih fasih cakap Melayu dari cakap* English. [if religion, I am more proficient in Malay than in English] (Mother of MM3)

> Ah.. mama suggestlah *mintak bahasa Melayu* [ask for Malay] (mimicking a child's voice) …. *Segi agama tu* English *tu pada dia susahlah. Lebih kepada Melayu ah*. [For religion, it is hard for her if it's in English. She's more inclined towards Malay.] (Mother of KA16)

English as the language of the young generation

Some KA parents found it difficult to help their children's learning through English as they were not proficient in the language. As much as they thought that they understood better in Malay and felt that the use of Malay was more "*mesra*" (intimate), they accepted that their children's generation was different:

> *Untuk anak zaman sekarang kan bahasa Inggeris. Sekolah bahasa Inggeris, jadi pada saya pun takde masalahnya dalam bahasa Inggeris*. [For today's generation, it's English. School is also in English, so I have no problem if (KA) also uses English] (Mother of KA4)

> *Lebih mudah ... kalau nak terangkan bahasa orang putih …, kalau macam bahasa asing gitu dorang paham lah … Macam kita orang Islam bahasa Melayu kita gunakan, jadi bila terjemahkan bahasa Inggeris susah kita nak tangkap*. [It's easier for the younger generation to understand English. For us older generation who grew up with Malay, if something is in English, it is difficult to grasp.] (Mother of KA16)

> … *memang* [it's true] mother tongue is important. It's the language for us *eh*, *Melayu eh*, *tetapi dalam masa yang sama* [but at the same time], most of the time *diorang* [they] (the children) *dah gunakan bahasa Inggeris, … lebih* exposed *dengan Bahasa Inggeris* [have used, and are more exposed to, English]. That means, about *dakwah* [propagating religion], *kalau diorang boleh* exposed (to English), even their *kawan-kawan diorang yang bukan*

> *dari agama Islam, boleh tertarik* [if they are exposed to English, even their non-Muslim friends might be attracted]. (Mother of KA9)

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings show that English was the more dominant language at home for all the participants. With the exception of inter-spousal talk, interactions that involved children generally involved more English. This supports Cavallaro and Serwe's (2010) observations that young Malays in Singapore speak a notable amount of English. What is significant about this study, however, is the finding that students who used more English at home were the ones more likely to learn Islam through the medium of Malay. This speaks volumes about Malay language maintenance for which MM parents were active agents. Torn between pragmatism and ethnic sentiments, some sent their children to a Malay-medium religious education despite believing that the children learned better through English just so that the latter would not lose the ability to speak Malay:

> I know … it's so contradicting because at number 33 (question in the survey form), I say … we say 'No' (to a statement that the child learns better in Malay), … but then we still want Malay to be used even though the child learns better in English. (Mother of an MM child)

MM parents had responded to the call to use more English at home to the point that their children became more comfortable with, and proficient in, the language and thus in a better position to negotiate the school curriculum. Yet these parents had not lost their cultural affinity to Malay. Enrolling their children in the MM programme was evident of their efforts to ensure that the children remained active users of the language so that it was not lost on them. The children's proficiency in both English and Malay shows that gains in the dominant language had not come at the expense of proficiency in the minority language. But it remains to be seen if such efforts are sustainable in the long run given the unceasing influence of English in the larger society spurred on in part by an English immersion education and the globalisation of English.

Malay language maintenance is currently a viable prospect also because the older members of the families (in this study, parents) actively spoke Malay to each other. This helped the young build a sense of language inheritance for Malay. It will be harder to maintain the language once this older generation of Malay speakers dies out. The young will find less need to speak exclusively in Malay or code-switch to Malay, and will have less opportunity even to be passive learners of Malay. It will be left to the school and perhaps the media to take on the challenging task of nurturing their linguistic heritage. For the present, there are still many Malay speakers in the community, and if appropriate steps are taken, the shift to English can be slowed, if not arrested, and a more stable form of bilingualism be achieved.

The findings in Tables 3 and 4 appear to make a case for a KA programme in Malay besides English. This is in view of the strong support given by KA parents for a Malay-medium programme had there been one. This is the group MUIS had won

over, attracted by aL.I.V.E.'s modern, age-appropriate curriculum and pedagogy. MM parents too could be won over, especially those who wanted Malay to remain as the language of religious instruction. While the impending closure of the Malay-medium MM will not put an end to religious education in Malay as there are other providers other than MUIS, it does mean that the space for Malay will shrink, weakening its position as the mainstay for the maintenance of the language. Moreover, replacing the traditional Malay MM with the modern English KA will reinforce the association of English with modernity and the "new" while Malay with tradition and the "old". This modern-English and traditional-Malay bifurcation, though unintended, might only harm the status and vitality of the Malay language.

Parents worry that interacting with their young children in Malay would mean less opportunity for the children to develop English skills in time to negotiate the primary school curriculum which is entirely in English except for the learning of Malay. Parents might be persuaded to recalibrate their linguistic priorities, including their children's part-time religious instruction, if schools send concrete signals by according greater currency to the MT. This could mean implementing some content-area instruction through the medium of MT from the start of schooling. As Oller and Eilers' (2002) study cited earlier has suggested, in settings where English is socially dominant, teaching content-area subjects through both English and MT would not lead to a lowering of children's English proficiency.

Scholars and academics have the duty to provide both the Malay community and the schools with alternative ideologies with regards to bilingualism. Current mainstream discourses assume cognitive separation of the linguistic systems in bilinguals which underpin much of Singapore's language-in-education policies. This is reflected in the allocation of different roles to English and the MTs and the employment of teaching methods, tools, resources and assessments that are grounded on mono-literacy. The beliefs that influenced KA and MM parents' decisions on which religious classes to send their children to all involved rationalisations couched in monolingual terms. With schools persisting on a monolingual approach in a "bilingual" system and presenting it as "neutral", it is not surprising that these parents remained lodged in this mode of thinking.

In conclusion, this study has established the extent to which Malay language maintenance in the religious domain is a viable endeavour. Ideologies play an important role in influencing parents' linguistic decisions in and outside the religious domain, and in turn their children's affiliation to the Malay language. It might be useful to revisit the beliefs that shape Singapore's English-plus-MT policy which, while crucial in establishing a citizenry that is able to connect with the English-speaking world thus giving Singapore its competitive edge, has the unintended consequences of pushing Malay out of many domains of language use including religion.

It must be emphasised, at this point, that all the data presented in this paper are from parental reports. While this is good for making inferences about language ideologies of the parents from questions about their language choice, preference and everyday use, it may not provide an accurate measure of the children's language proficiencies. Nevertheless, it is hoped that this study constitutes a key milestone in the study of Malay language maintenance in the religious domain. This study, even if

not all-encompassing, hopefully has provided some observations and insights on the community's affiliations with Malay in comparison to English.

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Endnotes

[1]In the majority of cases, the Malay community's assigned MT (Malay) is the children's first language (L1) learned from infancy. This is not necessarily the case for the Chinese and Indian communities. Their assigned official MT may not be their bonafide MTs. For instance, if a Chinese family speaks Hokkien as L1, the children still have to study Mandarin as a MT in school.

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PROBLEMATISING UNFOCUSED WRITTEN FEEDBACK: A CASE STUDY ON FOUR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ESSAYS

Daron Benjamin Loo
Asia-Pacific International University

daronloo@apiu.edu

Abstract

In the past decade, many studies have sought to show the efficacy of different types of written feedback. All of these studies yielded consistent results, and at times contradicting results. Considering the nature of language teaching and learning, English language teaching (ELT) practitioners should consider problematising the issue of providing written feedback, instead of looking for a solution. Taking this into account, this study uses a case-study approach to evaluate the efficacy of unfocused feedback across multiple-drafts in an advanced English writing course taken by English majors at an international university in Thailand. Over a four-month semester, the class wrote five essays, with each essay having at least three drafts. In all drafts, unfocused feedback was provided with the assumption that students' prior English writing courses have helped them develop self-monitoring abilities. The data consist of the frequency of errors and unfocused feedback of the last three essays of four students. Subsequently, a correlation coefficient of the errors and unfocused feedback was calculated and results indicated that as the number of feedback decreased through drafts, the number of errors decreased as well. This shows a positive correlation between the two variables, albeit at varying degrees for different students. Students were also interviewed about their perceptions and expectations toward writing feedback. This study suggests that unfocused feedback may work for certain students, but not all.

Keywords: writing feedback, unfocused feedback, multiple-drafts

Introduction

The provision of written feedback, or corrective feedback, to students' writing tasks has been a point of discussion for many English language teaching (ELT) scholars and practitioners since Truscott's (1996) controversial claims (Bitchener, 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; ; Sheen, Wright & Modawa, 2009). These studies showed how students who received corrective feedback had improved in subsequent writing tasks or

assessments. Many of these studies were conducted in English as a Second Language (ESL) writing classrooms, where students were still building their English language proficiency (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Ellis, et al., 2008; Sheen, et al., 2009). An exception is Chandler's (2003) study where the sample consisted of first and second year University students majoring in music. To date, it appears that no study on written feedback has been carried out in a multilingual setting with advanced writing students, who have fulfilled English proficiency requirements for admission into a regular university program. Furthermore, no research has specifically studied university students majoring in English in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. Hence, this study aims to determine the relationship between the frequency of feedback and the frequency of errors. Specifically it aims to look at whether or not the gradual reduction of errors has a positive correlative relationship with the frequency of written corrective feedback. Before proceeding, it is crucial to point out that research concerning the efficacy of written feedback have been quite diverse (Ferris, 2004). A primary reason for this dissimilarity is that though they may look at similar types of written feedback, the research design employed is typically different. There are many factors at stake, such as the course objectives, the types of students, and the duration of the course. A reason for this diversity may be the belief that there is no universal solution to improve writers' writing skills, which calls for a problematisation of the issue (Hyland, 2012). In the following paragraphs, we will highlight the different types of course contexts, followed by an overview of the types of effects a type of writing feedback have on students' grammatical accuracy.

Types of Writing Course in Studies on Written Feedback

In a meta-analysis of corrective written feedback studies conducted in the late 1980s and early 1990s, Ferris (2004) found that all of the participants involved were students studying a foreign language at a basic level in an ESL context. Research in the past decade has recruited participants who are somewhat similar in nature, as seen in Table 1.

In terms of research design, perhaps ESL-type students are generally easier to recruit due to the broad objectives of the course. Generally, at an ESL-type writing course, students are expected to master writing mechanics – paying careful attention to grammatical accuracy. College courses, on the other hand, may focus on different types of genres and the development of content which are suitable to a specific course. Another point worth noting is that in all the studies listed in Table 1, different approaches were utilised to determine the efficacy of written feedback.

Table 1
An overview of types of writing course in written feedback studies

Study	Number of Subjects	Types of Writing Course
Ferris & Roberts (2001)	72	Pre-freshman composition; grammar for writers, U.S. University
Chandler (2003)	31	High intermediate/advanced reading and writing class, U.S. College
Bitchener, et al. (2005)	53	Post intermediate ESOL migrant learners, ESOL program
Ellis, et al. (2008)	49	General English classes, Japan University
Sheen, et al. (2009)	80	Intermediate ESL, U.S. College
Bitchener & Knoch (2010)	63	Introductory Composition for International students, U.S. University

Types of Written Feedback

Aside from the difference in types of courses, types of written feedback are quite diverse. In all these studies, these feedback types have been defined consistently (Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ellis, et al., 2008), and there is a general consensus over how types of feedback are categorised. There are two main categories - each with a pair of constructs. First, there is the direct and indirect feedback pair. As its name suggests, direct feedback is any obvious supplication of correct forms (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis, et al., 2008). Correction could be provided directly above an error or on the margins of the essay. Direct feedback is argued to be helpful as it reduces confusion whilst revising, provides correct solutions to complex errors, offers explicit feedback on students' hypotheses, and is more immediate. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, is an indication that an error has been made without providing the correct form. Indirect feedback is commonly provided by underlining or circling the error, or writing in the margin the number of errors in a given line. When indirect feedback is given, writers are expected to figure out the correct form on their own. This encourages active reflection on existing knowledge and promotes noticing, which may subsequently lead to long-term acquisition (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). The second category of feedback is the focused and unfocused feedback pair. Focused feedback is selective in that the teacher, or the teacher and students, decide which types of errors to focus on. In providing focused feedback, only specific errors are treated while other errors are disregarded. Furthermore, as the class progresses through different types of writing assignments, the focus may shift from one type of error to another. On the contrary, unfocused feedback is extensive as it deals with different errors in a single piece of writing. When comparing the two, it is believed that focused feedback is more effective for beginner writers as their attention would be dedicated to several selected errors. It is suggested that focused feedback may encourage an overall improvement in structural and grammatical aspects of a written work (Ellis, et al., 2008).

Aside from the pairs discussed previously, there are also other types of written feedback which are commonly used in the writing classroom. Teachers may opt to supplement their feedback with metalinguistic description. These metalinguistic descriptions, which could be in oral or written form, aim to explain reasons for an error, or to explain ways to rectify an error. In cases where direct feedback is provided, metalinguistic description is included to ensure that students are not merely copying the correct form in the revised draft (Bitchener, et. al. 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). Subsequently, how corrective feedback is incorporated in revisions may be determined through the analysis of errors across a set of drafts (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Qi & Lapkin, 2001).

Effects of Different Types of Feedback

Generally speaking, there seems to be positive outcomes for students who receive focused feedback, especially in terms of how long the correct form of a grammatical feature is maintained (Bitchener, et al., 2005; Bitchener, 2008; Ellis, et al., 2008, Sheen, et al., 2009). In the case of Sheen, et al., it was reported that students made improvement in other forms as well, aside from the focused forms. The expansion of improvement beyond the focus formed is attributed to the systematicity of how focused feedback is delivered. Furthermore, focused feedback seems to have a lasting positive effect, in that improvement was retained after employing a post-test or a delayed post-test (Bitchener, 2008; Ellis, et al., 2008). A point for consideration, though, is that focused feedback, or any type of feedback for that matter, may not have a desired positive impact on errors as student-writers may only be copying the correct form, especially if the correct form is given directly. This perhaps stems from the claim that different grammatical features occupy different cognitive domains. Hence the method for treatment may vary (Bitchener, et al., 2005). Aside from focused feedback, research that employed direct feedback also showed writing improvement in subsequent drafts (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). Interestingly, studies which employed unfocused feedback showed that though there were no significant grammatical accuracy gains, as compared to students who received focused feedback, there was still a slight improvement. As seen in Ellis et al.'s (2008) study, students who received unfocused feedback did improve and made minimal errors in subsequent drafts. Nevertheless, the lack of improvement among students who received unfocused feedback may be attributed to the plethora of errors student writers need to attend to (Bitchener, 2008; Sheen, et al., 2009), as opposed to students who focus only on a type of grammatical feature.

These positive results need to be carefully interpreted, though. Accuracy gains in these studies do not mean that an overall improvement has occurred over a longitudinal period. The improvement mentioned in most of these studies are concerned only with targeted forms (Bitchener, et al., 2005; Guénette, 2007), instead of an overall improvement for different grammatical and structural forms. In addition, the improvement made in one writing assignment may not necessarily transfer to a new writing topic (Bitchener, et al., 2005; Chandler, 2003). Moreover, improvements made may be due to student writers mindlessly revising errors without much thought. Hence, correct forms are not acquired. Student writers may

also avoid using grammatical features which they find problematic in future essays (Truscott, 2007).

Another aspect which may influence the interpretation of results is the research design. Many of the research designs of the studies in writing corrective feedback have been quite inconsistent, which renders them incomparable. In all these studies, features invariably differ, such as types of participant, types of writing, research context, grammatical feature treated, types of feedback, duration of research (Ferris, 2004). To parallel the notion that language use is contextually bound, it has been proposed that practitioners in the field of applied linguistics should focus more on problematizing the issue, instead of proposing solutions (Hyland, 2012). Taking note of the need to examine how written feedback affects advanced English majors, and the dissimilar nature of writing students and classes, as well as the proposal to problematize written feedback, this study will use a case study approach to determine the efficacy of unfocused feedback by looking at correlative links between unfocused feedback and writing errors across multiple drafts provided to third-year university subjects majoring in English who were enrolled in an advanced writing course. Unfocused feedback is selected because of its proposed suitability for more advanced students, where they are assumed to be more independent and aware of their writing skills.

Research Design and Sample

To problematise unfocused feedback, this study will employ a case study approach. A case study approach is chosen because of the individualised effects written feedback may have on each student (Ferris, 2004). The reason why students are treated as individual case studies is due to the possibility of students reacting differently to the type of feedback provided.

The sample of this study consists of four students who were enrolled in an advanced composition course. The students are all English majors, studying different areas of emphasis, namely Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and English for Communication. Three case subjects, Beau, Vicky, and Kenny received unfocused feedback in their essays while the fourth, Dina, did not receive any unfocused feedback, except for an occasional oral or written comment (all names are pseudonyms). In other words, Dina was the control subject case for this study. Since Dina is a communications major, she has taken more writing courses prior to this course. For all the case subjects, the amount of unfocused feedback was compared to the number of errors and the correlation coefficient values were calculated. Furthermore, the frequency of types of errors was calculated across three drafts of a topic for each subject and was validated by an inter-rater. Each case subject was also interviewed.

Since this is an advanced composition course, students have taken other composition classes, either as a prerequisite for this particular course, or as a graduation requirement. It is then assumed that students would have a certain level of familiarity with the type of feedback employed in this study. Students, being in their third year, were also expected to be able to independently self-monitor their own writing. The class met twice a week for a total of four hours per week, over a

period of thirteen weeks. All of the essays were narratives, but addressing different topics. The teaching procedure began with an introduction of a new topic (humour, anger, memorable experience, culture, language), followed by a brainstorming session by students. Next, students write up and submit the drafts (up to three). The researcher-teacher returned the drafts within two to three days. The returned drafts contained unfocused feedback. Errors were either circled or underlined, and were not extensive. This meant that not all errors were indicated. In a few cases, direct correction is given. These instances were typically confined to word-choice errors. A new draft was submitted in the next class, and a review of errors made by students was discussed as a class activity. Students were also engaged in peer revision and self-editing. For this study, the last three essays were selected for analysis. These three essays were written over the span of six weeks, with each essay having at least three drafts. Hence, the data of this study was made up of 36 pieces of writing by four different writers. The topics are memorable experience, personal culture, and English language learning experience.

Results

As this study's focus is to see the relationship of errors and feedback for individual students, a within-case approach was utilised. Hence, each student's draft was compared with his or her own subsequent drafts. To see whether the frequency of written feedback affected the frequency of errors, correlation coefficient between errors and written feedback was calculated. The purpose of this calculation is to analyse the strength of relationship between the frequency of errors and the frequency of feedback. Note, though, that an analysis of correlation does not equate a causal relationship. Furthermore, the increase or decrease on the frequency of errors may be due to other confounding variables beyond the control of the researcher. Table 2 shows the frequency of errors and feedback for each student, while Figure 1 shows the linear regression for each of the experimental students.

Table 2
Frequency of errors and unfocused written feedback (UWF) for Beau, Kenny, and Vicky

Beau

Draft	Memorable Experience		Personal Culture		English Language Learning Experience	
	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF
1	45	8	81	49	29	22
2	38	6	38	9	12	8
3	24	3	32	2	6	6

Kenny

Draft	Memorable Experience		Personal Culture		English Language Learning Experience	
	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF
1	40	11	42	32	59	37
2	48	5	65	28	97	77
3	121	28	41	3	41	8

Vicky

Draft	Memorable Experience		Personal Culture		English Language Learning Experience	
	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF	Errors	UWF
1	54	13	47	20	43	28
2	49	4	54	12	36	4
3	66	18	40	3	26	4

It appears that in most cases, there seems to be a reduction in errors in subsequent drafts. This is observable in the calculation of correlation coefficient as well. In the order of correlative strength, Beau ranked the strongest (0.77), followed by Kenny (0.60), and finally Vicky (0.43). Figure 1 illustrates the scatter plot of the frequency of unfocused feedback and errors, with linear regression lines drawn across the plots. As observed, all subjects show a positive correlation, albeit at varying degrees of strength. The different dots represent the essays written by the three experiment case subjects.

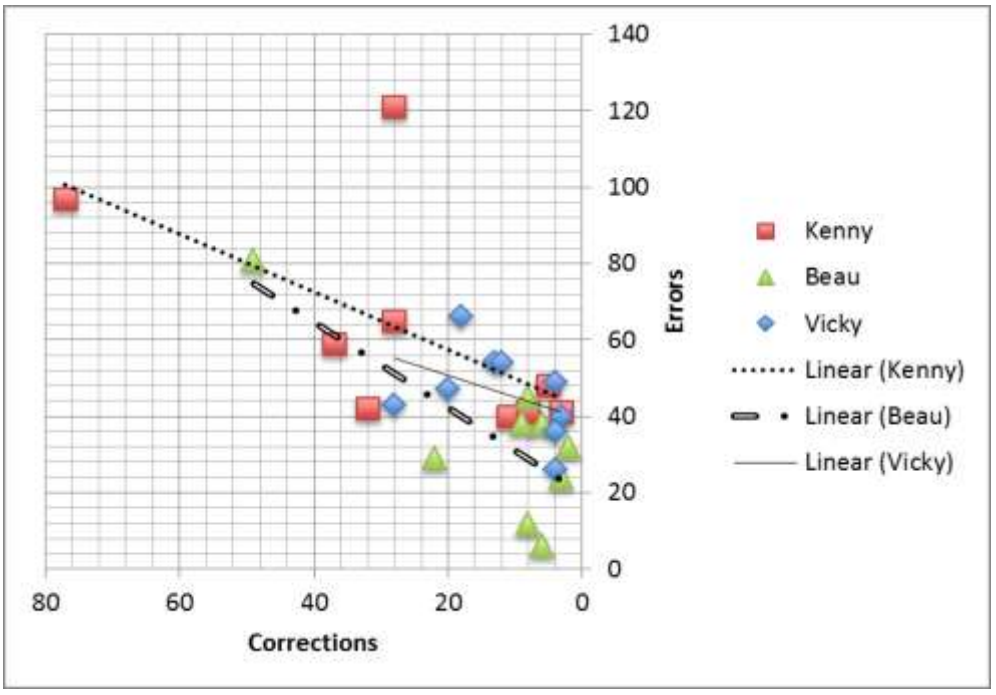

Figure 1. *Scatter plot of frequency of feedback and errors with linear regression*

Kenny

Kenny was one of the three subjects who received unfocused feedback. Prior to entering university, Kenny had undergone a year of remedial English as he did not have any substantial English education in high school. In Kenny's interview, he mentioned that he had expected a writing teacher to provide focused feedback, especially on ideas and organisation. Nonetheless, in his English writing classroom experience, his teachers had always given unfocused feedback. Furthermore, Kenny thought that direct feedback would facilitate revision, as well as acquisition of correct forms. Despite these comments, Kenny's work showed improvement even without direct feedback. In terms of writing accuracy, Kenny struggled with verbs (tense, subject-verb agreement). Nonetheless, the instances of errors decreased across multiple drafts. For instance, in his narrative on language learning experience, Kenny's percentage of verb errors was reduced from 33% in the first draft to 22% in the final draft.

Beau

Of all the three subjects who received unfocused feedback, Beau's result showed the strongest correlation between the amount of feedback and the number of errors. This may be due to Beau's writing experience in high school. In high school, Beau's English classes had creative writing assignments. The type of feedback given in his classes was generally metalinguistic descriptions. With regards to unfocused feedback, Beau thinks it may be detrimental as students may not be able to cope with an array of different types of errors. Beau suggests that indirect unfocused feedback may be beneficial for advanced students.

Nonetheless, Beau, being a TESOL major, also acknowledges that teachers may not have enough time to provide feedback for every mistake. With regards to writing accuracy, Beau made fewer errors than the three other students. Even so, Beau demonstrated a reduction in errors throughout three drafts. For instance, Beau's misuse of articles (definite and indefinite article) was reduced from 40% in the first draft to 25% in the final draft.

Vicky

Vicky, on the other hand, showed a rather weak correlation between feedback and errors. This could perhaps be due to Vicky's perception towards unfocused feedback. Vicky's previous writing experience saw only an emphasis on content and organisation, and not so much on grammar. Vicky also mentioned that the way in which feedback is provided, and not the frequency of feedback, is important. This belief is grounded in the notion that it will help her become more aware of what she needs to improve. Moreover, Vicky points out that feedback needs to be appropriate to the proficiency level of a learner. Vicky suggests that minimal intervention from teachers is acceptable for more advanced writers. Similar to Kenny, Vicky struggled with the usage of verbs. In her essay on language learning

experience, Vicky's errors in verb usage amounted to 53%. However, this was reduced in the last essay, with only 22% errors.

Dina

Unlike the other three subjects, Dina did not receive any unfocused feedback, aside from an occasional oral or written comment at the end of each essay. Since Dina was a communication student, she had had the most writing courses. Hence, it was expected that she would be familiar with different feedback conventions. Dina comes from an international school which had English as its medium of instruction. Nonetheless, not much emphasis was placed on writing. Prior to entering university, Dina had to take a remedial English course. Similar to Vicky and Kenny, Dina struggled a lot with verbs. In her first draft of her language learning experience essay, Dina's errors in verbs amounted to 60%. Dina also struggled with nouns (form, wrong noun choice), with 44% errors. These percentages of errors were reduced, though, in the final draft, with 13% for the former and 22% for the latter.

What Then Should Writing Teachers Do?

When looking at each student's overall progress over nine drafts, it appears that unfocused feedback may have had a positive bearing on the reduction of errors. Even though the case subjects are dealing with various errors, they seem to be able to remedy these in subsequent drafts. This supports the notion that advanced students may have the necessarily skills to self-correct (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chandler, 2003). Aside from student's ability to self-correct, the frequency of feedback may also encourage improvement. There was a gradual decrease in the amount of feedback across drafts, yet this did not deter each case subject's improvement. This may stem from a sense of accountability that advanced writing students have for their own writing.

Another issue worth mentioning is that subjects in this study showed grammatical accuracy gains over several forms, instead of a target or focused form. Throughout the semester, the researcher-teacher constantly reminded the students that they must also rely on themselves for feedback. Furthermore, the sample engaged in peer-review and worked on grammatical exercises built based on their written work, as suggested by Ferris (2004). Perhaps these, plus in addition to/together with their experience in previous writing courses, as well as incorporating multiple-drafts in writing courses have encouraged an awareness of their writing capabilities and the ability to notice struggles they may have (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010). On the contrary, even though each case subject seems to show that there is a linear progression of improvement across drafts, it may not be reflected when the student-writer starts a new topic. This may stem from the oversight of transferal of learned corrections from a previous topic. This may further support the notion that students, at least within the parameters of this study, did not fully acquire the correct forms. Furthermore, there are instances in later drafts where an error is greatly reduced. This may be due to the correct application of a grammatical feature, or it could also be an avoidance strategy as well (Truscott, 2007).

What this study has shown is the further problematisation of written feedback. Like its counterpart, unfocused feedback has been shown to have some level of positive relationship to the reduction of errors. This result should not be taken at face value, though, as there are many confounding variables which may have affected its efficacy either positively or negatively. Nonetheless, what does this say about other studies on written feedback then? For one, it does not refute the validity of other studies as the research design of this particular study is essentially different from that of others. Another point is that a within-case approach may give a more in-depth view of how each student is performing across multiple topics and multiple drafts, which other studies may have missed. Taking an ethnomethodology stance when investigating what works best for our students allows teachers to cater to the diverse needs of each student. In addition, this study supports the notion that in the field of ELT, we need to be eclectic and accept that methods or approaches are not universally applicable to all students. As seen in the data, unfocused feedback may have not worked best with Vicky. With this kind of information, teachers could explore other feedback alternatives which may be more effective. This exploration can also involve students' input, where students can work with their teachers in understanding which type of written feedback may work best. Even so, it should be understood that grammatical accuracy is not the only goal in a writing course. Writing teachers should strive for a broader objective, which is to help students to develop as better communicators. This can be done through helping students become more confident and independent in using a language which may be foreign to them (Mori, 2011).

Implications and Limitations

Unfocused feedback may cast the teacher as being thoughtless in giving feedback from the students' perspective. The results of these case studies, however, show that unfocused feedback can be helpful. Nonetheless, as seen in each case study, the case subjects have beliefs about unfocused feedback. This may provide support for the notion that feedback affects students differently. Another issue found from the interviews is that all the case subjects believed in the necessity of feedback. Hence, the possible exclusion of feedback needs to be dealt with carefully. Perhaps more advanced students are capable of a complete reliance on self in improving their writing. In terms of its limitations, this study was only conducted over six writing assignments, hence it may not suffice for any longitudinal generalisations. Furthermore, this study only looked at errors at the grammatical level, with the rare occasion of word choice errors. Writing, as we know, involves more than just grammatical accuracy, but also cohesion and organisation. A future direction with regards to unfocused feedback could be to analyse the effects of this type of feedback on the reduction of incorrect use of different parts of speech.

Conclusion

This study took a case study approach to look at how individual student-writers reacted to unfocused feedback. Results of this study found that in most cases, there

seems to be a positive relationship between the reductions of errors with the frequency of feedback. Though seemingly positive, the results of this study, like other studies in written feedback, must be taken cautiously. However, this study could perhaps add to the pool of evidence that supports the idea that written feedback is indeed valuable, and it could instigate a reconsideration for Truscott's claims that feedback is ineffective and useless. An important take away for this study though, is a call for teachers to strive for a better understanding of how each student learns for an optimal teaching and learning environment. As Ferris (2004) mentioned, writers are essentially different from one another, which means how they react to a feedback may differ as well (Bitchener, 2005).

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USE OF MONOLINGUAL, BILINGUAL, AND BILINGUALISED DICTIONARIES AND EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES: A CASE STUDY

Abdorreza Tahriri[1]
Zeinab Ariyan[2]
[1]Department of English Language and Literature, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran
[2]Department of English Language, Payame Noor University (PNU), Tehran, Iran

[1]atahriri@gmail.com
[2]sghamgin277@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study investigated the effect of dictionary use on the vocabulary learning strategies used by elementary level EFL learners. Seventy-five female EFL learners were randomly assigned to one of three groups (25 members each): the monolingual dictionary, the bilingual dictionary, and the bilingualised dictionary groups. Students' responses on the vocabulary learning strategies were collected through a questionnaire which dealt with the vocabulary learning strategies the participants used to understand each target item in a reading passage selected based on readability formula. The results of Chi-square analysis indicated that the participants in the bilingual group consulted their dictionaries more frequently to solve their lexical problems than those in the monolingual and the bilingualised dictionary groups. The bilingualised group reported the least use of other strategies (e.g., analysing morphemes, and using cognates), while guessing was rarely reported by the bilingualised dictionary group. The results also revealed that the participants in the bilingualised and the bilingual dictionary groups were more willing to consult their dictionaries when reading the text than the monolingual dictionary group. In fact, guessing the meaning from the context as well as using other strategies was more common for the monolingual dictionary group.

Keywords: Type of dictionary, dictionary use, vocabulary learning strategies

Introduction

English is an international language and a good command of this language is essential to function in the world. As English teachers are unavailable outside the classroom, learners need to find a reliable source to refer to when they encounter a

variety of problems related to English. Several studies (Cubillo, 2002; Ryu, 2006; Walz, 1990) identified dictionaries as a reliable source that provides learners with useful linguistic and cultural information, especially when teachers are unavailable and learners are responsible for their own learning. Huang (2003) considered dictionaries as useful, fairly common, and even necessary tools in language acquisition for EFL learners. It is an essential, if not the main source, of information on language for all literate individuals who have questions about the form, meaning, and the use of words in their first/second language (L1/L2) (Kirkness, 2004). A dictionary is a good educational tool for foreign language learners and it exists in different types: monolingual, bilingual or bilingualised. Baxter (1980), as well as Snell-Hornby (1987), suggest that their students use a monolingual dictionary. Atkins (1985) believes that learners prefer L2-L1 bilingual dictionaries because they satisfy their immediate needs. Laufer and Levitzcky-Aviad (2006) also emphasise the advantage of the bilingual dictionary.

Bilingualised (also called semi-bilingual dictionaries) are new developments. The bilingualised dictionary is a hybrid version in that it provides definitions and examples in L2 as presented in monolingual dictionaries and the equivalents in L1 as given in monolingual dictionaries (See Appendix A for a sample). Nakamoto (1995) stated that in these dictionaries, explanations in L2 are combined with L1 translation equivalents.

On the other hand, lexical competence covers a wide range of knowledge more than being able to define a word which in turn requires various strategies to achieve more complete knowledge. Foreign language learners may then use a variety of strategies to gain the target language word knowledge. According to Oxford (1990), learners take particular actions to make learning faster, more straightforward, more pleasurable, more self-directed, more efficient, and more transmissible to new situations, and these are called language learning strategies.

The present study was an investigation of the non-digital dictionary use and vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) used by EFL learners at elementary level of proficiency – as measured by *Oxford Placement Test (OPT)* – to see how they cope with new vocabulary items in reading tests. The results of studies about the relationship between the type of dictionary preferred and used by students and their use of VLSs would be of great concern to both teacher trainers and language teachers. Inappropriate dictionaries and inappropriate use of dictionaries can be destructive to learners' language proficiency in EFL context since learners may overuse the dictionary. Any dictionary is a special kind of reference source that will require some learner training to be used effectively.

Theoretical and Research Background

Second language learners' acquisition of vocabulary has been discussed in numerous studies (e.g., Henriksen, 1999; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Terrell, 1991) proposed the binding/access framework to illustrate the process of L2 learners' vocabulary acquisition. When L2 learners encounter a vocabulary item in a given context, they have to match the word's meaning with the form first in order to understand the meaning of the vocabulary item. In addition, Henriksen (1999)

proposed a three-dimensional model that is the partial-precise knowledge dimension, the depth of knowledge dimension, and the receptive-productive dimension for vocabulary acquisition. After the lexical network is built up, learners have to transfer the receptive items into productive ones. However, only a limited number of words that learners know receptively will become productive. Most lexical items initially enter the learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge, and may only subsequently become available for productive purpose. Moreover, some aspects of the learners' word knowledge may remain at the receptive level while some aspects become productive. Even though Henrickson's model indicates that vocabulary acquisition is a progressive continuum, another question arises: How does vocabulary acquisition happen? Paribakht and Wesche (1999) state that language learners' vocabulary acquisition takes place incidentally. This indicates that language learners' vocabulary learning is a by-product of other cognitive exercises that involve comprehension, such as listening, writing, and reading. However, there are also limitations of incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. Guessing the meaning from context is imprecise, time-consuming, and it might slow down the reading process in some cases.

In what follows, major studies on various dictionary types (monolingual, bilingual, bilingualised types) will be reviewed. The description of meaning, characteristics of a word's grammatical behavior, and the illustration of meaning and the syntactic use of a word with real language examples are three features of EFL monolingual dictionaries as mentioned by Stein (1989). He suggests monolingual dictionaries for advanced learners. Similarly, monolingual dictionaries are preferred by Koren (1997) because bilingual dictionaries do not apply meaning discriminations of equivalent translation well. Atkins (1985, p. 22 as cited in Zarei, 2010), describes the differences between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries metaphorically: "monolinguals are good for you (like whole meal bread and green vegetables); bilinguals (like alcohol, sugar and fatty foods) are not, though you may like them better." On the other hand, he mentions a drawback of monolingual dictionaries, based on students' perspectives in their interviews, namely, they have to consult more new words to work out the meaning because English definitions in monolingual learners' dictionaries are not easy to understand.

Some scholars such as Atkins and Varantola (1997) and Baxter (1980) believe that bilingual dictionaries are popular among learners at all levels and research supports their use for both reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. Knight (1994) notes that lower proficiency learners show improved reading comprehension by using bilingual dictionaries whereas according to Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996), learners of all proficiency levels can utilize them in order to learn vocabulary. Scholars like Atkins and Varantola (1997), Hulstijn (1993) and Knight (1994) point out that less proficient learners tend to use bilingual dictionaries to look up completely unfamiliar words, while advanced learners are more likely to use them to confirm their understanding of slightly known L2 lexical items.

On the other hand, Baxter (1980) indicated one of the criticisms of bilingual dictionaries is that they may contribute to a narrow view of language learning as being only a matter of one-to-one word translation. Prince (1996) also stated that learners with poor language proficiency who rely on translation are less able to

exactly transfer L1 information to L2 contexts. However, as Nation and Coady (2001) maintained, the issue here is not preventing the students from translation because learning L1 equivalents is a necessary and effective means for primary learning of new L2 vocabulary.

The use of bilingual dictionaries while reading and their effect on vocabulary learning was also investigated by Luppescu and Day (1993). They found that except for some trade-offs, like reducing reading speed and confusing the learners, particularly when there are a lot of entries under the headword among which they should choose, students' use of bilingual dictionary might have a beneficial effect on their vocabulary learning.

Hayati and Pourmohammadi's (2005) study on the impact of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries on intermediate EFL students' reading comprehension showed no significant difference between the performance of students using bilingual dictionary and those who used the monolingual one.

Nakamoto (1995) pointed out that bilingualised dictionaries eliminate the learners' need to jump from the bilingual to the monolingual. Raudaskoski (2002) compared Finnish senior secondary school students' use of the bilingual dictionary and the bilingualised one, and discussed the superiority of these kinds of dictionaries. He concluded that despite all the translation errors caused by poor use of the bilingualised dictionary and its index, the bilingualised dictionary users had better performance than the bilingual dictionary users. He pointed out that efficient dictionary use requires some preliminary skills and healthy attitudes towards dictionaries.

According to Laufer and Hadar (1997), primary research shows that bilingualised dictionaries help to improve the comprehension of target vocabulary better than other types for all levels of learners although advanced learners may do nearly as well using monolingual learner dictionaries. A further advantage is that the options provided by bilingualised dictionaries allow learners to apply their preferred look-up style. A study by Laufer and Kimmel (1997) involving Israeli high school learners found a variety in students' use of L1 or L2 information depending on the word being consulted and in their look-up preferences. Some preferred bilingual information, others preferred monolingual one, and still others used both types.

Both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries have their strong points and weak points for developing vocabulary knowledge. As a result, there is considerable interest in the new bilingualised dictionaries, which is the consolidation of the two paradigms.

To sum up, from the scholars' points of view, it is possible to state that students' problems in learning a foreign language in general and vocabulary items in particular is not necessarily because of students' lack of appropriate VLSs but their inability to choose and use appropriate VLSs. Therefore, a good knowledge of VLSs and the ability to apply them in suitable situations might considerably simplify the learning of new vocabularies.

Purpose of study

The following questions are addressed in the present study:

1. What vocabulary learning strategies do elementary EFL learners use to understand new vocabulary items in reading texts?
2. Is there any significant difference among the three experimental groups who are trained to use different types of dictionaries (monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualised) in terms of their vocabulary learning strategies?

The first research question is descriptive in nature. The following null hypothesis was formulated for the second research question:

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference among the three groups who use different types of dictionaries in terms of their vocabulary learning strategies.

Method

Participants

The participants were 75 randomly-selected female EFL learners studying in two language institutes at elementary level (defined as False Beginners in English) ranging from 12 to 20 years of age. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the three groups: the monolingual dictionary group, the bilingual dictionary group, and the bilingualised dictionary group, each consisting of 25 students.

The main criteria for the sample selection was their performance on OPT test. Based on the results of the OPT test, they were all at elementary level, scoring between 0 and 20 on the OPT test. None of the participants reported having contact with the target language seven or more hours per week.

Instruments and Materials

To accomplish the purpose of this study, four instruments and materials were used to collect the data.

Oxford Placement Test (OPT). This test, developed by Edwards (2007), was used as a pre-test to determine the proficiency level of the participants. The present study was concerned with the elementary level as a control variable. The only limitation of this test is that it does not apply to learners with proficiency levels higher than intermediate, but it can be a very useful test for elementary level participants. The cut-off score of 0-20 was set and 75 learners whose proficiency scores were within this range were selected as the main participants of the present study and were randomly divided into three groups (monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, and bilingualised dictionary groups).

Reading Test. A text appropriate for the participants' language level served as the reading passage. All selected target words were underlined in the text. It was adapted from an English website:
http://www.englishforeveryone.org/Topics/Reading-Comprehension.htm
The level of the test and the time needed for students to complete the reading were determined by using a readability formula.

Dictionaries. Three different types of dictionaries were used in this study: The monolingual dictionary, the bilingual dictionary and the bilingualised dictionary. The bilingualised dictionary is a hybrid dictionary (using both L1 and L2) which can conceivably bridge the gulf between the monolingual and the bilingual dictionaries. The three dictionaries available to the participants contained pages which defined the underlined words in the reading text.

Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire (VLSQ). The questionnaire (developed by Chin, 2001) contains several items regarding how the participants learn each selected vocabulary item. The learners were asked to indicate which strategy they used to learn the meaning of the new words by circling a number from 1) guessing from the context, 2) using a dictionary, 3) using other strategies (e. g., guessing, using dictionary, using cognates, etc.), to 4) learning the word beforehand. The questionnaire contains eight vocabulary items. The main idea was to test if the students who were trained to use three different types of dictionaries used these strategies and were familiar with them.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Out of 160 EFL learners who were studying English in two language institutes, 75 learners whose proficiency scores were within the range of 0 to 20 based on OPT manual were selected as the participants of the present study. They were randomly divided into three groups (monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualised groups).

As untrained users of dictionaries may encounter drawbacks such as unfamiliarity with the layout, unawareness of the phonemic script, and difficulty in getting the right meaning of a word according to the context, all participants were instructed on the functions of dictionary use in their respective groups for five sessions. They were taught the strategies for finding the entries and sub-entries. They also practised the changes of verbal tense, phonology, grammatical rules, collocation, word families, synonyms, antonyms, and any other information presented in the given dictionary.

The Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire (VLSQ) was translated into Persian in order to ensure the participants' understanding. Before administering the VLSQ, the reliability of the questionnaire was checked through running Cronbach's Alpha (r=0.723) in a pilot study with 15 EFL learners comparable to the participants of the main study.

A reading text was given to the three groups on the same day and the participants were required to finish the reading within the required time which was determined through a readability formula. Next, the VLSQ was administered to

investigate the participant' use of VLSs. The reliability of the VLSQ was also estimated for the researched groups through Cronbach's Alpha (r=0.775). The scores for the VLS items were analysed by computing the frequency, mean and standard deviation to identify the participants' preferred VLSs. This provided the answer to the first research question. For the second research question, Chi- Square was run in order to test the null hypothesis.

Results

As explained before, each group received instruction about dictionary use on the same terms with the help of the monolingual, bilingual, and bilingualised dictionary for five sessions. Afterwards, the participants were tested on eight terms and the specific VLSs used by each individual were examined and compared.

Types of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by EFL Learners

There were three types of learning strategies presented to the participants, namely, "guessing from the context", "using a dictionary" and "using other strategies" or alternately stating that they had "learned this word before". Table 1 shows that the vocabulary item "fortunately" seemed to be the easiest item for the learners since 24 participants reported that they had "learned its meaning before". On the other hand, the most difficult vocabulary item seemed to be "lean" which only 13 learners had learned before. Nearly 40 of the participants reported that they consulted their dictionaries for this word. The meanings of the words "flock" and "dependent" were guessed from the context by 32 participants. For the terms "assist" and "perform", 27 and 26 participants respectively claimed that they guessed the meanings from the context.

Table 1
Learning the meaning of the vocabulary item through guessing from the context

Vocabulary item	**Bilingualised dictionary (n=25)**		**Monolingual dictionary (n=25)**		**Bilingual dictionary (n=25)**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**
Perform	1	4	20	80	5	20
Fortunately	2	8	18	72	4	16
Assist	3	12	16	64	8	32
Lean	6	24	4	16	3	12
Assignments	1	4	17	68	6	24
Tray	1	4	15	60	9	36
Dependent	7	28	20	80	5	20
Flock	9	36	18	72	5	20

In order to obtain deeper insights about how the VLS use differed among the groups, the strategies used by the participants in each group were analysed. To this

end, the VLSs reported by the participants were analysed according to the type of dictionary that they used while reading the text (Table 1).

For the learners who received treatment in using bilingualised dictionaries, the vocabulary items "flock", and "dependent" were the easiest items, whose meaning were generated through guessing by 9 and 7 participants respectively (Table 1). About 80% of the participants in monolingual dictionary group reported that they learned these vocabulary items by guessing (80 % for "perform" and 80% for "dependent"). In addition, the term "tray" was the less difficult item for the participants in bilingual dictionary group as just 36% of the participants stated that they "found its meaning by guessing". Furthermore, the difficult vocabulary items for the bilingual dictionary group were "lean" (12% determined this by guessing), and "fortunately" (16% also by guessing).

In general, the percentage of "using a dictionary" was apparently higher for the most difficult vocabulary item (lean) than the less difficult and the easier items (tray, perform, and fortunately). For instance, Table 2 shows that only four participants (16%) in the bilingualised dictionary group and seven participants (28%) in the monolingual dictionary group reported that they used the dictionary for the word "tray", but only one participant (4%) in the monolingual group consulted the dictionary for "assist". Surprisingly none of the participants in the monolingual dictionary group reported the use of a dictionary for the words "perform" and "fortunately". This result indicated that the participants in the bilingualised dictionary and bilingual dictionary groups indeed were more eager to consult their dictionaries to solve their vocabulary problems while reading the text whereas the monolingual dictionary group was not so. Furthermore, in comparison to using a dictionary, guessing the meaning from context was more frequently used by the monolingual dictionary group, especially with the less difficult vocabulary items.

Table 2
Learning the meaning of the vocabulary item through using a dictionary

Vocabulary item	**Bilingualised dictionary (n=25)**		**Monolingual dictionary (n=25)**		**Bilingual dictionary (n=25)**	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**
Perform	6	24	0	0	7	28
Fortunately	6	24	0	0	8	32
Assist	5	20	1	4	7	28
Lean	12	48	13	52	13	52
Assignments	6	24	2	8	11	44
Tray	4	16	7	28	5	20
Dependent	8	32	3	12	6	24
Flock	8	32	3	12	5	20

In terms of "using other strategies" to find out the meaning of the words (Table 3), 24% of the learners in bilingualised dictionary group used other strategies for the words "assist" and "tray", 24% of the monolingual dictionary group made use

of other strategies for the words "lean" and "assignments" and 24% of the bilingual dictionary group used "other ways" to determine the meaning of "dependent".

Table 3
Learning the meaning of the vocabulary item through other strategies

Vocabulary item	Bilingualised dictionary (n=25)		Monolingual dictionary (n=25)		Bilingual dictionary (n=25)	
	F	%	F	%	f	%
Perform	3	12	2	8	5	20
Fortunately	4	16	2	8	3	12
Assist	6	24	2	8	3	12
Lean	4	16	6	24	1	4
Assignments	5	20	6	24	2	8
Tray	6	24	1	4	4	16
Dependent	3	12	1	4	6	24
Flock	3	12	1	4	4	16

The data collected from the three groups in terms of "knowing the meaning of the words beforehand" indicated that when a bilingual dictionary was available to the elementary EFL learners, it was one of the most preferred sources that they used to solve their vocabulary problems. In addition, nearly the same number of participants in each of these three groups made use of learning strategies other than those mentioned in the questionnaire while reading the text.

As the results indicated, the participants in the three groups used a variety of strategies to understand the vocabulary items in the text and learn the meaning of the vocabulary items being tested.

Relationship between Type of Dictionary Used and Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Table 4 presents the frequency of each learning strategy used by the participants in different groups. The results show that the participants in the bilingual dictionary group (n=62) and bilingualised dictionary group (n=54) preferred using a dictionary more than other types of VLSs whereas the monolingual dictionary group preferred to guess the meaning from the context (n=128). Among the three groups, the bilingual dictionary group was the most eager to use a dictionary to find out the meaning of the terms.

Moreover, the results of the analysis depicted that the participants had relatively different views towards using a specific type of learning strategy in the three groups. The participants in bilingualised dictionary group made the least use of "other strategies" (n=17). On the other hand, use of "other strategies" was more common for the monolingual dictionary group (n= 35).

Table 4
Frequency of learning strategies used by three dictionary groups

Learning strategy	Bilingualised dictionary (n=25)	Monolingual dictionary (n=25)	Bilingual dictionary (n=25)	Total
Guessing from the context	30	128	45	203
Using a dictionary	54	27	62	143
Other strategies	17	35	28	80
*I had learned this word before**	28	81	65	174

*This is not considered a strategy

In order to examine the second research question, a Chi-Square test was run to analyse the results of the vocabulary learning questionnaire for the three groups. The result of Chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant relationship between the types of VLSs used by elementary EFL learners and the type of dictionary used (monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, or bilingualised dictionary) ($p < .05$) (see Table 5).

Table 5
Chi-Square Test

	Value	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	128.190[a]	.000

To sum up, a significant relationship was found between the type of dictionary used and VLSs used, which means that the null hypothesis can be rejected; in fact, there is a significant relationship between the type of dictionary used and VLSs employed by elementary EFL learners.

Finally, the frequency of VLSs used by the three groups can be arranged in the following way: Guessed from context (203 times) > Used a dictionary (143 times) > Used other strategies (80 times).

Discussion

The findings suggested that there is a significant relationship between the type of dictionary and VLSs employed by EFL learners. These findings imply that elementary EFL learners' use of different dictionaries while reading contributed to their choice of different vocabulary learning strategies. Each type of dictionary helped EFL learners differently. Monolingual, bilingualised or bilingual dictionaries were restricted by both the type of information that they provided and, by the ways in which they represented this information.

The bilingual dictionary group consulted their dictionaries more frequently to solve their lexical problems than those in the monolingual and bilingualised dictionary groups. Unlike the bilingual dictionary group who could make use of their first language, the monolingual dictionary group could not make use of their native

language when working with their dictionaries. As the study indicated, since learners in monolingual group often faced difficulties with the vocabularies and had problems in understanding the meaning of a particular word, they preferred to guess the meaning from the context rather than use a monolingual dictionary. This is because of the nature of a monolingual dictionary itself, which defines words solely in the foreign language. Elementary level students who had low levels of language proficiency certainly had difficulty in understanding these definitions in the foreign language, and this in turn affected their choice of VLSs.

Another reason that might have prevented the participants of the monolingual dictionary group from using a dictionary and encouraged them to use guessing or other strategies is that they did not consider it necessary to look up the meanings of most target words. This is in line with Hulstijn (1997, p. 335) who found that monolingual users mostly do not look up difficult words because they do not perceive them as relevant in the context of their reading comprehension. Hence, although they had access to a dictionary, they did not take full advantage of it.

On the other hand, the ease of using a bilingual dictionary was the major reason for the bilingual group to use a bilingual dictionary frequently when they had to look up the words in the reading passage. Bejoint and Moulin (1987; cited in Hayati & Pourmohammadi, 2005) stated that bilingual dictionaries are ideal for quick consultation. Doing a comprehensive study including over 1000 learners in seven European countries, Bejoint and Moulin (1987) found that bilingual dictionaries were used by a majority of the students (75%).

Instead of using their monolingual dictionaries, the participants in the monolingual dictionary group tried other ways to solve their vocabulary problems, while those in the bilingual dictionary group primarily relied on their bilingual dictionaries. One reason for these results could be that the participants in the monolingual dictionary group could not completely infer the given definition in the dictionary due to their lack of knowledge or understanding of the words used in the definition, while the bilingual dictionary provided the participants with Persian translation for each vocabulary item. Therefore, they did not consider the monolingual dictionary as their only source to solve lexical problems and they guessed meanings from the context. In fact, the participants in the bilingual dictionary group preferred to rely on definitions given in their bilingual dictionary, and not to bother to use other strategies such as guessing the meaning from context or using English cognates. This supports Baxter's (1980) and Atkins' (1985) ideas that bilingual dictionaries are not as demanding for language learners as monolingual ones. Instead of providing language learners with the alternative words and usage of target lexical items, bilingual dictionaries give them an instant translation of target items. Therefore, learners depend on their bilingual dictionaries more than on their monolingual dictionaries in the process of acquiring vocabulary in the target language.

In monolingual dictionary group, "using context to guess the meaning" of the words in the reading passage was reported 128 times. This strategy was reported only 30 times by the participants in the bilingualised dictionary group and 45 times by the bilingual dictionary group. This may also imply that monolingual dictionary users possess the competence to guess from the context by practicing the

definition provided for them in monolingual dictionaries. The only disadvantage was that this took a lot of time, but the learners got used to it. Monolingual dictionaries are frequently used by advanced learners but in this study the one used for elementary users included a lot of information on grammar, usage, common errors, collocations, and so on.

Conclusion

These results revealed that the participants in the three groups had relatively different views towards using a specific type of learning strategy. Among the groups, the bilingual dictionary group was more eager to use a dictionary to find out the meaning of the terms and they used it more than other types of VLSs. The bilingualised dictionary group reported the least use of other strategies while guessing was rarely reported by the bilingualised dictionary group. The monolingual dictionary group also used their dictionaries less frequently than those in the bilingual dictionary group and tended to guess from the context.

The findings of this study revealed that elementary level learners of English have a variety of VLSs. Teachers' awareness of these strategies and different dictionaries along with their advantages and disadvantages can help them improve their teaching styles and choose more appropriate activities that can enhance their students' learning achievement. Thus, consulting a dictionary has the potential to be a productive strategy for L2 learners to acquire new vocabulary. Nonetheless, we should remain cautious about sending our students rushing off to buy a monolingual dictionary and getting on alone with it. Consulting dictionaries is just one of several strategies available to our students for efficient and effective coping with unfamiliar words encountered during reading.

Since the consultation of dictionary has a positive impact on vocabulary learning and reading development, students should be encouraged to use dictionary in a consistent and appropriate manner. The distinction between different kinds of dictionaries should also be clarified for the students. By suggesting an appropriate dictionary type, teachers can help their students to improve their lexical proficiency as effectively as possible and enhance their vocabulary learning. Moreover, using suitable dictionary types, students will be able to learn new entries quickly. This also increases students' abilities in comprehension and production of unknown words, and makes them more efficient EFL learners.

In order to encourage students to use monolingual dictionaries, teaching dictionary skills should always be integrated with instruction and dictionary use training should be given priority in English class. To prepare students to learn how to use dictionaries, syllabus designers should provide exercises which demand that learners think about and use the word meanings learned from the dictionary. In conclusion, as educators, rather than thinking of consulting a dictionary as a reference skill only to be used as a last resort during reading tasks, we need to consider it as a lexical processing strategy which, if used appropriately and judiciously, has the potential to promote our EFL students' reading comprehension and vocabulary learning (Fraser, 1999). Loucky (2006, p. 363) also

stated that "because of the proliferation of language-learning programs and websites, it becomes important to help define which most essential vocabulary and reading strategies should be included" in the programs.

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Appendix A: A Sample Entry in Various Dictionary Types

- *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (monolingual)

bequeath /bi'kwi: , bi'kwi: / v {T (to)} ml- to give to
others after death: Her collection of paintings was
bequeathed to the National Gallery when she died.
{+obj(i)+obj(d)} His father bequeathed him a fortune.

- *The Megiddo Modern Dictionary* (English-Hebrew)

bequeath vt *horish, hinchil*

- *Oxford Student Dictionary for Hebrew Speakers* (bilingualised)

bequeath 1 arrange (by making a will) to give (property, etc.) at death: He has bequeathed me his gold watch *lehorish*
2 hand down to those who come after: discoveries bequeathed to us by the scientists of the last century *lehanchil*