

**Recurrent multiword sequences in English as a foreign language in  
Indonesian undergraduate students' academic writing**

**Zulkifli Tanipu**

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**The University of Sheffield  
School of Languages and Culture**

**May 2023**

## Abstract

This study investigates recurrent multiword sequences RMS in English as a foreign language in Indonesian undergraduate students' academic writing. This study builds a bridge between the study of RMS and English foreign language teaching and learning at university level, where RMS are seen as indicators of learning and the development of writing fluency. The study includes three analytical perspectives: a cross-sectional corpus-based analysis of RMS in students' writing as a measure of academic register learning; a content analysis of the learning and teaching materials used with current cohorts of students with a view to establishing whether materials provided enough content about RMS or other linguistic expressions to help students compose their academic work; and interviews with stakeholders in the learning and teaching process (students, academic writing lecturers, head of department) to gain insight into institutional teaching and learning practices and thereby explain and contextualise the corpus analysis.

The corpus data analysis followed Biber et al. (1999)'s model and comprised RMS frequency and distribution analyses, as well as the analysis of RMS structural features, and their discourse functions. The findings of corpus data analyses revealed that both first and final year students use only a small number of fewer distinct types of RMS. In addition, the analysis results show that only a minority of students in both groups were able to produce longer RMS (e.g., *as cited in reference, is one of the*). The structural and functional analyses of the RMS used by students show that there is very limited structural and functional variety in their repertoire of RMS. From the point of view of writing development, these results might indicate problems in students' capacity for English proficiency, particularly in terms of complexity and fluency. These results also suggest that there have not been immediate effects of academic writing courses on the development of RMS for both groups of students.

The content analysis of the learning and teaching materials results show that both subjects (YEAR1 Intensive Course IC and YEAR4 Writing for Academic Purposes) do not provide explicit writing instruction or appropriate materials to enable students to improve academic writing proficiency through practice. Notably vocabulary and structural phenomena that could, with practice, stabilise into fluency-enhancing RMS are missing. If relevant vocabulary and structural phenomena were

taught without being referenced in the materials, this teaching must be characterised as ineffective because these structures are not reflected in the students' use of RMS.

The analysis results of interviews show that despite the differences in their respective perspectives, students, lecturers, and the head of the department agreed that there were problems in the teaching and learning process and learning outcomes of English for academic purposes at the university, in particular for academic writing. This appears to support the findings of the linguistic analyses and the content analysis of teaching and learning materials. The problem of a lack of development and a lack of routinisation of writing for the majority of students, as reflected in the use of RMS in academic writing cannot be separated from the existence of difficulties they encountered in learning academic writing, which appear to be substantially influenced by institutional practices and policy that determine the shape of learning and teaching materials, the assignment of teachers to learner groups, and the delivery of teaching academic writing in class.

Considering the results of all data analyses, this study concludes with the pedagogical implications in which the materials of RMS and their use in the learning process, particularly in EFL classrooms, should be explicitly introduced, implemented, and developed in EAP materials. This study concludes that incorporating RMS into teaching and learning processes should be considered a solution to increase students' understanding of linguistics concepts and language skills. The analysis results from this current study further strengthen the importance of the inclusion and integration of RMS in EFL teaching and learning activities.

## **Acknowledgements**

With great pleasure, I express my deepest gratitude to all wonderful people who have made significant contributions to the completion of this thesis and the attainment of this academic milestone. I wish to sincerely thank my PhD supervisor, Dr Nicole Baumgarten, for providing me with the opportunity to study and work under her guidance. I am most grateful for her inspiring wealth of knowledge, solid advice, and invaluable guidance that she shared during my time working on this project. All her efforts in helping me to cope with times of difficulties, particularly in the unprecedented circumstance during the lockdown are most appreciated.

I would also like to extend my gratitude to my co-supervisor, Dr Lena Hamaidia, for her academic support, constructive ideas, helpful comments, advice and motivation throughout all these years. A special thanks to Claire Leavitt, Caroline Wordley, and all SLC staff for their academic supports and invaluable technical helps during my study. I would like to thank my sponsor, the Indonesian Endowment Fund for Education LPDP and the Department of English Education, Faculty of Letters and Culture, the State University of Gorontalo, whose grants and recommendations made this work possible.

I wish to say thank all PhD students on the second floor Jessop West, Pete, Valentina, Israel, Katy, Harriet, Tom, and Amanda, for the warm welcome and great friendship I received and will always remember. It was an amazing experience to work alongside these wonderful people, and I hope we can collaborate again in the future.

I wish to thank my parents, Arifin Tanipu, Mintje Daud, Sjahrir Hannanu, and Elly Wahyudin, for their prayers and for always giving me the best to chase my dreams. To my second parents in the UK, Aunt Veronica and Uncle Dennis, for giving us a home to visit, delicious food and fun trips every holiday. A big hug and thanks to my brothers and sisters, Zulkarnain, Nuryatni, Fiqar, Lia, Fabrice, Rien, Iffan and Alya, for the laugh and late-night talks. I also want to thank Micky and Steve for their countless help and support during my research and thesis revision process. For my brothers, Bang Daus, Okky, Eja, Dedi, I cannot thank you enough for the wonderful memories we have shared in UK. Finally, I would like to thank my beloved and wonderful wife Lia and my

beloved and lovely son Ariendra for accompanying me on this journey. It has been the happiest years of my life, and without your endless love and support, none of this would have ever been possible.

## **Glossary**

AWL	: Academic Word List
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
EFL	: English as Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESL	: English as Second Language
HoD	: The Head of the Department
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
LB	: Lexical Bundles
LGSWE corpus	: Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English corpus.
MoI	: Medium of Instruction
RMS	: Recurrent Multiword Sequences
TEFL	: Teaching English as Foreign Language
TESOL	: Teaching English as Second Language
TL	: Target Language
SL	: Source Language
WAP	: Writing for Academic Purposes

## Table of Contents

Cover Page .....	i
Abstract .....	ii
Acknowledgement .....	iv
Glossary .....	vi
Table of Contents .....	vii
List of Tables and Figures.....	xii
 <b>Chapter 1 Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
Background of study.....	1
Research question .....	7
Aims of study .....	8
Outline of the thesis .....	8
 <b>Chapter 2 Overview of English Language Teaching and Learning in Asia.....</b>	<b>10</b>
Introduction .....	10
Overview of ESL and EFL.....	10
ESL and EFL in language teaching context .....	12
Problems on EFL in Asian context .....	15
Problems on proficiency .....	15
Problems on teaching and learning process .....	16
Problems relating to EFL in Indonesia .....	18
Best practices of EFL .....	22
Government policy point of view .....	22
English language teaching point of view .....	24
Concluding remarks .....	25
 <b>Chapter 3 Recurrent Multi-Word Sequences, Language Learning, and Foreign Language Teaching.....</b>	<b>30</b>

Introduction .....	30
The Nature of recurrent multiword sequences .....	31
The characteristics of recurrent multiword sequences .....	33
Recurrent multiword sequences in L1 use .....	38
RMS in academic registers at university .....	39
The significance of RMS for foreign learners' academic writing .....	40
The significance of RMS in second and foreign language learning .....	41
The use of RMS in second and foreign language learning .....	41
Reasons for focusing on EFL in Indonesia as the context of the study .....	42
Challenges encountered by EFL learners in learning and using RMS .....	43
RMS in English foreign language teaching and learning.....	44
Studies on the use of RMS, and RMS as indicators of L2 development .....	47
Concluding remarks .....	48
 <b>Chapter 4 Research Methodology .....</b>	<b>50</b>
Introduction .....	50
Research design .....	50
Research site and participants .....	51
Research site .....	51
Research participants .....	52
Data confidentiality measures .....	54
Data Collection and instruments .....	54
Corpus data.....	54
Teaching and learning materials.....	55
Interview data .....	55
Data analysis procedure.....	55
Corpus data analysis .....	55
Corpus data set used in this study.....	56
Identification of RMS.....	58
Analysis of teaching and learning materials.....	60
Interview data analysis .....	61



Concluding remarks.....	61
<b>Chapter 5 RMS in EFL Students' Academic Writing.....</b>	<b>62</b>
Introduction .....	62
Frequency of RMS .....	64
General Description RMS Frequency .....	64
Frequency counts of the most frequent RMS from both YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.....	68
Summary.....	72
RMS distribution in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.....	74
RMS distribution in YEAR1 and YEAR4 corpora .....	75
RMS distribution according to the placement in the sections of academic writing .....	77
YEAR1 corpus.....	77
YEAR4 corpus.....	78
Summary.....	80
RMS structural and functional Analysis.....	80
RMS structural classification .....	81
RMS structural classification of YEAR1 and YEAR4 Groups.....	81
RMS functional classification .....	86
RMS functional classification of YEAR1 and YEAR4 Groups.....	89
Summary .....	95
Concluding remarks.....	96
<b>Chapter 6 Analysis of Teaching and Learning Materials .....</b>	<b>97</b>
Introduction .....	97
YEAR1 teaching and learning materials .....	97
Course overview .....	97
The materials and teaching guidelines .....	99
The analysis of RMS in the Intensive Course books.....	105
RMS frequency in Intensive Course books .....	106
The most frequent RMS in Intensive Course books.....	108

YEAR4 teaching and learning materials .....	116
Course overview .....	117
The materials and teaching guidelines .....	118
Concluding remarks.....	127
<b>Chapter 7 Analysis of Interview .....</b>	<b>129</b>
Introduction .....	129
Students' interviews .....	131
Learning RMS or useful phrases or language expressions.....	134
Learning experiences in class .....	135
Learning experiences outside class .....	137
Plan after graduating.....	138
Lecturers' interviews .....	140
Teaching experiences at the university level .....	140
Teaching experiences in the classroom setting .....	142
Experiences/opinions about teaching and learning RMS .....	144
Problems in teaching RMS .....	146
Suggestions for the improvement.....	149
Head of department's interview .....	149
The decision-making process of curriculum and teaching and learning .....	149
Writing for Academic Purposes .....	152
Intensive Course .....	154
Concluding remarks.....	158
<b>Chapter 8 Summary of Findings and General Discussion .....</b>	<b>160</b>
<b>Introduction</b> .....	160
Aims of the study.....	161
Major Findings and General Discussions .....	162
Research question one: frequencies and distributions of RMS as the indications of students' writing development .....	164
RMS frequency.....	164

RMS Distribution across students and within texts .....	165
Research question two: structural classifications of RMS that help students in writing their texts.....	168
Research question three: functional category of RMS that help students in writing their texts.....	170
Research questions four: analysis of RMS in teaching and learning materials to determine whether the materials provide RMS for students .....	171
Research questions five: interviews to discover the perceptions of the EFL teaching and learning process at the university .....	173
Students' interviews .....	174
Lecturers' interviews .....	176
The head of the department's interview .....	177
Concluding remarks.....	181
<b>Chapter 9 Limitations, Implications, Recommendations .....</b>	<b>182</b>
Introduction .....	182
Limitations of this study .....	183
Pedagogical implications of this study .....	185
Recommendations for further studies.....	187
Closing remarks .....	188
<b>References .....</b>	<b>190</b>
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>207</b>
Appendix A: YEAR1 data set of the most and the least frequent RMS.....	207
Appendix B: YEAR4 data set of the most and the least frequent RMS .....	225

## **List of Tables and Figures**

### **List of Tables**

Table 4.1. Original texts' information .....	56
Table 4.2. Alteration on corpus data .....	57
Table 4.3. Corpus information.....	58
Table 5.1 List of 15 most frequent RMS used by YEAR1 and YEAR4 students based on frequency of RMS tokens .....	69
Table 5.2 Hyland's Functional Categories of RMS .....	87
Table 5.3 Functional classification of lexical bundles in academic prose – AFL .....	88
Table 6.1 the structure and contents of Intensive Course of English student's Books .....	100
Table 6.2 The general information of corpora of IC Textbooks .....	106
Table 6.3. Top 10 RMS based on frequency counts in the intensive course textbooks.....	109
Table 6.4. Top 10 RMS of writing materials based on frequency counts in the intensive course textbooks.....	113
Table 6.5 Course outline of writing for academic purposes subject .....	118

### **List of Figures**

Figure 5.1 RMS types of YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.....	66
Figure 5.2 RMS tokens of YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.....	67
Figure 5.3 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in both sub-corpora.....	75
Figure 5.4 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in the YEAR1 corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing .....	78
Figure 5.5 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in the final year corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing .....	79
Figure 5.6 structural classification of RMS types in YEAR1 group .....	82
Figure 5.7 structural classification of RMS types in YEAR4 group .....	83
Figure 5.8 functional classification of RMS types in YEAR1 group .....	90
Figure 5.9 functional classification of RMS types in YEAR4 group .....	91

Figure 6.1. RMS types of Intensive Course textbooks .....	107
Figure 6.2. RMS tokens of Intensive Course textbooks .....	108

## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

Regardless of the specific nature and scope of the elements that impact the success of English at the university level has been a source of continual dispute, the notion that academic writing is the key to success is no longer a source of debate. Academic writing has evolved into a skill that students at the university level must master. It has become one of the prerequisites for success that must be met, particularly by students learning English as a foreign language (EFL), in order to be able to participate and succeed in the academic world (Bailey, 2014; Chang & Kuo, 2011; Gilquin et al., 2007). The ability to write well in an academic way is crucial for academic achievement and is essential for learning across disciplines. Mastering skill, competence, and proficiency in academic writing has been vital and provided students capital, power, and agency in knowledge building, identify formation, disciplinary practices, social positioning, and career advancement (Fang, 2021).

In order to be successful in writing, particularly in an academic context, it is necessary to meet several criteria, including mutual intelligibility, compliance with academic writing standards, and, in particular, the use of appropriate vocabulary suitable to the academic context, which is distinct from other genres. Using language in the context of academic writing entails more than merely selecting the most relevant vocabulary for the topics being written. Broader concerns include the employment of specialised language, the utilisation of multi-word sequences, modalities, passive construction, attribution and citation, as well as the writers' attitude toward the texts to be written (Hundt et al., 2016; Hyland, 1999b; Hyland & Tse, 2007; Liu, 2012). In other words, the ability to write well academically has become one of the most important requirements for success in English, necessitating an understanding of all components and concepts that underpin the construction of an academic text.

It is vital to note that the importance of academic writing for university students has implications for their learning experience at the university, particularly for lecturers and English language teachers. In higher education, one of the most essential things for English lecturers to accomplish is to identify the most effective strategies and means of assisting students in improving the quality of their academic writing skills as suggested by Cortes (2004: 421) and Chen and Baker (2010). While this is crucial for increasing English language skills

in general, it is also important for students to succeed in an English-writing academic setting, which is why it is necessary for the university lecturers to do so. In addition, good academic writing skills are essential for university students, especially for those studying in study programs that prepare candidates for English language teachers in later schools. Good academic writing abilities are possibly the most important asset for teacher candidates to possess in order to utilise and teach them to students when they teach English in schools ranging from elementary to secondary levels. This process should be carried out properly in order to provide the greatest possible outcomes, both for students currently enrolled at the university and, even more importantly, for prospective teachers who will be teaching English in the future.

As indicated in the opening paragraph, the part of English that requires the most attention from the lecturers is vocabulary, which must be addressed over the period of the learning process. Efforts to identify and provide lexical items or multi-word combinations that are valuable for students to subsequently employ in the teaching and learning process should receive more attention from English lecturers and teachers. In order to improve their academic writing abilities, students at the university level might need pedagogic assistance that is specifically tailored to their needs. This is due to the fact that academic multi-word combinations have different structures and serve a range of pragmatic objectives that are distinct from those found in daily conversations, newspapers, or literary works (Biber et al., 1999). In addition to having certain characteristics that distinguish them from other multi-word units, academic multi-word combinations possess unique properties (Hyland, 2008a). They are useful to structure a discourse by guiding readers through it (e.g., *see the next section*) or by linking ideas (e.g., *is due to the, in contrast to*). By using them correctly, the writers are able to show their disciplinary competence and allows them to exhibit solidarity with their peers. As a result, the unique properties of the academic multi-word combinations contribute to the formation of text meaning and sense of identity within a register (Hyland, 2008b).

One strategy that might be an option is to introduce and teach recurrent multi-word sequences RMS to students from an early age to be used in the learning process of academic writing. The process of introducing RMS to students might use the Academic Word List for pedagogical purposes which has been compiled by Coxhead (2000) as one of the options for teaching and learning materials for academic writing. The teaching and learning materials for academic writing should be referred to the results of studies that in line with the development of pedagogical needs (e.g., Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010; Hyland, 2012). The RMS are

considered to be beneficial for students learning to write academically since it takes into account a wide variety of academic vocabulary that is frequently used to aid teachers in selecting and teaching academic words to learners. Students are intended to be introduced to more academic words as a result of this introduction. Furthermore, they will employ the academic multi-word combinations on a regular and consistent basis in their academic writing, such as academic essays, papers, and even undergraduate theses.

The significance of multi-word sequences in academic writing has been studied extensively, particularly in academic writing. Throughout its development, several large-scale studies on multi-word combinations, particularly those based on corpus, have been conducted. These investigations enable the identification of unique linguistic patterns of multi-word sequences. (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Byrd and Coxhead, 2010; Cortes, 2006; Hyland, 2008b; Martinez and Schmitt, 2012; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis 2010; Wood and Appel, 2014). Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) conducted a study on the usage of multi-word combinations and formulaic sequences in academic writing, while Liu (2012) and Wood and Appel (2012) conducted research on the construction of multi-word combinations. Multi-word combinations such as lexical bundles and recurrent multi-word sequences have been considered as essential characteristics of academic discourse (Hyland, 2012). For example, the RMS quoted from the Hyland's research (*it should be noted that*) in the text serves as a marker that the text is an academic register (see Hyland, 2008b). Accordingly, Biber et al. (2004) also found that RMS *on the other hand* is the most common RMS in academic writing. This RMS based on a functional analysis is included in the category of a discourse organizer. Discourse organizing RMS function "to indicate the overall discourse structure and to signal the informational status of statements" (Biber et al., 2004:9). These studies have directly contributed to the expansion of knowledge about patterns, constructions, and the important role of multi-word sequences in academic writing.

In relation to the pedagogical aspect, previous studies have provided opportunities for academic writing teachers to know the important role of RMS in writing academic texts. These studies also help English teachers to access materials and resources that can be used in the teaching and learning process of English, especially writing for academic purposes. Several studies that encourage the integration of RMS in the process of learning English such as Tang (2012), Kazemi et al. (2014), Wood and Appel (2014), and many other studies (e.g., (Biber, 2009; Lin, 2013; Schmitt, 2010; Wray, 2000, 2013) actually have the same conclusion. They suggested



that the introduction of multi-word sequences might play a prominent role in language learning and language use. It is also argued that recurrent multiword sequences (RMS) have been considered as markers of L2 development (Baumgarten, 2014) and a marker of proficient language use of a particular register, including academic writing in regards with their use in language production (Bamberg, 1983; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortez, 2004; McCulley, 1985). In essence, it is suggested that language learning processes which focuses on integration and the introduction of multi-word sequences can increase students' language awareness and improve their writing skills.

Despite the importance of RMS in helping students composing their academic writing, the integration of RMS into the teaching and learning process needs to be done carefully by considering several facts. On the one hand, the previous studies have suggested that the RMS are very important and the teachers have been very keen to integrate the study of RMS into teaching and learning activities in class. On the other hand, students might be exposed to a wide variety of RMS, which might provide an issue, particularly when it comes to selecting the most appropriate RMS for each individual student. Another point to consider is that many English teachers, particularly EFL teachers, have difficulty gaining access to authentic RMS materials, which might be one of the causes impeding the integration process of RMS studies into classroom teaching. For example, many EFL teachers including lecturers in Indonesia continue to use the Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (McIntosh et al., 2009) as a reference for teaching vocabulary for EFL learners. On the one hand, since this dictionary comprises the most commonly used word combinations in British and American English, it offers collocations that students may utilise in English communications. On the other hand, the large number of dictionary entry lists reaching 250,000-word combinations and 9,000 noun, verb and adjective collocations makes the process of selecting multi-word sequences much more problematic. This circumstance makes teachers hampered in their efforts to select the most appropriate multi-word sequences to teach their students. As a result, students find it difficult to understand and master the material as a whole.

In addition, many books utilised by EFL students fail to provide adequate learning resources for enhancing their English proficiency. Research by Koprowski (2005) pointed out that over a quarter of the multi-word sequences in ELT textbooks have only a limited impact on enhancing the competency of EFL learners' English language skills. Moreover, the materials in academic writing textbooks do not provide adequate RMS for EFL learners to acquire when

they are practicing on improving their academic writing abilities (Jones and Haywood, 2004). In their research, Jones and Haywood even suggested that English teachers should actively develop materials that can provide academic multi-word combinations that students will use in their academic writings due to the fact that textbooks are not sufficient to provide material for students. The material that will be compiled by these teachers should also be equipped with a method of use so that students are not only exposed to knowledge about academic word lists, but most importantly, they know how to use those word-combinations in their academic writing.

The various phenomena described above also occur in Indonesia as one of the English as foreign language EFL countries. Concerning the Indonesian context, academic writing has recently become an indicator of the success of university students. Students are not only required to write an undergraduate thesis as the ultimate phase of their learning process. They are also starting to be required to have scientific publications, which require academic writing skills to complete the writing of the scientific publication manuscript. Many students will also become English teachers who will teach English to high school students in Indonesia. Their status as prospective teachers of English certainly requires them to have academic writing skills as one of the skills they will use when preparing teaching materials and teaching English language materials. Therefore, the introduction to RMS into the teaching and learning process might become the answer to help them do it.

Despite the advantages of RMS, there has been very little success in incorporating RMS into language teaching (Alali & Schmitt, 2012; Hyland, 2012). The implementation of teaching multi-word sequences is still facing challenges dealing with the classroom setting, teaching methods, and students' attitudes (Meunier & Granger, 2008). Therefore, taking the important roles of multi-word sequences in language learning, comprehension, and production as the baseline of thoughts (Biber, 2009; Lin, 2013; Schmitt, 2010; Wray, 2002), this study is investigating the use of RMS in English language teaching and learning context and in university register.

One of the considerations that underlies the importance of this current study is the fact that in the sphere of research into English for academic purposes in Indonesia, only a few research have addressed RMS or lexical bundles, especially in the EFL students' academic writing and EFL teaching materials at the university level, despite the fact that they are prevalent (see

Budiwiyanto & Suhardijanto, 2020a, 2020b; Saeful Haq et al., 2021; Yuliawati et al., 2020). Most studies on RMS in Indonesia focus on identifying the use of RMS in different registers. Not many studies have attempted to find the background or factors that influence the use of RMS in different registers, including matters relating to the way EFL writers in Indonesia get exposure to RMS. In fact, by knowing the factors that influence the use of RMS, steps to improve writing skills through the introduction of RMS can be carried out as early as possible.

From the aforementioned arguments and explanations, it is possible to draw a few conclusions. First and foremost, academic writing is a skill that university students must acquire if they are to be successful in their academic endeavours as well as in their interactions and participation in the academic community. The second point to consider is that in order to generate effective academic writing, students should be encouraged and trained to utilise RMS, particularly for academic writing. The third point is that in the context of Indonesia, English academic writing skill has been one of the indicators of academic achievement at the university level. The fourth point is that there have not been many studies on RMS and their relations with EFL teaching and learning, especially in universities. In contrast, the RMS are important markers for academic registers, and the integration of RMS studies into English teaching and learning can enhance the learning of register-specific writing. The fifth point is that it is necessary to have a comprehensive study that investigates the use of RMS and the factors that might influence the use of RMS.

On the basis of these considerations, this study investigates the RMS in academic writing by EFL undergraduate students in one Indonesian university. While the previous studies on recurrent multiword sequences, lexical bundles, or formulaic languages have only focused on corpus analysis (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Wray, 2002; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2004; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010), this current study integrated the content analysis of teaching and learning materials used by EFL undergraduate students. The learning materials were analysed from a content perspective to give insight into what materials are taught to students and whether teaching and learning materials provide the materials of RMS that might help students in compiling their academic writing. It is essential considering that the use of RMS in students' academic writing cannot be separated from the language exposure during teaching and learning process they have experienced. This study also analysed the interview data. Interviews with stakeholders were conducted to gain insight into institutional teaching and learning practices and thereby to explain and contextualise the corpus analysis.

## 1.2 Research questions

A number of studies have supported the notion that multi-word sequences play a significant role in both language learning and language use, as indicated in the preceding part of this chapter (see. Tang, 2012; Kazemi et al, 2014; Wood and Appel, 2014). Concerning their use in language production, recurrent multiword sequences (RMS) have been considered as markers of L2 development (Baumgarten, 2014) and a marker of proficient language use of a particular register, including academic writing (Bamberg, 1983; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortez, 2004; McCulley, 1985). The RMS are widely regarded as instruments for identifying the distinctiveness of linguistic patterns and the communication functions that help to construct registers (Barbieri, 2018). It has been shown that the appropriate and regular use of multi-word sequences has a favourable impact on the competence of L2 users to utilise language based on its context, both in terms of correctness and variety of expression (Biber et al., 1999; Lin, 2016, Millar, 2011).

Despite the numerous benefits of RMS, there has been limited success in introducing RMS into language education programmes (Alali & Schmitt, 2012; Hyland, 2012). The implementation of teaching multi-word sequences is still fraught with difficulties due to issues with the classroom settings, learning environment, instructional techniques, teaching methods, and students' attitudes. (Meunier & Granger, 2008). Therefore, taking the important roles of multi-word sequences in language learning, comprehension, and production as the baseline of thoughts (Biber, 2009; Lin, 2013; Schmitt, 2010; Wray, 2002), this study is investigating the use of RMS in English language teaching and learning context and in university register. In regards to the topic of my research, the RMS in academic discourse especially university students' writing and to the purpose of describing the advantages of multi-word sequences for foreign language learners, this study also covers pedagogical context of research in relations to the implication of this research towards the teaching and learning process at the university level.

As a result of these phenomena, this study addressed these following research questions:

1. What are the frequencies and distributions of RMS in students' academic writing?
2. What are the structural classifications of RMS in students' academic writing?
3. What are the functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing?
4. How far do the teaching and learning materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing?
5. How is the EFL teaching and learning process at the university?

### **1.3 Aims of the study**

This study is expected to contribute to the study on RMS and its relationship with English as a foreign language EFL teaching and learning. To achieve it, this study did not measure the EFL students' mastery level of RMS, rather, this study attempted to discover the phenomenon of RMS use in EFL students' academic writing in Indonesia. It was carried by firstly identifying the most commonly occurring RMS (RMS frequency) and the distribution of RMS in the academic writing of YEAR1 and YEAR4 students, and analysing the structural features and functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing.

Having briefly reviewed the previous studies of the use of RMS which more focused on the corpus analysis, I decide to extend the scopes of analyses that had been covered in the previous studies of RMS. Therefore, as part of its investigation at how EFL students employ RMS in their academic writing, this study also looks at the teaching and learning materials. The content review analysis was used to gather information on what students learnt and if the teaching and learning materials offered adequate information and materials about RMS or other language expressions that might help students in composing their academic writing. This study also included an analysis of the interview data. Data analysis interviews were undertaken in order to obtain insight into institutional teaching and learning practises and, as a result, to explain and contextualise the corpus analysis.

These all analyses were necessary in order to have comprehensive information in regards to the fact that students in the university in which this study took place are going to be the pre-service teachers of English in Indonesia. For the reason that RMS are linked to the fluent and natural production of foreign language, this study would attempt to highlight the pedagogical approach that might help the lecturers and teachers of English in Indonesia to be able to integrate the study of RMS into EFL teaching and learning by focusing on the area of the use of RMS in academic writing at university level.

### **1.4 Outline of the thesis**

The nine chapters of this thesis are organised as follows: The context of the study, research questions and research objectives, as well as the thesis outline, are all covered in Chapter 1, the introduction. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 covers the review on English Language Teaching and Learning ELT in Asia. The chapter presents the concept of English as Second Language ESL and English as foreign language EFL in language teaching context, current problems on EFL in Asian context especially in Indonesia, and current models or

practices of Teaching English as Foreign Language TEFL. Chapter 3 describes the relevant theoretical framework by providing discourse in recurrent multi-word sequences RMS, the implementation of RMS in English language teaching and learning context and university context. The overview relevant studies on these areas will also be discussed.

Chapter 4 discusses the research design, research site and participant, data collection and instruments, and data analysis of the corpus that specifically constructed for this study. This chapter takes into account three phases of analyses involved in this study. After processing the data, the phase 1 involved the analyses of the use of RMS in students' academic writing. It was then followed by the phase 2 that involved the analyses of teaching and learning documents. The last phase, phase 3 involved the analyses of interviews with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The results of all phases of analyses are then presented in chapter 5.

Chapter 5 presents the results of analyses in phase 1. The phase 1 covered the analyses of RMS frequency and distribution (to answer research question one), the analysis of RMS' structural features (to answer research questions two), and the analysis of RMS' functional classifications (to answer research question three). Moreover, the results of analyses phase 2 are presented in chapter 6. The analyses involved the analyses of teaching and learning documents (to answer research question four). The final phase of analyses, phase 3 is presented in chapter 7. It involved the analyses of interviews (to answer research question five).

The overview of the primary findings of the current study is discussed in detail in Chapter 8 of this thesis. There are three separate data sets analysed in this summary, including RMS analysis of students' academic writing, RMS analysis of teaching and learning papers, and interview data analysis. The summary presents the findings from each of these data sets. The results of the study, as well as the primary findings, are provided in order to address research questions one through five. Following the review of the study's limitations, Chapter 9 goes into depth about the study's consequences, including pedagogical implications, and offers recommendations for further studies.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Overview of English Language Teaching and Learning in Asia**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Since English has been spoken by millions of speakers both native and non-native around the globe, at the same time, questions about the status of English whether as a second language ESL or a foreign language EFL has emerged. Does the ESL and EFL exist or are they only terms in English language teaching ELT literature? Are they still different as a dichotomy? If they are distinct, how can their differences affect the process and achievement of English teaching and learning? The other questions related to this topic are: “how is the development English recently?” and “How is the contextual progress in Asia as the largest region that has the most emerging growth of non-native English learners and speakers?” The answers to these questions will be discussed in this chapter. Regarding English language teaching, this chapter also discusses the problems related to ELT in Asia and Southeast Asia ASEAN, Indonesia in particular as the country with a rapid growth of English learners and speakers. Regarding the issues, this chapter also displays models of ELT system in Asia as well as criticises the provided models because most of them are only ESL based and suitable for ESL context that cannot be adopted in specific regions with distinctive characteristics such as Indonesia as an EFL country.

#### **2.2 Overview of ESL and EFL**

As a global language, the function and position of English in the lives of its speakers have been called into question, regardless of whether English is spoken as a second language or as a foreign language. This question has arisen because experts have shown that these two forms of English are controversial and sometimes mistaken with one another (Tripathi, 1998). Some researchers assert that these phenomena occur, however others believe that ESL and EFL are regularly used in the ELT literature. To put it another way, this does not exist in the real circumstance (Ho Wah, 2004). ESL and EFL are only names used to identify them in locations or regions outside of the “homeland of English”, where English is not spoken as the first language or mother tongue, but rather as a second or foreign language. They are also difficult to describe and are influenced by the attitudes of users toward language (Greenbaum, 1996), which complicates the situation considerably. To evaluate if English is a second or a foreign language, it is critical to analyse characteristics of political, social, cultural, and economic ideologies (Rahman, 2007) in order to decide whether English is a second or a foreign language particularly in Asia.

On the other hand, the concept of differentiating between ESL and EFL is prevalent, particularly in the field of language education (Broughton et al., 1980; Chee Jan 2010). They advocate for English language teaching and learning using these concepts, despite the fact that the two learning environments - ESL and EFL - are fundamentally opposed. The phrase ESL refers to the *Outer Circle* defined by Kachru (1985; 1992). English is used as a supplementary institutionalised and official language, but not as a mother tongue in the country, as is the case in most countries. “Furthermore, the ESL is described as a language that is extensively used in social contact, and at the same time, learners of English must study the language in order to survive on a day-to-day basis in their own environments” (Richards & Renandya, 2002 p. 1). The learners learn English in an English-speaking environment, and they must be able to comprehend and communicate in English outside of the classroom. Overall, English plays an important role or has a special status in the context of ESL, whether it is used as a medium of instruction in education, a dominant working language, or as an official language, as is the case in countries such as India, Malaysia, and Singapore, where English is the second language.

Meanwhile, the EFL refers to English as a foreign language in a way that is similar to the Expanding Circle articulated by Kachru (1985; 1992), where English is referred to as a foreign language. EFL is defined as the use or study of the English language by non-native speakers in places where English is not the native language or the primary language of instruction (Nordquist, 2017). According to Scrivener (2005), English is practically never used outside of the classroom or in public in the EFL setting. It may be taught as a subject in schools but has limited applications in society at large (Richards & Renandya, 2002). It is solely taught in order to provide learners with a sequence of foreign language competences that may be utilised later in order to get access to foreign language information and knowledge. EFL can also be utilised in an academic or educational environment to teach certain subjects at educational institutions such as schools, colleges, and universities. EFL is utilised either as a medium of education in specific subjects or as a tool for students to learn from various students’ textbooks in general. EFL may be associated with those who work in the tourist industry, as well as with some parts of the government service (Richards, 1985, p.3). As an alternative, EFL has addressed the possibility of an “additive bilingual scenario”, in which the addition of a second language is unlikely to supplant, displace, or otherwise alter the first language or culture (Lambert, 1990). In an English as a foreign language setting, the students learn English within a classroom but continue to speak their native language outside of the classroom.



### **2.3 ESL and EFL in language teaching context**

Many scholars in the field of English language teaching ELT (e.g., Broughton et al., 1980; Richards, 1990; Nunan, 1991; Renandya et al., 1999; Brown, 2006;) have used the concepts of ESL and EFL to distinguish the differences in methods, approaches, and systems used in teaching English language. As a second language or as a foreign language, English has been taught in two separate ways throughout Asia, notably in ASEAN, which has been taught as a second language and as a foreign language. The English language has traditionally been recognised as a second language in some countries such as Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Philippine, and Singapore. On the other hand, it has traditionally been viewed as a foreign language in countries such as Indonesia, Thailand, Cambodia, and even East Timor or known as Timor Leste (Choi & Lee, 2008).

In the context of English as a second language, English has been taught to children as a second language since the elementary grades, and sometimes even as early as the pre-school years (Ho Wah, 2004). Students benefit from this situation since they have had access to English exposure at a young age, allowing them to quickly improve their English proficiency (Murphy and Evangelou, 2016). Due to the availability of daily English exposure in numerous forms such as media and the learning environment, students not only gain proficiency in the language, but they also gain knowledge within the language as well as information that may be gained via the use of language (Cummings, 2002; Genesee, 2016). The position of English as a foreign language, on the other hand, might be characterised as a new language that learned by individuals who are not native speakers of English. As a new language, English is taught in official education settings such as schools, as well as informal settings such as courses and training. People study English at educational institutions, but they seldom utilise it in their daily lives unless it is for a specific reason, such as in academic or business situations (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Some instances of ESL being used in ELT may be found in Malaysia, Brunei Darussalam, and Singapore, all of which are located in the Southeast Asian region. For all disciplines other than the languages themselves, English has traditionally served as the medium of instruction (MoI) in Malaysian schools, at the very least in a few subjects if not all. This policy, on the other hand, has been altered at least three times since it was initially implemented (Low and Kuang, 2016). Regarding the necessity to foster nationalism, the Malay language was adopted as the official language of instruction (MoI) in the 1970s, despite the fact that this strategy was

subsequently found to be unsuitable (Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat, 2017). A number of students who graduated from Malaysian institutions were monolingual in Malay and so unemployable outside government organisations, as Gill (2007) reported in Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017). This prompted the Malaysian government to create a new policy in 2002 to reintroduce English as the medium of instruction for mathematics and science beginning in the first year of elementary school. Despite its stated goal of increasing the competency of Malaysian graduates, this programme was found to be ineffective since children from more underprivileged and rural regions were found to be failing in maths and science, while at the same time, instructors of maths and science with sufficient English proficiency to teach these subjects through English were difficult to find (Gill 2012) in (Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat, 2017). Because of this, Malaysia revised its language policy in the educational system. Bahasa Malaysia has been reintroduced as the official language of instruction in Malaysia (Gill 2012).

Similar to Malaysia that has implemented English as the MoI even though it has been dynamic over the years, Brunei Darussalam has a program *dwibahasa* or bilingual. The use of English as a medium of teaching in the essential subject areas of mathematics, history, science, and geography, as well as in English, is mandated for all students beginning in the first year of elementary school under this programme. In addition to the *dwibahasa* programme, Brunei Darussalam has been implementing the RELA *reading and language acquisition* programme for more over two decades, which has allowed students to gain greater exposure to English while also improving their English and reading abilities (Ho Wah, 2004). Since the independence of Brunei Darussalam, the bilingual education programme and the RELA have worked to improve the role of English, which has replaced Malay as the official language and English as the primary language of commerce. Even though English is not officially recognised as a second language in Brunei Darussalam, it is contended that having English as the medium of instruction has disadvantaged learners from remote and lower socioeconomic groups (Gill, 2012). Due to the limited English ability of certain students and teachers, it has been challenging for learners to comprehend the teaching and learning materials, particularly in the areas of mathematics and science.

The other ESL country, Singapore has implemented a policy of bilingualism known as English-knowing (English and mother tongue) since its independence (Low and Kuang, 2016). It was necessary to implement this system since English has become beneficial to the economy, and it was also necessary to ensure the maintenance of the local languages and dialects. The

preservation of indigenous languages has been crucial in the development of Singapore's cultural identity, particularly in the past several decades. This multilingual programme was afterwards referred to as English+1. The +1 indicates that English is the predominant language of teaching in Singapore's primary schools for all subjects, with local languages such as Mandarin Chinese, Malay, and Tamil also being taught in all primary schools, as indicated by the +1. (Kirkpatrick, 2017). In order to guarantee that Singaporeans have the opportunity and capacity to engage in and make contributions to globalisation and modernisation, as well as to conserve local languages in Singapore, this initiative has been established. A strong relationship is established between Singapore's English-language system and the status of English in Singapore's multilingual circumstances and cultural identity of Singaporeans, who negotiate fluidly between two divergent orientations – that of global citizen and that of local Singaporean, according to the system in Singapore (Alsagoff, 2010).

In terms of English as a foreign language, Indonesia is one of the countries in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) where English has been taught as a foreign language (Zein, 2017). Since 1955, Indonesia has had an official declaration of EFL, and the status has been the same since then (Lauder, 2008; Alwasilah, 2013). The government of Indonesia has codified rules that declared English as the primary foreign language to be taught in schools. As a result, English has been included as a required subject in the official curriculum for students in grades seven through twelve, as well as at the university level (Lie, 2017). Despite the fact that English is still considered a foreign language in Indonesia, the country's stance on English language subjects has evolved throughout the years. Since the beginning of the millennium, numerous private schools have included English in their curricula, some as early as kindergarten. Because of the proliferation of English, it has become a must in Indonesia, whether in classrooms or outside of schools. As a result, English has been designated as a supplementary subject in elementary schools. It has been taught as the primary foreign language in the local content subject (MULOK) in elementary schools all across Indonesia (Alwasilah, 2013; Lie, 2017; Zein 2017). However, due to the increase of nationalism and the preservation of local languages and cultures, the Indonesian central government has removed English from the curriculum of elementary schools in response to this trend. Indonesian elementary schools do not require students to take English as a subject (Kirkpatrick, 2017).

## **2.4 Problems on EFL in Asian context**

Asia has more than 800 million English speakers, which means it has considerably more speakers than the whole Anglosphere combined, and the vast majority of them are speakers of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Herscovitch, 2012). English has been designated as an Asian language, and it is frequently used as the primary means of communication (Obaidul Hamid & Kirkpatrick, 2016; Kirkpatrick, 2011). English is the official language of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) and its three member countries (China, Japan, and South Korea), as well as the United Nations General Assembly (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Zein, 2017). This recognition of the importance of English in Asian civilizations is a significant step forward. Despite its significant importance in Asia, there are still certain issues associated with the level of English proficiency of speakers in EFL nations in Asia, as well as the standards and systems of the teaching and learning process.

In terms of proficiency, several countries in Asia, mostly the EFL countries, do not rank in the top ten of the English Proficiency Index (English First, 2017). In the field of English language teaching and learning, challenges have continued to emerge, both in terms of language policy and in terms of the teaching and learning process. During the decade of 2000, the ELT system in Asia has demonstrated its flaws, with the result that it is no longer appropriate for EFL students, particularly those who are digital natives in the twenty-first century (Harste, 2003). Language policies in education in several Asian countries have not been accommodating to multilingual situations, and they have tended to shift over time as the region has developed (Obaidul Hamid & Kirkpatrick, 2016; Gill, 2007; Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat, 2017; Kirkpatrick, 2017). These issues, as well as the variables that contribute to them, are examined in further detail in the next section.

### **2.4.1 Problems on proficiency**

The inadequate level of English proficiency in Asia is the most significant obstacle to successful English learning. According to the most recent statistics on the English Proficiency Index (English First, 2017), only one Asian nation, Singapore, ranks in the top 10 in the world in terms of English proficiency. Aside from Singapore, there are only two Asian countries in the top twenty, both of which are in Asia, namely Malaysia and the Philippines, which are ranked twelve and thirteen, respectively. China, the most populous country in Asia with the fastest-growing number of English speakers, is only ranked thirty-ninth out of fifty-one countries in the world. These findings show that there is a significant problem with English

competence in Asia – namely, a lack of proficiency. It is further backed by the fact that the three nations ranking in the top twenty (Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines) are all countries with a high proportion of ESL learners. A number of studies have demonstrated that it is difficult for countries in Asia, particularly EFL countries, to improve their English proficiency since English is solely treated as a subject for study rather than as a living language that must be used in day-to-day interactions with others (Wu and Wu, 2008). English is therefore exclusively utilised for educational reasons in EFL nations, rather than as an inclusive medium for communication in those countries.

It has a significant relationship with the elements that contribute to learners of English as a foreign language failing to achieve proficiency in the language. They put up little effort, employ inefficient learning methodologies, and, most importantly, do not have enough opportunities to practise and apply language in everyday situations (Renandya et al., 1999). The lack of effort is a factor that is influenced by learners' attitudes about the language, their motivation, and their discomfort in the learning environment. Language attitude and learning motivation are critical as a sequence of triggers to begin learning a new language, and they are also highly important for learners' linguistic performance in the language they are learning (Cook, 2001; Gardner, 2001; Griffiths, 2007). The teaching and learning strategies utilised in the learning environment have an impact on students' attitudes toward language and learning motivation. The use of an appropriate learning method allows learners to acquire language in a way that is tailored to their requirements and surroundings, and eventually provides them with an opportunity to practise their English language skills (Geramia and Baighlou, 2011). Consequently, inadequate instructional methods not only impede learners' ability to learn a foreign language according to their requirements, but they also negatively impact the quality of the learning process, as well as the opportunity to practise and use the language, and the level of proficiency achieved by the learners.

#### **2.4.2 Problems on teaching and learning process**

Before examining the most important part of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Asia – classroom management and the teaching-learning process – it is necessary to consider the element of the aims of English teaching and learning in most Asian nations. The communicative method is more suited for teaching and learning the English language in ESL and EFL contexts, according to scholars on ESL and EFL in Asia. However, the way teachers teach and construct the class is mostly driven by classroom exams and national examinations

that their students take (Pan and Block, 2011; Renandya et al., 1999; Richards and Renandya, 2002). Though teachers are well aware that it is more vital to put an emphasis on students' communicative skills rather than their academic performance, they are forced by the system to prioritise whether students can answer the exams properly or incorrectly. This is influenced by the educational system in many Asian nations, which measures the effectiveness of the teaching process by the number of pupils who pass the class examination and, more importantly, the national examination.

Regarding the approach and method of teaching English in Asia, EFL teaching and learning in Asia accustoms students to Grammar Translation Method "GTM" instead of the Communicative Language Teaching "CLT (Liao and Yang, 2012). The GTM technique, in its core, is a system in which the students are required to analyse the language rather than to apply it in their presentations. CLT, on the other hand, advises that teachers instruct and educate pupils in the use of the language rather than attempting to analyse it (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011). In terms of educational objectives, GTM seeks to aid students in reading, appreciating, and comprehending foreign language literature as well as target language writings in general. CLT, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with preparing students to be able to communicate effectively in the target language (Brown, 2007). This strategy, despite its advantages in that it provides more opportunity for learners to recognise foreign language texts, causes the teaching and learning process to become more grammar-oriented, textual-oriented, and test-oriented. Learners do not have more opportunities to communicate in English than they did previously. CLT, on the other hand, promotes students to communicate in the target language without first concentrating on grammar (Hiep, 2005). In this method, teachers may concentrate on how to increase students' willingness to communicate in the target language, as well as how to verify or improve the grammar of students once they have articulated the language.

Students' learning performance in Asian countries is also influenced by teachers' lack of knowledge about students' learning styles and preferred activities in the classroom, which is another key problem (Al Fadda et al., 2020; Wong, 2004). The characteristics of learning styles and preferred activities in learning English are taken into consideration by ESL teachers; however, the EFL teachers are considerably more concerned in determining the aims and learning objectives of the students (Renandya et al., 1999). As a result, test-based learning, as previously indicated, is more prevalent in EFL countries. In this regard, English teachers for

EFL students should have taken into consideration the fact that paying attention to students' learning styles is beneficial for teachers in understanding students' conditions and their favourite learning activities. It also helps teachers to select the most appropriate classroom design for their pupils, as well as to engage students in the learning contents being taught (Gilakjani, 2012). To reach the ultimate aim of student learning, teachers should be able to employ a variety of teaching methods and approaches, and mix them to create an interactive learning environment in their classrooms.

Since the concept of improving English proficiency in Asia has gained popularity, there has been a huge growth in the demand for international teachers and native English speakers. Despite the fact that the distinctions between native and non-native speakers in terms of definition and features are not always clear-cut, the importance of the native speaker as the target language model is obvious in foreign language education (Boecher, 2005). Because students have direct access to native speakers of English, the presence of native speakers of English provides several benefits to EFL learners in a variety of ways. EFL learners are able to acquire standard pronunciation and accent, as well as practical application of vocabulary. Most significantly, they are able to comprehend both the culture and the language of the source language. On the other hand, this creates a difficulty in terms of the cultural divide that exists between EFL students and foreign language teachers in general. Foreign instructors are unfamiliar with a variety of cultures and are unable to cope with the complexities of classroom circumstances in Asian countries where conventional classroom design is still prevalent (Liao and Yang, 2012). This can result in difficulties in language and knowledge transfer during the EFL teaching and learning process.

## **2.5 Problems relating to EFL in Indonesia**

Indonesia, as an EFL nation with a large number of emerging individuals who learn English within the ASEAN Context, is confronted with critical issues relating to its English language proficiency (English First, 2017). The challenges are connected to the language policy of the national and provincial governments, learners' language attitudes, multilingual conditions, and, most crucially, the teaching and learning process (Kirkpatrick, 2017). Those aspects are interconnected as the causes that have contributed to the fact that Indonesia's English proficiency index has not exhibited a major improvement over the years.

In this case, the linguistic point of view is the first item to be addressed. A variety of language situations exist in Indonesia, and they are also diverse (Marcellino, 2008). Indonesia is home to hundreds of ethnic groups, each of which has its own unique language and dialect to communicate to each other. According to the most recent statistics, Indonesia has more than seven hundred local languages, making it the country with the largest number of languages and dialects in ASEAN (Badan Bahasa, 2017). These regional languages, each with its unique dialect, are utilised as means of communication on a daily basis in these communities. Among hundreds of local languages, not to mention the quantity and complexity of languages in eastern Indonesia, three vernaculars, Javanese, Malay, and Sundanese, are the most significant in terms of their position and use. The Malay language is the lingua franca in the islands inhabited by Indonesian Malay tribes, while the Javanese and Sundanese languages are used not only as a lingua franca but also as the language of education in Java island (Badan Bahasa, 2017).

Indonesia possesses a diverse range of regional languages, although Bahasa Indonesia is the country's official language and the national language. Bahasa Indonesia is utilised as the official language at the national level as well as the language of instruction, with the interference of local languages or dialects occurring at the same time (Alwasilah, 2013). On the other hand, English, being the most prominent foreign language, has been included in the school and university curriculum as one of the courses in the national test, resulting in an increase in the demand for English study (Lie, 2017; Renandya et al., 1999; Richards and Renandya, 2002). It has been shown that the majority of Indonesian children learn their mother tongue and local language throughout their childhood, and that they study Bahasa Indonesia as a second language in schools, both as a topic and as a medium of instruction. After a while, children in metropolitan areas are learning three languages: their native language, Bahasa Indonesia, and English. As a result, all of these variables add to the complexity of the language situation in Indonesia, which is a multilingual country.

Indonesia's national government has designated English as a foreign language in accordance with the country's language policy. The standing of English in Indonesia, on the other hand, has not been strengthened by the country's language strategy in the field of educational institutions. There has not always been a uniform policy on the use of English, neither in the education sector nor in the general public sphere (Lie, 2017). Policy has evolved throughout time in response to political pressure from the national or central governments. The government's refusal to increase the status and usage of English, despite the existence of a



system for promoting English as a medium of instruction in *International-standard pilot-project* schools in 2007, has resulted in low achievement among English language learners in Indonesia. Students in Indonesia's secondary, junior, and senior high schools are required to take English as a compulsory subject as part of their national curriculum. The use of English as a medium of instruction, particularly in the sciences and mathematics, would have a detrimental impact on Indonesian learners due to a lack of English competence among teachers and a lack of facilities and infrastructure in the country, according to the report (Lie, 2017).

It is also argued that the policy and usage of English in Indonesia were both equivocal (Lauder, 2008). Indonesia's globalisation will be impossible without the use of English (Zein, 2017). On the other hand, during a period when English was becoming increasingly popular in Indonesia, the use of English was perceived as a danger to the country's language and culture, particularly in light of the rise of nationalistic issues (Alawsilah, 2013; Lie 2017). Since the implementation of the brand-new national curriculum in 2013, English has been removed from the curriculum of primary schools in accordance with the new policy of the national government, which has had the new orientation to build national character from an early age. While doing so, the Indonesian government must address the issue of local language degradation, which has resulted in a significant drop in the number of people who speak their native language over the course of several decades. As a result, the language policy of the Indonesian government, including the national, provincial, and municipal governments, focuses more on character building via the teaching of Bahasa Indonesia and the preservation of local languages. The result is that English has been removed from the primary school curriculum, making Indonesia the only country in ASEAN that does not require students to take English as a compulsory subject in elementary school (Kirkpatrick, 2017).

Indonesia's language policy, which applies to all levels of government, classifies English as a foreign language, similar to the policies of many other nations in east and west Asia. This has a substantial influence on learners' access to English exposure since they only have a limited amount of time to communicate in English (Lie, 2017; Zein, 2017). As a result, learners' views regarding English as a foreign language are affected. To a certain extent, English is seen as a supplemental topic to be acquired in order to relieve students of the responsibility of focusing on their English proficiency. They only need to consider their capacity to communicate in their native languages, which include Malay, Javanese, and Sundanese, because those languages serve as their lingua franca (Alwasilah, 2013). Learners' attitudes regarding English in

Indonesia are remarkably comparable to those of learners in West Asia, particularly the Arab peninsula (Reima Al-Jarf, 2008). Learners desire to learn English, but they believe that the rapid rise of English is a threat to their native languages (Albury and Aye, 2016; Pennycook, 2017). As a result, they are not comfortable speaking in English class or even in front of other people (see. Albury and Aye, 2016; Eshghinejad, 2016; Pennycook, 2017).

It is also a challenge for English language learners in Indonesia when it comes to the process of language teaching and learning. It has been previously said that the adoption of the 2013 curriculum, in which the English language is formally removed from the present national curriculum of Indonesian primary schools, has an impact on the degree of English exposure received by Indonesian English language learners. Students at secondary schools – junior high schools – are the only students in Indonesia who can begin learning English, with the exception of foreign school students, private school students, and students in institutions that still offer English as an optional subject (Alwasilah, 2013). Due to this circumstance, students in Indonesia only learn English as a required subject for six years, throughout their junior and senior high school years. This is far from the level of sufficiency compared to other ASEAN countries that teach English in primary schools. As a consequence, Indonesian students exhibit low proficiency in English upon graduation from senior high school (Imperiani, 2012; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008).

The problems on ELT in Indonesia are attributed to many causal factors. The major factors are large class sizes, the low English proficiency of teachers, low salary, not enough teacher education to teach the new curriculum, and cultural barriers hindering teachers from adopting a facilitator role in the English as a foreign language (EFL) class (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). In regards to the teaching system, there is a gap between eastern (Asia and South East Asia) and western culture of teaching languages either in terms of students' attitudes (Littlewood, 2001) and teaching method (Butler, 2015; Howatt and Smith, 2014). Similar to some EFL countries in Asia, teaching English in Indonesia in some extent is still teacher-centred rather than student-centred and more test-based than communicative based (Butler, 2015; Pan & Block, 2011; Renandya et al., 1999; Richards and Renandya, 2002). Teaching English in Indonesia and most of the Asian countries have not considered the diversity of cultural, social and linguistic background as well as learning style of English learners (see. Choi & Lee, 2008). English is not taught in English but Bahasa Indonesia or even local

languages. This takes English into the position as the real foreign language because English is treated as a subject to learn rather than a living language.

## **2.6 Best practices of EFL**

Concerning the problems explained in previous parts of this paper, it is suggested that these problems should be overviewed from two sides, the national policy towards English and its implementation in teaching and learning activities. From many kinds of literature that have been reviewed, there are some that considered appropriate to the context of EFL countries particularly Indonesia. Kirkpatrick (2017) is taken into account to be the guideline of policy point of view as regards his contextual concept in ASEAN context and Oxford (2001) with other related theories particularly in the area of teaching and learning implementation.

### **2.6.1 Government policy point of view**

The policy, *lingua franca* approach, promoted by Kirkpatrick (2017) has been adopted from European Union context. Although it has been tailored for the European context, as the key factor to overcome problems on proficiency and ELT, this policy contextually copes the condition of EFL in ASEAN and Indonesia. This approach can be adopted regarding its success in taking important aspects; multilingual circumstances, lack of native speakers of English, curriculum. The most important point is that this approach is implemented from ELT point of view. It is argued that the approach is actually to treat English as a *lingua franca* instead of ESL or EFL. Considering the useful impacts of this approach to the area of ELT, it is believed that the approach of English as a *lingua franca* will automatically encourage people to use English as a living language instead of a subject to be learned at schools.

Furthermore, in the level of implementation, this approach promotes that government in ASEAN region including Indonesia should apply five basic principles (Kirkpatrick, 2017, p.13); (1) the native speaker is not the linguistic target, the goal is mutual intelligibility and the ability to use English successfully in multilingual contexts. (2) The native speaker's culture is not the cultural target; the goal is intercultural competence. (3) Well-trained local multilingual provide the most appropriate English language teachers. (4) *Lingua franca* environments provide excellent English language learning environments for *lingua franca* speakers. (5) The assessment must be relevant to and appropriate for the *lingua franca* approach and curriculum. These basic principles allow governments to create their policies by considering English as a *lingua franca* for ASEAN community.

In terms of its advantages and disadvantages, this English as *lingua franca* approach would have at least three advantages over the current approach (Kirkpatrick, 2017, p.13), including (i) it will improve the chances of English being more successfully taught and learned than at present. (ii) A new ELF curriculum would include material about the linguistic, religious and cultural diversity of the region. (iii) The suggested delay in introducing English into the curriculum would free up the primary curriculum so that local languages could be taught and learned. Point (iii) means that primary schools' students should be taught through their home language from year one to year four. English is introduced after five or six years of learning national and local languages. This system enables students to acquire and preserve their local languages as well as respect the multilingual circumstances. Therefore, this approach should be considered as the new option or solution to the problem of English proficiency in ASEAN and Indonesia contextually.

On the other hand, despite its advantages that are seemingly able to cope regional problems, as a new approach that has not been tested through the practical process, this concept of English as a *lingua franca* is apparently more conceptual rather than practical. It is assumed that this approach is driven by some case studies in ASEAN and ignoring the other non-lingual and educational aspects. It is indicated by the absence of other considerations besides the consideration of multilingual circumstances, and at the same time, this approach focuses more on ELT and EU basis – economic interest as the trigger. Considerations that is not mentioned especially for the case in Indonesia are problems on and lack of infrastructure especially education infrastructure. Many schools in Indonesia do not have an English teacher, and all at once, there is the fact that English is not taught in primary school. This proves that the only access to English is a school that can only be owned by students when they are studying in junior high. It is difficult for learners of English to achieve mutual intelligibility when they have no teachers to teach them English.

Another thing that is not considered in this approach and makes this approach should be reviewed in the context of Indonesia is the fact that Indonesia is a vast country. Indonesia is not a country that consists of only one part of the mainland, but it consists of thousands of islands with various characteristics of its regions and inhabitants. As has been stated in the part of EFL problems in Indonesia, local people in some regions of Indonesia still consider English as a threat to their local languages and identities. This will certainly make difficulties to the

application of this approach. Therefore, it is necessary to formulate a policy that not only considers the lingual, educational and cultural aspects but most importantly the regional, social and anthropological factors should take into account.

### **2.6.2 English language teaching point of view**

In terms of ELT aspect, EFL teachers should consider various aspects of EFL teaching and learning such as teaching material and methodology, classroom management and surely the way to encourage learners to practice using English (Cook, 2001; Gardner, 2001; Geramia and Baighlou, 2011; Griffiths, 2007; Renandya et al., 1999). There are some teaching and learning models that have been promoted by scholars of ELT, and some of them are appropriate, but some do not fit with the context of targeted countries. This following model is based on the ESL context, but this paper also tries to elaborate some models to be suitable with the context of EFL particularly the idea of creating a pleasant atmosphere for learners to have exposure to English and practice English on a daily basis.

Oxford (2001) promotes the idea of three essential factors as the key to success in ELT. These factors directly involve three different aspects of ELT; they are teachers, learners, and learning environment. The first factor is teachers' teaching styles. Since various research have proved the effect of teachers' teaching styles towards learners' learning styles and attitudes in learning English, the teachers' teaching style should consider and address the learners' learning styles and attitude as much as possible (see Al Fadda et al., 2020; Cimermanová, 2018; Magulod, 2019; Tan, 2011; Wong, 2004). Related to their teaching styles, teachers should consider what they think, know, believe and do or teachers' cognition (Borg, 2003; 2006) in choosing the right teaching style because teachers' cognition affects their choices in teaching styles. This point of view is elaborated into the area of teachers' professional competence. Teachers' professional competence includes professional knowledge and affective-motivational characteristics. Professional knowledge covers the content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge while affective-motivational characteristics contain beliefs, attitudes, job motivation, personality and anxiety (Shulman, 1987; Weinert, 2001). As a consequence, the notion "professional competence" is not a theoretical term but it is believed to be an essential part in designing classroom and school practices for English learners (Shulman, 1987, Campbell et al., 2004).

The second crucial point that determines the quality of ELT is the learners. As the subject of ELT process, learners should have positive language attitudes as well as be motivated to learn a new language. Learners' positive language attitude means that learners are highly motivated to learn and to practice English as well as to use it as a tool of communication with speakers of English (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2001; Mukhuba, 2005). Motivation and attitude have also been regarded as the principal elements which affect the speed and level of success when learners learn a foreign language (Gardner, 2006) and second language (Mat & Yunus, 2014). By being highly motivated, it is believed that students can learn English and acquire the knowledge and culture of English. This kind of motivation, intrinsic one is crucial because learners want to learn the language by themselves and assumed to be able to cope their problems during the learning process.

The other factor is environment or setting. If stakeholders want to get a great achievement with ELT, therefore they should create an atmosphere that enables to provide accessible learning resources that actively support the ELT process. The effective classroom setting and great learning environment strongly affect students' outcomes in learning language (Brophy and Good, 1986; Wang and Walberg, 1993). In spite of the tendency to define great learning environment as a physical institution such as classrooms, labs, schools or even technologies, great learning environment is broader than just these physical components (Bates, 2015). It is the environment that accommodates the various characteristics of the learners, determines the goals, process and assessment for teaching and learning, provides the activities that support the learning process. Creating a good atmosphere will be strongly valuable for learners so that learners can learn language based on their needs and to avoid the traditional ELT setting, the teacher-centred learning. Therefore, the learning environment should be as much as compatible with language learning demands which are different from other subjects' needs.

## **2.7 Concluding remarks**

It is shown that English in Asia has grown rapidly over the years with some countries have implemented ESL while others have applied EFL. The ESL associates to the Outer Circle described by Kachru (1985), (1992) where English is the additional language and promoted as the official or working language but not a mother tongue (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In the ESL circumstances particularly in education, English owns its special status as the medium of instruction MoI such as in India, Malaysia and Singapore, Brunei Darussalam. Whereas, the EFL correlates to the Expanding Circle described by Kachru (1985), (1992). In the EFL

context, English is not used as a tool of communication on a daily basis unless in the classroom or as a subject to be learned (Scrivener, 2005; Richards & Renandya, 2002). As a subject English is taught to give more knowledge and skills to learners to become more globalised. The learners of EFL learn and use English inside the classroom but rather speak their own languages on their daily life.

The difference among ESL and EFL countries in Asia is based on various policies of governments towards English. Even though there is a similarity in backgrounds to promote English, the policies in Asia are various. The similar pattern of language policy in Asia and ASEAN, in particular, is to start promoting English since primary level (Zein, 2017). Whereas, the rapid growth of English is also considered as the threat to local languages in Asia (Albury and Aye, 2016; Pennycook, 2017; Reima Al-Jarf, 2008). Therefore, the status and the use of English both on a daily basis and in education has not been consistent regarding the political factors such as nationalism issue and language preservation that influence the language policy. Those who promote English since primary level such as China (Butler, 2014; Hu, 2007), Singapore (Chua, 2010), Brunei Darussalam (Haji-Othman & Sharbawi, 2015) put socio-economic factor as the background to start to implement the policy of English language education at the elementary schools. The policies in these countries are also based on the idea of increasing the ability of the citizens to take part in globalisation. English is believed as a tool that is having a considerable impact on children's future educational and career trajectories as well as important for upward socio-economic mobility (Zein, 2017).

Whereas, Indonesia as the EFL country in Asia and the largest as well as the most diverse country in ASEAN has dynamic policies towards English (Lauder, 2008; Lie 2017). The language policy in Indonesia has been codified in regards to the political point of view of the central government. English is seen as an important tool to make Indonesia more globalised (Zein, 2017) but at the same time, the rapid growth of English is seen as a threat to Indonesian language and culture (Alawsilah, 2013; Lie 2017). Consequently, the government of Indonesia has decided to drop English from the primary schools' curriculum regarding the interest to promote nation and character building (Alwasilah, 2013, Kirkpatrick, 2011; 2017; Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017, Lie, 2017). This policy also has been implemented regarding the urgency to overcome the problem of local language degradation where numbers of local language speakers have decreased dramatically over the years (Badan Bahasa, 2017).

The language policy in Indonesia of making English only as an optional subject in primary level affects the level of English exposure of Indonesian English learners. Since the implementation of this curriculum, most of the Indonesian students can only learn English in secondary schools (Alwasilah, 2013). Even though there is an option to learn English through extra-curricular activities, it is different from the actual study of English as a compulsory subject. This is not enough in terms of exposure that students can have through extra-curricular activities compared to other ASEAN countries that teach English in primary schools. Therefore, students in Indonesia have low proficiency in English upon graduation from senior high school (Imperiani, 2012; Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008). Moreover, regarding teaching and learning process, Indonesia is facing problems related to large class sizes, lack of infrastructure, quality of teachers' English proficiency and low salary. Indonesia does not have enough teacher education who can teach and train teachers about the new curriculum. The cultural barriers also hinder teachers from adopting a facilitator role in the English as a foreign language (EFL) class (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004).

The other crucial point is that as the largest country in ASEAN, Indonesia has its diversity of geographical, cultural, social and linguistic background. It is more complicated to codify the policy and to implement curriculum compared to other countries in ASEAN. The general terms of positive attitude and great learning atmosphere are different in Indonesian context regarding its vast area and varied landscapes. The literature review of how making a policy of language in education and implementing it on ELT is too general and not taking local characteristic into account. Researches on this topic are general and only give a general recommendation that does not meet the local condition with the specific environment like Indonesia. Therefore, the policy-making mechanisms and processes should consider not only the strategic need for enhancing global engagement and sustaining linguistic diversity but also the increase of demographic complexity, territorial characteristics and socio-economic and cultural realities (Park and Wee 2012; Lo Bianco et al. 2009). Also, the language policymaking process needs to accommodate the needs of learners by involving individuals in making decisions about the system of language teaching and learning and the language use (Gao, 2015).

It is also argued that the policymakers and teachers of English should consider the best model that is appropriately giving the opportunity to learners to learn English based on their needs and condition (Mitchell & Myles, 2001). Even though learners' opportunity in learning language can be formal or informal, predominantly the model or policy should give a chance



for learners to have access to the exposure of language they learn. This drives them to the success of learning language compare to those who have only limited access to language resources and exposure. In the case of English as a foreign language where students have difficulties accessing English exposure, the accessible opportunities are mainly in the classrooms setting where academic activities are dominant. This is the reason for policymakers to ensure that learners have access to English as early as possible as well as teachers to design learning material and classroom environment that meet various kinds of students' needs as foreign language learners ultimately to increase their language proficiency (Mitchell & Myles, 2001), (Li, 2009).

It is important for teachers of English as a foreign language to ensure that students have correct English input (teaching English through English), appropriate learning material, clear guidance and instructions, encouragement and most importantly support when they are facing problem in learning and practising English in a classroom setting (Li, 2009). The other points are teaching materials and teaching styles (Harmer, 2007) that are created through the appropriate teaching methodology that specifically for EFL learners. These are crucial regarding their direct effects on students' learning behaviour, teaching purposes and teaching result (Wang, 2013). In terms of communication strategy where EFL teachers are the role models in class regarding the lack of native speakers of English, the teachers should utilise their roles to exert their influences to motivate students in learning and practising English in a class by using correct English so that students can have the exposure to English.

Ultimately, it has been noted that its rapid development promotes the status of English as the Asian language or the lingua franca in Asia (Obaidul Hamid & Kirkpatrick, 2016). Hence, with its status and opportunity, Kirkpatrick (2011, 2017) endorses the idea of making English as a lingua franca in ASEAN including Indonesia. This will enable English as the living language instead of subject to be learned as now taking place in Indonesia. Since ELF is various, contextual and adaptable (Jenkins, 2006a), this may encourage learners of English to learn English based on their environment. The fact that ELF more focuses on mutual intelligibility than native speakers' norms particularly pronunciation and grammatical pattern and accommodate local varieties, it would be easier for the learners to use English in the ELF context (Cogo, 2012; Jenkins, 2006b, Seidlhofer, 2011). As the people taking part in ELF context are from numerous linguacultural backgrounds (Cogo, 2012), the ELF concept seems to meet the condition of Indonesia with its varied linguistic and cultural background.

Despite its advantages in the context of Indonesia, the concept of ELF in Indonesia should be reviewed regarding the pragmatic point of view. The mutual intelligibility promoted by ELF needs pragmatic understanding particularly when ELF speakers communicate with native speakers from UK, USA or Australia (Sowden, 2012). In terms of being globalised particularly when EFL speakers exchange information in talks, it is important to understand the native speakers' norms (vocabulary, pronunciation, language expression and colloquial forms) to establish the mutual understanding as promoted by ELF. This case is crucial in relation to the situation in Indonesia where the native speakers' norms have been used as a standard in communication and even test of proficiency such as IELTS, TOEFL, and other standardised tests in Indonesia. Moreover, when formal writing takes place, the standard English plays its role regarding the necessary of clarity, lexical choice, rhetorical coherence as well as rules of grammar and structure (Sowden, 2012). As a consequence, the idea of implementing ELF in ASEAN and Indonesia, in particular, is still opened to be discussed either regarding its concept and actualisation on a daily basis as well as the implementation on education.

### Chapter 3

## Recurrent Multi-Word Sequences, Language Learning, and Foreign Language Teaching

### 3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to analyse the use of RMS in academic registers at university level and to contribute to cooperation between the study of RMS and the teaching/learning of English as foreign language at university level. It is therefore necessary to review the literature that addresses the theoretical bases relating to this study. This chapter describes the conceptual framework pertaining to RMS, the significance of RMS in second and foreign language learning, and the implementation of RMS in the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL). This review is then discussed.

The chapter is structured in sections relating to the significant concepts and issues arising from studies on RMS and foreign language teaching and learning. Section 2.2 discusses the development of studies on multi-word sequences by highlighting the chronology of studies on word combination, phraseology, lexical bundles, formulaic sequences, and RMS. This section also discusses the two main strands of studies on multi-word sequences, namely *formulaic sequences* and *lexical bundles*. Since this study follows the lexical bundle approach, this section also provides the contextual point of view of this study, which is the reason for choosing frequency, within the lexical bundle, as the approach of this study.

Section 2.3 focuses on the characteristics of RMS, including the definition of RMS within the lexical bundle framework, a description of the term ‘register’, and the reason for choosing that term in this study. This section also discusses the identifying characteristics of RMS: frequency and distribution. The description of frequency and distribution of RMS is fundamental to the explanation of the difference between the threshold frequency and distribution or occurrence of RMS in this study and in previous ones. This section also describes the functional taxonomies of RMS by Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992, and Biber et al., 2004. The explanation of these two taxonomies is essential to the descriptions of the relationship between them and of the sequence of studies on word combination.

The next section, 2.4, focuses on the use of RMS in L1 and the use of RMS in academic registers at university. The discussion of the use of RMS in academic registers includes the significance of RMS in academic registers and in academic writing by foreign language learners. The next section, 2.5, discusses the significances of RMS in L2 (second and foreign language contexts) studies on RMS in ESL and EFL learning, and the challenges encountered by EFL learners in learning and using RMS. This section also explains the decision to categorise Indonesia in an English as Foreign Language (EFL) context. This is important in order to reinforce the framework of this study based on the use of RMS in the EFL context.

The final section, 2.6, focuses on the implementation of RMS in foreign language teaching. This section then discusses studies on the uses of RMS: (a) as an indicator of L2 development; and (b) the pedagogical approach that includes the explicit teaching of RMS to accelerate the L2 acquisition process. This section also reviews a number of experimental studies on RMS within the lexical bundles and formulaic sequences approaches, particularly in an EFL teaching context.

### **3.2 The nature of recurrent multiword sequences**

Multi-word sequences have attracted much attention from scholars systematically observing this field of studies according to the characteristics, uses, and development of RMS. Scholars have used many names to define multi-word sequences or word co-occurrence. Multi-word sequences or word co-occurrences have been referred to by a variety of names in the literature. When it comes to characterising word co-occurrences, it has been noticed that there is a “problem of terminology” (Wray 2002, p. 9). On the one hand, the same name may mean a range of different notions in studies by various scholars; on the other hand, different names can be used to denote the similar concept of multi-word sequences (Chen and Baker, 2010). Some studies distinguish multi-word sequences that are idiomatic expressions like *in a nutshell*, while others focus on sequences that are non-idiomatic but perceptually salient, such as *you’re never going to believe this* (Biber and Barbieri, 2007). These studies use different terms, various criteria and explanations for the identification of multi-word sequences, and so they provide different perspectives on the use of multi-word sequences (Biber and Barbieri, 2007).

The history of studies on word combinations can be dated back to the time when the terms *collocation* and *fixed expression* were introduced by Jespersen (1924) and Firth (1951) (Hyland, 2018). Although there has been much debate about the first scholars who introduced

and used the term ‘word combination’, these two scholars introduced the technical terms ‘collocation’ and ‘fixed expression’ in the sense of their co-occurrence in the text as a relatively fixed combination of words. It was in 1924 that Jespersen introduced the term ‘collocation’ specifically to address lexical co-selection. Then in 1957 Firth systematically introduced the definition and concept of collocation into linguistic theory. In their works, these two scholars not only established the notions but also described the characteristics, meaning and the uses of collocations and fixed expressions in order to communicate meaning. Eventually, their works opened the way for scholars to discover formulaic patterns and multi-word sequences.

Over time, studies on word combinations continue to develop as many studies have carried out under the umbrella term of *phraseology* (e.g., Altenberg, and Eeg-Olofsson, 1990; Howarth, 1993, 1996, 1998; Granger and Meunier, 2008; Meunier and Granger, 2008). Phraseology have been regarded as a branch of study that is often used to refer to studies of multi-word combinations. Phraseology does not only contribute to the study of the structure and meaning of word combination, but it also contributes to various studies in order to understand languages including cognitive process of language, language description, language acquisition, and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2008; Granger and Meunier, 2008).

Over the past 30 years or so, a large number of terms have been used in the study of multi-word sequences, including *lexical phrases* (Nattinger, 1986; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992), *phrasicon* (De Cock et al., 1998), *fixed expressions* (Moon, 1992, 1998), *multiword lexical units* (Cowie, 1992), *clusters* (Hyland, 2008a; Schmitt et al., 2004), *recurrent word combinations* (Altenberg, 1998; Butler, 1997; De Cock, 1998; Schmitt et al., 2004). Multi-word sequences have also been studied under some other terms, including *statistical phrases* (Strzalkowski, 1998), *formulaic sequences* (Wray 2000, 2002; Schmitt, 2004), *formulaic expressions* (Simpson, 2004), *n-grams* (Cheng et al. 2006), and *lexical bundles* (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes 2002a, 2002b, 2004; Hyland, 2008b). As a heterogeneous phenomenon, the understanding of RMS varies widely from scholar to scholar. The way they understand the phenomenon is based on different theoretical points of view and methods, so it is hardly surprising that the ways they define and use the terms vary so greatly: although these various terms describe the same object of study (word combination) they express significant differences in approach, methodology, source of data, classification, and limitation of study.

In essence, the development in the field of multi-word sequences have led to two major areas: *formulaic language* and *lexical bundles* (Baumgarten, 2014). A large amount of literature has been published to define these two terms. Wray's definition of formulaic language (2000, 2002) has been acknowledged as the working definition of formulaic sequences. She asserts that as a combination of words, A 'formulaic sequence' is a series of words or other linguistic components such as phrases that appears to have been prepared, stored, then retrieved in its entirety from memory at the moment of usage. It can be continuous or discontinuous. As strings of words that are stored and recovered from memory in a holistic manner as multi-word collocations (Kecskes, 2007), formulaic sequences are 'glued together' and act as single semantic units and often known as single 'big words' in order to transmit entire meanings that are notably different from their literal meanings (Gairns and Redman 1986; Ellis, 1996). Lexical and grammatical collocations, idioms, lexical metaphors, and fixed expressions can all be considered as examples of formulaic language. Meanwhile, other scholars define lexical bundles as the most frequently occurring lexical sequences (that is, of three or more words) in a particular register (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Cortes, 2004). The formulaic language approach usually assumes some measure of collocational strength between the words that make up a sequence, whereas the lexical bundles approach is a purely frequency-based approach (Baumgarten, 2014).

Under the lexical bundles approach, RMS are defined as the most frequently occurring multi-word sequences of words in a register. Typically, they are neither perceptually noticeable nor idiomatic in their meaning, and they are only seldom full structural units. Whether they are continuous or discontinuous, they serve significant discourse functions in both spoken and written registers (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Biber, 2009). For the purpose of investigating the use of RMS in EFL students' academic writing, this study applies the lexical bundles approach as its working definition and the design of research. The lexical bundles approach is selected with regard to the significance of frequency measures in identifying the most frequent sequences, thus it can better reflect the natural patterns of language use in a particular register, in both correctness and variety of expression (Biber et al., 2004; Baumgarten, 2014; Lin, 2016).

### **3.3 The characteristics of recurrent multiword sequences**

Since this study adopts the lexical bundles approach to RMS, the characteristics of RMS are described accordingly. Lexical bundles were first explored in detail by Biber et al. in the

*Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (LGSWE, 1999) as they compared the word sequences that occur most commonly in academic texts and conversation. As a result of their study, they defined lexical bundles as “bundles of words that show a statistical tendency to co-occur” (p. 989) and as “recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status” (p. 990). Regarding the occurrence of RMS in the text, they have been defined as the most frequently occurring multi-word sequences of three and more words in a register (Biber et al., 2004; Biber et al., 1999). Even though RMS rarely occur as a complete structural unit, they often function as a bridge between structural units (Biber and Barbieri, 2007, p. 269). The occurrence of RMS is essential, RMS being the basic linguistic components required to construct a discourse.

Moreover, Cortes (2004, p. 400) presented the notion of RMS as an extended collocation or a composition of three or more words that statistically co-occur frequently in a particular register. They tend not to be complete structural units, but rather fragmented phrases or clauses with new fragments embedded such as *on the other hand* or *it is argued that*. Even though they are often associated with idioms or collocation, in terms of co-occurrence, RMS are more frequent. This means they can be easily recognised, rather than being perceived intuitively. Finally, in order to distinguish them from other formulaic patterns, the sequences of words that occur frequently in a corpus should appear in a number of different texts by different writers. This is important, because if a sequence of words appears repeatedly in just one text in any particular register, it cannot be held up as a natural form of language use in that register.

Regarding the notion of RMS reflecting the patterns of actual language use, Biber and Barbieri (2007) pointed out that RMS have three main characteristics. First, even though there is no clear agreement on threshold frequency, RMS can be identified by the use of a frequency-driven approach that distinguishes them from other types of word combinations such as idioms and collocations. In other words, it is the frequency of co-occurrence that is the main criterion identifying RMS despite the different cut-off points used by scholars: for example, Biber and Barbieri (2007) use 40 RMS per million words, and Hyland (2008a) uses 20, while Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), who complement frequency with the criterion of cohesiveness, set the cut-off point at 10. The second characteristic is that RMS normally have incomplete structures that are usually limited to the clause or phrase (e.g., *in terms of the*, *I don't think that*, *in the case of*). The third and final characteristic is that they are not idiomatic in meaning, but are

transparent in acceptability and recognition. These three characteristics are compiled within the structure, meaning, and function of RMS.

As mentioned above, in terms of structure and meaning RMS are usually neither structurally complete nor idiomatic in meaning, but they nevertheless serve significant discourse functions in both spoken and written registers (Biber and Barbieri, 2007). While idioms tend to have fixedness in meaning and form, for example, *kick the bucket*, RMS are neither idiomatic in meaning nor perceptually salient. In order to distinguish them from other kinds of formulaic expressions, Biber and Barbieri (2007, p. 269) identify several features of RMS: they are extremely common; they are not idiomatic in meaning; they lack perceptual salience; and finally, in most cases they do not represent complete structural units, but often bridge structural units. Although RMS begin with a clause/phrase boundary, the last words of the bundle are the opening elements of a second structural unit. In natural discourse, RMS can be identified easily in actual language use (Biber et al., 1999, p. 990): for example, *should be noted that, you want a cup of tea, thank you very much, got nothing to do with.*

In terms of functions, even though RMS are not complete grammatical structures, they are essential in building coherence in a text. They are used as scaffolding devices to build a continuous discourse (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007). For example, Biber et al., (1999, pp. 993–1000) proved that only 15 per cent of the lexical bundles in conversation could be regarded as complete structural units (that is, phrase or clauses), while less than 5 per cent of the lexical bundles in academic prose represent such units. Instead, most lexical bundles bridge two structural units: although they begin at a clause or phrase boundary, the last words of the bundle are the opening elements of a second structural unit. However, most of the bundles in speech bridge two clauses (e.g., *I want to know, well that's what I*), while bundles in writing usually bridge two phrases (e.g., *in the case of, the base of the*) (Biber and Barbieri, 2007). As claimed by Biber et al. (1999), lexical bundles “can be regarded as structural ‘frames’, followed by a ‘slot’ ”. In other words, RMS contain a functional taxonomy that serves as a bridge to build a complete and coherent discourse.

The notion of functional taxonomy of RMS has been asserted by Nattinger and DeCarrico, in their book in 1992. They argued that RMS are important in order to establish the structure of a coherent and continuous discourse. In doing so, the RMS work through their three main discourse functions; *social interaction, necessary topics*, and *discourse devices*. As social



interaction sequences, RMS are associated with social relationships consisting of conversational maintenance, and functional meaning relating to conversational purpose such as expressing politeness, questioning, requesting, offering, complying, responding, and asserting. The necessary topics include phrases marking specific topics that learners will be asked or phrase that often feature in daily conversation (e.g. *time, weather*) The discourse devices cover lexical phrases that connect the meaning and structure of the discourse, such as logical connectors (e.g., *as a result*), temporal connectors (e.g., *and then*), fluency devices (e.g., *you know; it seems to me that*), exemplifiers (e.g., *for example; it's like*), and evaluators (e.g., *as far as I know*).

In addition to Nattinger and DeCarrico's (1992) taxonomy, Biber et al. (2004, pp. 384–387) suggest three primary discourse functions of multi-word sequences in English: stance expressions; discourse organisers; and referential expressions.

1. Stance bundles “express attitudes or assessments of certainty that frame some other proposition” (Biber et al., 2004, p. 384). They can be categorised into five sub-categories: epistemic (e.g., *I don't know what, I think it was, the fact that the*); desire (e.g., *if you want to, what do you want*); obligation (e.g., *I want you to, you have to*); intention/prediction (e.g., *I'm not going to, it's going to be*); and ability (e.g., *to be able to, can be used to*).
2. Discourse organisers “reflect relationships between prior and coming discourse” (Biber et al., 2004, p. 386). They have two categories: the topic introduction (e.g., *what do you think, if you look at, I would like to*), and the topic elaboration/ clarification (e.g., *has to do with, on the other hand*).
3. Referential bundles “make direct reference to physical or abstract entities, or to the textual context itself, either to identify an entity or to single out some particular attribute of the entity as especially important” (Biber et al., 2004, p. 387). Referential bundles have four major sub-categories: referential identification/focus (e.g., *this is one of the, of the things that*); imprecision indicators (e.g., *or something like that, and things like that*); specification of attributes (e.g., *there's a lot of, the size of the, in terms of the*); and time/place/text reference (e.g., *in the United States, at the time of, at the end of*).

In order to assist learners to use RMS properly as well as to utilise the functional taxonomy of RMS, it is argued that identifying the structural and functional characteristics of RMS is essential before using them in communication (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012). By adopting the

structural types of RMS used in previous studies (e.g. Biber et al., 2004, Biber and Barbieri 2007), Dontcheva-Navratilova affirmed four possible main categories of RMS that can be used to construct ideas in a register:

1. verb phrase components, which can include passive voice, anticipatory *it* structures and dependent clause fragments – *is assumed to be, it is possible that, can be seen as*
2. noun phrase elements followed by a part of a modifier, often an *of*-prepositional phrase – *the end of the, the extent to which, a function of the*
3. prepositional phrases followed by prepositional or clausal elements – *at the end of, of the things that*
4. others, typically longer clausal structures which often function as politeness formulae – *as well as the, thank you very much, what are you doing, have a nice day*

Dontcheva-Navratilova (2012, p. 39)

Once language users have identified the key categories of RMS that are employed in communication, they will be better able to comprehend the discourse functions of RMS and use them in a variety of situations of language exchange. According to the authors, the frequent and right use of multi-word sequences can not only aid language users in the construction and shaping of sentences, but it can also be an indication of naturalness in language usage within a certain register if done correctly.

The word 'register' is used in this study to refer to the definition and idea developed by Biber and Conrad (2009, pp. 4–8), who suggest that the term may be defined as “a linguistic variation connected with the particular circumstance of language use, including certain communicative aims”. When it comes to language use, registers have qualities that set them apart from varieties, genres, and even styles of speech and writing. These characteristics are composed of three major components: the situational context, linguistic features, and the functional link between the situational context and the linguistic features. Situational context is the first of these components. In addition, the analysis of registers includes an in-depth functional analysis of the use of linguistic features. In other words, the analysis of a text from the register point of view involves: its lexical and grammatical characteristics (linguistic features); the types and purposes of the features used (situational context); and the relationship between those two aspects. Since this study observes not only the linguistic features or structure of RMS but also the use of RMS in the context of EFL and the factors that influence the use of RMS in students' academic writing, it is the functional analysis and three characteristics of register that are used

as the main considerations in choosing the term ‘register’ to be used to refer to collected text data (students’ academic writing) in this study.

### **3.4 Recurrent multiword sequences in L1 use**

RMS have been explored extensively in the literature for a long period of time through the use of corpus-based analysis in a broad variety of registers (Barbieri, 2018). More comprehensive study has been conducted in the area of the L1 application of RMS, with the frequency-driven method serving as the foundation for analysis. In particular, the use of RMS in academic registers, especially academic writing, has emerged as a topic of investigation that has piqued the interest of academics (Biber et al. 2004; Cortes, 2002, 2004; Chen and Baker, 2010; Allen, 2011; Ädel and Erman, 2012; Paquot and Granger, 2012). RMS have also been studied in a wider range of studies, including spoken registers (Biber, 2006; Biber and Barbieri, 2007) and university classroom teaching (Biber et al. 2004; Nesi and Basturkmen 2006; Csomay 2013). Some studies have also been conducted addressing the use of RMS in the field of non-academic registers, such as legal registers (Ruth, 2013, web registers (Biber et al., 2015; Biber and Egbert, 2016), and blogs (Barbieri, 2018).

However, despite the fact that this range of studies used the frequency-based approach as the basis for their analysis, this substantial amount of literature demonstrates that RMS are not only the result of frequency analysis of word co-occurrence in a register but are also the result of a variety of other factors. Instead, the order of words plays a very crucial role in the construction of grammatically accurate and exactly meaningful phrases. In order to help language users create communication and mutual understanding, the frequent presence of multi-word sequences can help them do so by making the structure and meaning of a language easier to comprehend and more predictable. (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992). When it comes to building coherence of ideas in both written and spoken discourse, RMS play a key role in linking one phrase to another (Biber et al. 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007). This is based on their functional characteristics, which serve as the expression of stance, discourse organisation, and referential framing (Biber and Barbieri, 2007).

By comparing native and non-native speakers’ written and spoken performance, some scholars (Conklin and Schmitt, 2008; De Cock, 2003, 2004; Foster, 2001; Howarth, 1993, 1996, 1998) have also found that word combinations are a key component in nearly all types of registers. The use of collocations and fixed expressions has been considered a marker of proficient

language use of a particular register, including academic writing (Bamberg, 1983; McCulley, 1985). In spoken registers, a study by Pawley and Syder (1983) also yielded many fruitful results: they argued that the frequent fixed phrases that perform particular discourse functions have an important role in a fluent linguistic production. Other scholars have also examined the use of word combinations between different groups of learners, namely natives and non-natives (Conrad, 1996; Cortes, 2002a, 2004; Ding and Qi, 2005; Wiktorsson, 2003; Wray, 2002, 2008). In general, these studies have found that native speakers perform better than non-native speakers in the use of word combinations, but it is possible for non-native learners to perform as well as natives through appropriate learning exercises, since word combinations are processed more efficiently as a sequence rather than word by word.

### **3.4.1 RMS in academic registers at university**

The significance and primary function of RMS by Biber et al. (2004) and the taxonomy of RMS by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) have shown that despite the fact that RMS are neither structurally complete units nor idiomatic in meaning, they are useful devices and consistently functional for the comprehension and construction of discourse, including in university registers (Conrad and Biber, 2005; Biber, 2006). Furthermore, the overall conclusion gained from research on RMS in university registers is that RMS serve important discourse roles in the construction of texts, particularly academic writings, by L1 users (Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007). Due to the fact that RMS are not idiomatic, but rather are reasonably straightforward to comprehend and recover, they may be used by authors and presenters to develop their ideas in academic registers, which can be beneficial. Aside from that, the structural and linguistic elements of academic writings that incorporate typical academic words and clauses might make it simpler for writers or speakers to put sentences together into a cohesive discourse by employing RMS appropriately (Biber et al., 2004).

Regarding the use of RMS in university registers, Biber and Barbieri (2007) argue that in university registers there are several major distributional patterns of RMS use (see Biber and Barbieri, 2007 pp. 281–282). The findings of their investigation also revealed that, despite the fact that RMS are employed in all university registers, the frequency with which RMS are encountered varies from one register to another, both orally and in writing. When looking at the distributional patterns of RMS, it is clear that they are present in all types of university spoken registers, including classroom teaching and management, office hours, study groups, and service encounters. However, when looking at the distributional patterns of RMS, it is clear

that service encounters have the highest occurrence of RMS, whereas classroom teaching and management have the lowest. While RMS may be found in a variety of academic written registers, including textbooks and academic writing, it is extremely uncommon in academic written registers. When comparing all forms of university registers, course management (e.g., the course curriculum) has the broadest range of RMS, whereas academic prose has the narrowest range when comparing all types of university registers. This study also discovered that RMS are more common in non-academic written registers than in any university register, which is consistent with previous findings. However, earlier research in university registers (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2002) has found that RMS are more prevalent in spoken registers than they are in written registers. Despite the discrepancies between these two studies, the functions of lexical bundles reveal that they are critical in the development of both spoken and written discourse at the university level.

### **3.4.2 The significance of RMS for foreign learners' academic writing**

In foreign language writing at university level, it has been suggested that RMS are important building blocks and the characteristic features of these academic texts for at least three reasons (Coxhead and Byrd, 2007, pp. 134–135). These reasons are that (a) the multi-word sequences are often repeated and become a part of the structural material used by advanced writers; this makes the students' task easier because they work with ready-made sets of words rather than having to create each sentence word by word; (b) the frequent use of such sequences makes them become defining markers of fluent writing – important for the development of writing that fits the expectations of readers in academia; (c) these sequences often lie at the boundary between grammar and vocabulary; they are the lexico-grammatical underpinnings of language often revealed in corpus studies but much harder to see through the analysis of individual texts or from a linguistic point of view that does not study language in use.

In other words, the characteristics of RMS can make it easier for L2 learners to produce good-quality academic writing. The knowledge and use of a wide range of RMS can also help language learners gain naturalness in language use. In contrast, misuse of RMS has been shown to be a potential source of communication difficulties in both spoken and written registers (Millar, 2009). Therefore, for learners of English for academic purposes (EAP), or indeed for learners within any of the more specific academic discourse communities, both knowledge and use of RMS are equally important (Allen, 2011). Learning to write well should also entail learning to use multi-word sequences appropriately, because their lack may be a clear indicator

of the lack of mastery displayed by a novice writer in a specific disciplinary community (Haswell, 1991; Hyland, 2008).

### **3.5 The significance of RMS in second and foreign language learning**

#### **3.5.1 The use of RMS in second and foreign language learning**

Concerning the implications of RMS in second and foreign language learning, a considerable number of studies have been conducted in various registers, such as academic writing (Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Biber and Conrad, 1999; Chen and Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004, 2013; Dahunsi and Ewata, 2022; Hyland and Jiang, 2018; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010), and spoken registers (Baumgarten, 2014, 2016; Biber, 2006; Biber and Barbieri, 2007) including university classroom teaching (Biber et al. 2004; Nesi and Basturkmen 2006; Csomay 2013), tutorials and seminars (Walsh et al., 2011), and textbook discourse (Chen, 2010; Wood, 2010). From a pedagogical perspective, these studies discussed whether or not it is vital to acknowledge that RMS are major components of fluent discourse production and comprehension.

Concerning the pedagogical implications of RMS, Granger (1998) suggested that in foreign language learning the word combinations should be given greater emphasis bearing in mind that the implementation of teaching word combinations should consider the aspects of pedagogy including learning environment, teaching and learning material, and teaching approach. Granger also suggested that to get more comprehensive results from the impact of teaching word combinations on learners' L2 performance, further studies should be conducted on a more empirical basis, by collecting data from larger computer corpora. In terms of using language corpora, Ellis et al. (2008) investigated formulaic language in L1 and L2 learners by triangulating perspectives from corpus linguistics, psycholinguistic experiments and teaching English as a second language (ESL). They proposed that L2 learners need support from specialists in English discourse for academic purposes in order to learn formulaic sequences. Moreover, by combining corpus research with experimental methods, Millar (2011) suggested that formulaic sequences are not only advantageous but essential in language learning: that collocations (and by extension formulaic sequences in general) have a positive impact on language learners' communicative competence. Millar (2011) also suggested that appropriate choice of second-language learning material can create an atmosphere that helps learners develop a rich repertoire of RMS.

### 3.5.2 Reasons for focusing on EFL in Indonesia as the context of the study

Despite significant attention having been paid to RMS as a topic of research in English Language Teaching (ELT), little is known about the importance of using multi-word sequences and their implications in teaching material, especially in an EFL context (Alali and Schmitt, 2012; Hyland, 2012). Major studies on this topic are based on English as the L1, especially in USA and Europe. In the context of EFL, especially in Asia with its over 800 million English speakers (Herscovitch, 2012), there are only a few studies of RMS. Moreover, even though English has been claimed as an Asian language and has typically become the default means of communication in South East Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Obaidul Hamid and Kirkpatrick, 2016), only a few studies on RMS have emerged from ASEAN – even from Indonesia, the country with the largest population in the region. Therefore, this study looks at the use of RMS in Indonesia, especially in academic writing in a university context and from the point of view of incorporating RMS in ELT practices.

Indonesia is categorised as an EFL country due to certain considerations, both legal and practical. In terms of its legal status, the Indonesian government's language policy has defined English as a foreign language (Alwasilah, 2013; Lie, 2007, 2017; Kirkpatrick, 2017). Yet, even though English is considered the main foreign language in Indonesia, it is taught as a compulsory subject only in junior and senior high schools, not in primary schools. English as a medium of instruction (MoI) is implemented only in international schools and private schools. In terms of practical use, English is not spoken outside the classroom or in public; students of English learn it in the classroom, but continue to speak their mother tongue on a daily basis. English is used only in the tourism and international business sectors, whose circumstances require English to be the medium of communication.

Despite the fact that there are only a few studies of RMS and EFL teaching and learning in ASEAN, recent studies on RMS in EFL learning have suggested that learning and using RMS can be beneficial for learners of EFL (Lin, 2016). In fact, Biber et al (2004) have even provided patterns of bundles to help learners and teachers practise the use of RMS in spoken and written registers. The structure of RMS as bundles of words can help learners of EFL learn English more easily. Since they learn the language in chunks, such as *it is argued that* or *I have nothing to do with*, they do not have to translate those English expressions word by word. They merely have to learn the chunks that suit their needs, then use them appropriately in both spoken and written communication.

In addition, learning and practising the use of RMS play a central role in the development of language learners' fluency in speech and writing (Wood, 2006; 2009). Fluency means reading, writing and speaking with speed and accuracy, and the proper practice and use of RMS in writing and speech will help learners produce fluent writing and utterances. On the other hand, a lack or absence of RMS in writing or speech indicates that there is a problem or a lack of fluency in learners' communicative competence (Hyland, 2012). Moreover, the benefits of learning and using RMS are not restricted to the productive skills – speaking and writing; they are also useful for reading comprehension (Underwood et al., 2004). Their study showed that learners – both native and non-native – who read strings of words in formulaic patterns require less processing effort to understand the text compared to learners reading texts with words in non-formulaic patterns. This facility is related to the characteristics of RMS as sequences of words that occur frequently and are not idiomatic: learners can easily recognise the chunks, and their familiarity with those chunks means that they will more easily learn the meaning and the context, then use them in language production (Nesselhauf, 2004).

### **3.5.3 Challenges encountered by EFL learners in learning and using RMS**

Even though various studies have suggested the significances of RMS in language production, the difficulties faced by L2 learners in learning and using RMS are still apparent. The first difficulty is related to the memorisation of the RMS. The nature of native-like vocabulary in a sentence tending not to be single words, L2 learners find it more difficult to remember sequences of words in chunks, and the large variety of chunks also causes the L2 learners to encounter difficulty in mastering the various *kinds* of RMS (Nesselhauf, 2005; Schmitt, 2010). The second problem is related to the use of RMS in writing and utterances. The limited number of RMS memorised by learners causes them to tend to overuse the ones that they know well, without using other variants of RMS. The lack of RMS variations means their writing and speech tends to be stilted, not native-like (Li and Schmitt, 2009).

More studies on the use of RMS in academic writing have shown that L2 users, particularly novice writers in an EFL context, use a limited collection of multi-word sequences in their writing (Chen and Baker, 2010; De Cock, 2000; Ellis, et al. 2008; Durant and Schmitt, 2009; Sánchez-Hernández, 2013; Lin, 2016). In the use of academic formulae, it is also found that L2 learners focus more on the frequency than the collocational strength of word combinations in a sequence. They also have better knowledge of high frequency of RMS than the low ones



as a result of only encounter fewer varieties and only the high frequency of RMS (Ellis et al., 2008). As a consequence, they tend to use multi-word sequences insufficiently as well as tending to overuse well-known phrases in their composition, this latter tendency being exacerbated by the L2 users' sets of multi-word sequences that include non-native-like sequences (partly influenced by their L1s), and overlapping only partially with the set of L1 users (Baumgarten, 2014).

### **3.6 RMS in English foreign language teaching and learning**

A degree of cooperation between the study of RMS and pedagogy, particularly EFL teaching and learning, has emerged in recent years. The implementation of RMS in EFL teaching and learning has been focused on finding the best way to utilise RMS to improve EFL learners' language production. Within the last three years or so, there have been some empirical studies on improving learners' ability to use RMS, especially in Asia. One of the studies was conducted by Zheng (2015). This study merits review here because it applied a longitudinal approach; in it, Zheng observed the development of lexical use in EFL learners in a university in China for approximately a year, during which the learners were asked to write eight general academic writing compositions. Their compositions were then analysed to measure the sophistication, diversity, density of vocabulary, and use of RMS in their writing.

An analysis of the learners' academic writing showed that the complexity and variety of EFL learners' vocabulary tended to increase over the two semesters that comprised the year's study. However, the increase in lexical density tended to flatten over time, and the use of RMS followed a U-shaped curve, increasing at the beginning of the period, decreasing in the middle, and increasing again at the end. One of the results of the analysis suggested that the fluctuation in the use of RMS might be caused by the range of topics addressed by the learners: a higher occurrence of RMS took place within academic texts than in texts that related to learners' personal lives. Further research could be carried out into other factors affecting the variation in the use of RMS, such as learners' beliefs and motivations. Since the use of RMS fluctuated, it was also suggested that the EFL teachers should initiate a range of focused pedagogical approaches to enhance the successful retention of RMS by EFL learners, and their use in the learners' academic writing.

Another study on the use of RMS in a classroom setting was conducted by Kazemi et al. (2014) in Iran. Using an experimental method, they investigated the significance of teaching RMS to

improve EFL students' academic writing. At the beginning of their study, they asked their participants – twenty TEFL students at MA level – to write a 1,000-word essay as part of the pre-test. In the study, forty of the most frequent and functionally important sequences of words relevant to the area of applied linguistics were taught to the participants, who were also taught the contextual use of those RMS. After learning the structure, function, and use of RMS, the learners were asked to do some exercises such as filling in the blanks (cloze exercises), corrections of inappropriate use, and multiple-choice tests. At the end of the process, participants were asked to write a 1,000-word essay. The results suggested, unsurprisingly, that the teaching of RMS improved the participants' academic writing. The results of the questionnaire analysis also revealed that learning more RMS significantly helped learners develop their ideas on how to construct organised and coherent paragraphs in their essays.

Even though the study by Kazemi et al. (2014) showed that learning the use of RMS had a significant impact on students' academic writing, certain factors that might have played a part need to be pointed out. As the participants were highly experienced students, the process of learning the RMS might have been much easier for them. Also, since they were post-graduate students they would probably have been advanced EFL learners, so they might well have been familiar with chunks that were taught – in which case all they would have needed would have been a little practice to enhance their awareness of their use. Note that Kazemi's result is different from the result by Jones and Haywood (2004) which suggested that there were only minor gains in non-native university students' production of RMS after exercises carried out over a period of ten weeks. In that regard, Cortes (2006) suggested that the duration of exercises is crucial in the process of teaching RMS; she found that five 20-minute sessions of teaching RMS to university students in a writing class were insufficient to increase their retention and appropriate use of those RMS. Cortes (2006) suggested that in order to increase learners' RMS, the pedagogical factors (the quality and quantity of teaching and learning atmosphere), the techniques and approach in teaching, the types of teaching material, and the duration of the learning process) should all be taken into consideration. She also suggested that a longitudinal study should be considered to confirm the rate of development of students' mastery of RMS.

In terms of learning vocabulary, especially formulaic patterns, the reading of texts modified to meet students' pedagogic needs is suggested as a beneficial approach for L2 learners (Pellicer-Sánchez, 2017). As learners tend to acquire multi-word sequences effectively through reading, Pellicer-Sánchez (2017) wrote materials with lists of selected RMS and gave them to L2

learners during an experimental process in a classroom setting. After they had read a passage, they were given series of tests to measure their comprehension of form, meaning and use of targeted RMS. The results showed that although the increase in the learners' knowledge of collocations was limited to the specific types of lexical and grammatical two-word combinations in the passage in question, it can indeed be beneficial for learners to learn new lists of multi-word sequences by doing well-designed reading exercises.

Even though the significance of reading exercises to the knowledge of some targeted multi-word combinations, collocations in particular, is obvious (Webb et al., 2013), Pellicer-Sánchez (2017) pointed out that further research using a wider range of word combinations should be conducted in order to gain a clearer view of the impact of reading on learners' RMS mastery. Further studies should also look into the differences between learners' abilities to recognise/recall the forms of word combinations as against recalling their meanings, this study having suggested that although the learners' ability to recall the form of word combinations increased, they still found it difficult to define their correct meanings, especially those of the new lexical items. Therefore, the results of studies by Webb et al. (2013) and Pellicer-Sánchez (2017) need to be interpreted with caution due to the limited range of word combinations taught during the experimental processes, the short durations of the studies and the limited types of reading used in the exercises.

Another empirical study on RMS in the context of Asian EFL novice writers was conducted by Yoo and Shin (2022). Under the umbrella of lexical bundles, their study analysed recurrent multi-word sequences in English argumentative essays written by L1 Korean college students at three proficiency levels: low, mid, and high. The study categorised the most frequent four-word bundles in the three sub-corpora of the learner corpus by structure and detected which bundles appeared in more than one sub-corpus. It then found frequent bi-grams in bundles in each sub-corpus to determine how each proficiency level constructs multi-word sequences in context. They found that more proficient learners used phrasal bundles with post-modifiers and lengthier sentences, mimicking academic prose vocabulary and structure. On the other hand, lower proficiency learners utilised more clausal bundles with first-person pronouns and a few verbs like *want* and *be*, which are typical of spoken and informal registers. These findings showed L2 formulaic language growth through the usage of lexical bundles relevant to each skill level.

### **3.7 Studies on the use of RMS, and RMS as indicators of L2 development**

Regarding the use of multi-word sequences, various studies have shown the importance of memorising and using multi-word sequences in language production. As “routinized ways of presenting information in continuous discourse” (Altenberg, 1998: p. 121; Biber et al., 2004), RMS are a measure of language development, the mastery of multi-word sequences can be considered from the perspective of routinisation of L2 discourse production. The presence of multi-word sequences in language use indicates the degrees of routinisation of discourse production and signals the presence of building blocks for the construction of continuous discourse (Apple and Muray, 2020; Baumgarten, 2014). In other words, as building blocks of a discourse (Biber et al., 2004), multi-word sequences are important indicators for the determination of the success of language users within specific discourse communities as well as being an important measure of L2 development (Appel, 2022; Ding and Qi, 2005). Memorising certain multi-word sequences and using them appropriately in discourse production may help learners establish communication in both spoken and written discourse before they gain an extensive knowledge of native-like patterns. Therefore, learners should go through the process of mastering multi-word sequences, as language users need to use them as scaffolding devices for discourse production (Baumgarten, 2014).

However, the implementation of RMS is still facing challenges in the classroom setting, in teaching methods, and in students’ attitudes (Meunier and Granger, 2008). In 2004, Schmitt et al. conducted a longitudinal study on the knowledge and acquisition of formulaic sequences. Predictably, they found that the learners improved in both their production and their receptive knowledge of formulaic sequences. However, they also discovered that it was difficult to establish the reason for those improvements: it could have been the explicit instruction or the increased and concentrated exposure typical of intensive courses.

In regard to overcoming the problems of L2 users’ acquisition of RMS, some studies have suggested routinisation as an approach that can be implemented successfully. From the perspective of L2 writing specifically, Hyland (2007) proposed a genre approach to help L2 learners understand the vital roles of vocabulary choices and cohesion patterns in achieving literacy in a second language (Li and Schmitt, 2009). It has been proved that L2 users’ repertoire of multi-word sequences broadens as L2 exposure increases (Adolphs and Durow, 2004; Wood, 2006, Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos, 2011; Crossley and Salisbury, 2011; Qi and Ding, 2011; Sánchez-Hernández, 2013). These studies have shown that for L2 users

routinisation of discourse production is accomplished more readily than are lexico-grammatical progress and development towards target-like usage norms. Consequently, these studies have strengthened the idea that development of the use of multi-word sequences outside a consistent norm-providing target language environment may follow special paths (Baumgarten, 2014). Wray (2002) also argues that L2 acquisition of formulaic sequences is dependent on the L2 user's circumstantial and personal needs, so the exposure and routinisation of multi-word sequences for L2 users should be based on their personal needs, such as communication on a daily basis or other interests such as the academic register.

When taking L2 learners' circumstances and personal needs into consideration, it is essential to create a learning model that can integrate theoretical knowledge about RMS (type and structure) and the way to use them in the context of daily communication and academic settings. This is important not only to the learners' understanding of the theory of RMS but more importantly to their appropriate use of them. The curriculum should encourage a practical approach by using RMS that provide EFL learners with the authentic socio-cultural contexts in which the target language is used (Lin, 2016). Thus, the appropriate teaching material of multi-word sequences can help learners acquire the authentic patterns of language that can be so useful in their language production (Li and Schmitt, 2009; Schmitt and Carter, 2004).

### **3.8 Concluding remarks**

The purposes of this chapter have been to review the research development in the field of multi-word sequences in general and to consider their significances to English as a second or foreign language learning in particular. The essential notion of such research is that as building blocks that have discourse function in language production and communication, RMS have been considered as a significant component of fluent linguistic production, L2 development, and defining features of academic discourse. A number of studies have also asserted that RMS have been essential and prerequisite aspects for any second or foreign learners to increase their language proficiency and to be able to communicate in L2 patterns.

Despite the fact that studies have suggested the important role of RMS in language production, however, the problems L2 learners encounter in the learning process have also been identified. The overuse of a limited number of well-known phrases, lack of a diverse range of phrases, and tend to use RMS insufficiently in their writing have been identified as problems in L2 learners' production. These problems have contributed to L2 learners' difficulties in learning

and producing RMS. Therefore, a number of studies have suggested that the comprehensive pedagogical approach and method in teaching RMS may be required to accelerate L2 learning process.

Regarding the purpose of this study to investigate the use of RMS in EFL students' academic writing, the overview of studies in this chapter is fundamental to the further chapters of this study by setting up the theoretical basis both for the methodological and analytical frameworks. Before starting the data analysis, next chapter will describe the research methodology including the reason of adopting lexical bundles approach to RMS, research participants, data collection and data analysis.

The research methodology chapter is crucial to set up the path of data collection and analysis in order to answers the following research questions

1. What are the frequencies and distributions of RMS in students' academic writing?
2. What are the structural classifications of RMS in students' academic writing?
3. What are the functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing?
4. How far do the teaching and learning materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing?
5. How is the EFL teaching and learning process at the university?

## **Chapter 4**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides information related to the research design, methodology, approach, and procedure used to collect and analyse data in the study. This chapter also presents the information related to the site and participants of this study and the reasons for choosing the site and participants. This chapter comprises four sub-chapters. Section 4.1 is the introduction of the chapter. Section 4.2 discusses the research design and approach used in the study. Section 4.3 explains the site and participants of the study. Sections 4.4 and 4.5 discuss the data collection and analysis procedures, respectively. Finally, this chapter ends with section 4.6 concluding remarks. A detailed explanation of the research methodology is discussed in the following sections.

#### **4.2 Research design**

This is a non-experimental study investigates the RMS in academic writing by EFL students in one Indonesian university through the cross-sectional method. The analysis in this study is based on the natural setting of language use. In order to collect the original data, it, therefore, requires a specialised corpus that represents the natural language use of specific users in specific contexts. In this study, the specific users of RMS are EFL students, and the specific context is academic writing at the university level in Indonesia. The EFL students investigated were two groups of undergraduate students who study the English language at a university in Indonesia. They were also in a program to be pre-service teachers who will teach English as a foreign language at junior and senior high schools in Indonesia. The two groups of students were those who are in the first year and in the final year of study.

The investigation of RMS use was carried out by analysing the corpus data (students' academic writing). The analysis comprised RMS frequency and distribution analyses, RMS structural features, and RMS functional classifications. In addition to examining corpus data to determine whether or not EFL students are employing RMS in their academic writing, this study examined the teaching and learning materials that were utilised during the teaching and learning process. The content review analysis was used to gather information on what materials students learnt and whether or not the instructional materials contained adequate information about RMS or other language expressions that may aid students in composing their academic

writing. In addition, the data from the interviews was analysed in this study. To acquire insight into institutional teaching and learning processes, interviews were performed in order to explain and contextualise the results of the corpus analysis. It is based on the fact that even though there have been a few studies which used both corpora and other data sources (see Candarli, 2020, 2021, Li & Schmitt, 2009; Macqueen, 2012;), the use of three analytical perspectives (corpus data, teaching and learning materials, and interviews) was fundamental since the previous studies on recurrent multiword sequences, lexical bundles, or formulaic languages mostly only focused on corpus analysis (see. Biber et al., 1999; Wray, 2002; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2004; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010).

It is worth noting that by focusing on the use of RMS in academic writing at the university level in Indonesia, this study contributes to the collaboration between the study of RMS and English as a foreign language EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia. As a result, the findings of this study are projected to serve as a link between the study of RMS and EFL teaching and learning at the university level, where RMS are viewed as markers of learning and the development of writing fluency, among other applications. This is significant since the purpose of this study is to determine how Indonesian students employ RMS in their academic writing, and this is particularly relevant in this context. The findings of the study on the use of RMS, along with the findings of analyses of teaching and learning materials and interviews, give a systematic insight into the current state of EFL learning in Indonesia. This is due to the fact that there have not been many studies on RMS at the university-level in Indonesian EFL teaching and learning.

### **4.3 Research site and participants**

#### **4.3.1 Research site**

This study was conducted at the Department of English Education, the State University of Gorontalo in Indonesia. This department was selected for these following reasons;

1. The core study of this department is English education in which this department is preparing the students to be the teachers of English at junior and senior high schools in Indonesia.
2. The university is one of the twelve education universities in Indonesia that prepares teachers in Indonesia
3. The curriculum in this department is the national-based curriculum used by all English departments in all education universities in Indonesia. Therefore, this department can be a



case study to represent the circumstances of English departments in education universities in Indonesia.

4. The department has the most students in terms of the number of students, ethnic, social, and economy backgrounds compare to the other English departments in eastern Indonesia.
5. The students in this department are not only from its province but also from other areas in eastern Indonesia. Therefore, the students in this department can be the representative of EFL undergraduate students in eastern Indonesia.

#### **4.3.2 Research participants**

Since this study investigates the use of RMS in the university context, EFL teaching and learning materials, and EFL teaching and learning process in the site, the data will be collected from

1. Two groups of undergraduate students who study the English language at the English Education Department, the State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia. The two groups of students were those who are writing their undergraduate thesis, the final academic year students (YEAR4 students) and those who are in the first year of study, the first academic year students (YEAR1 students). They were selected as participants because their academic writing were compared to find out if there are differences in the use of RMS between the first year and final year students. In addition, the results of the analysis of RMS use from these two groups will be the starting point to analyse the factors that influence the production and use of RMS by students at the university level.
2. Lecturers from some modules related to RMS; academic writing, grammar, and intensive course subject. Lecturers from these particular subjects were selected in order to provide data and information from teaching and learning perspective related to the language use in productive skills, particularly academic writing.
3. The head of English Department, the State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia.

Prior to conducting any text data, documents collection, interview, first of all, I sent an email contained approval letter and introduction letter to the head of English Department. The approval letter was to get approval from the head of the department to conduct research at the Department of English education, State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia. The introduction letter explained that I am going to carrying out fieldwork for my PhD project. The introduction letter provided information about my project and its aims. I explained why I am interested in taking the department as the site of my research and recruiting students, lecturers, and head of

the department to become the research participants. The letter also explained the kinds of documents would be collected from students, lecturers, and department and the reason I should collect the documents.

After getting consent letter from the head of English department to allow me conducting research at the department, I sent a letter to all participants of my research. The letter informed participants about my research and the importance of collecting data from them. The letter also explained the importance of their views relating to my research and what the focus of the text data collection and interview would be and would give them the opportunity to participate in an informal, semi-structured interview. The letter also informed that students who took part in the research would not get better marks or grades on their assignment, assessment, and examination or any benefits from lecturers and department as a result of taking part in this research. The letter also explained that there would be no negative effects for those who were not taking part in terms of their marks and grades. It would be made clear that they may choose to not taking part in this research or to withdraw from the research process whenever they wish.

Moreover, participants were asked to sign a consent form which they received in either English or Indonesian, according to their preference. The information sheet and consent form are written in clear and easy-to-understand language. I asked the department of English education, the State University of Gorontalo in Indonesia to check the documents before I used them, to ensure the tone and language used were appropriate. The consent form included the lecturers', students', and department's agreement to collect and use the dataset in my research. It also included the participant's agreement for the interview to take place and be recorded, for the recording to be saved, stored and transcribed, and for the data to be potentially used in my thesis and future projects. I did a group presentation on site of what my project entails before collecting documents and doing interviews. This was important for those participants to understand my research and its aims. Information sheets were there for participants to read, and I distributed the consent forms to all those who participated in my research.

All participants were informed of the nature of my research and what my plans were. The EFL students investigated were two groups of undergraduate students who studied the English language at the English education department, State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia. They were also in a program to become pre-service teachers who will teach English as a foreign language at junior and senior high schools in Indonesia. The two groups of students were those

who are writing their undergraduate thesis and those who were in the first year of study. The students who were writing their thesis could be categorised in intermediate level since they have passed all the subjects and TOEFL test with 500 as the minimum score as the requirement to write the undergraduate thesis. The first-year students could be categorised in beginner level since they only passed the national test of English as the enrolment test for the university in Indonesia.

#### **4.3.3 Data confidentiality measures**

Corpus data and interview data were anonymous. I used the code as a participant identification number (ID) to anonymise participants' identity. For the corpus data, participants did not write their names or ID numbers on the text they submitted. They were asked only to write;

- the second letter of their first name (e.g., U for Zulkifli)
- the last number of their birth year (e.g., 6 for 3456)
- the first letter of the city/town/village they were born in (e.g., G for Gorontalo)
- the last two digits of their mobile phone numbers (e.g., 10 for 0123 4567 8910)

Included within the informed consent form given or sent to the participant was a section asking those participants to give their permission for their data gained from the collected documents and interviews to be cited in my thesis or any subsequent related published work, conferences or teaching. This granting of consent was confirmed following the sending of the transcripts to participants, with the participants needing to assent to this use in writing.

### **4.4 Data collection and instruments**

#### **4.4.1 Corpus data**

Corpus data collection was conducted through documentation. The corpus data consisted of two sets of data; the undergraduate research proposal and thesis data (YEAR4) and the data from first-year students' academic essays and research reports (YEAR1). These corpora were selected because they can provide data on academic texts related to the focus of this research, the RMS in students' academic writing. The corpus data were collected by asking the students to submit their academic writing. During the process of data collection, the students submitted the files of their academic writing in person. The files then collected and stored in the University of Sheffield drive as agreed in the document of research ethics approval. The corpora were analysed to investigate the use of RMS in students' academic writing in order to

answer research questions one, two, and three. The analysis comprised RMS frequency and distribution analyses, RMS structural features, and RMS functional classifications.

#### **4.4.2 Teaching and learning materials**

This study also collects the curriculum and teaching material from the lecturers and policy documents from the department as supporting data to analyse the EFL teaching and learning process in the university setting. The teaching and learning materials were collected through documentation. In order to collect the documents, I submitted the letter of approval to the head of department. After getting the approval, I collected the teaching and learning materials from the English education department's archive. The documents then stored in the University of Sheffield drive as agreed in the document of research ethics approval. The collected documents were analysed in order to obtain information on what materials students learned and whether the teaching materials provided sufficient material about RMS or other language expressions that could assist students in compiling their academic writing.

#### **4.4.3 Interview data**

This study applied semi-structured interview as a tool to collect data and information in order to gain insight into institutional teaching and learning practices and thereby to explain and contextualise the corpus analysis. A set of questions was administered as the guideline of the interview. The interviews were conducted with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The questions for students were designed to gather insight into the learning process at the university from the students' perspective. Questions were asked to lecturers to get comprehensive information regarding teaching and learning materials, learning environment, and teaching and learning process. Questions were asked to the head of the department to get thorough information regarding the department's curricula, teaching materials, learning environment, teaching and learning process, and its policy on English language teaching and learning. The interviews were recorded and the recording files were stored in the University of Sheffield drive as agreed in the document of research ethics approval.

### **4.5 Data analysis procedure**

#### **4.5.1 Corpus data analysis**

Corpus data in this study were analysed to investigate the use of RMS, their frequency distribution within and across the groups, their structural patterns, as well as their discourse functions. The cluster/n-grams-function or RMS of the concordancer software, AntConc

(Anthony, 2012) was used to extract all RMS from the two corpora. A frequency-driven approach was employed for the identification of RMS as the starting point for subsequent analysis to answer research questions. In order to obtain a more in-depth insight into the use of RMS in students' academic writing, the highly recurrent multi-word units retrieved from text data were examined to see their structural classification. To explore the functions of multi-word sequences, the RMS were examined in their discourse context to identify their primary functions.

In other words, this study used frequency and distribution analyses of RMS as the starting points then continued with the analyses of structure and function of RMS in students' writing. The frequency analysis is principal, but the structure, function, use of RMS in the texts cannot be reviewed solely from the occurrence of high-frequency RMS. Many of high frequent multi-word sequences occur with the high frequency only in some specific texts, not in the entire corpus. For that reason, relying only on frequency analysis is not sufficient. A comprehensive analysis of RMS needs analyses on distribution, structure, and function of RMS. The analyses of distribution, structure, and function were conducted to provide comprehensive insight on how EFL students use RMS in their academic writing.

#### **4.5.1.1 Corpus data set used in this study**

The corpus data for this study characterised written English texts produced by Indonesian undergraduate students. Two corpora used in this study consists of first-year students' academic essays and research reports and final year students' research proposals and thesis. The size of original texts collected from students is given in table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Original texts' information

	<b>FIST YEAR</b>	<b>FINAL YEAR</b>
Number of texts	116	79
Text types	Academic essays and research reports	Research proposal and thesis
Number of words	213355	323319
Total number of words	536674	

The original texts collected from students were still rough texts that have not met the criteria of texts to be called research data or corpus. Therefore, the first decision that I made was preparing the corpus by reformatting all texts in order to be compatible with software text type and characters and most importantly, to be eligible as research corpus. I change the text type from MS Word to plain text type. I also did some alterations on the texts to make them eligible to be analysed both in terms of characters of text for software analysis and in terms of structure and content of text for RMS analysis. The alteration included the substitution of every single character in MS Word texts with text characters that were compatible with AntConc text format, including punctuations. The alteration on punctuation was crucial because most of the punctuation characters in MS Word were read as ‘error’ characters on the software. These errors affected the result of the analysis of RMS types and tokens.

In order to make analysis easier, I also changed the following characters in the texts, as seen in table 4.2:

Table 4.2. Alteration of corpus data

<b>Original Texts</b>	<b>Data Texts</b>
Author, Year, Page on reference	Reference
Words, phrases, clauses, sentences from quotation	“Quotation”
Words, phrases, clauses, sentences from story	“utterance from story”
IPA (phonetic symbols/features)	letters or “phonetic features”
Title of books, novels, movies, TV programs	Name
People or characters in books, novels, movies	Name
Authors of poems, novel, or literary works	Name
Producers, directors, or name of studio	Name
Association or organisation	Name
Social Media (Twitter, FB, YouTube)	Name

Since this study is to investigate the natural use of RMS in EFL students’ academic writing, the substitution was done to make sure that the corpus only contained the students’ original words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. I also dropped tables from texts because the tables only contained some words that mostly taken from references. Even though some tables contained data, the words or phrases in the table were limited, and then the content of the table was

explained comprehensively in sentences above or below the tables. I also dropped the formula such as statistical analysis formula from the texts since they were originally from reference not from students' own words.

After doing alteration and substitution, the sizes of resultant First Year and Final Year Corpora are given in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Corpus Information

	FIST YEAR	FINAL YEAR
Number of texts	116	79
Text types	Academic essays and research reports	Research proposal and thesis
Number of words	130454	287551
Total number of words	418005	

The table 4.3. shows that the number of texts in first year is higher than those in final year corpus. Meanwhile, the number of words in first year is lower than those in final year corpus. This condition is realised by the researcher due to the fact that it was not easy to collect longer texts from first year students since they only wrote short essays and short research reports that consisted of less than two thousand words per text. Therefore, I decided to collect more texts in order to get at least more than one hundred thousand words from year one students. The collected texts were essays and research reports (first year) and research proposals and undergraduate thesis (final year). The topics of texts in the corpus were linguistics, literature, and English language teaching and learning as they are the subjects that are taught in the department.

#### **4.5.1.2 Identification of RMS**

The second step on the data analysis process was to determine the threshold, both for frequency and distribution of RMS. As defined in chapter 3, RMS are the most frequently occurring multi-word sequences of three or more words in a register (Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004). In other words, the frequency and distribution of co-occurrence are the main criteria to identify RMS in a corpus. The RMS must occur with high frequency in a register. In terms of

distribution, multi-word sequences can only be considered as RMS if they do not only represent individual style; instead, they must be shared by multiple writers or speakers and occur across various texts in a register. In previous research on RMS and lexical bundles, the threshold for frequency and distribution has been various between 10 and 40 times per million words in at least five different texts in a corpus (e.g. Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010). The diverse use of threshold is based on the corpus size of each study.

The use of threshold for frequency in those previous studies was eligible since they used a large number of a corpus that consisted of more than one million words. Since this study only used a smaller size of corpus (418005 words), the preliminary analysis on the corpus was conducted to determine the threshold for frequency and dispersion. In the preliminary analysis, I tried to use three different minimum frequency, 1, 5, and 10, and two for a range of texts, 1 and 5 to see the result on RMS, frequency and range. The result of the preliminary analysis showed that many high frequency multi-word sequences only found in one or two texts. Even though the multi-word sequences frequently occurred, they could not be considered as RMS since they were only shared in one or two texts. The result on minimum 10 for frequency and 5 for range also showed that there were only less than five RMS of 5-word sequences produced by first-year students. Considering the result of the preliminary test on the RMS and due to small size corpus used in this study, therefore, the frequency is set at minimum 5, and the distribution threshold is set at minimum 5. This threshold is set for the whole corpus of the first year and final year students' writing. It is to ensure that the high frequent multi-word sequences were not solely idiosyncrasies of particular texts or writers, but at least five different writers share them.

The third decision in the process of data analysis was to determine the length of multi-word sequences that would be included in the data analysis, whether two, three, four, five, or six lexical sequences or all of them. It is well known that previous studies (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010; and many other studies) did not include two (bi-gram) and three lexical sequences in their analysis regarding the characters of two and three lexical sequences that are highly frequently but contain many subsumed phrases of four or five-word phrases. On the other hand, the other research (e.g., Baumgarten, 2014) included two- and three-word RMS in the analysis since they are the smallest units of pre-patterned language use and most importantly, they are the basic building



blocks of discourse. The result of the preliminary analysis also indicated that even though the 2-word RMS are fragments of the longer sequences, (e.g., *of the* is the fragment of *one of the approaches*), they are important components of longer sequences. The decision to include 2-word RMS in the analysis was aimed to analyse whether EFL students recycle the shortest RMS (2-word RMS) to construct the longer RMS. Therefore, this study includes the analysis from the shortest 2-word RMS to the longest one, 6-word RMS, but the main focus of analysis is 3-word to 5-word RMS. It is due to the fact that students in both groups rarely use the 6-word RMS. There is only one 6-word RMS in YEAR1 corpus. Thus, these considerations provide a solid basis to determine the 3-, 4-, 5-word RMS spans as the focus of analysis.

#### **4.5.2 Analysis of teaching and learning materials**

Alongside analysing the use of RMS in EFL students' academic writings, this study also analyses documents related to the teaching process of RMS, including curriculum and teaching and learning materials at the university level. A content review of the RMS in the teaching and learning documents in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups was carried out. The content analysis of teaching and learning documents was to answer research question four entitled how far do the teaching and learning materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing? For this purpose, I examined two sets of materials: the Intensive Course IC Books (for the YEAR1 group) and the Writing for Academic Purposes WAP course (for the YEAR4 group) materials. There are two main reasons for conducting an analysis of teaching and learning materials: (1) to provide comprehensive information about what materials students learn (2) to investigate whether the materials provide sufficient material of RMS in the teaching of academic writing that can help students in learning RMS and use the RMS in composing their academic writing.

Analysis of teaching and learning materials was carried out using content analysis of the materials at each level, YEAR1 and YEAR4 teaching materials. Analysis cannot be carried out thematically due to the fact that materials from each year are different in terms of content and structure. From the material point of view, the IC materials are far better than those for WAP since the IC course has two handbooks used by students and lecturers. The WAP materials are only given in separated files (e.g., PDF, PPT slides, MS Word documents, or videos). The analysis of RMS in teaching materials was conducted by using frequency and range of RMS types in order to see whether the materials provide sufficient material of RMS in the teaching of academic writing.

### **4.5.3 Interview data analysis**

The interviews were conducted in order to answer research question five, entitled how is the EFL teaching and learning process at the university? It was necessary to conduct interviews to support the data acquired for different areas of the thesis, including the study of RMS use in students' academic writing and the analysis of teaching and learning documents. The interviews were conducted with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The questions for students were designed to gather insight into the learning process at the university from the students' perspective. Questions were asked to lecturers to get comprehensive information regarding teaching and learning materials, learning environment, and teaching and learning process. Questions were asked to the head of the department to get thorough information regarding the department's curricula, teaching materials, learning environment, teaching and learning process, and its policy on English language teaching and learning.

There were 15 participants in the semi-structured interviews. It consists of 11 EFL university students, four lecturers and one head of department who were volunteered to be interviewed. The semi-structured interviews were selected due to the fact that the participants prefer to do the one-on-one interview to focus group discussion. All participants refused to be interviewed in a group for various reasons. Among them is the reluctance to express opinions in front of their friends or colleagues, and even many students stated that they did not want to be interviewed because they were not confident and did not want to be thought of as judging the lecturers and the department when expressing their opinions. Therefore, the semi-structured (one-on-one) interviews were selected as the approach.

### **4.6 Concluding remarks**

This chapter has explained the research design, approach, and procedures used in this study. It has explained the process of creating the corpus with all its requirements and decision taken for it. Then, it elaborated on how the other data set (teaching and learning materials and interviews) were collected and analysed. Therefore, in the next chapter, I focus on the analysis part of this study. The next chapter (chapter 5) will present the results of frequency and distribution analyses and analyses of structural and functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing.

## **Chapter 5**

### **RMS in EFL Students' Academic Writing**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the analysis of RMS use in the YEAR1 and the YEAR4 EFL students' academic writing. The analysis discusses the RMS frequency and distribution across the two groups. The analysis is to answer the first research question of this study - what are the frequencies and distributions of RMS in students' academic writing? Since this study is aimed at contributing to the relationship between the study of RMS and English as a foreign language EFL teaching and learning at the university level, this chapter discusses the comparison of RMS use between the YEAR1 and the YEAR4 groups. The comparison is essential in order to see whether the frequency and distribution of RMS in each group are similar or different and whether there is a progression or development of EFL proficiency in terms of RMS use from the YEAR1 to the YEAR4. The result of the analysis is essential to see whether there is an impact of EFL teaching and learning process at university towards students, considering the fact that the YEAR4 students have learned English for four years while the YEAR1 students have learned English for less than a year.

This chapter begins with the frequency analysis of RMS use, and then followed by the distribution analysis of RMS used by YEAR1 and YEAR4 in their academic writing. The analysis of frequency is done at the beginning because the frequency is the first criterion of RMS and considering the aim of this chapter to find out the most frequent RMS in EFL students' academic writing. Previous studies (e.g. Wray, 2002; Biber et al., 1999; Cortes, 2004) argue that frequency is a determining factor in the identification of formulaic sequences or lexical bundles. In the corpus analysis, researchers use automated corpus tools to determine the number and types of RMS to be analysed in a study. In the present study, the analysis is carried out based on frequency counts; then the frequency counts reveal the RMS types and number of times RMS occur within texts. The analysis of frequency is essential in order to find out the number of RMS in two groups and the most and the least frequent RMS. The frequency analysis is important to reveal the RMS which are not in the lists of the most and the least frequent but help students in the composition of their academic writing, and how long or short the RMS are.

The analysis of RMS distribution across texts in both groups is carried out since the use of RMS in the texts cannot be reviewed solely from the occurrence of high-frequent RMS. There

is a possibility that many of highly frequent RMS only occur in the limited number of texts or they are only used by particular speakers or writers. As a result, the most frequent RMS in a corpus might be idiosyncrasy (Cortes, 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007). Idiosyncrasy means that the multi-word sequences only occur in the limited number of texts. They do not represent the overall use of RMS. Instead, they only reflect the RMS use of particular individuals. For that reason, relying only on frequency analysis is not sufficient to see how RMS use in this study. It requires the second standardised criterion to identify RMS, which is the distribution (range/number) of texts where RMS occur or the number of students who use the RMS in the academic writings.

The distribution threshold has varied from study to study. Most of the studies on RMS in written texts (e.g. Biber et al., 1999; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2004; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010) argue that the RMS should appear in at least five different texts. Following this threshold, the distribution for the present study is set at minimum five. This threshold is set to ensure that the highly frequent RMS do not solely occur in particular texts. Instead, there must be at least five different texts. In other words, at least five students use the RMS in each group to ensure that the RMS distribution represents the whole phenomenon of RMS use in the YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. It is to identify whether all students in each group use the most frequent RMS found in each corpus or only a limited number of students use the most frequent RMS.

Regarding this, the distribution analysis for the present study is carried out in order to analyse the use of RMS in students' academic writing from two perspectives (1) distribution across the individual text in each group, (2) distribution based on the placement in the sections of academic writing. The analysis of RMS distribution (1) is done to see whether the most frequent RMS are consistently used by all students or only by a small number of students in each group. The RMS distribution analysis (2) is carried out in order to see whether students use RMS in all sections or dominantly only in particular sections of academic writing. It is done by checking in what sections the RMS occur – in the introduction section, main body, concluding section for YEAR1 group and in the introduction chapter, literature review, methodology chapter, research finding and discussion, concluding the chapter for YEAR4 group.

## 5.2 Frequency of RMS

This section presents the analysis of RMS frequency from YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. It is to see the general frequency of RMS types and tokens as well as the most frequent RMS across all spans. In the present study, the number of RMS types refers to the number of a single or distinct form of RMS in each corpus, such as *one of the*, *according to reference*, and *as cited in reference*. The number of RMS tokens refers to the occurrences or repeat uses of the same RMS. For example, the RMS *one of the* might occur 20 times in YEAR1 corpus and 15 times in YEAR4 corpus. The sequence *one of the* is the RMS type, and the number of its occurrence is the RMS token. The general information of RMS types and tokens is presented, then followed with normalised frequency counts of RMS types and tokens. Using the AntConc concordancer software (Anthony, 2012), the general frequency of RMS types and tokens from both sub-corpora, YEAR1 and YEAR4 are generated.

Regarding the aim of this study, which is to compare the RMS use between YEAR1 and YEAR4, this study does the type and token ratio TTR calculation. Conducting a type/token ratio calculation is advantageous when comparing RMS across corpora (Baker, 2006; Chen and Baker, 2010). The type/token ratio is “the number of types divided by the number of tokens expressed as percentages” (Baker, 2006, p.52). TTR illustrates how rich or “lexically varied” the vocabulary used in the text. For the present study, if the TTR is low, the student uses the same words (RMS types) repeatedly in the text. In other words, the text is not very lexically diverse. In relation to the teaching and learning processes, it might be assumed that students can develop a greater range of RMS throughout the processes of teaching and learning so that they can express their ideas in different sentence patterns in their academic writing. After learning English for four years, the YEAR4 students are expected to master more and broader range of vocabulary set than the YEAR1 students. Consequently, the analysis of TTR is essential to see whether there is a development of RMS use and whether students’ academic writing are lexically varied, or they only rely on a specific sequence of words and use them repeatedly.

### 5.2.1 General Description RMS Frequency

The presented RMS types and tokens in this study are normalised for the purpose of comparing the RMS in both sub-corpora since the sizes of both sub-corpora vary (Baumgarten, 2014). In the process of determining the cut-off for the normalised frequency, I have tested different sets of cut-off; from per 1,000 words to per 1,000,000 words, and it is found that per 1.000 words

is more manageable compared to other sets of cut-off. As stated in the methodology chapter and regarding the pattern used by Baumgarten (2014), the normalised frequency per 1,000 words is used regarding the size of the corpus that is less than 500,000 words.

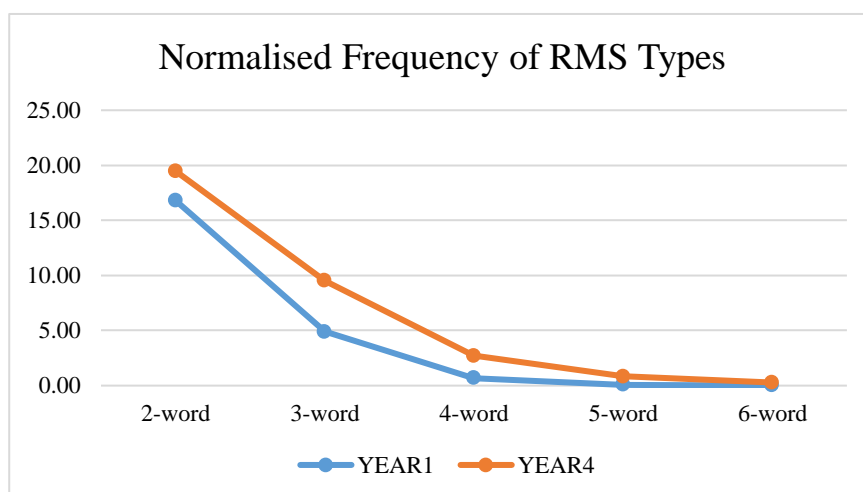
In terms of RMS spans, there are two decisions to determine the length of RMS to be analysed. The first decision is to include 2-word and 3-word RMS into data set alongside 4-word, 5-word, and 6-word RMS. Most studies which have analysed RMS under lexical bundles approach have focused on 4-word bundles because they occur with higher frequency than 5-word bundles, and many 3-word bundles are in fact part of longer, 4-word bundles (Chen and Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004). The other research (e.g. Baumgarten, 2014) include 2- and 3-word RMS in the analysis since they are the smallest units of pre-patterned language use and most importantly, they are the basic building blocks of a discourse. Moreover, the decision to include 2-word RMS in the analysis is aimed to analyse whether EFL students recycle the shortest RMS (2-word RMS) to construct the longer RMS. Therefore, this study includes the analysis from the shortest 2-word RMS to the longest one, 6-word RMS.

The second decision is to determine the length of RMS as the focus of the investigation, which is 3-word, 4-word, and 5-word RMS. The reason behind this decision is that 3-word RMS can hold 2- RMS within their sequence (*as a result*, which contains *a result*) (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008). Moreover, 4-word and 5-word RMS are much more frequent than 6-word RMS, which are found to be rare sequences (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2012). The result of the preliminary analysis that I conducted indicates that the 2-word RMS are fragments of the longer sequences, namely, 3-, 4-, 5-word (e.g., *of the* is the fragment of *one of the*). It is also found that students in both groups rarely use the 6-word RMS. There is only one 6-word RMS in YEAR1 corpus. The decision to focus on 3-word to 5-word RMS is in line with the set up in previous studies that have worked on various RMS spans from 3-word to 5-word RMS (e.g., DeCock, 2000; Cortes, 2004). Thus, these considerations provide a solid basis to determine the 3-, 4-, 5-word RMS spans as the focus of analysis.

The analysis of RMS frequency is presented in two figures. Figure 5.1 displays the normalised frequency counts of RMS types, and Figure 5.2 presents the normalised frequency counts of RMS tokens in YEAR1 and YEAR4 sub-corpora. The Y-axis in Figure 5.1 shows the normalised frequency counts of RMS types per 1,000 words and the X-axis shows the RMS

spans. In Figure 5.2, the Y-axis shows the normalised frequency counts of RMS tokens per 1,000 words and the X-axis shows the RMS spans.

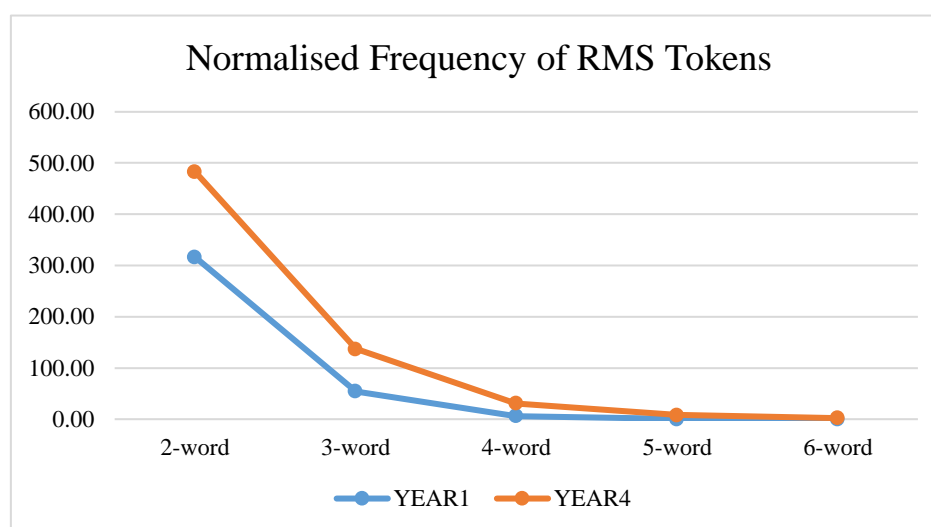
Figure 5.1 RMS types of YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups



Corpora	2-word	3-word	4-word	5-word	6-word
YEAR1	16.80	4.90	0.70	0.08	0.01
YEAR4	19.48	9.54	2.73	0.85	0.28

Despite the objective of this study not to compare the frequency of RMS from both groups, Figure 5.1 shows that the frequencies of RMS types in the YEAR4 group are higher than those are in the YEAR1 group across all spans. Particularly in 3-word, 4-word, and 5-word RMS as the focus of analysis, RMS types of YEAR4 in 3- and 4-word RMS are double than those in YEAR1 group. It is also shown that the frequency of 4-word RMS in YEAR1 group is below one. It means that YEAR1 students do not use 4-word RMS per a thousand word. The frequencies in 5-word RMS in both groups are under one, which means that there is no 5-word RMS per a thousand word in both groups. Since the types refer to a distinct RMS, the result of analysis in 3- and 4-word RMS suggests that RMS used by YEAR4 students are more varied than those in YEAR1. This result suggests that they might acquire greater vocabulary set than YEAR1 students have. In relation to EFL teaching and learning, these frequencies indicate that there is a progression in terms of vocabulary mastery of YEAR4 students. They master more variety of words after they learn English for four years at university compared to YEAR1 students.

Figure 5.2 RMS tokens of YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups



Corpora	2-word	3-word	4-word	5-word	6-word
YEAR1	316.51	54.03	6.25	0.59	0.06
YEAR4	483.15	137.13	30.67	7.87	2.04

Similar to frequencies of RMS types, Figure 5.2 shows that the frequencies of RMS tokens in YEAR4 group are higher than the frequencies in YEAR1 group from 2-word to 6-word RMS. The frequency of 3-word RMS in YEAR4 is 2.5 times higher, and the frequency of 4-word is almost five times higher than in YEAR1 group. It is also shown that the frequency of 5-word RMS in YEAR1 group is below one. It means that YEAR1 students do not reuse the RMS types in their academic writing. These frequencies show that YEAR4 students reuse a larger quantity of RMS tokens in their academic writing than the YEAR1 students. In other words, the YEAR4 students use more RMS types repeatedly than those in YEAR1 group because the increase of RMS types in YEAR4 group is accompanied by an increase in the number of RMS tokens.

These results are in line with findings in Kang and Wang (2014). They found that higher-level candidates of Cambridge English exams (C1-C2) produced more RMS types and tokens than those in lower-level candidates. The more RMS types in the texts can be the indication of proficiency development, particularly in vocabulary set used in academic writing. On the other hand, the results in the present study need to be interpreted with caution. Regarding the use of RMS by EFL students, some of the previous studies argue that non-native speakers of English use fewer (Erman, 2009; Howarth, 1998) and less various (Granger, 1998) lexical bundles. In



addition, in relation to teaching and learning of academic writing, the other study that shares similar findings with these results (e.g., Vidakovic and Barker, 2010) argues that the increase of RMS types and tokens should be analysed more comprehensively. When they compare the total number of types and tokens in academic writing examinations across five entry levels, they suggested that the high number of bundles is not an indication of an exceptional mastery of lexical bundles. It might be only the result of the highly frequent use of particular word sequences which they have acquired.

In the present study, the higher number of RMS types in YEAR4 group, on the one hand, can be the indication of the progression of English proficiency. On the other hand, a higher number of RMS tokens might indicate that there is a high number of repeat use of the same RMS types in students' texts. For example, the frequency of 3-word RMS types in YEAR4 (9.54) produces 137.13 RMS tokens. It means that YEAR4 students use each RMS type fifteen times in their texts. Meanwhile, The YEAR1 students use each RMS type ten times in their texts, in which 4.90 3-word RMS types produce 54.03 RMS tokens. It means that the YEAR4 students use the same RMS types more repeatedly than YEAR1 students do. This result suggests that the frequencies of RMS types and tokens presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2 have not explained the comprehensive information of how students use RMS in their academic writing. In order to explain the phenomenon more comprehensively, the investigation of lexical variation/diversity, namely type and token ratio TTR is carried out. It is to see how often students in both groups use each RMS types repetitively in their academic writing. The combination of analysis on RMS types, RMS tokens, and TTR has been used previously in various studies (e.g. Read, 2000; Baker, 2006; Read & Nation 2006; Chen and Baker, 2010; Schmitt 2005), therefore, this study uses TTR as the part of analysis.

### **5.2.2 Frequency counts of the most frequent RMS from both YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups**

The data shown in the following table 5.1 is used to answer the first research question of this study - What are the frequencies and distributions of RMS in students' academic writing?. The data in Table 5.1 also shows how often each RMS type occur in the texts.

Table 5.1 breaks down the data analysis result of frequency by comparing the top 15 frequent RMS used by both groups. The table 5.1 displays only the 15 most frequent RMS since the frequency drops to very low - under one per a thousand words - very quickly and the under one frequency means that some students do not have any RMS per a thousand words in their

academic writing. The list of a complete highest 50 and lowest 50 RMS across all spans can be seen in the Appendix.

Table 5.1 List of 15 most frequent RMS used by YEAR1 and YEAR4 students based on frequency of RMS tokens

<b>Two Words</b>			
<b>YEAR1 RMS</b>	<b>Freq</b>	<b>YEAR4 RMS</b>	<b>Freq</b>
<i>of the</i>	7.19	<i>of the</i>	6.86
<i>in the</i>	5.42	<i>in the</i>	5.06
<i>to the</i>	3.16	<i>this research</i>	3.32
<i>is a</i>	3.02	<i>to the</i>	3.21
<i>is the</i>	2.60	<i>on the</i>	2.79
<i>it is</i>	2.46	<i>the data</i>	2.75
<i>the word</i>	2.02	<i>the researcher</i>	2.70
<i>as a</i>	2.00	<i>it is</i>	2.54
<i>from the</i>	1.98	<i>is a</i>	2.46
<i>there are</i>	1.93	<i>in this</i>	2.46
<i>can be</i>	1.88	<i>based on</i>	2.42
<i>such as</i>	1.85	<i>the students</i>	2.28
<i>of a</i>	1.75	<i>can be</i>	2.18
<i>on the</i>	1.72	<i>is the</i>	2.17
<i>and the</i>	1.58	<i>this study</i>	2.16
<b>Three Words</b>			
<i>one of the</i>	0.82	<i>according to reference</i>	1.42
<i>the process of</i>	0.48	<i>based on the</i>	1.16
<i>the use of</i>	0.47	<i>in order to</i>	0.89
<i>is one of</i>	0.45	<i>cited in reference</i>	0.87
<i>of the word</i>	0.45	<i>of this research</i>	0.76
<i>it can be</i>	0.39	<i>the use of</i>	0.76
<i>of a word</i>	0.38	<i>the researcher will</i>	0.68
<i>the meaning of</i>	0.35	<i>this research is</i>	0.67
<i>part of speech</i>	0.33	<i>one of the</i>	0.67
<i>a combination of</i>	0.28	<i>of this study</i>	0.62

<i>based on the</i>	0.28	<i>in this research</i>	0.59
<i>word formation process</i>	0.28	<i>as cited in</i>	0.55
<i>as well as</i>	0.28	<i>it can be</i>	0.54
<i>there are many</i>	0.28	<i>in learning process</i>	0.51
<i>can be used</i>	0.27	<i>the result of</i>	0.48
<b>Four Words</b>			
<i>is one of the</i>	0.35	<i>as cited in reference</i>	0.55
<i>in the form of</i>	0.22	<i>reference as cited in</i>	0.46
<i>is formed from the</i>	0.18	<i>is one of the</i>	0.28
<i>the meaning of the</i>	0.17	<i>reference cited in reference</i>	0.27
<i>is the process of</i>	0.15	<i>of this research is</i>	0.23
<i>the part of speech</i>	0.15	<i>on the other hand</i>	0.21
<i>the people of region</i>	0.12	<i>in the form of</i>	0.20
<i>the word formation process</i>	0.12	<i>to the target language</i>	0.20
<i>part of a word</i>	0.11	<i>to find out the</i>	0.19
<i>the process of forming</i>	0.11	<i>in this research the</i>	0.18
<i>on the other hand</i>	0.10	<i>of this study is</i>	0.17
<i>the end of the</i>	0.10	<i>word for word translation</i>	0.16
<i>the name of the</i>	0.10	<i>the meaning of the</i>	0.15
<i>the initial letters of</i>	0.09	<i>in analyzing the data</i>	0.15
<i>in region there are</i>	0.08	<i>in this case the</i>	0.15
<b>Five Words</b>			
<i>in the form of a</i>	0.08	<i>reference as cited in reference</i>	0.46
<i>the process of forming</i>	0.08	<i>it can be concluded that</i>	0.10
<i>is the processes of forming</i>	0.07	<i>of this research is to</i>	0.09
<i>region is one of the</i>	0.07	<i>according to reference in</i>	0.09
<i>the end of the word</i>	0.05	<i>reference</i>	
<i>of two or more words</i>	0.05	<i>in front of the class</i>	0.09
<i>the capital city of region</i>	0.05	<i>according to reference as cited</i>	0.08
<i>it can be concluded that</i>	0.04	<i>to reference as cited in</i>	0.08
<i>my hometown is region in</i>	0.04	<i>this research is expected to</i>	0.08
<i>on the other hand the</i>	0.04	<i>of this study is to</i>	0.07
<i>region is known as term</i>	0.04	<i>in this research the researcher</i>	0.07

		<i>according to reference cited in</i>	0.07
		<i>cited in reference stated that</i>	0.07
		<i>it can be said that</i>	0.07
		<i>study was conducted by reference</i>	0.07
		<i>to reference cited in reference</i>	0.07
<b>Six Words</b>			
<i>is the process of forming a</i>	0.06	<i>according to reference as cited in</i>	0.08
		<i>to reference as cited in reference</i>	0.08
		<i>according to reference cited in</i>	0.07
		<i>reference</i>	
		<i>previous study was conducted by</i>	0.04
		<i>reference</i>	
		<i>will be used in this research</i>	0.04
		<i>as cited in reference stated that</i>	0.04
		<i>this chapter also provides some</i>	0.04
		<i>previous</i>	
		<i>this research is expected to be</i>	0.04
		<i>chapter also provides some</i>	0.03
		<i>previous studies</i>	
		<i>in analyzing the data the</i>	0.03
		<i>researcher</i>	
		<i>in this case the researcher will</i>	0.03
		<i>it can be concluded that the</i>	0.03
		<i>main issues related to the data</i>	0.03
		<i>collection</i>	
		<i>the data the researcher will use</i>	0.03
		<i>the main issues related to the data</i>	0.03

The frequency counts of RMS tokens in Table 5.1 show that the RMS use between YEAR1 and YEAR4 students across all RMS spans is relatively similar. From the point of view of RMS tokens, the data show that the numbers are very low in which the frequencies are only visible in 2-word RMS. The frequencies then drop to under one per a thousand word from 3-word to 6-word RMS. It means that the use of the shortest RMS (2-word RMS) is the highest per a

thousand word in YEAR1 and YEAR4 students' academic writing. Data in Table 5.1 also confirm that students find difficulties in constructing longer RMS. As discussed in the result of types and tokens analysis and TTR calculation, they rely on the shortest one, 2-word RMS to construct their sentence in academic writing. Table 5.1 also shows that there is only a limited number of RMS types shared by YEAR1 and YEAR4. Both groups of students only share five RMS in the list of 2-word RMS; *of the, in the, to the, is a, it is*. The list then drops to only two RMS in 3-word and 4-word RMS, one in 5-word RMS, and none in 6-word RMS. It means that there are only very few students who use the shorter RMS to construct the longer RMS. They do not recycle the shorter RMS in the structure of longer RMS to be able to use them in their academic writing.

From the teaching and learning point of view, this result demonstrates that after learning English for four years, the YEAR4 students do not show evidence of RMS development or progression of pre-patterned language use in their academic writing. It indicates that EFL teaching and learning process at university has not affected students' proficiency in academic writing. Both first and final year students use only a small number of fewer distinct types of RMS. It is shown in the result of analysis of the frequency of 15 most frequent RMS. Previous studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2008) argue that non-native students have limited knowledge of the most frequent RMS as a result of only learn and know fewer varieties of RMS. The nature of native-like vocabulary in a sentence that tends not to be single words cause difficulties for L2 learners. They find it more difficult to remember longer sequences of words in chunks, and the large variety of bundles also causes the L2 learners to encounter difficulty in mastering the various types of RMS (Nesselhauf, 2005; Schmitt, 2010). Therefore, in the present study, students in both groups tend to rely more on 2-word RMS and to use multi-word sequences insufficiently. They also tend to overuse well-known phrases in their academic writing.

### 5.2.3 Summary

The frequency analysis of RMS types and tokens has indicated that YEAR4 students know and use more RMS types and tokens than those in the YEAR1 group. On the other hand, the comparison result of RMS tokens' frequencies per 1,000 words types shows that the frequencies of the most frequent RMS used by both groups are very low. The frequencies in both groups drop to under one from 3-word to 6-word RMS. For example, the RMS *one of the* as the most frequent RMS in YEAR1 group only possess 0.82 frequency per a thousand word. The RMS *as cited in reference* and *reference as cited in reference* as the most frequent 4- and

5-word RMS only possess 0.55 and 0.46 frequency respectively. In terms of lexical variety, the calculation of types and token ratio shows that students know fewer distinct types of RMS. They tend to rely on the repetition of known RMS instead of using a wider variety of RMS. Students from both groups also tend to rely more on specific RMS and use them repeatedly to construct the sentences in their academic writing.

In relation to the EFL teaching and learning and RMS development, the frequency of RMS used by YEAR1 and YEAR4 corresponds with their English proficiency level in all language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing including translation (Diao, 2004; Guo, 2011; Yang, 2006). This also bears a close similarity to Ding and Qi (2005) who reported that students' ability to use sequences that are more formulaic could be a measurement of their English proficiency especially the spoken and written English. Despite the fact that YEAR4 students produce more RMS types and token than YEAR1 students, however, the problems students encounter in the use of RMS in their academic writing have also been identified. The overuse of a limited number of well-known phrases, lack of a diverse range of phrases, and tend to use RMS insufficiently in their writing have been identified as problems in using RMS. In addition, the fact that the frequencies of RMS tokens drop to below one in longer RMS in both groups can be taken as a sign of no or reversed development of RMS and English proficiency after four years of exposure to English. Students' tendency to use a limited selection of over-used RMS might also indicate that there is no progression in their English proficiency in terms of lexical diversity and lexical coverage (Crossley and Salsbury, 2011; Wray, 2002). These problems have contributed to students' difficulties in using a wider variety of RMS in the texts.

Despite this, the frequency analysis has not elucidated other possible phenomena that may occur in each group. It is required to carry out further analysis – the analysis of RMS distribution across all texts in both sub-corpora and the structural and functional analysis of RMS – in order to discover the comprehensive information of the use of RMS in students' academic writings. Therefore, the next section will focus on the RMS distribution across individual student's texts and distribution based on placements in the sections of texts, then followed by the analysis of RMS structure and function.

### **5.3 RMS distribution in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups**

The previous section has shown the first the criterion of RMS analysis. It is the analysis of frequency of RMS types and tokens and the most frequent RMS from YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.

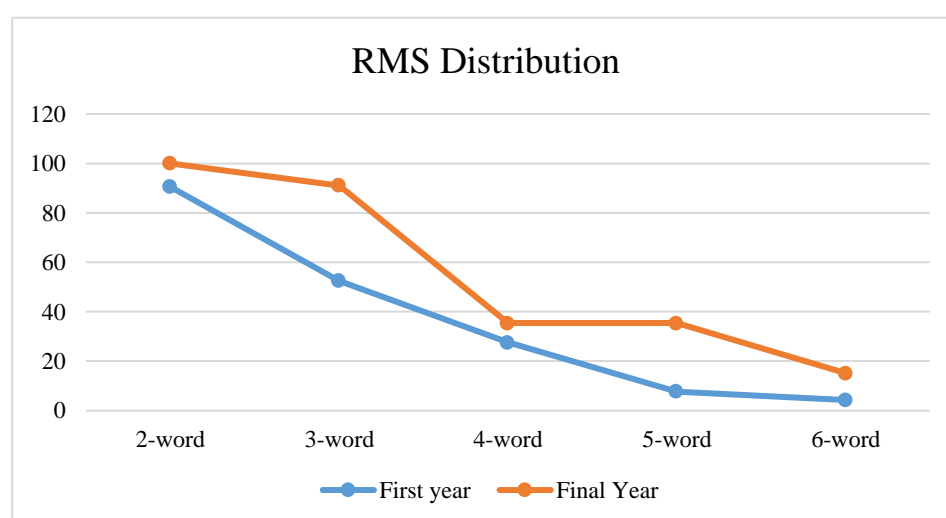
It has also been stated in the previous section that the analysis of frequency is the first criterion of identifying RMS and the starting point for further analysis – the RMS distribution across all texts in both sub-corpora. The distribution analysis is the second standardised criterion to identify RMS in which the analysis is carried out to find out the number of texts (range) where RMS appear in the corpus (Chen and Baker, 2010; Hyland, 2012). It is also important to be noticed that the number of texts where the RMS appear is important because sometimes the total number of high frequencies of RMS by a student in a corpus can increase the total frequency count (Cortez, 2004). There is a possibility that some highly frequent RMS are only found in some specific texts but their frequencies rise the aggregate of RMS frequency in a corpus. Therefore, in the context of this research, a combination of analysis of RMS frequency and distribution in the sub-corpora can avoid the generalisation of individual users' frequency (Chen and Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004, 2006; Hyland, 2012) as well as provide a comprehensive analysis of how students use RMS in their academic writings.

Regarding this, this section presents the analysis of RMS distribution in each corpus by illustrating the distribution of the most frequent RMS from each corpus across all spans. The analysis is carried out by checking the text range of each most frequent RMS from each span in both sub-corpora. It is done to see whether the most frequent RMS from each span are consistently found in all texts as the representative of whole corpus or only in a small number of texts in each corpus. The distribution analysis is also important in regards with the measurement of students' vocabulary development in academic writing in particular. The result of RMS distribution analysis can show whether all students from each group can produce same most frequent RMS with same amount of RMS frequency or only small number of students that can produce the most frequent RMS in each corpus. The distribution analysis is also important to see whether the all students use the shorter and longer RMS, or only a small number of students use the longer RMS in their academic writing and some others only rely on the shorter RMS.

### 5.3.1 RMS distribution in YEAR1 and YEAR4 corpora

This sub-section presents the analysis of RMS used by the students from both groups based on the distribution of RMS across all texts in both sub-corpora. The analysis covers all spans from two-word to the longer one three-, four-, five-, and six-word RMS, respectively. The analysis of RMS distribution is presented in Figure 5.3. For the purpose of comparing the RMS distribution in both sub-corpora, the numbers presented in Figure 5.3 are the percentage counts since the numbers of texts in both corpora vary. The Y-axis in Figure 5.3 demonstrates the percentage distribution counts of RMS and the X-axis refers to the RMS spans.

Figure 5.3 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in both sub-corpora



Corpora	2-word	3-word	4-word	5-word	6-word
First Year	91%	53%	28%	8%	4%
Final Year	100%	91%	35%	35%	15%

The line graphs in Figure 5.3 illustrate the percentage of the most frequent RMS distribution across all spans in the first year and final year sub-corpora. The YEAR1 graph shows that the percentage distribution of the most frequent RMS is only high in the shortest RMS, 2-word RMS. The percentage then drops dramatically from 3-word to 6-word RMS. The most frequent 2-word RMS (*of the*) are found in 91% of total texts. It means that the rest 9% of first year students do not use the RMS *of the* in their academic writing. The percentage then dramatically falls to 53% for the most frequent 3-word RMS (*one of the*), and to 28% for 4-word RMS (*is one of the*). After this, the graph drops gradually to 8% for the most frequent 5-word RMS (*in*



*the form of*), and to only 4% for 6-word RMS (*is the process of forming a*). The 4% itself equals to five texts as the threshold of distribution set for this research as explained in the methodology chapter.

Similar to the YEAR1 graph, the YEAR4 graph shares similar phenomenon. The peak percentage distribution of the most frequent RMS is in the shortest RMS, 2-word RMS. Then, there is a steady decline in the percentage of RMS distribution in the longer RMS, 3-word to 6-word RMS. The distribution percentage of most frequent 2-words RMS in the final year corpus is 100%. It means that the RMS (*of the*) are shared by the all students. The most frequent 3-word RMS (*according to reference*) is found in 91% of texts then the percentage drops dramatically to only 35% for 4-word RMS (*as cited in reference*). The 5-word RMS (*reference as cited in reference*) shares the same distribution percentage, which is 35%. Finally, the 6-word RMS (*according to reference as cited in*) is only shared by 15% of students in final year group.

The distribution percentage of the most frequent RMS in first year corpus shows that majority of student share the shortest RMS, 2-word RMS but the longer RMS are shared by less than 30% of students. In the final year corpus, majority of students share 2-word and 3-word RMS but the longer RMS are shared by less than 40% of students. It might be argued that the frequency of the most frequent RMS in longer spans in both sub-corpora is generally inflated by the number of RMS that repeatedly used by particular students. This result bears a close resemblance to Cortez (2004) who stated that the repetitive use of RMS by some individuals in some texts might generate some RMS to occur in high frequency but low in level of distribution.

In relation to English language learning, Biber and Conrad (1999) argue that since the RMS are commonly simple expressions, they can be acquired easily throughout the process of language learning. Therefore, if RMS can be learned easily in the learning process, then advanced language learners, such as university students, should be able to master the use of RMS in their academic writing (Cortez, 2004). On the other hand, this result indicates that majority of students in both groups find difficulty in using 4-word to 6-word RMS in their academic writing. The percentage suggests that students in both groups have problems in the mastery of longer RMS and the ability to use them in their academic writing because less than 50% of students are able to produce the longer RMS in their academic writing. This finding

might also be one of the indications of the leaning problems at university since according to criteria of language assessment, teaching material can only be considered as learned if at least 70% of students have mastered the material (Brown, 2003).

This finding also resembles the case of repetitiveness in the use of fixed expressions produced by non-native speakers of English in written essays reported by Granger (1998), in which “students ‘cling on’ to certain fixed phrases and expressions which they feel confident in using” (p. 156). For first year students, this phenomenon might be the indication of the limited exposure of academic expression they get as they are only in the first year of study. For final year students, the instigation of this phenomenon can be lack of practices during four years of their study. This result also reflects that the academic writing course has not impacted the development of RMS for the final year students in particular.

### **5.3.2 RMS distribution according to the placement in the sections of academic writing**

This section discusses the distribution of RMS across all spans based on where they occur in the sections of academic writing. This section firstly discusses the distribution of RMS across texts in the YEAR1 corpus. The analysis for the first-year corpus is done by checking in what sections the RMS occur – in introduction section, main body, concluding section. It is done by following the pattern of sections of academic writing in the department teaching materials of the YEAR1 students, which states that the academic writing should consist of at least one introductory paragraph, two or more main body paragraphs, and one concluding paragraph.

This section then discusses the occurrence of RMS in YEAR4 corpus. For the reason that the YEAR4 corpus comprises research proposals and undergraduate thesis, the analysis is done to see where the RMS occur – in introduction chapter, literature review, methodology chapter, research finding and discussion, concluding chapter. These sections are based on the guideline of research proposal and undergraduate thesis writing at the department where the research data have been collected.

#### **5.3.2.1 YEAR1 corpus**

The distribution of the most frequent RMS in the YEAR1 corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing is presented in Figure 5.4. The numbers presented in Figure 5.4 are the percentage counts. The Y-axis in Figure 5.4 demonstrates the percentage distribution counts of RMS based on their placements in the sections of academic writing (introductory

paragraph, main body paragraph, and concluding paragraph). The X-axis refers to the RMS spans.

Figure 5.4 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in the YEAR1 corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing.

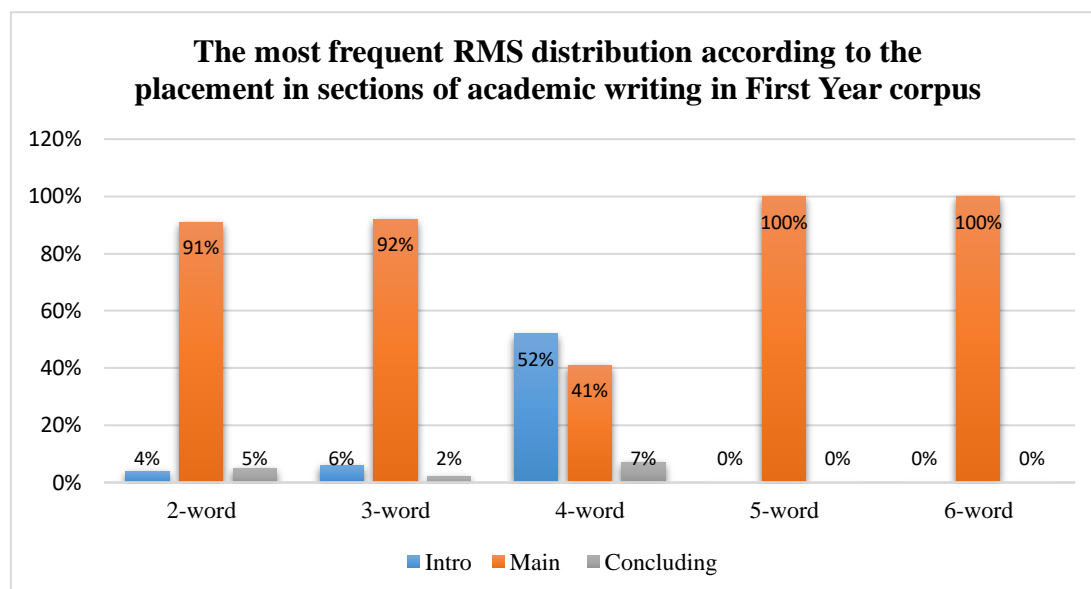


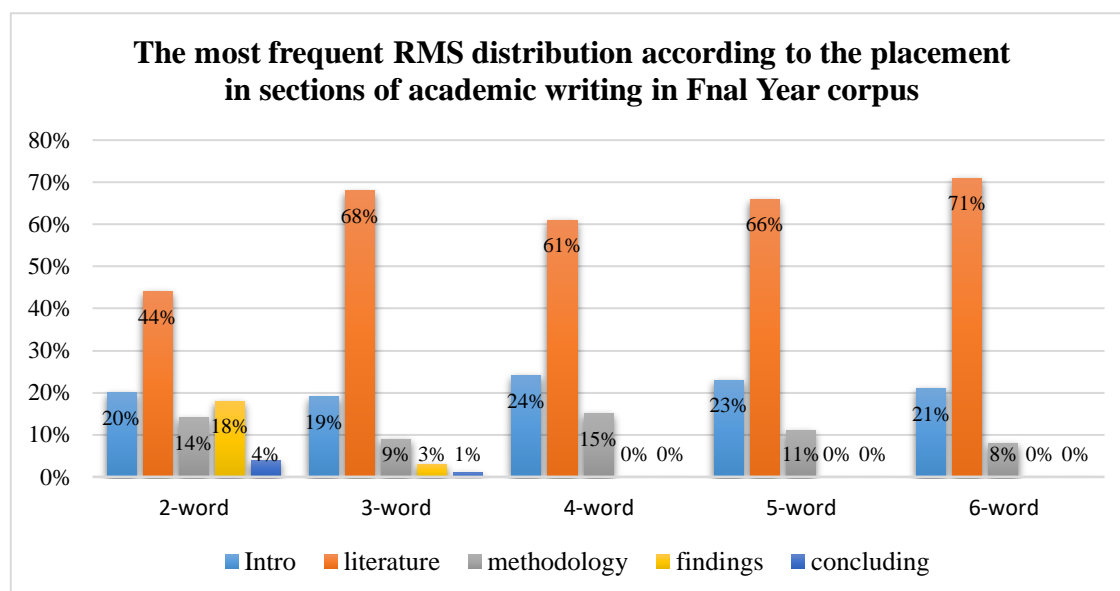
Figure 5.4 shows that two-word to four-word most frequent RMS are identified in all academic writing sections; introduction, main body, and concluding section. Meanwhile, five-word and six-word RMS are only found in the main body section of the texts. The highest percentage of the most frequent two-word RMS are found in in the main body paragraphs, it is 91%. Only 4% and 5% of the most frequent two-word RMS are found in in the introductory paragraph and the concluding paragraph respectively. The percentages of three-word RMS are almost identical with two-word RMS in which 92% of the most frequent three-word RMS are found in the main body paragraphs, 6% in introductory paragraph, and 2% in concluding paragraph. For four-word RMS, 52% of the most frequent RMS are identified in the introductory section, 41% in the main body section, and the rest of it – 7% in the concluding section of academic writing. The five-word and six-word RMS share same percentage in which all students in the YEAR1 group use RMS only in main body paragraphs.

### 5.3.2.2 YEAR4 corpus

The distribution of the most frequent RMS in the YEAR4 corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing is presented in Figure 5.5. The numbers presented in Figure 5.5 are the percentage counts. The Y-axis in Figure 5.5 demonstrates the percentage distribution

counts of RMS based on their placements in the sections of academic writing (introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, conclusion). The X-axis refers to the RMS spans.

Figure 5.5 Percentage of the most frequent RMS in the final year corpus according to the placement in sections of academic writing.



The percentage in Figure 5.5 shows that two-word and three-word most frequent RMS are found in all sections of final year students' academic writings despite their numbers vary. There are 44% the most frequent two-word RMS found in the literature review section as the highest percentage. It is also found that 20% of two-word most frequent RMS are in the introduction chapter, 14% in the methodology chapter, 18% in research findings, and the rest 4% in the concluding chapter. In three-word RMS, 68% of the most frequent RMS are in the literature review as the highest percentage. It is then followed by 19% in the introduction chapter, 9% in methodology chapter, 3% in research findings, and 1% in concluding chapter. The percentage of RMS distribution in four-word to six-word RMS are also identical. Students use four-word to six-word RMS mostly in literature review section, 61% in four-word RMS, 66% in five-word RMS, and 71% in six-word RMS. There are 24% of four-word RMS in the introduction chapter, 15% in the methodology chapter, and none of them in research findings and concluding chapters. Similarly, 23% of five-word RMS are found in introduction chapter, 11% in methodology chapter, and none of them in research findings and concluding chapters. In the six-word span, 21% RMS are in introduction chapter, 8% are in methodology chapter, and students do not use five-word and six-word RMS in research findings and concluding sections.

This result indicates that the most frequent RMS have significant usage particularly in the literature review section.

## **5.4 Summary**

Overall, the findings in this section illustrate that students from both groups know fewer distinct types of RMS. They may rely on the repetition of known RMS instead of using a wider variety of RMS. Students from both groups also tend to rely more on specific RMS and use them repeatedly to construct the sentences in their academic writing. From the perspective of English teaching and learning, the absence of a clear distinction of RMS frequency, RMS distribution across texts and according to placement in sections of academic writing between two groups of students might indicate problems in students' capacity in English proficiency particularly in terms of accuracy, complexity and fluency. It is possible that students have not had sufficient exposure of RMS specifically used in academic writings, and it is one of the reasons why some RMS are repetitively used in students' corpora. The results of this investigation, thus, raise the question of the role and capacity of English as foreign language instruction in the university settings outside a native English-speaking context. Therefore, the further chapter of this thesis will discover the result of analysis regarding the structural and functional analysis of RMS in order to reveal the use and the usefulness of RMS in EFL students' academic writings.

## **5.5 RMS structural and functional Analysis**

As stated in the research methodology section, the quantitative method is vital in terms of presenting the findings. In contrast, the qualitative method provides a full and comprehensive picture that compensates for the deficiencies of purely numerical analyses. Therefore, in addition to undertaking the analysis of RMS occurrences, the types and token analyses, RMS frequency, and distribution analysis (phase I), I conducted the phase II analysis. They are functional and structural analysis of the most frequent RMS from both groups. In order to accomplish the analysis, an in-context examination of RMS was conducted by manually categorising the functional and structural categorisations of the RMS. It is to ensure that the most frequent RMS were structurally and functionally classified through concordance checks in order to answer research question 2 What are the structural classifications of RMS in students' academic writing? and 3 What are the functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing? The analyses are to see how students used the RMS in the texts from grammatical structure and discourse function points of view. The result of analysis is essential to see how the different structural and functional types of RMS that help students to write their

essays and express their ideas in the academic writing. Thus, this sub-chapter presents the analysis of RMS structural and functional classifications. The structural classification is presented in the first place, then followed by the functional categorisation of RMS.

### **5.5.1 RMS structural classification**

This section presents the structural categorisations of RMS in the YEAR1 and YEAR4 RMS lists. Due to the fact that RMS are “not complete structural units, but rather fragmented phrases or clauses with new fragments embedded and most of them have strong grammatical correlates” (Biber et al. (1999), Cortes, 2004: 400), thus, the in-context analysis is carried out by analysing how the RMS used in and to construct sentences in students’ essay. In analysing the structural categorisations, the in-context check of RMS is to ensure that each RMS was structurally classified through concordance checks and to help answer research question 2. The framework used for structuring RMS in the present study was created by Biber et al. (1999) in the LGSWE corpus that has been widely used in many studies on word sequences (Ädel and Erman, 2012; Biber et al., 2004; Chen and Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004, 2006; Csomay, 2012; Hernandez, 2013; Salazar, 2011, 2014; Wei and Lei, 2011).

The structural classification of the identified RMS was organized and grouped according to Biber et al.’s (1999) study. The RMS were grouped into four main structural patterns: Noun Phrases (NP-based, e.g. *the end of the*), Prepositional Phrases (PP-based, e.g. *at the end of*), Verb Phrases (VP-based, e.g. *it is important to*), and Other Expressions. The current structural taxonomy is an adaptation of the structural classification scheme outlined in their study and widely used in recent research on RMS in academic writing (e.g. Chen and Baker, 2010, 2014; Cortes, 2004).

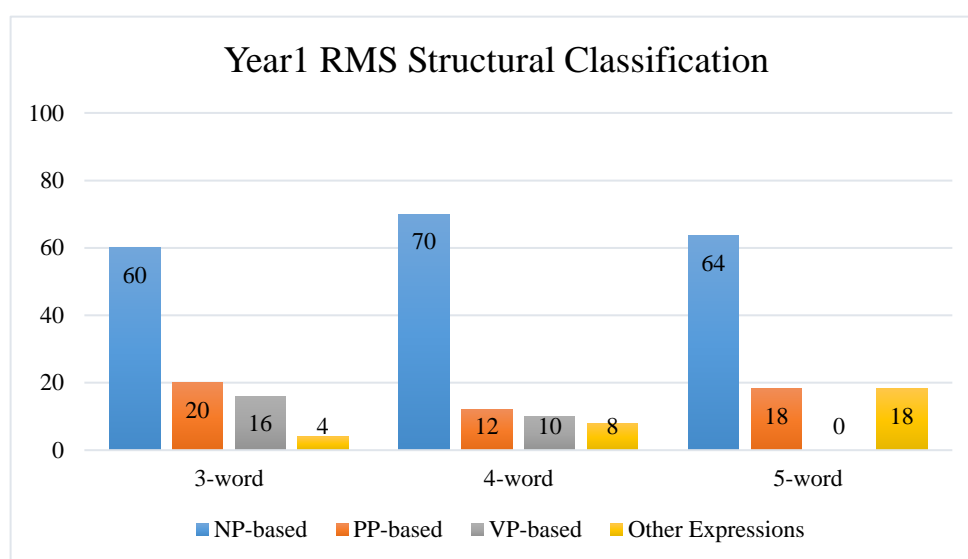
#### **5.5.1.1 RMS structural classification of YEAR1 and YEAR4 Groups**

This section presents the analysis of RMS structural classification of YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. The top 50 most frequently occurring RMS from 3-word to 5-word spans in both groups were classified structurally according to the adapted version of Biber et al. (1999), as discussed in the previous section. The decision to focus on 3-word to 5-word RMS is corresponding to the consideration to determine the length of RMS as the focus of the investigation in the analysis of RMS frequency and distribution. The reason behind this decision is that 3-word RMS can hold 2- RMS within their sequence (*on of the*, which contains *of the*). Moreover, 4-word and 5-word RMS are much more frequent than 6-word RMS, which

are found to be rare sequences particularly in YEAR1 group. There is only one 6-word RMS in YEAR1 corpus.

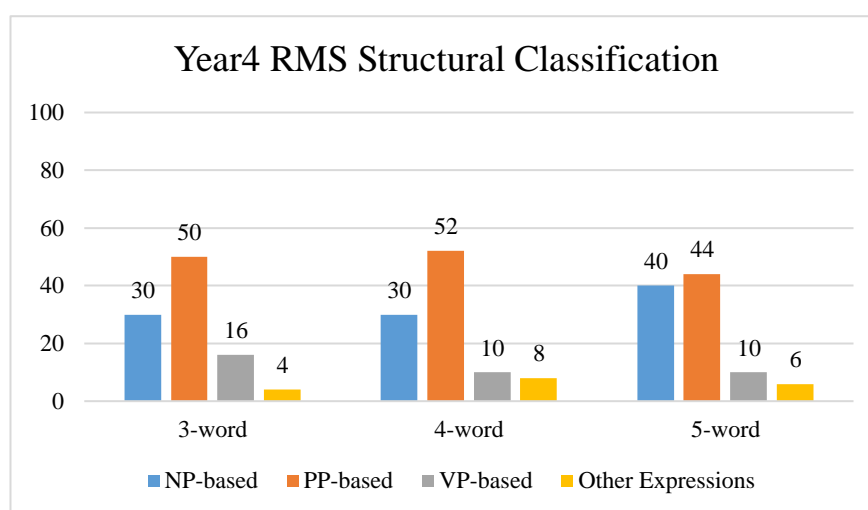
Two figures below display the structural classification of top 50 RMS from 3-word to 5-word RMS in both groups with their respective percentage of occurrence in the texts. Figure 5.6 displays the structural classification in YEAR 1 group, and Figure 5.7 presents the result from YEAR4 group. The Y-axis in both figures shows the percentage of RMS classification and the X-axis shows the RMS spans.

Figure 5.6 Structural classification of RMS types in YEAR1 group



Structural Classification	3-word	4-word	5-word
NP-based RMS	60%	70%	64%
PP-based RMS	20%	12%	18%
VP-based RMS	16%	10%	0
Other Expressions	4%	8%	18%

Figure 5.7. Structural classification of RMS types in YEAR4 group



Structural Classification	3-word	4-word	5-word
NP-based RMS	30%	30%	40%
PP-based RMS	50%	52%	44%
VP-based RMS	16%	10%	10
Other Expressions	4%	8%	6%

As can be seen from the results presented in Figure 5.6, from the four structural classifications, *NP-based* RMS are the most frequently occurring. They dominate the number of occurrences in the YEAR1 group, accounting for 60% to 70% of total occurrences in each span followed by *PP-based*, *VP-based* and *other expressions* respectively. It makes them the most widely used of the four main structural classification of RMS in the YEAR1 group.

Different from the results of structural classification in YEAR1, figure 5.7 shows that, from the four structural categories, the *PP-based* are the most common structural categories in YEAR4 group. YEAR4 students used them 50% in 3-word span, and 52% in 4-word and 44% in 5-word spans. The second most occurrence of RMS are for the *NP-based*, followed by *VP-based* and the least ones are for *other expressions*.

Based on the structural features of RMS found in the spoken and written registers reported in Biber et al. (1999; 2004), the findings in the current study shows that students in both groups make use of NP-based and PP-based structures, matching the structural characteristics of academic prose. A closer look at the data indicates that in YEAR1 essays, the prevalent



combination of NP-based RMS are with *of* (e.g. *the meaning of the, the people of region*) in general topics. Meanwhile, in YEAR4 corpus, the NP-based RMS (e.g., *the result of the, the data of this*) are specifically for research reports. This result suggests that the NP-based RMS were used to discuss the result of their research or explain other scholars' results in YEAR4 students' academic writing.

- *The result of the* research showed that transcription/transference, circumlocation and addition are the typical translation methods that frequently used in the tourism brochures of Hungarian National Tourism Office.
- *The data of this* research are the sentences that contains of lexical categories such as noun, verb, adjective and adverb.

For YEAR1 students, the RMS often functioned as a resource for expressing the propositional contents related to their general knowledge.

- We can identify *the meaning of the* morpheme teach although it stands alone but we cannot identify the meaning of morphemes -er and -s in isolation.
- This is because, *the people of region* are thick and obedient in carrying out the Shari'a of religious.

The other difference in RMS use between the two groups is the proportions of PP-based RMS. Prepositional expressions were used substantially less by YEAR1 students when they started to learn academic writing, and the most common ones are fixed expressions (e.g. *at the same time, on the other hand*) that have complete internal structures. However, in YEAR4 corpus, PP-based RMS had much higher proportions of RMS types, often with the sequences of *in/on/with + n + of* (e.g. *in the form of, on the use of*). Though structurally incomplete, such RMS are highly productive in framing sentences in academic writing, and their frequent occurrence might be interpreted as an indicator of students' exposure towards the variety of RMS in academic writing.

In terms of VP-based RMS, it is noteworthy that there are only small variations concerning the overall proportions in both groups. The analysis of VP-based RMS sub-categories shows that the type of constructions, i.e., anticipatory *it* + VP/Adj P/passive verb + PP fragment (e.g. *it can be concluded; it can be said*), are found in both groups but different in proportion. Fifteen students in YEAR4 group used those RMS in their writing, while only less than ten students

used them in YEAR1 group. Although all these RMS are built around the verb to form the syntactic core of clause, the verb constructions like ‘passive verb + PP fragment’ and ‘anticipatory it + VP/Adj. P’ are extensively used in academic prose (Biber et al., 1999: 997), and typically serve as the linguistic resources for reporting and evaluating information. Therefore, that could be the reason of the higher prevalence of *VP-based* RMS in the YEAR4 group since their academic writing are their research proposal and undergraduate thesis. The YEAR4 students used the VP-based RMS in their research reports as can be seen in the examples below.

- *It can be said* that language as a tool to convey ideas, feelings, ideas or opinions to others.
- Hence, *it can be said* that stylistics, which is a meeting ground of linguistics and literary criticism, contributes in making literary criticisms more objective and systematic study of literary works.
- Based on the result, *it can be concluded* that write-around strategy contributes to the improvements of students' writing skill of descriptive texts.

Moreover, the findings of the most frequent RMS structural categories in each group revealed the information related lack of varieties of RMS structure in students' academic writing. The first is that the teaching of academic writing in YEAR1 has not made immediate impacts on increasing the variety of RMS types in students' academic writing. The second point is that RMS use's difference seems to be only in the prevalence of structural classification, where the YEAR1 students used more NP-based RMS, while the YEAR4 students used more PP-based RMS than those in YEAR1 group. There is no indication of the development of variety in terms of RMS structure. These findings are in line with Chen and Baker's results (2014), which showed similar RMS types across different Chinese students' writing levels. NP-based RMS had a higher proportion in the lower level than the other two levels, and PP-based bundles had the broadest range at the highest level. The examples of how students use the RMS structure in the present study show that there is little apparent variation of RMS structure in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. For YEAR1 students, it might be indication of the lack of exposure of structural types and how to use it in the academic essays. For YEAR4 students, even though they are able to write longer and different types of texts, it shows that the variation of RMS structural classification is only to a small degree and very few students who used varied RMS structure.

### 5.5.2 RMS functional classification

Before presenting the results of data analysis, it is essential to set up a firm theoretical framework as the basis of analysis in classifying the RMS functionally. After doing the literature review, I have found a chronological development of the theoretical framework of RMS or lexical bundles functional analysis. It helped me to determine the theory I used in the analysis process.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) view lexical phrases or lexical bundles as parts of the language that often have defined roles in shaping the overall discourse and help in signalling the direction of discourse, whether they are spoken or written texts. Then, Cortes (2004: 400) states that the functions in previous taxonomies “refer to meanings and purposes of the language, functions that try to provide texture or organize the discourse according to contexts or situations”. For example, lexical bundles such as *on the other hand* are used to express a textual function, which is concerned with the meaning of the sentence, establishing contrastive relations between elements. To illustrate this, Biber et al. (2004) designed a taxonomy, which indicates the meanings and purposes of lexical bundles within written and spoken texts and classifies them according to three main functions. The categorisation distinguished between *referential, discourse, and stance functions*. Stance expressions are used to convey the writer’s or speaker’s attitude (e.g. *I don’t know why; are more likely to*). Discourse organizers are employed to structure texts by reflecting relationships between prior and coming discourse (e.g. *on the other hand; as a result of*). Referential RMS refer to concrete or abstract entities in the texts in order to identify the entities of to specify some particular attributes of the entities (e.g. *the region is in the north of the* island).

Hyland (2008a) extended and modified this framework when he investigated the frequency, structures and functions of lexical bundles in his study of a large corpus. He made further modifications to Biber et al.’s (2004) functional classification by creating sub-categories that had better described the lexical bundle functions that he identified in his corpus of written registers (research articles, PhD dissertations, and master’s theses). His functional classification includes three broad functional categories as described in the table 5.3 below.

Table 5.2 Hyland's Functional Categories of RMS (Hyland, 2008a, pp. 13-14)

Functions	Description	Sub-types
Research-oriented	to help writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world	<p><i>Location</i>: indicating time/place – <i>at the end of</i></p> <p><i>Procedures</i>: describing process and/or procedures – <i>the role of the</i></p> <p><i>Quantification</i>: referring to numerical features – <i>one of the most</i></p> <p><i>Descriptions</i>: referring to descriptive features of something – <i>the structure of the</i></p> <p><i>Topic</i>: relating to the field of research – <i>Chinese learners of English</i></p>
Text-oriented	Concerned with the organisation of the text and its meaning as a message or argument	<p><i>Transition signals</i>: establishing additive or contrastive links between elements – <i>on the other hand</i></p> <p><i>Resultative signals</i>: marking inferential or causative relations between elements – <i>it was found that</i></p> <p><i>Structural signals</i>: text-reflexive markers which organise stretches of discourse or direct reader elsewhere in text – <i>in the next section</i></p> <p><i>Framing signals</i>: situate arguments by specifying limiting condition – <i>with respect to the</i></p>
Participant-oriented	Focused on the writer or reader of the text	<p><i>Stance features</i>: convey the writer's attitudes and evaluations – <i>it is possible that</i></p> <p><i>Engagement features</i>: address readers directly – <i>it should be noted</i></p>

Similarly, in terms of modification, Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) credit the work of Biber et al. (2004) and developed a categorization scheme, which is an adaptation of the functional taxonomy outlined in Biber et al.'s. (2004) work. Their purpose for developing the functional taxonomy is to achieve pedagogical goals and for it to be used in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) curricula. Table 5.4 presents Simpson-Vlach and Ellis's (2010) functional classification and its sub-categories, which is used for my research research.

Table 5.3 Functional classification of lexical bundles in academic prose – AFL (Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010: 498–502)

A) Referential expressions	(B) Stance expressions	(C) Discourse organizing functions
<p>(1) Specification of attributes</p> <p>(a) Intangible framing attributes <i>in the course of, in accordance with the</i></p> <p>(b) Tangible framing attributes <i>as part of the, an increase in the</i></p> <p>(c) Quantity specification <i>there are a number of, a wide range of</i></p> <p>(2) Identification and focus <i>as can be seen, that there is no</i></p> <p>(3) Contrast and comparison <i>be related to the, on the other hand</i></p>	<p>(1) Hedges <i>is likely to be, it is likely that</i></p> <p>(2) Epistemic stance <i>assumed to be, be considered as</i></p> <p>(3) Obligation and directive <i>it should be noted, take into account the</i></p> <p>(4) Expressions of ability and possibility <i>it is possible that, can be found in</i></p> <p>(5) Evaluation <i>it is important to, it is clear that</i></p> <p>(6) Intention/volition, prediction <i>to do so, we do not</i></p>	<p>(1) Metadiscourse and textual reference <i>in the next section, in this paper we</i></p> <p>(2) Topic introduction and focus <i>for example if, what are the</i></p> <p>(3) Topic elaboration</p> <p>(a) non-causal <i>are as follows, in more detail</i></p> <p>(b) Topic elaboration: cause and effect <i>due to the fact, for the purposes of</i></p> <p>(4) Discourse markers <i>even though the, in conjunction with</i></p>

(4) Deictics and locatives <i>at the time of, b and c</i>		
(5) Vagueness markers <i>and so on</i>		

Therefore, in doing the functional classification, this study credits the works by Biber et al. (2004) and Simspon-Vlach and Ellis (2010). Rather than sticking to one categorisation, the present study uses both categorisations (combination of both) as the guideline of analysis. The use of both categorisations in determining the functional categories of RMS is necessary regarding the issue of multifunctionality, which refers to RMS having more than one function. A single bundle may serve different functions based on the context in which it appears. For example, the bundles *at the beginning of the* and *at the end of* can be time-, place-, or text-deictic references due to their textual environment. It is also argued that the main concern when assessing the functional classifications of RMS is that there are no fixed criteria provided in the literature on how to decide which subcategory a single bundle should belong to (Ädel and Erman, 2012). As a result, double-checking the works by Biber et al. (2004) and Simspon-Vlach and Ellis (2010) in the proses of categorisation is carried out to make sure that each RMS is categorised based on their discourse function.

In relation to the pedagogical aspect, this study selects the categorisations elaborated from Biber et al. (2004) and Simspon-Vlach and Ellis (2010) as the basis of analysis because the categorisation is developed to achieve pedagogical goals and for it is to be used in EAP curricula, in which this study is to achieve. In terms of the characteristic of study – comparison of RMS use in two different groups of students – both categorisations have been used in the analysis of previous works (e.g. Baumgarten, 2014) which compared the use of RMS in two different groups of students, 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> year undergraduate students. Thus, after considering the points I have mentioned in the previous paragraphs, I use Biber et al. (2004) and Simpson-Vlach and Ellis's (2010) framework as a guide to functionally analyse the identified RMS found in the YEAR1 and YEAR4 academic writing.

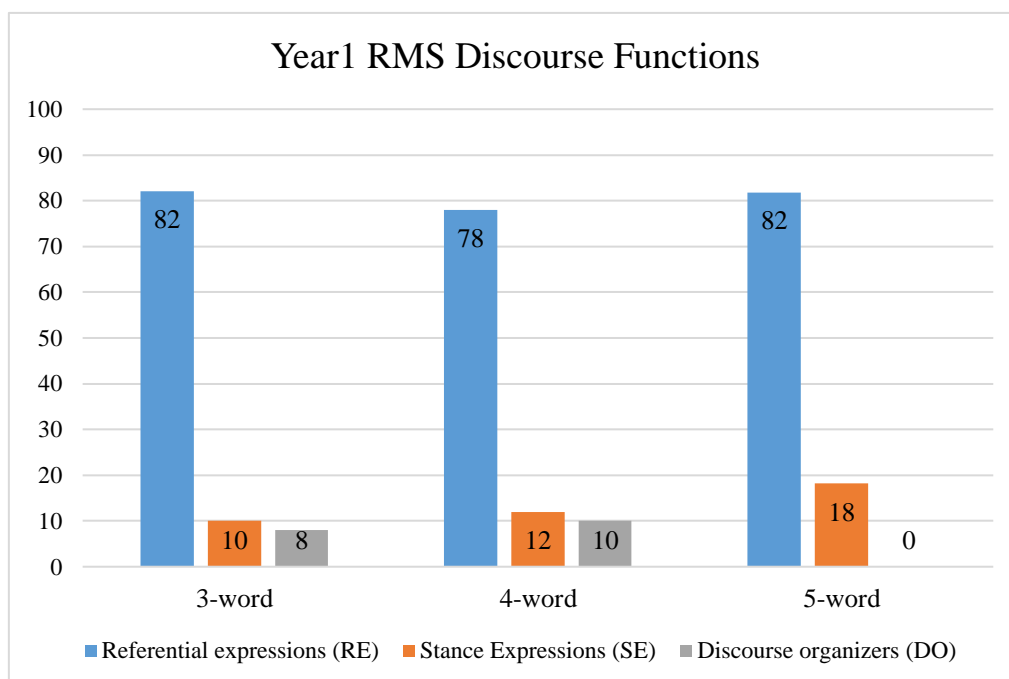
#### **5.4.2.1 RMS functional classification of YEAR1 and YEAR4 Groups**

This section presents the analysis of RMS functional classification from YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. The top 50 most frequently occurring RMS from 3-word to 5-word spans in both groups were classified according to the adapted version of Biber et al. (2004) and Simspon-

Vlach and Ellis (2010) functional classification, as discussed in the previous section. The decision to focus on 3-word to 5-word RMS is the same as taken in structural classification (section 5.4.1.1).

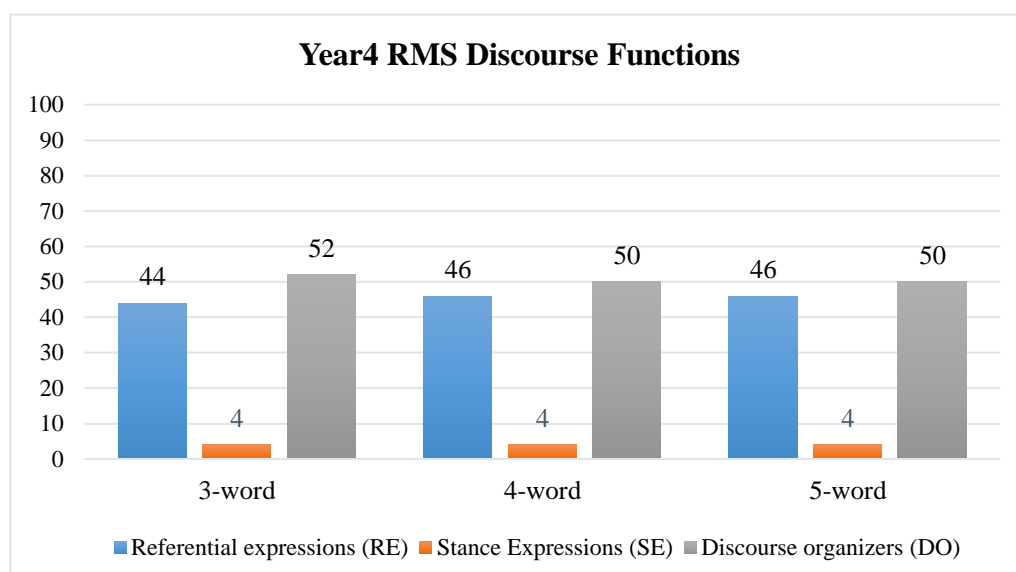
Figure 5.8 and figure 5.9 below displays the functional classification of top 50 RMS types from 3-word to 5-word RMS in each group with their respective percentage of occurrence in the texts. The Y-axis in the figures shows the percentage of RMS classification and the X-axis shows the RMS spans.

Figure 5.8 Functional classification of RMS types in YEAR1 group



Functional Classification	3-word	4-word	5-word
Referential expressions	82%	78%	82%
Stance expressions	10%	12%	18%
Discourse organizers	8%	10%	0%

Figure 5.9 RMS functional classification of YEAR4 group



Functional Classification	3-word	4-word	5-word
Referential expressions	44%	46%	46%
Stance expressions	4%	4%	4%
Discourse organizers	52%	50%	50%

As can be seen from the results presented in Figure 5.8, from the three functional categories, *referential expression* RMS are the most frequently occurring. They dominate the number of occurrences in the YEAR1 group, accounting for 78% to 82% of total occurrences in each span followed by stance bundles and discourse organizers respectively.

By looking more closely at the sub-functions of the *referential expressions* classification, it can be observed that the RMS mostly express *identification* (e.g. *is one of the*, *in the form of*), in which to identify an entity or single out some particular attribute of an entity. It is shown in the examples below.

- Language *is one of the* communication tools used by humans.
- Region *is one of the* youngest provinces in country, which was born on December 5, 2000.
- Other cultural tourism is the Sabe dance which is a natural attraction *in the form of* dance on fire with magical powers



Alongside *identification* sub-category, it is found that YEAR1 students used RMS to express contrast and comparison (*on the other hand*) even though they only occur with the lowest percentage compared to the other sub-categories.

- A non-root, *on the other hand*, can never have any other morpheme attached to it.
- *On the other hand*, the change of meaning does not have regeneration and degeneration

Figure 5.8 shows that *stance expressions* constitute the second most occurrence of the functional classification, accounting for 10%, 12%, and 18% in each span, from 3-word to 5-word RMS. Students used *stance expressions* mostly as the *epistemic stances* in their texts. The examples below show how they used the *stance* RMS.

- There are some languages used in region, but *I do not know* all of them.
- Therefore, *it can be concluded that* the Tumbilotohe culture is a culture that has been going on since the 15th century AD in region.

The last major functional classification and the least frequently occurring of the three classification is the *discourse organizers*. They account for 8% in the 3-word span, 10% in the 4-word span, and none of them found in the 5-word span. The RMS served as *topic introduction and focus* (e.g. *I would like to*) and *topic elaboration* (e.g. *as well as the*).

- In this essay, *I would like to* share you about my experiences dealing with culture shock.
- Language is the official language of the province *as well as the* country

Unlike the results of functional classification in YEAR1, figure 5.9 shows that from the three functional categories, the *discourse organizers* and *referential expressions* are by far the most common functional categories in YEAR4 group. RMS in YEAR4 group most frequently occurred as *discourse organizers*. YEAR4 students used them 52% in 3-word span, and 50% in 4-word and 5-word spans. The second most occurrence of RMS are for the *referential expressions*, and the least ones are for *stance expressions*.

Within the discourse organizers, the *topic introduction and focus* is the largest percentage followed by *topic elaboration* and *metadiscourse and textual reference*. It is found that *according to reference*, *Reference as cited in Reference* are the most frequently RMS used by YEAR4 group as shown in the examples below.

- *According to Reference* Anxiety is Feeling which contain, fear and concern related with future without specific cause for this fear.

- *Reference as cited in Reference* distinguished the semiotic in three types of sign: icon, index and symbol

YEAR4 students also used topic elaboration within the framework of discourse organizers as seen below.

- *in order to* achieve a good translation, the translator requires several particular parts to be acknowledged such as wide knowledge of both culture SL and TL, imagination, creativity, and mastering the literature aspect.
- *In analyzing the data*, the researcher will use T-testing.
- *This research is expected to* be used as guidelines for lecturers and students to understand more about cohesion especially grammatical cohesion devices in students' abstracts of ISC.

Even though with low percentage, they used RSM as *metadiscourse and textual reference* in their texts.

- *This research will be* focused on feminism in short story.
- *This chapter presents the* literature review related to the study of stylistics in literary work.

Although referential expressions account for slightly lower percentages of RMS types than those with discourse organizers, the two major RMS functions do not differ drastically. With regard to referential expressions, the result of analysis shows that *specification attributes* are used dominantly in the texts followed by *identification and focus*.

- *this research is* about the structure process of interfering.
- *The result of the* research showed that transcription/transference, circumlocation and addition are the typical translation methods that frequently used in the tourism brochures of Hungarian National Tourism Office.
- Based on academic side, speaking *is one of the* four basic competences that the students should gain well.
- Certainly, the language learners hope if they can speak English fluently and correctly *in front of the* class, it can make them better in judgement.

Comprising only 4% of RMS across all spans, *stance expressions* have the fewest RMS types of the three functions. Regarding the similar percentage of stance expressions in YEAR4 group,

the type of texts they write might influence the result. YEAR4 students write similar types of texts – research proposal and research reports, compared to YEAR1 students who write various topics of academic essays. The YEAR4 students' texts may be more closely approximating the academic prose typical of academic journals rather than general topics of essays. The result of analysis shows that there are only a few RMS types used as stance expressions in the texts.

- There are several steps *will be used in* analyzing the data.
- Based on the result, *it can be concluded that* write-around strategy contributes to the improvements of students' writing skill of descriptive texts.

Overall, the results of analysis show that the YEAR1 students used RMS dominantly as referential expressions. YEAR1 students frequently use this functional RMS when defining terms and concepts in their academic essays. The other functional types of RMS considerably underused by students, suggesting a degree of unfamiliarity with these RMS functional types. In contrast, the YEAR4 students rely more heavily on *discourse organizers* followed by *referential expressions* with only a slight difference, having proportions as high as 50% – 52% and 44% – 46% respectively. It suggests that the YEAR4 students tend to use a greater proportion of research-based RMS. The significantly greater use of research-based RMS by YEAR4 students corresponds to the finding that they use more PP-based RMS (section 5.4.1) such as *according to reference*, *as cited in reference* as features to help them construct their sentences by referring to other scholars' arguments. This again lends credence to the argument that the higher-level students have learnt to use more of the RMS for academic writing over the course of their undergraduate studies.

In relation to level of language proficiency, these results suggest that YEAR4 students may be expected to develop their level of academic language proficiency gradually over the course of their studies. This can therefore be reflected in evidence of progress such as students' ability to successfully apply various RMS functions typical of academic texts to their own writing – not relying heavily to only one specific functional classification as YEAR1 students did. As previous studies (Pan, Reppen, and Biber, 2016) argued that the lack of variation in RMS functional types of might also be related to the inefficiency of RMS use or lack of writing proficiency and lexical knowledge of non-native speakers in YEAR1 group – since they are in the first year of their study at university. The results have confirmed a developmental pattern for some aspects of RMS use found in other research (e.g., Staples et al., 2013) and some distinctive features of bundle use by L2 students in their academic writing (e.g., Chen and

Baker, 2010). The study shows that students relied heavily on the repeated use of a narrow range of lexical bundles in academic writing when they were at lower level of studies, but used more types of lexical bundles when they progressed to the higher level. The findings, therefore, suggest a relationship between levels of academic studies and the range of RMS that L2 students are able to use in academic writing.

### 5.4.3 Summary

The results presented in the previous sections showed two different prominent use of RMS in each group structurally and functionally. In terms of structural classification, the YEAR1 students used NP-based RMS dominantly, while the prevalence of PP-based RMS is the highest one in YEAR4 group. The use of NP-based bundles was nearly two times more in YEAR1 essays than in YEAR4. The NP-based RMS used as devices to start building their arguments by saying or explain the definition or situation/reality in their essays (e.g., *the meaning of the*). On the other hand, as the students progressed from YEAR1 to YEAR4, the occurrence of PP-based RMS steadily increased. Such RMS are highly productive in framing sentences in academic writing. YEAR4 students used the PP-based RMS to help them stating their ideas by citing other scholars' arguments prior to their own arguments (*according to reference, as cited in reference*), or contrasting their ideas/scholars' ideas to other scholars' arguments (*on the other hand*).

Regarding the functional classifications, the analysis result reveals that discourse organizers ranked the largest category in YEAR4 group, and referential expressions are the highest one in YEAR1 group. These differences can be attributed to the fact that YEAR1 students is to primarily express their ideas or explain realities in their essays, while the other is to primarily disseminate their research proposal and research report. Therefore, the referential expressions are mainly used by the YEAR1 students in order to help them writing their ideas by starting explain the definition or reality of something (*one of the, the form of the*). The discourse organizing RMS help YEAR4 students to construct their sentence by referring to the source of information (*according to reference, based on the, as cited in reference*). They use those RMS as the main features at the beginning of their sentences or paragraphs in order to be able to write a complete sentence or a paragraph.

In relation to the point of language learning, these results may represent a development of RMS in students' academic writing. The RMS use from YEAR4 group suggests that, after an initial

stage of RMS acquisition, there might be a development on students' RMS in their academic writing. The findings corroborate Chen and Baker's (2010) on Chinese students' writing but are different from the distribution of discourse functions in other research on non-native writing (e.g. Ädel and Erman, 2012). Moreover, the findings of the present study show that the tendency to use more discourse organizers as students' progress in academic writing proficiency – in YEAR4 – appears to be in contrast to native academic writers who predominantly use referential expressions (c.f. Ädel and Erman, 2012; Chen and Baker, 2010). A tentative explanation for such difference needs more explanations, whether it is the effects of curriculum and EAP course materials or other exposures. Therefore, further analysis of this study will be on the EAP curricula and academic writing teaching materials in order to have more comprehensive information regarding how students learn RMS at university classes.

## **5.5 Concluding remarks**

This chapter has presented the results of linguistic analyses comprising RMS frequency and distribution, the analysis of RMS structural classifications, and the analysis of RMS functional categories. All the findings of the analyses suggested that both groups of students only possessed very limited types of RMS and used those RMS repeatedly. In other words, students from both groups have problems with academic writing proficiency, particularly in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and structure. Regarding this, it is essential to find out factors that might influence these phenomena. Therefore, it is important to review the teaching and learning materials as the primary source of students' exposure to English. Thus, the next chapter will present the content review on teaching and learning materials used at the university.

## **Chapter 6**

### **Analysis of Teaching and Learning Materials**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the results of content analysis of the teaching and learning documents in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. In doing so, this study analyses two documents; the intensive course books (YEAR1 group) and the materials for writing for academic purposes course (YEAR4 group). The reasons for choosing to analyse teaching and learning materials are twofold: (1) to provide comprehensive information about what materials students learn (2) to investigate whether the materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing that can help students in learning RMS and use the RMS in composing their academic writing. It was essential to see the analysis results, which corresponded with the research question 4 of this study, (how far do the teaching and learning materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing?) The chapter presents the analysis of YEAR1 teaching and learning materials first, then followed by those used in the YEAR4 group.

#### **6.2 YEAR1 teaching and learning materials**

In analysing the documents for this study, it is essential to explain the nature of the materials: the course overview, aims, the materials, and teaching guidelines – how lecturers and students used them in the learning process. By considering these factors, it is possible to obtain a clear overview of the course setting. The information described in this chapter are taken directly from the course syllabus and the books of Intensive Course of English, IC Course.

##### **6.2.1 Course overview**

For YEAR1, materials are composed for the course, namely Intensive Course of English IC course. IC is a compulsory course in the curriculum of the English language program at the department of English education. The course has 12 credits, and it is designed to provide first semester students with the study of the English language. It is to shape the students' competence, knowledge and skill of the English language. As a compulsory course, YEAR1 students must pass the course in order to be able to sign up for the further English language courses in the following semester. If they do not pass it, they have two choices to sign up for the course next academic year or change to other non-English departments.

The course is designed as an English intensive course where the students attend the class meetings from Monday to Thursday in the first semester. Each day, the students have four hours of classroom activities combined with self-study activities in addition to the four hours classroom activities. According to the course syllabus, the course covers English expressions and grammar presented in various themes related to daily communication. It includes practice activities in English in order to develop skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills of English. The course is the prerequisite course of the other English courses, especially those related to grammar and skills. The students can only enrol for the English grammar and structure courses and English skills courses (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) if they pass the IC course.

According to the course syllabus, the aims of the course are

1. to enable students to shape listening skills needed to understand basic core of topics and communicative functions in English;
2. to enable students to shape speaking skills pertaining to expressing ideas and feeling in certain topics and communicative functions in English;
3. to enable students to shape writing skills for a range of functional writing tasks;
4. to enable students to shape intensive and extensive reading skills in good manner in terms of being honest, discipline, confident and responsible.

Learning indicators:

After successfully completing this topic, the students are able to:

Cognitive aspect:

1. Identify the language feature in order to comprehend English utterances.
2. Explain the grammar related to the given topics.
3. Distinguish between functional and situational communication.
4. Apply the word order in English.
5. Use appropriate words in certain situations and functions both in oral and written.
6. Distinguish sounds in English.

Psychomotoric aspect:

1. Produce spoken English grammatically and with correct pronunciation.
2. Produce written English grammatically and with correct punctuation.
3. Construct grammatical sentences and paragraphs.

4. Demonstrate understanding of reading texts.
5. Demonstrate understanding of listening texts.

Affective aspect:

Keep in mind and implement the following behaviours:

1. honest
2. responsive
3. discipline
4. pro-active
5. responsible
6. confident
7. caring
8. cooperative
9. polite
10. peace-loving

### **6.2.2 The materials and teaching guidelines**

According to the course syllabus, the IC course is taught by using two books, Intensive Course of English Student's Book I and Intensive Course of English Student's Book II. Each book is designed to provide students with the materials to achieve course objectives, as mentioned in section 6.1.1. The materials are presented in topics and sub-topics, which are separated into different units (see Figure 6.1 below). Each unit is divided into four lessons, and the lessons comprise sections, namely reading, vocabulary, listening, speaking, grammar and pronunciation. After crosschecking the course syllabus and the books, it is found that each unit consists of four to five lessons. There is no information on how the number of lessons is different in each unit. The lesson itself refers to the name of the themes in the books (e.g., Introduction, Daily Activities, Personal Information, etc.). There are varieties of exercises in the section, activities related to the themes and lessons to permit both in-class and self-study practices. The listening parts are provided, and the listening materials in audio files are available for students and lecturers. The IC course coordinators provides the audio files for the materials of listening comprehension, then distribute them to lecturers and students.



Here is how the books are structured as shown in the Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 The structure and contents of Intensive Course of English Student's Books

<b>Book I</b>	<b>Book II</b>
<p>Unit 1 Daily Life</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Greetings and Introduction</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Daily Activities</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Personal Information</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Hobbies</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Students' Life</li> </ul> <p>Unit 2 Relationship</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Family</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Friends</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Neighbors</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Address Terms</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Dating</li> </ul> <p>Unit 3 Food and Drink</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Food and Drink</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Grocery Shopping</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Recipes</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Farming</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Eating Out</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 4 Health</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Diet and Nutrition</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Parts of the Body</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Aches and Pains</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Going to the Doctors</li> <li>• Lesson 5 First Aid</li> </ul> <p>Unit 5 Professions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Goods and Services</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Looking for a Job</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Money and Currency</li> <li>• Lesson 4 in Business</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Advertisement</li> </ul> <p>Unit 6 Professions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Describing Places</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Places of Interest</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Transportation</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Travelling</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Study Abroad</li> </ul> <p>Unit 7 Professions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lesson 1 Countries and Languages</li> <li>• Lesson 2 Fashion and Dress Code</li> <li>• Lesson 3 Music</li> <li>• Lesson 4 Movies</li> <li>• Lesson 5 Arts</li> </ul>

As stated in the Intensive Course of English syllabus, it aims to improve the reading, listening, speaking and writing skills, and vocabulary and grammar of students. The IC syllabus states that it is designed to help YEAR1 students be familiar with the features and aspects of English languages needed at the university setting, including the cultural aspects of the targeted

language, by instructing students on academic language and providing them with excellent practices. In doing the course, the YEAR1 students are divided into four classes, where each class consists of twenty-five to thirty students. The course coordinators then appoint four to five lecturers to teach in every class. The materials are given based on the structure of the books. For example, the lesson are started with Book I, Unit 1 – Daily Life (Lesson 1 Greetings and Introduction), and continued with other units and lessons until the mid-term exam (see Table 6.1). The course is designed for sixteen weeks (one semester), fourteen weeks for materials, and one week each for mid-term and final-terms exams. For the mid-term exam, students will have an individual test. The test consists of multiple choices (TEFL-like test) and an essay test covering the materials from the beginning to the mid-term. After the mid-term exam, the lecturers and students will use Book II until the end of the course, the final exam. At the end of the semester, students will have an individual test for the final exam. The test is an English proficiency test with TOEFL model and structure like test and essay writing test. Since the test follows the model, structure, and content of TOEFL test, it shows that the native/American English orientation (native-like patterns) is determined as the main assessment criteria to decide the passing grade of students. After learning the materials in IC course for one semester, YEAR1 students are expected to comprehend the native-like patterns of English by passing the final test of the course.

Each lesson comprises materials for four language skills and vocabulary, grammar, and structure. The students learn those materials in a four-hour class. The class sometimes is started with listening comprehension practices or speaking practices, then continued with other materials. It depends on the instruction written in the book. The lecturers use the books as the primary sources of the materials in the class because the books have provided all aspects of language skills and guidelines for students to practice both in class and outside the class. According to the IC course syllabus, the books should serve as a guide and material provider. The lecturers are required to follow the structure of the book but are expected to elaborate or alter the teaching methods to suit the students' language needs. It is difficult for lecturers to add more materials even if they feel it is necessary since there is no time to do that in class as everything has been designed throughout the activities in the books.

Here is the examples of materials in the IC books.

Unit 1 Lesson 1

LESSON 1: GREETINGS AND INTRODUCTIONS

A. Read and Listen

Listen. Are Matt and Sarah friends? How about Rob and Sandra?

Matt: Good morning, Sarah. How are you?  
Sarah: Good. How are you, Matt?  
Matt: I'm fine. Thanks.

Rob: Hello. I'm Rob Jones.  
Sandra: Hi. I'm Sandra Davis. Nice to meet you.  
Rob: Nice to meet you.



(Recording is adopted from: Touchstone 1. Cambridge University Press.)

a. Read the conversation again. Are these statements true (T) or false (F)?	T	F
1. Matt is a friend of Rob.		
2. Matt and Sarah are friends.		
3. Sandra is introducing herself to Rob.		
4. Rob introduces himself first.		
5. Matt is greeting Sarah.		
6. Rob and Sandra have met before.		

b. Work in pairs. Practice the conversation.

B. Vocabulary

1. Saying names in English

a. Listen to the people above and give their names.

<p>1 Hi. I'm Liz. Liz Kim. My first name is Elizabeth, but everyone calls me Liz</p> <p>Name: <u>Elizabeth</u>    <u>Kim</u> First Middle Last <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> single <input type="checkbox"/> married</p>	<p>2 Hi. My name is Don. My full name is Don Allen Ray Tanner. My nickname is Dart.</p> <p>Name: <u>Don Allen Ray</u> <u>Tanner</u> First Middle Last <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> single <input type="checkbox"/> married</p>	<p>3 Hello. I'm Anna Sanchez. My first name is Maria. Anna is my middle name.</p> <p>Name: <u>Maria</u> <u>Anna</u> <u>Sanchez</u> First Middle Last <input type="checkbox"/> single <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> married</p>
--	---	--

(Recording and pictures are from: Touchstone 1. Cambridge University Press.)

b. Complete the sentences. Then compare with partners.

- My first name is \_\_\_\_\_
- My last name is \_\_\_\_\_
- My middle name is \_\_\_\_\_
- My nickname is \_\_\_\_\_
- My teacher's name is \_\_\_\_\_

The students use the books as the lecturers do – as the guideline for lessons' activities and source of materials. They attend the class from Monday to Thursday and learn English by using the materials in the books. If the book instructs them to start practising listening and reading skills, they will start practising until the instructions indicate that they should move to other skills such as speaking and writing. For example, in unit 1, lesson 1, Greetings and Introduction, the class starts with lecturers explaining the lesson overview, instructions, and learning outcomes. Then, students begin to do listening and reading exercises based on the

instructions given in the book. They listen to the audio files about how to do self-introduction and greeting each other while reading the script in the book. After that, they work in pairs and practice the conversation they have listened to. The lecturers will tell the students to move to the other materials, such as writing once the time indicates that the duration for listening and conversation practice is over. They also have home works as independent or grouped tasks and the instructions about the task has been written in the books. Therefore, the students have a clear guideline about what and how to do the tasks.

Specifically for the writing skill, as this study focuses on students' academic writing, the materials are presented and taught at the final part of each lesson after the grammar part. In the writing part, the students are asked to do a writing exercise by writing one or two paragraphs of given topics or fill-in-the-blanks exercises. The topics of writing are related to the title of the lesson from daily routines or personal information to list of things they need to check before renting an apartment. Prior to the writing exercises, the students are given the materials they need in writing practices including reading, vocabulary, and grammar of the related topics. For the reading skill, sometimes the materials are given specifically for reading exercises, but in another time, it is given together with listening and grammar materials. The writing exercises are designed to give students opportunities to use vocabulary and grammar they have learned in the previous sections of the lesson. Here is the examples of instructions and exercises in the IC books.

## LESSON 2: DAILY ACTIVITIES

### A. Read and Listen

How do you spend your day?

Listen as you read the conversation

Ali : How do you spend your day, Lisa?  
 Lisa : Well, I usually get up around five. Then I do some exercises and I take a shower. I have breakfast at around six-thirty.  
 Ali : Really? What time do you go to campus?  
 Lisa : I go to campus at seven.  
 Ali : How many subjects do you have in this semester?  
 Lisa : I have five subjects and all of them start at seven thirty.  
 Ali : That's cool and when do you get home?  
 Lisa : I usually get home at four in the afternoon.  
 Ali : What do you usually do on the weekend?  
 Lisa : I spend my weekend by cleaning my house and trying to cook a new recipe.  
 Ali : Wow, that sounds interesting.



a. Read the conversation again. Are these statement true (T) or false (F)	T	F
1. Lisa and Ali are talking about daily activities		
2. Lisa usually wakes up at seven		
3. After getting up Lisa does some exercises.		
4. Lisa has five lectures this semester		
5. Lisa spends her weekend by cooking food		

### C. Vocabulary

#### 1. Things to do every day

Here are the things you usually do started from you get up in the morning until you go to bed in the evening.

<b>In the morning in my bedroom</b>  To get up To stretch To yawn To be half-asleep To have a lie-in To open/to pull the blinds To open the curtains To switch the light on To make your bed	<b>Starting my day</b>  To wash your face To brush your teeth To wash your hair To have a shower To have a bath To shave To go to the toilet To get dressed To cut your nail To blow dry your hair To comb your hair
<b>Running my day</b>  To go to work/campus/school To water plants To cook To go shopping To go back from work/campus/school To have a rest To have a nap To have lunch To watch TV/a movie	<b>In the evening</b>  To have dinner To read a novel To lock the door To draw the curtains To close/pull down the blinds To sleep/fall asleep

### E. Grammar

Simple Present Statement							
I	eat	breakfast.	I	don't eat	lunch.	Verb endings	he, she, it
You	have	coffee.	You	don't have	tea.	get→	gets
We	get up	late.	We	don't get up	early.	watch→	watches
They	read	the paper.	They	don't read	books.	play→	plays
He	listens	to the radio.	He	doesn't listen	to CDs.	study→	studies
She	watches	TV.	She	doesn't watch	videos.	have→	has
						do→	does
don't=do not      doesn't = does not							

a. Complete the sentences.

1. I don't like (not/like) mornings.
2. In my family, we \_\_\_\_\_ (have) breakfast together.
3. My mother \_\_\_\_\_ (not/watch) TV.
4. My father \_\_\_\_\_ (have) coffee.
5. My parents \_\_\_\_\_ (talk) a lot.
6. I \_\_\_\_\_ (not/read) the newspaper.
7. I \_\_\_\_\_ (check) my e-mail after breakfast.
8. My best friend \_\_\_\_\_ (not/get up) early in the morning.

(Source: Touchstone Student's Book1. Cambridge University Press.)

#### The simple present tense

A. The main use of the simple present tense is to express habitual actions or something that happens all the time or repeatedly, or something that is true in general:

*He smokes.      Dog barks.      Cats drinks milk.*

B. The simple present tense is often used with adverbs or adverb phrases such as: *always, never, often, sometimes, usually, every week on Mondays, twice a year, etc.:*

*How often do you wash your hair?      We usually go away at weekends.  
I watch football match every Sunday      It rains in winter.*

**F. Write**

Write down your own daily activity. Use the vocabulary available in vocabulary section. Here is the simple example.

*I get up at 7 o'clock. Then I have a shower and I have breakfast. I go to campus at 9 o'clock. In the evening I watch TV. I go to bed at 11 o'clock.*

Regarding the relationship between the writing instructions and essays collected as the corpus of YEAR1 group, it shows that the writing instructions and teaching materials are given to students in order that they can learn and practice their writing, started with simple topics such as personal information, then continued with other topics based on the following lessons they learn. Students start their practices with filling the blank activities and writing a paragraph. The tasks gradually increase to the level of writing more than two paragraphs and writing essays as they progress to the final term of the semester. Considering this, therefore, this study uses the essays students wrote during their enrolment in the IC course as the corpus of YEAR1 students. It is to see both the RMS use in YEAR1 students' academic writing and whether the teaching materials provide sufficient examples to help students composing their academic writing. In other words, the essays collected from students are essential as the result of English teaching and learning process for one semester.

### 6.2.3 The analysis of RMS in the Intensive Course books

This section presents the analysis of RMS use in the intensive course textbooks. The RMS analysis in this section is to see whether the IC books provide patterns and examples of RMS that students in their academic writing can use. The analysis comprises the general frequency of RMS, the number and frequency of types and tokens, and the most frequent RMS across each book. The analysis is essential in order to see to what extent the teaching materials for writing skills occur in the books, compared to other skills, vocabulary, and grammar.

In regards to the process of data analysis, the present study analyses the research data two IC books as presented in the following table

Table 6.2 The general information of corpora of IC Textbooks

Items	Book I	Book II
Number of Lessons	15	20
Text Types	Teaching Materials	Teaching Materials
Number of Word Types	3632	4070
Number of Words	27504	33327
Total Number of Word Types	7702	
Total Number of Words	60831	

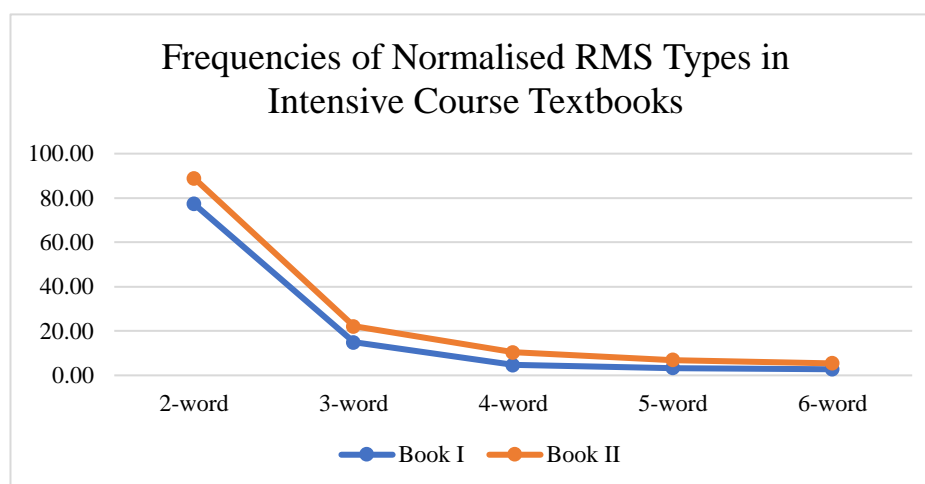
With the aim of comparing the RMS frequency of each corpus and regarding the different sizes of corpora as seen on the tables, the RMS frequency in the present study is normalised. The normalised numbers per 1,000 words are determined as the baseline of normalised frequency due to the number of words in the corpora – less than 500,000 words. Regarding the number of word sequences, namely RMS spans, the present study analyses the 2-word to 5-word RMS. The analysis of shorter RMS spans is significant to see whether the longer RMS are the result of the recycling process of building blocks, or they do not have any association with the shorter ones.

### **RMS Frequency in Intensive Course textbooks**

The general frequencies of corpora are displayed in four figures. Figure 6.1 displays the normalised frequency counts of RMS types of intensive course textbooks, and Figure 6.2 presents the normalised frequency counts of RMS tokens in intensive course textbooks. The Y-axis in the figures reflects the normalised frequency counts of RMS types and tokens per 1,000 words, and the X-axis shows the RMS spans.



Figure 6.1. RMS Types of Intensive Course Textbooks



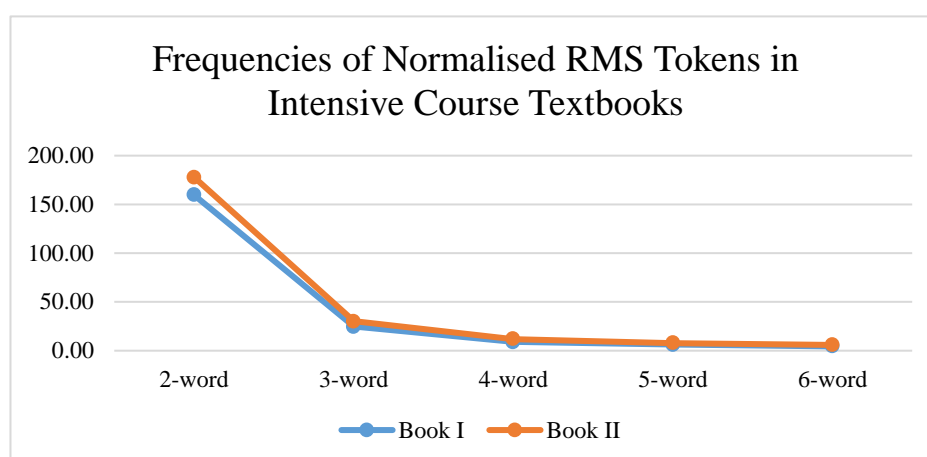
Corpora	2-word	3-word	4-word	5-word	6-word
Book I	77.28	14.90	4.69	3.31	2.76
Book II	88.94	22.11	10.32	6.88	5.41

Figure 6.1 shows that the frequencies of RMS types in the Book I are lower than those are in Book II across all spans. If we look at 3-word, 4-word, and 5-word RMS as the focus of analysis, RMS types of YEAR4 in 3- and 4-word RMS are double than those in Book I. It is also found that the frequency from 4-word to 6-word RMS in Book I is below five. It suggests that there is not enough 4-5 word RMS per a thousand words in the Book I materials. In other words, Book I materials do not provide various more extended vocabulary sets for the readers or users of materials – both students and lecturers.

Even though the figure 6.1 shows that RMS used in Book II are more varied than those in Book I, the frequencies of 3-word to 5-word RMS drop dramatically. This result suggests the higher frequencies shown in Book II's table should be understood in caution. The frequencies might indicate two different interpretations. On the one hand, there is a progression in terms of vocabulary availability in Book II. On the other hand, it suggests that there is no balance in terms of vocabulary sets provided in both books per a thousand words. Therefore, it is necessary to look at the result of further analysis, namely, normalised RMS token analysis.



Figure 6.2. RMS Tokens of Intensive Course Textbooks



Corpora	2-word	3-word	4-word	5-word	6-word
Book I	159.58	24.80	8.84	6.18	4.41
Book II	177.93	30.19	11.97	7.98	5.91

Similar to frequencies of RMS types, Figure 6.2 shows that the overall frequencies of RMS tokens per a thousand words in Book II are higher than the frequencies in Book I from 2-word to 6-word RMS. Despite this, the frequencies of 3-word to 6-word RMS in Book II are only slightly higher than those are in Book I. As the number of RMS tokens refers to the occurrences or repeat uses of the same RMS, it shows that there is no significant difference in terms of the number of words recycled in both books. In essence, this finding aligns with the results of the RMS types analysis, indicating a dearth of lexical diversity in both books as well as a lack of vocabulary recycling.

### The most frequent RMS in Intensive Course Book

As stated in the introduction chapter, this study aims at profiling the pattern and use of RMS in the university textbooks. It is also to investigate whether the intensive course textbooks provide authentic patterns of RMS for English for Academic purposes or not. This study also intends to see whether the RMS provided in the intensive course textbooks are found in students' works, particularly YEAR1. It is essential in order to see the impact of teaching materials at the beginning level of university study on students' vocabulary development. The analysis of RMS in the corpora is vital to find out whether students, especially YEAR1, possess various vocabulary sets and whether the materials in the intensive course textbooks help them in the process of developing their word repertoire. It is essential to see the significances of

students' learning resources, whether the textbooks or other resources, since the textbooks are the main resource for them to learn English in the first year of their study at the university.

To achieve these aims of the study, it is, therefore, significant to start the analysis by revealing the most frequent RMS in the corpora. It is useful to see which vocabulary sets are dominantly found in the textbooks and mostly used by students in their written works. The analysis result of the most frequent RMS in the corpora are in the following table.

Table 6.3 Breaks down the data analysis result of frequency by comparing the top 10 frequent RMS from all corpora

Table 6.3. Top 10 RMS based on frequency counts in the intensive course textbooks

<b>Two Words</b>					
<b>Book I</b>	<b>Freq</b>	<b>Book II</b>	<b>Freq</b>	<b>YEAR1</b>	<b>Freq</b>
<i>in the</i>	5.49	<i>in the</i>	4.53	<i>of the</i>	7.19
<i>do you</i>	5.34	<i>do you</i>	3.45	<i>in the</i>	5.42
<i>it is</i>	2.87	<i>to the</i>	3.27	<i>to the</i>	3.16
<i>at the</i>	2.33	<i>of the</i>	2.88	<i>is a</i>	3.02
<i>I am</i>	2.33	<i>if you</i>	2.61	<i>is the</i>	2.60
<i>of the</i>	2.04	<i>have a</i>	2.46	<i>it is</i>	2.46
<i>try to</i>	2.00	<i>you have</i>	2.07	<i>the word</i>	2.02
<i>to pronounce</i>	1.96	<i>I am</i>	1.98	<i>as a</i>	2.00
<i>to the</i>	1.96	<i>it is</i>	1.92	<i>from the</i>	1.98
<i>pronounce these</i>	1.85	<i>at the</i>	1.77	<i>there are</i>	1.93
<b>Three Words</b>					
<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.89	<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.23	<i>one of the</i>	0.82
<i>exercise try to</i>	1.82	<i>to pronounce these</i>	1.17	<i>the process of</i>	0.48
<i>to pronounce there</i>	1.82	<i>exercise try to</i>	1.14	<i>the use of</i>	0.47
<i>pronounce these</i>	1.64	<i>pronounce these</i>	1.11	<i>is one of</i>	0.45
<i>words</i>	1.20	<i>words</i>		<i>of the word</i>	0.45
<i>these words with</i>	0.80	<i>what do you</i>	1.05	<i>it can be</i>	0.39
<i>do you have</i>	0.73	<i>I have a</i>	0.93	<i>of a word</i>	0.38
<i>a lot of</i>	0.73	<i>these words with</i>	0.93	<i>the meaning of</i>	0.35

<i>I do not</i>	0.69	<i>listen to the</i>	0.78	<i>part of speech</i>	0.33
<i>it is a</i>	0.69	<i>you have a</i>	0.69	<i>a combination of</i>	0.28
<i>what do you</i>		<i>a lot of</i>	0.66		
<b>Four Words</b>					
<i>exercise try to</i>	1.82	<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.17	<i>is one of the</i>	0.35
<i>pronounce</i>		<i>these</i>	1.14	<i>in the form of</i>	0.22
<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.82	<i>exercise try to</i>		<i>is formed from the</i>	0.18
<i>these</i>	1.64	<i>pronounce</i>	1.11	<i>the meaning of the</i>	0.17
<i>to pronounce these</i>		<i>to pronounce these</i>		<i>is the process of</i>	0.15
<i>words</i>	1.09	<i>words</i>	0.93	<i>the part of speech</i>	0.15
<i>pronounce these</i>		<i>pronounce these</i>		<i>the people of region</i>	0.12
<i>words with</i>	0.22	<i>words with</i>	0.30	<i>the word formation</i>	0.12
<i>t or false f</i>	0.22	<i>I would like to</i>	0.27	<i>process</i>	
<i>the conversation</i>		<i>e pronounce the</i>		<i>part of a word</i>	0.11
<i>again are</i>	0.22	<i>vowel</i>	0.27	<i>the process of forming</i>	0.11
<i>true t or false</i>	0.18	<i>is usually spelt with</i>	0.21		
<i>again are these</i>		<i>these words with at</i>	0.21		
<i>statement</i>	0.18	<i>words with at the</i>	0.15		
<i>are the statement</i>	0.18	<i>answer these</i>			
<i>true</i>		<i>questions a</i>			
<i>conversation again</i>					
<i>are these</i>					
<b>Five Words</b>					
<i>exercise try to</i>	1.78	<i>exercise try to</i>	1.11	<i>in the form of a</i>	0.08
<i>pronounce these</i>	1.64	<i>pronounce these</i>		<i>the process of forming</i>	0.08
<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.09	<i>try to pronounce</i>	1.11	<i>is the processes of</i>	0.07
<i>these words</i>	0.22	<i>these words</i>		<i>forming</i>	
<i>to pronounce these</i>	0.18	<i>to pronounce these</i>	0.93	<i>region is one of the</i>	0.07
<i>words with</i>	0.18	<i>words with</i>		<i>the end of the word</i>	0.05
<i>true t or false f</i>	0.18	<i>pronounce these</i>	0.27	<i>of two or more words</i>	0.05
<i>again are these</i>	0.18	<i>words with at</i>		<i>the capital city of</i>	0.05
<i>statement true</i>	0.18	<i>these words with at</i>	0.27	<i>region</i>	0.04
	0.18	<i>the</i>		<i>it can be concluded that</i>	0.04

<i>are these statement</i>		<i>true t or false f</i>	0.24	<i>my hometown is region</i>	0.04
<i>true t</i>		<i>again are these</i>	0.21	<i>in</i>	
<i>conversation again</i>		<i>statement true</i>		<i>on the other hand the</i>	
<i>are these statement</i>		<i>are these statement</i>	0.21		
<i>or false f t f</i>		<i>true t</i>			
<i>statement true t or</i>		<i>or false f t f</i>	0.21		
<i>false</i>		<i>pronounce these</i>	0.21		
<i>t or false f t</i>		<i>words with after</i>			
<b>Six Words</b>					
<i>exercise try to</i>	1.60	<i>exercise try to</i>	1.05	<i>is the process of</i>	0.06
<i>pronounce these</i>		<i>pronounce these</i>		<i>forming a</i>	
<i>words</i>	1.09	<i>words</i>			
<i>try to pronounce</i>		<i>try to pronounce</i>	0.93		
<i>these words with</i>	0.18	<i>these words with</i>			
<i>again are these</i>		<i>pronounce these</i>	0.27		
<i>statement true t</i>	0.18	<i>words with at the</i>			
<i>are these statement</i>		<i>to pronounce these</i>			
<i>true t or</i>	0.18	<i>words with at</i>	0.27		
<i>conversation again</i>		<i>again are these</i>			
<i>are these statement</i>	0.18	<i>statement true t</i>	0.21		
<i>true</i>		<i>are these statement</i>			
<i>statement true t or</i>	0.18	<i>true t or</i>	0.21		
<i>false f</i>	0.18	<i>read the</i>			
<i>t or false f t f</i>		<i>conversation again</i>	0.21		
<i>the conversation</i>	0.18	<i>are these</i>			
<i>again are these</i>		<i>statement true t or</i>	0.21		
<i>statement</i>	0.18	<i>false f</i>			
<i>these statement true</i>		<i>t or false f t f</i>	0.21		
<i>t or false</i>		<i>these statement true</i>	0.21		
<i>true t or false f t</i>		<i>t or false</i>			

Table 6.3 illustrates that the most frequent across all spans – from 2-word to 6-word RMS – in both Book I and Book II are relatively identical even the top two RMS in each span are same.

The list also shows that the most frequent two-word RMS in both corpora are fragments of longer RMS and main features of the preposition (e.g., *of, in, on, to*) and the determiners (e.g., *the, this, that*). The longer RMS are only the different fragments of one dominant RMS type. The dominant RMS types build the same structure of the other RMS. It means that they are only different in word sequences but the same in vocabulary sets that build them as the building blocks of the texts. The identical RMS types in both corpora show that the RMS in both intensive course textbooks do not provide various vocabulary set even though they are meant to help students to develop their word repertoire.

The identical patterns of RMS in both corpora also take place in the frequency counts of each RMS type. Both corpora share the same patterns in terms of very low frequencies per a thousand words, specifically from 3-word to 6-word RMS. In the longer RMS, the frequencies even drop to below one, which means that there are only very limited vocabulary sets per a thousand words used in all materials from both intensive course textbooks. The top 10 RMS types in both corpora are primarily sets of words for instructions for students to do the activities set up in the books. There are not sufficient examples in the books that can help students to develop their vocabulary mastery.

Regarding the aim of this study which is to analyse whether the intensive course textbooks provide authentic patterns of RMS for EAP, the results of data analysis suggest that the RMS found in the textbooks are not used by students in their written works. There are only a few identical 2-words RMS from all corpora (e.g., *in the, of the*). The rest of them are incredibly different. If we look closely at the RMS in the intensive course textbooks, we will find that the most frequent RMS are only instructional phrases. They are used basically to instruct students to do the speaking drill, particularly pronunciation practice. There is no most frequent RMS for other skills. For that reason, it is not a coincidence that the result of analysis on students' corpora – particularly YEAR1 group – shows that they do not possess a wide variety of vocabulary. In short, the materials in the intensive course textbooks do not provide sufficient native-like patterns of vocabulary for students to learn and use them in their written works.

This finding aligns with the results of RMS comparison in all corpora. The comparative analysis reveals that there is only less than 10% of RMS in the teaching material, i.e., intensive course textbooks match with RMS used by students in their written works. The shared RMS are mostly the shortest ones and dominantly prepositional phrases (e.g., *in the, of the, to the*).

In terms of RMS features, this result reveals the fact that YEAR1 students do not often use expressions from the academic word list provided in the textbooks. The majority of RMS found that YEAR1 students' corpus are only fragments from other RMS. The texts types and length as well as the writing exercise they get during YEAR1 of their study might influence the results. The use of fragmented RMS is also a relevant issue. The lack of RMS from teaching materials found in YEAR1 students' list might be because the materials in both intensive course books were very general as seen in the Table 6.1 (the structure and topics of the books), rather than focusing on language patterns in the university setting.

Specifically for writing materials, the result of content analysis of the books strengthens the findings from corpus analysis. It can be seen in the table below.

Table 6.4. Top 10 RMS of writing materials based on frequency counts in the intensive course textbooks

<b>Two Words</b>	<b>Freq</b>	<b>Three Words</b>	
<i>do you</i>	5.07	<i>do you know</i>	1.04
<i>it is</i>	3.90	<i>my home town</i>	0.91
<i>of the</i>	2.47	<i>the farm dog</i>	0.91
<i>in the</i>	1.82	<i>the wild dog</i>	0.91
<i>have a</i>	1.69	<i>do you have</i>	0.78
<i>and the</i>	1.56	<i>I am a</i>	0.78
<i>write a</i>	1.56	<i>it is a</i>	0.78
<i>you have</i>	1.43	<i>let us try</i>	0.78
<i>about your</i>	1.30	<i>use this phrase</i>	0.78
<i>I have</i>	1.30	<i>man said the</i>	0.78
<b>Four Word</b>	<b>Freq</b>		
<i>how often do you</i>	0.65		
<i>my home town is</i>	0.65		
<i>the farm dog is</i>	0.65		

The result of analysis shows that the most frequent RMS of the teaching material for writing skills are limited with very low frequency per a thousand words. It points out that the materials

for writing skills have not provided sufficient exposure to a broader variety of RMS explicitly used as a native-like manner.

The writing skill sections in each lesson are dominantly instructions for individual tasks that asking students to fill the blanks in the sentences or writing essays. The materials (vocabulary, examples of expressions, grammar) are provided in different sections even in the listening and speaking sections. Most of the lessons are started with listen and read section, followed by vocabulary or speaking or grammar sections. The materials in those sections are used as the content and examples of language expressions for writing sections. The materials for writing sections can be seen in the following examples.

#### E. Write

Interview and write about your friend.

**Questions**

1. What is your hobby?
2. How often do you.....?
3. Where do you usually.....?
4. When do you usually.....?
5. Who do you usually.....with?
6. Why do you enjoy.....?
7. Which hobby do you not like?
8. Why do you not enjoy this hobby?

My friend's name is .....likes.....  
she/he usually.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

#### G. Write

You plan to rent an apartment. However, on visiting the apartment you discover a great deal of things need to be improved before you will agree to rent it. Make a list of the things which need to be done, using the causative. Follow this outline:

bathroom	re-tile floor	<i>They should have the floor re-tiled.</i>
	paint walls	<i>They should get the walls painted.</i>
	clean bath	_____
kitchen	replace stove	_____
	clean floor	_____
	replace curtains	_____
living-room	repair front window	_____
	change lock	_____
	re-cover furniture	_____
bedrooms	clean floors	_____
	paint walls	_____
	change curtains	_____

## G. Write

1. Pair Work. What should a visitor to your country know about local customs? Make a list of 'do' and 'don't's'.
2. Individual task. Choose five points from the list you made. Use them to write a composition.
3. Pair Work. Take turns reading your compositions. Can you suggest any improvements to the content or grammar of your partner's composition?

## G. Write

- A. Look at the pictures. Write down your answer about one of the pictures.



(Source of images: [www.wikipedia.org](http://www.wikipedia.org))

What can you see in the picture?  
Describe it as detailed as you can.

What kind of temperatures and weather  
could you expect here?

How do you think local people make a  
living?

What dangers could you encounter when  
going there?

Would you like to visit this place?  
Explain why (or why not).

Mention 5 countries where you could find  
similar landscapes.

- B. Write down two paragraphs about your home town. You can use the questions above.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



As stated previously, the language features used for writing are provided in the previous sections of the lesson, read and listen, vocabulary, grammar, and even in speaking sections. The examples below show that the language features that can be used for writing (section G) are provided in the section C, Read.

#### C. Read

1. Read this text and match each paragraph with the flag below.

- A. This country has quite a small population, just 22 million, but the country is huge. The people are mainly of European descent, but there are also aborigines and a lot of south-east Asian immigrants. People live in towns on the coast, not so much inland, because it is so hot. They live a lot of their lives outdoors, and enjoy sports, swimming and having barbecues. This country exports wine and wool – it has more than 60 million sheep!
- B. This is the second biggest country in the world, but it has a population of only 30 million. It is so big that there is a variety of climates. Most people live in the south because the north is too cold. It is famous for its beautiful mountains and lakes – it has more lakes than any other country. Their favourite sports are baseball and hockey.
- C. This country has a population of about 45 million. Of these, 76 per cent are black and 12 per cent white. It has a warm climate. Either it never rains, or it rains a lot! It is the world's biggest producer of gold, and it exports diamonds, too. It grows a lot of fruit, including oranges, pears, and grapes, and it makes wine. In the game reserves you can see a lot of wildlife, including lions, elephants, zebras, and giraffes.

2. Find the answer in the text above.

- 1. How many people live in Australia, South Africa and Canada?
- 2. Where do people commonly live in each country?
- 3. What is Canada famous for?
- 4. What is the climate in Australia?



a. Australia



b. South Africa



c. Canada

Overall, since the materials in intensive course textbooks tend to focus on listen-and-speak practices and the writing section is dominantly instructions for writing tasks, it is necessary for lecturers to provide more opportunities for students to have other drills in the class. This phenomenon might be one of the reasons why some RMS are repetitively used in students' corpora due to the lack of exposure to different vocabulary sets specifically for academic writing. As stated in the syllabus and course aims, the course is expected to provide more chances for students to acquire more pre-patterned language that will be beneficial for their language development. In fact, the result of analysis shows that the most frequent RMS found in both books are only those specifically for listening and pronunciation practices such as *exercise try to pronounce these, try to pronounce these words*.

### 6.3 YEAR4 Teaching and learning materials

As done in the YEAR1 group, the analysis of the materials includes the course overview and aims, the materials, and teaching guidelines – how lecturers and students used them in the learning process. Unlike the analysis of YEAR1 materials, the YEAR4 analysis does not include the frequency analysis of RMS types and tokens and the most frequent RMS due to the situation where the materials were not well documented as those for the YEAR1 group.

Consequently, it is difficult to conduct the analysis of RMS in YEAR4 teaching and learning materials as I did in the YEAR1 group.

### **6.3.1 Course overview**

The course for the YEAR4 group is called Writing for Academic Purposes (WAP). The course offers four credits and consists of thirty-two meetings, including mid-term and final examination, each of which is set to 100 minutes of a class meeting. Students can only enrol on this class if they pass the course the Writing for Professional Context in the second year. The course is taught by five lecturers, where the students are grouped into five different classes. Each class consists of twenty-five to thirty students. The students have more weeks and hours of learning due to the number of credits of this course (four credits).

The course is designed to help students develop and sharpen their academic writing skills and strategies. WAP's topics focus on polishing students' skills in writing different essays commonly found in the school/university curriculum and undergraduate thesis. The course also introduces students to writing APA referencing styles, summaries, and annotated bibliographies. Students will also learn how to navigate articles from reputable journals and deal with plagiarism to help them build solid and empirical evidence-based arguments throughout their written work. Strategies for reading critically, organizing and developing thoughts, choosing appropriate vocabulary, and revising their writing are also covered.

As stated in the syllabus of course, the aims of the course are to help students:

1. To understand and to master the practical knowledge and skills of writing argumentative essays, summaries, annotated bibliographies, critiques, and literature reviews.
2. To understand and to master strategies for reading critically, organizing and developing thoughts, choosing appropriate vocabulary, and revising their own writing.
3. To build positive characters (Discipline, Honesty, and Toughness)

The course's learning outcomes

1. Students are able understand and to master the practical knowledge and skills of writing argumentative essays, summaries, annotated bibliographies, critiques, and literature reviews.
2. Students are able to understand and to master strategies for reading critically, organizing and developing thoughts, choosing appropriate vocabulary, and revising their own writing.

3. Students are able to build positive characters (Discipline, Honesty, and Toughness)

In order to achieve the learning outcomes, the course runs on a semester basis, from January to June (approximately 4 to 5 months in duration). During the course, the students have 32 meetings, and all meetings cover the whole material of the course in which students own their right to acquire the knowledge in a class meeting, assignments, exercises, and examinations. To pass the course, students must attend at least 28 class meetings.

### 6.3.2 The materials and teaching guidelines

According to the WAP course syllabus, the syllabus and semester lesson plan should serve as a guide and be regarded as descriptive rather than a prescriptive teaching guideline. As a result, the lecturer is not required to apply one specific teaching method but can choose and elaborate various teaching methods that suit the students' academic writing needs. As students approaching their final phase of the study at the university, the lecturers are expected to select techniques and activities that are most appropriate to enable students to become independent learners and to be able to function well in the writing aspect of their academic studies. The lecturers who teach the writing classes are expected to foster students' autonomy in academic settings by providing tasks and interaction that promote critical thinking. The Lecturers are advised to provide students with supplementary materials suggested by the course or with the teacher's own materials if they identify those learners need more practice in certain areas that they are struggle with. Moreover, as suggested in the WAP course syllabus, every week, learners are provided with a one-on-one consultation so that they have opportunities to discuss any aspect of their study with their lecturers.

### *Course outline*

Table 6.5 Course outline of writing for academic purposes subject

<b>Wee k</b>	<b>Topics</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Learning Indicators</b>	<b>Students' Task</b>
1	Understanding the course syllabus	Understanding the course objectives, schedule and assessment	Students understand the course objectives, schedule and assessment; students know	Reviewing samples of paragraph; proofreading practices

			how to proofread English writing texts	
2	Writing argumentative essays	Writing critical evidence-based argumentative essays; expressing critical thinking skills into writing; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to critically write evidence-based argumentative essays	Writing evidence-based argumentative essays
3	Writing comparison and contrast essays	Writing critical evidence-based comparison and contrast essays; expressing critical thinking skills into writing; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to critically write evidence-based comparison and contrast essays	Writing evidence-based comparison and contrast essays
4	Writing cause and effect essays	Writing critical evidence-based cause and effect essays; expressing critical thinking skills into writing; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve	Students are able to critically write evidence-based cause and effect essays	Writing evidence-based cause and effect essays

		academic text writing purposes		
5	Using APA 7 <sup>th</sup> edition into writing academic English	Writing in-text citation and reference list; expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to do in text citation and to write reference list using APA 7 <sup>th</sup> edition	Writing in-text citation and reference list using APA 7 <sup>th</sup> edition reference style
6	Article navigation	Navigating articles from reputable databases	Students are able to navigate articles of their preferences	Practicing navigating articles from Perpustakaan RI e-resources
7	<b>Mid-semester test</b>			Students must submit the mid-term project
8	Tuition free week (independent study)			
9	Introduction to report writing	Writing text reports; Expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to write reports on the basis of data generated from figures, tables or charts	Writing text reports generated from figures, tables or charts
10	Writing summary	Writing summary; expressing critical thinking skills; improving	Students are able to write summary for the purpose of	Writing summary

		the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	writing articles, library research and empirical studies	
11	Writing annotated bibliography	Writing annotated bibliography; expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to write an annotated bibliography for the purpose of writing articles, library research and empirical studies	Writing an annotated bibliography
12	Writing the introduction chapter of a thesis	Writing the introduction chapter of a thesis; expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to write the introduction chapter of a thesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Writing the introduction chapter of a thesis</li> <li>- Final project topic consultation begins</li> </ul>
13	Writing the literature review chapter of a thesis	Writing the literature review chapter of a thesis; expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to write the literature review chapter of a thesis	Writing the literature review chapter of a thesis

14	Writing the methodology, findings & discussion chapter of a thesis	Writing the methodology, findings & discussion chapter of a thesis; expressing critical thinking skills; improving the use of English vocabulary capacity mastery to serve academic text writing purposes	Students are able to write the methodology, findings & discussion chapter of a thesis	Writing the methodology, findings & discussion chapter of a thesis
15	<b>Tuition free week (final project consultation)</b>			
16	<b>Final test- final project submission</b>			<b>Students must submit the final project</b>

Throughout the course outline, the materials are given through explanation, lecture, discussion, presentation, and assignment. During the process, students are expected to improve their ability to think critically and form independent assessment, improve their written communication skills, and their ability to use non-lectured and non-prescribed materials. Some readings are given in advance of a lecture and will definitely be required afterwards to consolidate the understanding of the material and ideas presented in the lecture. The syllabus suggested that the course is taught through various learning strategies such as project-based learning, research-based learning, and cooperative learning. The lecturers use printing, audio-visual and online media as the instructional media during the teaching.

As stated in the introduction of this section, the materials of WAP course are not well-documented as those for the IC course in YEAR1. The materials are taken from various resources that can provide articles, papers, essays, or videos related to the weekly meeting. WAP lecturers took the materials from the Indonesian national library or some universities' libraries in the US, UK, Europe, and Australia. The materials are sometimes compiled in PDF

format or just presented in the PPT slides. For instance, if the lecturer will teach the material of argumentative essay, the lecturer will prepare the related material taken from various sources such as the library of Purdue University. The lecturer will compile the materials then use them in classroom teaching. Students will use the materials in class as a guideline and examples to practice writing their essays based on the weekly topics in the syllabus. The lecturers write no books or material compilation of WAP or any textbooks as those in the IC course. Here are the examples of the materials of WAP.

### Argumentative Essays

#### WHAT IS AN ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY?

The argumentative essay is a genre of writing that requires the student to investigate a topic; collect, generate, and evaluate evidence; and establish a position on the topic in a concise manner.

*Please note:* Some confusion may occur between the argumentative essay and the expository essay.

These two genres are similar, but the argumentative essay differs from the expository essay in the amount of pre-writing (invention) and research involved. The argumentative essay is commonly assigned as a capstone or final project in first year writing or advanced composition courses and involves lengthy, detailed research. Expository essays involve less research and are shorter in length. Expository essays are often used for in-class writing exercises or tests, such as the GED or GRE.

Argumentative essay assignments generally call for extensive research of literature or previously published material. Argumentative assignments may also require empirical research where the student collects data through interviews, surveys, observations, or experiments. Detailed research allows the student to learn about the topic and to understand different points of view regarding the topic so that she/he may choose a position and support it with the evidence collected during research. Regardless of the amount or type of research involved, argumentative essays must establish a clear thesis and follow sound reasoning.

The structure of the argumentative essay is held together by the following.

- **A clear, concise, and defined thesis statement that occurs in the first paragraph of the essay.**

In the first paragraph of an argument essay, students should set the context by reviewing the topic in a general way. Next the author should explain why the topic is important (**exigence**) or why readers should care about the issue. Lastly, students should present the thesis statement. It is essential that this thesis statement be appropriately narrowed to follow the guidelines set forth in the assignment. If the student does not master this portion of the essay, it will be quite difficult to compose an effective or persuasive essay.

- **Clear and logical transitions between the introduction, body, and conclusion.**

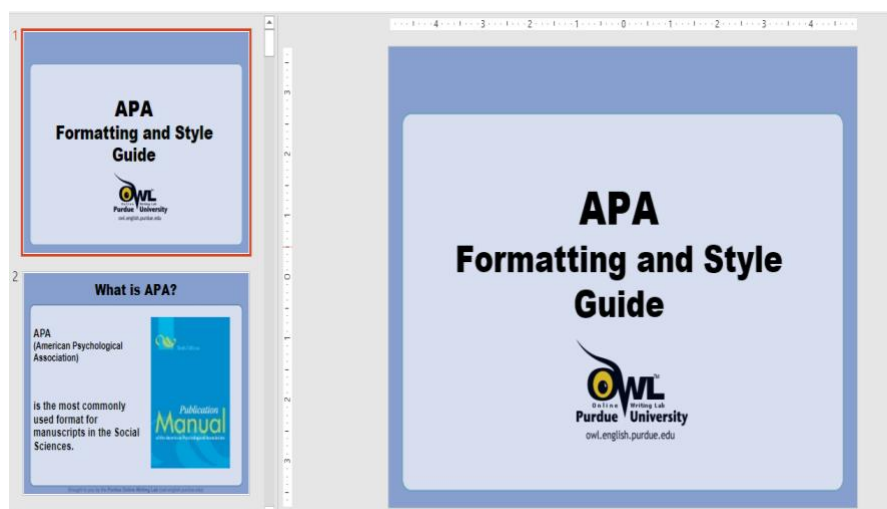
Transitions are the mortar that holds the foundation of the essay together. Without logical progression of thought, the reader is unable to follow the essay's argument, and the structure will collapse. Transitions should wrap up the idea from the previous section and introduce the idea that is to follow in the next section.

- **Body paragraphs that include evidential support.**

Each paragraph should be limited to the discussion of one general idea. This will allow for clarity and direction throughout the essay. In addition, such conciseness creates an ease of readability for one's audience. It is important to note that each paragraph in the body of the essay must have some logical connection to the thesis statement in the opening paragraph. Some paragraphs will directly support the thesis statement with evidence collected during research. It is also important to explain how and why the evidence supports the thesis (**warrant**).

However, argumentative essays should also consider and explain differing points of view regarding the topic. Depending on the length of the assignment, students should dedicate one or two paragraphs of an argumentative essay to discussing conflicting opinions on the topic. Rather than explaining how these differing opinions are wrong outright, students should note how opinions that do not align with their thesis might not be well informed or how they might be out of date.





### ***Assignments and Exercises***

Assignments and exercises equal 20% of assignment items, so that students must submit their assignment and do exercises to pass the course. The syllabus stated that there are no remedial for this session except for students who miss the class due to illness and other logical and acceptable circumstances. Those students are able to have a second chance one week after the day by contacting the lecturer. Consequently, if the students do not do so, they will not get any score for the item of assignment.

### ***Mid-term examination***

Students must write an individual essay of approximately 350 words for the mid-term examination project. They can choose one of the given topics and develop a thesis statement. The topics should cover the language skills listening, reading, writing, speaking, and other language aspects, including grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The essay's focus is to introduce and investigate the common problems in language learning and cover the best practices/tips to help language learners/teachers improve their learning/teaching practices. In writing the essay, it is stated that the use of the most recent references is compulsory. The students are asked to use related articles or papers from Perpustakaan RI (Indonesian national library) e-resources.

Regarding the structure, the syllabus stated that the essay must have an opening as the introduction part of the entire paragraph (1 paragraph, including the thesis statement; 75-100 words), the body of paragraph (1 or 2 paragraphs; app. 100 words each) and conclusion (1

paragraph; 50-75 words). When writing, the students are asked to use A4 paper type, Times New Roman, 12 font size, 1.5 space, 3 cm margins. They must write their name, ID, class, assignment type, and course name on top of the paper. The essay then should be submitted to the lecturer based on the deadline. The mid-term exam covers 30% of the total score for the WAP course.

### ***Final-term examination***

According to the syllabus, for the final-term examination, students must write a 7-10-page research proposal. The research proposal covers the items of introduction (3-4 pages); background to the study, research question(s), research objectives, the scope of the study, and significance of the study. Students must write a literature review section (2-3 pages) that covers the theoretical framework and related previous studies. Finally, the final project must include a research method (2-3 pages) that consists of research design, site and participants, data collection methods, and analysis. When writing the research proposal, students must use A4 paper type, Times New Roman, 12 font size, 1.5 space, 3 cm margins. They must write their name, ID, class, assignment type, and course name on top of the paper. The research proposal must be submitted to the lecturer based on the deadline. The final exam covers 40% of the total score of the WAP course.

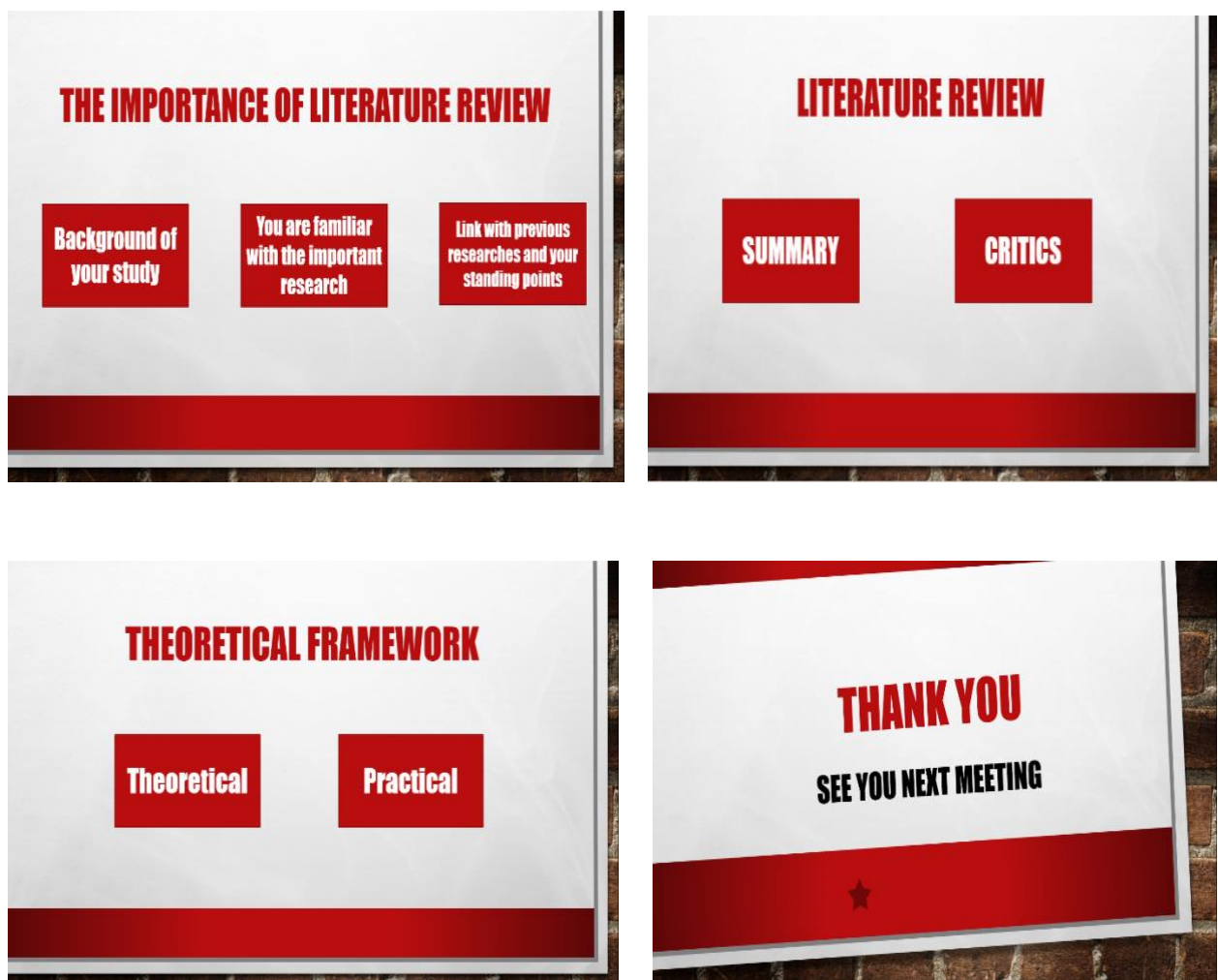
The examples of materials used by lecturers in the academic writing class can be seen below.



Those pictures are captured from PPT slides of one of the lecturers who submitted the material to me. The pictures show that the materials only describe the structure or main features of a paragraph without giving the examples of a good paragraph. The PPT slides do not have any materials about language expressions used in the academic writing particularly for the YEAR4 students who are writing their research proposal and research reports. The PPT slides end with

an instruction that asks students to write down a paragraph or more about the fancy or luxurious things they have ever owned. In fact, the given topic does not have any relationship with the academic writing context especially for students who learn to write under graduate thesis writing.

Another similar example that is necessary to be discussed is the materials for the topic of literature review and theoretical framework. Here is the example of the materials.



It is shown that the materials for the topic of literature review and theoretical framework are only description or general information of what a literature review is. The first slide is only the title of the course, title of material, and name of the lecturer. There is no information about how a literature review looks like, how to start writing a literature review, and how the language features used in the literature review. The same phenomenon also takes place in the other topics of the course.

After analysing the syllabus and teaching and learning material documents for the WAP course, it is essential to note some points. (1) On the one hand, the syllabus has provided clear information about the aspects of teaching; course outline, learning contents, learning outcomes, learning activities, students' task, mid-term and final exams, and learning sources. (2) On the other hand, there are insufficient materials (e.g. handbooks, compilations, textbooks) for students. Instead, the provided materials are only given in separated files (e.g. PDF, PPT slides, MS Word documents, or videos). (3) The materials are lack language features, and examples specifically for academic writing vocabulary and expressions, including RMS. (4) The materials mainly discuss the explanations of types and structure of academic essays, structure and content of a research proposal and a research report, and some other materials such as referencing style, and how to use various sources for academic writing.

#### **6.4 Concluding remarks**

The analysis results of teaching and learning documents have indicated some differences between the IC course and WAP course documents. In terms of syllabus, the WAP syllabus is more structured and informative than the IC one. From the material point of view, the IC materials are far better than those for WAP since the IC course has two handbooks used by students and lecturers. The WAP materials are only given in separated files (e.g., PDF, PPT slides, MS Word documents, or videos). In terms of content, both courses have not provided sufficient materials that can help students develop their academic writing proficiency, especially vocabulary and expressions. The analysis on the IC books showed that the RMS in both books are dominantly sequences of words to instruct students in-class sessions, particularly in listen-and-speak drills. The books have not provided RMS that can help students to learn more complex vocabulary sets. The materials in the WAP documents mainly discuss the explanations of the types and structure of essays. They have not given more examples of expressions and vocabulary to construct sentences specifically for academic writing.

Regarding these results, it can be concluded that the circumstances where the teaching and learning materials do not provide sufficient materials that meet students' need in writing academic texts might be one of the factors of problems found in the linguistic analyses. The phenomena where students were unable to produce more varied RMS in terms of types, structure and functions might be related to the fact that the teaching materials failed to assist students in learning academic writing.

In order to support the data acquired for different areas of the thesis, including the study of RMS use in students' academic writing and the analysis of teaching and learning documents and to get more information regarding the teaching and learning process, it is required to analyse the third dataset of this study namely interviews. Therefore, the next chapter will discuss the results of interviews' analyses.

## **Chapter 7**

### **Analysis of Interviews**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

This study analyses data that involves three phases of analysis. The first phase entails the corpus analysis (YEAR1 and YEAR4 students' academic writing). The corpus analysis is to analyse students' use of RMS in their academic writing. The analysis comprises the analysis of RMS frequency, distribution, structure, and function. The second phase is the analysis of RMS in the teaching and learning documents in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. It is 1) to provide comprehensive information about what materials students learn (2) to investigate whether the materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing that can help students in learning RMS and use the RMS in composing their academic writing. The third phase is the interviews. The need to conduct interviews was essential to support the data collected for various sections of the thesis – the analysis of RMS use in students' academic writing and the analysis of teaching and learning documents. The objective of the interviews is in order to answer research question five, entitled how is the EFL teaching and learning process at the university? In essence, interviews were conducted to gain insight into institutional teaching and learning practices and thereby to explain and contextualise the corpus analysis.

The interviews involved students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The questions for students were given to discover the information of the process they learn RMS and the possible factors that can make them difficult to learn and use RMS in their academic writing. The questions for lecturers and the head of the department were asked to get comprehensive information about the curriculum, teaching material, learning environment, teaching and learning process, and the policy on English language teaching and learning in the university. There were 15 participants in the semi-structured interviews. It consists of 11 EFL university students, four lecturers and one head of department who were volunteered to be interviewed. One hundred sixteen students submitted the essays from year 1 and year 4, but only ten students were willing to be interviewed. It also happens to lecturers, there were twelve-targeted lecturers to be interviewed, but only four said yes and were willing to be interviewed. Most of the students refused to be interviewed for various reasons. Among them is the reluctance to express opinions to others, and even many students stated that they did not want to be interviewed because they were not confident and did not want to be thought of as judging the lecturers and the department when expressing their opinions. For lecturers, from twelve lecturers who

initially stated they were willing, in the end, only four people were willing to be interviewed. Most found it difficult to make time for the interview process or were reluctant to be interviewed. On the other hand, the head of the department was willing to do the interview session because she believed that this research was very important for the department. She argued that this research would be valuable for improving the capacity of students, lecturers, department, and personally her as the head of the department.

Regarding the interview process, interviewees were provided in advance with a letter containing information about the thesis and the purpose of the interview. A supporting document clarified the rights of the interviewees, including their right to stop the interview at any time; to be anonymous if they requested; to not answer certain questions; their right to see transcripts of the completed interview and make edits or redact sections; their right to have the interview and recording deleted and not be included within the thesis. A form was produced for the interviewee to read and sign confirming their understanding of their rights and the project, their consent to take part, and their comments to be used in the thesis and potential future publications. The interviews were conducted through thematic questions as the guideline. For students, the themes were (1) experiences of learning English in general and at the university, (2) experiences of learning RMS or essential phrases or language expressions, (3) learning experiences in the class, (4) learning experiences outside the class, (5) plan when they become the teachers of English. For lecturers, the themes were (1) teaching experiences at the university in general, (2) teaching experiences in the classroom setting (curriculum, teaching materials, learning methods etc.), (3) experiences/opinions about learning RMS or essential phrases or language expressions (4) Problems (lecturers' problems and students' problems), (5) suggestions for the improvement. For the head of the department, the questions were given through (1) the policy-making process in terms of curriculum and teaching and learning, (2), Writing for Academic Purposes course, (3). Intensive Course programme.

These themes are used as an interview guide and are then used to display the analysis of interview results in this chapter. Therefore, this chapter analyses the results of the interviews in three sections, the students' section, the lecturers' section, and the section of the head of the department. The analysis results for each section are displayed based on the order of the themes mentioned above.

## 7.2 Students' interviews

Regarding the experiences of learning English, the students have different starts to learn English. They argued that they had learned English as a subject or module since elementary schools (primary schools) or junior high schools (secondary schools). The difference is based on the areas they live. Those who live in the city or the main district of a region have the opportunities to learn English from primary schools. Those who live in the sub-district started to learn English at secondary schools. For example, student A who was born and live in the capital city, said that *“I have learned English as a subject since elementary school, fourth grade”*. While student B, who was born and live in the sub-district of the neighbouring province, stated that *“I started learning English when I was at junior high school”*.

To explain the context, concerning the continuous change of curriculum in Indonesia, in which English was a compulsory subject in primary schools then dropped from the curriculum of primary schools, most of the primary schools in the city or the main districts have included English as the optional subject in their curriculum alongside the subject of local languages. The system in each primary school is different in offering English as a subject. Some primary schools start the subject from first grade, while some of them start at fourth grade. It depends on the policy of each school. Meanwhile, the primary schools in the sub-districts or remote areas do not offer English as a subject at school. The availability of teachers of English and the access to get books and materials of English mostly affect the policy to include English in the curriculum. Therefore, some students started to learn English at secondary schools, or even six years later than those who had learned it from primary schools.

The students also explained that they started learning English seriously at senior high school or even university. Previously, they learned English only because it was a compulsory subject, but they were not interested in the subject. For example, student C stated that, *“I started learning English at elementary school, but I seriously learned it when I was at vocational high school”*. I then asked him where he attended his vocational high school; he said he graduated from the most favourite vocational school in town. The vocational high school is the school that has achieved many awards for the English competitions at the national level. Thus, student C might start to learn English seriously because he got great exposure and environment of English at the vocational schools. On the other hand, student D, for example, stated that he started learning English at the university. He loves learning English, but unfortunately, their



schools lacked teachers of English. Consequently, he then decided to study at the English department to learn English.

Regarding the experiences of learning English at university, students have different reasons to study in the English department and different favourite subjects. Some of them decided to study at the department because they wanted to learn English, and a few of them were asked by their parents to study at the department of English education. For example, student E stated that *“I actually wanted to study mathematics or physics, more natural sciences, but my parents asked me to study English”*. Based on her parents' wishes, she then applied to study at the department of English education. I then asked her the reasons of her parents decided to send her to study English, and she explained that one of her parents is an English teacher, so they want her to become an English teacher. In line with student E's statement, student F also stated that she studied English education at her parents' wish. Although her parents are not English teachers like the parents of student E, her parents still want him to study English education because this department is one of the favourite departments on campus. In addition, the parents of student F do not allow student F to study far from their parents (outside the area). Therefore, they agreed that student F should study in Gorontalo and major in English education.

Another noteworthy finding reflected from the interview is the subject preferences. During the process of learning English at the English Education Department, students have different subject preferences. Most of them prefer to study speaking subjects compared to other subjects, especially writing and grammar. One of the reasons is because speaking is easier than writing. For example, student C confessed that he felt easier when communicating with others through speaking because he thought he did not need to think too much about language, such as grammar and structure in writing.

*“because I think it's easier to say than to write what I want. Usually, in writing, you have to think about what first, the grammar, and structure. But in speaking, I think it's easier because when communicating with other friends, it's more about pronunciation and understanding rather than other aspects.”*

In addition, there are also students who think that she really likes to talk and by being able to speak English, she will look cooler. Student G, for example stated that

*“because I'm a chatty person, I always like to talk, I like to express opinions in other languages, if I talk in Indonesian as my own language, I don't feel challenged, but if I use foreign language, especially English, it's cooler, it's cooler to hear, isn't it”.*

From ten students as the interviewees, only three students prefer to study other than speaking subject. Student F explained that she loves studying grammar subject because she loves mathematics. She also confessed that she likes studying grammar because her lecturer made the material easy to understand.

*“basically I prefer math because there are many formulas. It's a lot like grammar if you use grammar, it has formulas, so I prefer grammar. I also like grammar because the lecturer was very good in teaching the material. She helped us understand the material well”.*

Student H stated that he prefer listening subject because he feels easier doing listening than other skills *“I feel like easier in listening. I feel easier to listen to something than saying or writing something”*. Student I is the only student who prefers writing subject. She stated that

*“I prefer writing subject because I can learn how to write well especially in using punctuation such as semicolon. I can also learn how to write compound sentences and the use of because. I have just learned that I can't use because in the dependent and independent clause”*

In short, it can be suggested from this situation that the different backgrounds or reasons of students to choose the English education department may influence their desire to learn English. Relative to this matter, as explained in the literature review, Indonesian students, especially in Gorontalo, are diverse. All of them speak Malay or local languages. Educational experiences, as well as their social and socioeconomic backgrounds, may also create diversity. Based on the national government policy, people in Indonesia may perceive the positioning of English in Indonesia differently regarding the continuous change of language policy. In addition, the fact that most students prefer to learn speaking subject shows that other subjects, especially writing, faces a new challenge so that students are more interested in learning writing.

### 7.2.1 Learning RMS or useful phrases or language expressions

All students admitted that they never heard about the term recurrent multi-word sequences RMS or word sequences in relation to learning RMS. They only recognised the terms of language expressions or useful phrases when I used the terms. When I asked what they knew about useful phrases or language expressions, they all responded with similar answers. They learned the useful phrases since they were in the YEAR1 (intensive course program). Some of the students explained that they learned the phrases or expressions in class. The lecturers often showed them the material and asked them to use the expressions according to the taught materials. For Example, student C stated that

*“I never heard about what you said RMS or whatever it is. But, when you mentioned useful phrases, I know it. We learned it in IC program mostly. The lecturer (mentioning lecturer’s name) taught the material and she asked us to use it in doing exercise”*

Another thing revealed from the interview is that there is no follow up to use the useful phrases or language expressions beyond the exercise in class. It is found that the lecturers will move to other materials once they finish the current material. Student E responded to my question about whether they have a drill in class until they can use the RMS properly.

*“no, sir. We only learned it based on the material. Sometimes we do practices and finish. We move to another material and learn new lesson until the time is up.*

When I asked whether they know the importance of RMS in helping them write or say something in English much easier, Student E also admitted that all students want to learn how to say or write something in English when they have ideas in the Indonesian language. The problem is that they only have limited time to learn about that because they have to learn many other things in the lesson. Consequently, she decided to learn them by herself. She spared her time to browse the materials from the internet as she felt that it is important to master the RMS to help her write anything in English.

*“I learned by myself at home, sir. I took the material from internet and I learned about it and how to use it because I rarely had it in the class. I want to learn it because I want to use it in my writing. I want my writing better.*

Students who prefer writing as a subject also pointed out that in the academic writing class, they spent most of their time learning the structure of writing, rather than expressing their ideas using correct English expressions. As a result, they are more familiar with how the academic writing genres are structured than how they use different expressions in different genres.

*“we rarely learned how to write this in English. For example, if I have my ideas but they are still in Indonesian language, I don’t know what to write. I know the structure of the writing, the introduction and so on, but I want to know what should I write this in correct English.”*

These results are in line with those found in the RMS frequency and distribution. The arguments stated by the students in the interviews prove that the students find it difficult to use RMS in their academic writing. As a result, they tend to use a limited number of phrases more frequently. They also tend to rely on the same phrases that they use in their writing.

### **7.2.2 Learning experiences in class**

The findings obtained in the previous section regarding the lack of RMS material are in line with the results of the interviews for the theme of learning experiences in class. All students admitted that they had problems in mastering vocabulary and grammar. In addition, they do not have sufficient opportunities to learn these two things in class. They stated that they need more practice, but unfortunately, they do not get enough practice time in class. Student C stated that

*“I have a big problem in grammar especially the structure of sentences, how to write long sentences. And also tenses and how to put phrases in a sentence. My friends also have the same problems and we want to learn about that. We want to practice it in class and lecturer tells us the right or wrong form”*

Student J, the YEAR1 student, confessed that he could not master the vocabulary and grammar due to the huge number of materials in the Intensive Course program. The other problem is that he and his friends learned more about listening comprehension, speaking and games in class but lack other skills. He felt that the materials are too much and not specific on how to say or to write something in English with a correct grammar. He stated that *“all we want is learning*

*the basic of how to say or write something in English and I want to make my vocab and grammar good. The material is so many, sometimes we don't need it".*

The other crucial problem found from the interviews is that there were some cases in which the lecturers arranged the class into group presentations in several subjects, including grammar, structure, even academic writing. The students were divided into some groups then given the topics from the handbook provided by the lecturer. The students presented the material of grammar, structure, or academic writing to their friends. It was like a seminar presentation for the class that should be full of practices in regards to the type of subject, mainly English skills. The next problem was that sometimes the lecturers did not attend the class presentation. They only asked the class representative to submit the report of the presentation and the discussion. Therefore, it was difficult for the student to understand the materials due to the classroom management and lack of practices. As student G stated that *"we were given the material for each group. We were divided into some groups then we presented the material to our friends. Sometimes the lecture was in the class, sometimes she just asked us to report the result of the discussion"*.

The other problem that occurred in the interviews was that not all lecturers use English in the class. It affected students' exposure to English and could be linked to the fact that they were reluctant to use English in daily activities at campus because they felt like using English is not compulsory despite being at the English education department. Students from both groups, YEAR1 and YEAR4, argued that only a few lecturers use English fully in the classes. Some use mixed languages, English and Indonesian, and a few lecturers use 100% Indonesian in classes. The students also stated that they want the lecturers to use English fully or at least 90% at the campus to help them get more exposure to English.

*"Actually I want the lecturers to speak English in class and outside. Day by day, I can copy the way they speak and I can improve my English"* (student F).

*"no, sir. Not all lecturer use English. Most of them use mix language, English and Indonesia. There are some use full Indonesia. Only two or three who use full English. I want the lecturers to use English in class and at the department"* (student J).

Specifically for academic writing, students argued that students' problems in obtaining academic writing skills are class duration, limited vocabulary, and less feedback on students

writing. The majority of the students find academic writing difficult because it uses formal vocabulary that students are not familiar with. They also need the lecturer's feedback in order to be able to know the quality of their writing. They also want to have one-on-one tutorials so that they can talk to their lecturer about their writing problems and have the solution.

*“Personally, and I know my friend also want this, I want to have direct consultation with the lecturer every time we finished writing our task. I want to see the result so that I can improve my writing. I want to know what language or vocab I should use to write my ideas in English correctly”.*

These findings somehow suggested that students need extra time in the classroom because the interactions between students and lecturers appear more in the classroom than outside the classroom. The results also pointed out that limited class duration makes students unable to ask more for any confusing things they still find in the writing process. It is also found that the limited vocabulary affected students' time and ability to understand the sources of knowledge they use or read. They found it difficult to write their ideas in English due to a lack of vocabulary. Hence, the students need a direct or one-on-one consultation rather than asking questions in the class. This could be linked to the fact that most students are reluctant to ask questions in front of their friends because culturally, they do not want other people to know their mistakes or weaknesses. In these circumstances, it is fair to say that, without a meaningful and substantial model of teaching and learning that provides proper and authentic materials, sufficient time for practices, and room for feedback, the improvement of English skills may not be easy to achieve for students.

### **7.2.3 Learning experiences outside class**

Turning to the learning experiences outside the class, the interviews found that all students decided to learn independently outside the class. They used online learning rather than visiting the library. Students' choices are online sources such as browsing material from different websites, watching YouTube channels of English teachers from the US and UK, watching movies and interacting on social media. Student J argued that *“I prefer learning from internet or watching YouTube because it's free and interesting*. Regarding the reason for choosing online resources, besides it is interesting and free of charge by using internet facilities at campus, the students also expressed their concern about the lack of English books, journals, and other materials at the library, both at the faculty and faculty university levels. Student A

stated that *“honestly I only visited the library once or two times. It’s not interesting there. They don’t have enough books for us (students of English education department)”*.

Regarding the use of online sources, I also asked students about the duration they spent on online learning activities. They responded with various answers. The majority of students claimed that they spent more time watching YouTube, especially some UK and US channels that provide materials of English, such as English vocabulary and expressions. Some of them used internet search engines.

*“I and maybe my friend also watch YouTube more now. We watch some YouTubers that explain vocabulary, grammar, and how to say things in English (mentioning some YouTube channels). If we want to write essay, we also watch YouTube to find the information or sometimes read journals”* (student D).

*“I prefer finding the material on internet. Google is everything. I can find anything there. So easy, sir”* (student G).

These results show that there is a shift in students’ tendency in finding materials for their needs. Their attitude towards online learning has started to be more positive. It is affected by the fact that the library does not provide learning sources that meet their needs, and they find it more interesting to use online learning sources. This phenomenon needs to be addressed by the university, particularly in providing guidelines and protection for students to use online sources and internet access.

#### **7.2.4 Plan after graduating**

The reason for using this theme in the interviews is that the students of this department will become the teachers of English at primary and secondary levels all across Indonesia. In this theme, I asked a few questions related to their plan to integrate RMS or whatever terms they use in their future career as teachers of English. I also asked whether they had suggestions for the department or lecturer.

For the plan to integrate RMS in their teaching materials, they agreed that they will teach their students about the RMS, what the RMS are, the importance of RMS, and how to use them in speaking and writing.

*“yes of course, sir. Based on my experience now and after I talk with you, I feel like I must teach my students about RMS or language expressions. It will help them to know how to say or write something they want in English sooner. I’m sure they will be happy because they know it’s easier”* (student C).

*“useful phrases or you say RMS are important, sir. Of course, I will give it to my students and I will teach how to use it in their writing. I also want to learn more about it so I can teach my students later when I do my PPL II (practice teaching program)”* (student E).

*“if I teach my students later, first I will ask them to learn and memorise the words or RMS and I will teach how to use them correctly. It feels like easier”* (student I).

Regarding the suggestions to the department and lecturers, not all students wanted to give their suggestions, particularly the YEAR1 students. The points that the students want the department and lecturers to address deal with syllabus, teaching style, the use of English, and punctuality.

Related to the syllabus, the students ask the department to monitor the lecturers who do not use the syllabus correctly. In other words, they want the department to make sure that all parallel classes use the same syllabus and the lecturers stick to the syllabus that has been given to the students. They want to have “fairness” in terms of having the same project models for their mid-term and final exams because they explained that the projects are different despite being in parallel classes. As student A stated that

*“we want the lecturer to stick to the syllabus and not adding more materials or project that is not in the syllabus. We hope that the department can monitor how the lecturers use the syllabus in class so we can have same treatment with our friends in other classes”*.

Regarding the teaching style and the use of English, the student expects that the lecturers use more up-to-date methods and teaching styles that make them interested in learning English. They also expect the department to stop some lecturers who ask the students to discuss in class rather than teach the materials and help students in skill practices. They hope all lectures will be delivered in full English. Some of them even suggested that it is fine if they do not



understand the language, but they believe that they will increase their ability in English day by day because they have exposure to English every day.

*“actually, sir, we want to have lecturers who can make us more interested in the subject. Lecturers who are attractive and up-to-date. Lecturers who always speak English to us so we can learn English every day not only in class” (student H).*

Finally, the students also pointed out punctuality. They expect the lecturers to be punctual and stick to the schedule. They do not want the lecturers to change the time and day of the schedule due to the activities of the lecturers. They argued that it is important for them to have a clear schedule to help them arrange their activities and avoid the problems of finding the new rooms and time for the moving classes.

*“it’s actually simple, sir. We think that it is important to have a clear schedule. We want the lecturers not to change the time or day of the subject based on their interests. It’s difficult for us to find the room and even time if the schedule is not fix. So, we hope the lecturer will stick to the schedule arranged by department” (students B).*

### **7.3 Lecturers’ interviews**

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, interviews for lecturers were carried out to obtain information about the learning process carried out by lecturers. To assist the analysis process, the results of the interviews were analysed based on the following themes: (1) teaching experiences at the university in general, (2) teaching experiences in the classroom setting (curriculum, teaching materials, learning methods etc.), (3) experiences /opinions about learning RMS or essential phrases or language expressions (4) Problems in teaching RMS, (5) suggestions for the improvement. These themes will be discussed in the following sections.

#### **7.3.1 Teaching experiences at the university level**

The result of interviews shows that lecturers have experienced working as English lecturers at the university for more than ten years, but all lecturers have taught for different durations. One lecturer has taught for eleven years, two lecturers for fifteen years and one for twenty-five years. All of the lecturers are permanent lecturers at the English education department of the university where this research was conducted. They have been teaching various subjects at the university, Intensive Course, English language skills, linguistics, and English for general

purposes. To explain the context, the Intensive course is the compulsory subject for YEAR1 students at the department of English education. English language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and linguistics are compulsory subjects for YEAR2 to YEAR 4 students at the department of English education. Meanwhile, the English for general purposes is taught at all departments as a compulsory subject for all students at the university. According to the topics discussed in this research, this section will only discuss the teaching experiences of lecturers at the English education department, especially the subjects related to RMS (Intensive Course, English language skills and linguistics).

When asked about the subjects they teach at the department, it is found that all lecturers teach the Intensive Course subject for YEAR1 students. One lecturer teaches English language skills, especially writing and speaking (Lecturer A), while three other lecturers (Lecturer B, C, and D) teach both linguistics and language skills. In regards with the decision of taking part in teaching those subjects, they are asked whether they choose the subjects or the department appoints them. Regarding this, the answers varied. For the intensive course subjects, all lecturers, A, B, C, and D teach the subject because all the lecturers at the department were appointed to teach the subject. For other subjects (English language skills and linguistics, two lecturers, A and B stated that the department appoints them to teach particular subjects, while the other two, C and D stated that they choose the subject based on their expertise.

Lecturer A stated that, *“in the first years (of my career), maybe because I wanted to try this course (the academic writing), because I think it was challenging, and after that, I have recently been appointed”*.

Lecturer B also stated that she has been teaching the subjects based on the appointment from the department, *“I have been appointed by the department (to teach those subject)”*.

Lecturer C stated that, *“the first thing is that it is important that I choose the subjects based on my interests and abilities, and according to the field that I studied previously. For example, when I took the intro to linguistics subject as well as basic and advanced grammar, because that was my expertise since I was a junior lecturer. That's my field of expertise in grammar courses”*

Lecturer D stated that, *“in the year of 2012, if I'm not mistaken, the department started to decide the divisions of lecturers according to their interests and expertise. So, the specialisation has been divided through the division of interests according to the lecturer's interests. Since that day, I have chosen linguistics as the subjects that I wanted to teach because I have got my master degree in linguistics.*

Based on the different answers stated by the lecturers, I then asked them the reasons behind this in order to comprehend more information about the decision-making process from lecturers' perspective. All of them stated that it depends on the department's decision.

Lecturer A added, *“maybe for some subjects especially academic writing, not all lecturers are ready and want to teach the subject. Maybe that is why the department finally choose some lecturers to teach the subject”.*

In order to crosscheck the information, I asked about this decision to the head of department. The answer is that not all lecturers are willing to teach English language skills especially writing for academic purposes and grammar subjects. That is one of the reasons the department appoints the lecturers to teach those subjects. They prefer teaching other subjects of language skills. The complete information about this will be discussed in the section of interview with the head of department.

### **7.3.2 Teaching experiences in the classroom setting**

In regards with the teaching experiences in the classroom setting, all lecturers were asked about curriculum, teaching materials, and learning methods they used in class. In terms of curriculum, all lecturers stated that they taught the subjects according to the curriculum set by the university and the department of English education. This curriculum serves as a guideline in the preparation of the syllabus, learning materials, and it includes the methods and techniques used in the learning process.

Lecturer A stated that *“for the curriculum, we follow and use the curriculum that has been prepared jointly by all lecturers in the department. The curriculum that has been compiled is then approved by the university to be used at the department”*

Lecturer C added, *“we use this approved curriculum as a guideline in the learning process, starting from the preparation of the syllabus, materials, and methods we use in class.”*

For the learning materials, the model of preparation and use of materials vary among intensive course subjects and other subjects in the department. All lecturers in the department compiled the IC teaching and learning materials jointly. The materials then compiled in IC handbooks. These handbooks consist of handbook I and handbook II that are used by lecturers and students in classes of IC. In compiling the IC books, the lecturers were asked to prepare and compose the material according to the predetermined theme. The themes and the lecturers who will prepare and compose the material according to the theme have been mutually agreed upon beforehand. After the theme and the lecturers who will compose the material are determined, the lecturers then compose the material according to the guidelines that have been given. After that, the lecturers submitted the material to the IC management team in order to be compiled as IC handbooks I and II. These handbooks are then used as mandatory books and the main source of material for IC courses.

Lecturer D stated that *“for IC subject, first of all we had a meeting, all lecturers. At the meeting, we discussed and agreed on what themes would be included in the IC book and which lecturers would compose materials based on these themes. After that, the lecturers compose the material according to the theme and then submitted it to the IC management team. Later, the IC manager will compile and print the material into an IC book”*.

Lecturer C stated that *“all lecturers are required to use the IC book as the main source of material because it is a guideline for all lecturers”*

The IC book is also used as a guideline in determining the methods and techniques used in the IC class because all the tools and learning guides have been prepared in the IC book. The lecturers just use the IC book according to the existing instructions without the need to make additions. In addition, due to fixed schedule of the IC, from Monday to Thursday, 08.00 to 11.00, the IC learning process has to be based on the guidelines in the IC book.

Lecturer B stated that *“when teaching IC, all materials, learning tools, models, designs, and learning techniques are taken only from the IC book. We cannot use other materials because everything is already in the book and we have no time to add other materials. We just have to follow (the books)”*.

Different from IC subject, for English language skills and linguistics subjects, the lecturers prepare syllabus and learning materials according to their chosen field of study. For example, if one of the lecturers chooses or is appointed to teach Writing for Academic Purposes, then the lecturer will have a series of meeting with other lecturers who teach Writing for Academic Purposes to prepare the syllabus and materials. The meetings of syllabus preparation was held several months before the lecture process began. Meetings were held to prepare the syllabus and materials to be taught. After that, the lecturers used the syllabus and the material in the learning process. Lecturers are given the freedom to develop materials and choose the methods used in the learning process. The choice of method is adjusted to the circumstances and needs of students in the classroom.

Lecturer B stated that *“there are various models, so it depends on the needs of students and what the needs of the subjects are like. So usually, for example, I give a lecture first, then there is a discussion with the students and then the assignment is given, exercises in class, then we discuss the case, so we discuss the problems that arise from the assignment, and so on”*.

For academic writing in particular, the Writing for Academic purposes subject, I asked a question about the focus of the material being taught, whether the focus is on building the ideas or the language component or both. Based on this question, Lecturer A answered *“For academic writing, I prefer to combine the two, because of the scale of writing for academic, we (the lecturers) are more concerned with content but we still pay attention to sentence structure”*.

This answer is in accordance with the findings in the previous chapter, the learning materials section. Syllabus and learning materials for academic writing focus more on the content (ideas) and structure of essays written by students. Very little material and time is allocated to train the components of language, language expression, or RMS that should be used by students in writing essays for academic writing.

### **7.3.3 Experiences/opinions about teaching and learning RMS**

Regarding the use of RMS in teaching process, I asked some questions to get the information of whether the lecturers teach RMS in the classroom activities or not. The findings revealed that all lecturers have never had any experiences teaching RMS, even they have never heard about RMS. When I show and explained them what RMS are and the examples of RMS, they

argued that they actually have taught the same kinds of phrases like RMS but in the different terms. They call those phrases as language expressions. This finding is in line with those in the students' interview section which suggested that students have never heard or knew about RMS. They were only familiar with the terms of useful phrases and language expressions.

In regards with the this, the lecturers have taught the language expressions since YEAR1 in IC subjects and English language skills subjects.

*"I have never heard or taught RMS. As lecturer, we only teach students language expressions that they will use in the subjects. We have started introducing and teaching language expression since the first semester in intensive course (IC) program. For example, we teach them the expression to request, expression of politeness etc. (Lecturer D in the interview).*

The use of language expressions in the academic writing is also taught in the subject of writing for academic purposes. Even though the materials cover more on the structure of essays, the lecturer explained the materials of how to express their ideas in English by using language expressions given to students.

The lecturer A stated that *"yes, I always give them the examples of sentences or phrases they can use in their writing to express their ideas. For Example, I show them the list of phrases they should use for each type of essays like comparison and contrast or something else.*

To get more information about this, I then asked the lecturers whether they use the academic phrase bank or academic word list AWL as the sources of material of RMS (language expressions). All the lecturers stated that they use the list of language expression in the intensive course books for the IC course and language expressions from various sources for academic writing subject. The sources include academic writing handbooks, TOEFL and IELTS books, and other related sources that can be useful for students.

I also asked them on how the way they teach the language expressions in the learning process. All of them argued that, they show the example to students and explain how to use the expression in composing essays. Then, they asked the students to practice to use those expressions in their texts.

Another noteworthy finding from this interview is that all the lecturers stated that they found difficulties in teaching the expressions to students due to the students' proficiency level. They argued that most of the students are in the very basic level of proficiency of English so that it was very difficult for the lecturers to explain the material. Sometimes it took longer to teach and help students practicing their English because of proficiency problems.

*“most students are a bit difficult, yes, the material, I don't know why, or maybe their basic skills may still be below average. Yes, so it's a bit difficult for them to cover material that they may not have studied before”* (Lecturer C in the interview).

The problems of proficiency are in line with the findings in the RMS chapter (frequency and distribution in which students tend to over use same RMS. Meanwhile, the findings in the students' interviews show that students need more practices in class and outside the class. They want the lecturers to teach them the language and materials and guide them in practice sessions, not only ask them to discuss the materials. In summary, these findings suggested that the lecturers argued that students' proficiency level is below average; however, the students stated that they did not get sufficient time to practice their language skills as explained in the students' interviews section.

#### **7.3.4 Problems in teaching RMS**

In relation to the problems lecturers found in teaching and learning process, the lecturers argued that there are three main problems, students' proficiency level, interference from mother tongue, and lack of exposure of English. As described in the previous section all lecturers argued that the low level of students' proficiency contribute mostly to the problems in teaching and learning process.

*“most students are a bit difficult, yes, the material, I don't know why, or maybe their basic skills may still be below average. Yes, so it's a bit difficult for them to cover material that they may not have studied before”* (Lecturer C in the interview).

Lecturer C also argued that sometimes students ignore the structure of English sentences. They rather do word-by-word translation from Indonesia to English instead of using English structure for phrases and clauses.

*“because their abilities are still average, they tend to transfer the meaning of sentence structures from Indonesian to English. They tend to do this word by word. They are still doing the translation at the word level so this is a bit of a problem when they compose the clauses”.*

Like her counterpart, lecturer B argued that students’ low level of proficiency can be seen from the sentence structure in their academic writing. They tend to use simple sentences more frequently rather than compound and complex sentences in their essays.

*“For example, in writing they are taught how to make complex sentences and compound sentences, so they don't have to make simple sentences all in one paragraph. However, this is often found in thesis writing. For instance, in one paragraph, they write sentences consisting of many simple sentence, they don't vary it by using complex sentences or compound sentences, when in fact they have been taught in the writing course how to make sentences more varied.*

Another problem is that there is interference from Indonesian language and local language in their sentences. Students’ status as EFL learners leads them to the tendency of composing their sentences in Indonesian language then translate them into English. As a consequence, their sentence structure looks more like the structure of Indonesian language.

*“The problem is that because they are EFL learners, they think more in Bahasa, in Indonesian, and put their ideas into the structure of Indonesian. When I check or see their writing, they sometimes ignore English sentence structures (Lecturer A in the interview).*

*“When they are writing, these students are more influenced by Indonesian language as their first language. So it's like a sentence structure in Indonesian with English vocabulary. For example in collocation, the use of phrase **interested in**, they write **interested with**. It's because of the interference of Indonesian phrase **tertarik dengan**. **Tertarik** means **interested**, **dengan** means **with**. Because it is continuously used by students, it becomes a common thing, when in fact, it is influenced by the first language (Lecturer B in the interview)*

The other point is that the lecturers feel that the lack of exposure to English might contribute to the problems.

*“they read books of course, but in that case it might be lacking of English exposure. They might be more likely to read a lot about Indonesian references, rather than looking at textbooks written in English (Lecturer D in the interview).*



### 7.3.5 Suggestions for the improvement

In accordance with the purpose of this research, which is to contribute to improving the quality of English language teaching and learning, I asked the lecturers whether they have any suggestions for future improvements. From the four lecturers, only two were willing to express their suggestions in the interview. In general, these two lecturers provide some advices both to students and to the department.

For students, the lecturers suggested that they should spend more time to practice their English language skills outside the class so that they can use the material they have learned in class in their academic writing. The goal is that they will be able to write well in English language in terms of vocabulary and structure.

*“indeed, students need a lot of practice. The problem is that they learn in class but they lack of practice because they only have very limited hours of study in class. When they leave class, the knowledge they got in class might not be applied outside the class. They don't use the materials they already got in speaking or in writing, so maybe they need more time to practice”* (Lecturer B in interviews).

*“practice is the key. We can only help them to study in class but of course they need to get used to practice outside the class. If they do this, we believe that they can improve their academic writing, of course* (Lecturer A in interviews).

When I asked them about suggestions for the department, both agreed that there should be a connection between materials in linguistics and grammar subjects with the academic writing. Other subjects must be designed to support students' performance in English skills subjects. Lecturer A added that it will be easier for the lecturers to teach academic writing if other lecturer who teach grammar, structure, morphology and syntax help us to increase students' competence, otherwise the lecturers of academic writing will only focus on students' grammar rather than other aspects of academic writing.

*“other subjects can also support skills subjects. For example, maybe like in grammar or structure. I always tell students that I am not a grammar teacher but I just spend my time to discuss things related to grammar like degree of comparison, for example, er, est, more, most*

*like that. So, our time in class were wasted only to discuss those things, not how to build the ideas and how to write a good academic essay” (Lecturer A in interviews).*

Lecturer B added that in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning process, it is important to hold a meeting at the end of the semester to evaluate the whole process. The meeting will be useful to get feedback from students as well as to prepare and design the improvement for the next semester.

*“every semester, every time we finish the learning activities, there must be problems that we find in the class, because the characteristics of students, the characteristics of each class are different. So, it's good that at the end of every semester there is a meeting among the team teaching. It isn't just about the syllabus, it's also about to evaluate the learning activities that we have carried out in the previous semester. We discuss what should we improve from the learning activities. Maybe this can have an impact or changes in the syllabus, or for example, maybe there are treatments that we can do in the classroom so that the quality of learning can be improved”.*

After having the interviews with lecturers, I did the interview with the head of department in order get more information in decision-making process at the department. The findings from the interviews with the head of department will be presented in the next section.

### **7.3 Head of department's interview**

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the interview for the head of the department was carried out to obtain information about the policy and the decision-making process at the department regarding the teaching and learning process. To assist the analysis process, the results of the interviews were analysed based on the following themes: (1) the decision-making process of curriculum and teaching and learning, (2) the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes, and (3) Intensive Course Programme.

#### **7.3.1 The decision-making process of curriculum and teaching and learning**

According to the results of an interview with the Head of Department, the HoD, the department's decisions primarily concerned the academic activities such as teaching and learning, research, and community service. They were referred to as the threefold missions of

higher education (Tri Dharma Perguruan Tinggi). Other than that, the faculty and university board were in charge.

*“Essentially, we only regulate matters pertaining to the Tri Dharma of higher education, which includes education and teaching, research, and community service. We deal with more administrative aspects of activity implementation rather than fundamental decisions. Aside from those three items, the faculty and university make all decisions.”* (the HoD in the interview).

The decisions regarding curriculum and teaching and learning process were taken by all lecturers. The department held a series of meetings to discuss all of the issues and then made decisions based on the agreements reached during the meetings. The regulations from the Ministry of Higher Education (national curriculum for higher education), the university's curriculum, the faculty's curriculum, and the department's curriculum were primarily used in the decision-making process.

*“Our department held several meetings to make decisions about the teaching and learning process. The meeting is where all decisions are made, whether they are about subjects, the teaching and learning process, or the departmental curriculum. We don't make them alone, but rather as a group. We use the rules issued by the ministry, university, and faculty as a guide.”* (the HoD in the interview).

To put this statement into context, the differences between them were based on the coverage and subjects that should have been included in the curriculum. The national curriculum requires a set of subjects to be included in the curricula of all Indonesian higher education institutions. The subjects must include materials to help Indonesian citizens develop their national identities. The university's curriculum requires the department to include subjects that are in line with the university's grand vision, with the subjects covering the university's values. The curriculum of the faculty requires the department to include subjects that cover the faculty's values, which are literature and culture. The curriculum of the department includes all subjects and subjects that are consistent with the department's characteristics as an English language education department (Department Manual Book, 2020).

Overall, the department was unable to make decisions on its own. It necessitated agreements from all lecturers, and the department had to adhere to the regulations of the ministry of higher education, the university, and the faculty.

In the case of lecturers who teach subjects in the department, the lecturers selected the subject based on their personal preferences. They selected the subject because they wanted to teach it or because it was related to their area of expertise.

The HoD stated that *“In general, we give lecturers the freedom to choose which subjects they want to teach. We only provide broad guidelines to ensure that this course is taught in accordance with the instructor's area of expertise. ELT lecturers, for example, teach in the field of English language teaching. Similarly, linguistics and literature are fields of study. There is no problem as long as it is in accordance with the field of expertise.”*

Specifically for the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes, there are only a few lecturers who wanted to teach the subject. It is difficult for the HoD to find lecturers willing to teach the subject. The HoD stated that *“The main issue is that no one wants to teach the writing subjects for all levels. Yes, we do have a scarcity of resources in this subject, particularly Writing for Academic Purposes”*.

When I inquired about the cause of this problem, the HoD stated that it had nothing to do with the educational background or experience of the lecturers. Rather, it was a matter of self-esteem. In addition, lecturers considered that those who have earned a degree from a university outside of the country should teach students in Academic Writing.

*“I don’t believe it has anything to do with their educational backgrounds, given they are all masters and doctors who were expected to write academically throughout their time of study and who now teach. Academic writing is nothing new for those who are required to create scientific or other types of academic works like them. Because writing in English has its own unique style, then, there is a reluctance to do so. They lack self-assurance, in my opinion. Actually, I believe they are talented, but they lack self-assurance, and at times they believed that we, the lecturers, who had studied abroad, should be the ones doing the teaching of academic writing.”* (the HoD in the interview).

Therefore, the HoD decided to appoint the lecturers to teach the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes; otherwise, there would be no lecturers teaching the subject. Eventually,

since there were only a few lecturers who wanted to teach the Writing for Academic Purposes, the head of the department then decided to include herself as the lecturer on the subject.

### **7.3.2 Writing for Academic Purposes**

Concerning the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes, the interview results revealed several findings related to students' attitudes toward the subjects, the difficulties they face, things that need to be improved in the classroom, and policies that must be implemented to improve in the coming academic year. The HoD's statements were based on the results of the department's learning evaluations at the end of each semester, as well as the HoD's experiences as a lecturer in the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes.

Based on the results of department's evaluations, Writing for Academic Purposes appears to be a popular subject among students. They wanted to learn the materials; however, they have a very limited ability to generate writing that was comparable to that of a first-year university student. They were unable to write an academic essay at the undergraduate level.

*“The most interesting thing is that first, these students want to study Writing for Academic Purposes. For them, this is like the challenge of producing a piece of writing. It's a challenge, and I can tell they're excited about it, but they're limited in their ability to produce writing that meets the standards for undergraduate essays. As a result, the challenge is that we must start teaching them from scratch.”* (the HoD in the interview).

The head of the department also argued that based on the semester's evaluation, it was found that the lecturers of Writing for Academic Purposes found it difficult to teach the materials because they needed to start with the basic skills such as how to write sentences in order to be able to compose an essay. The lecturers explained the problems to the head of the department, and they were perplexed about whether it was because of students' ability or the problems in the connectivity of the materials among all writing subjects from the first year. Meanwhile, based on the syllabus, the lecturers should have only focused on the aspects of academic writing. Nevertheless, they also needed to teach the grammar and structure due to the lack of these aspects of language in students' academic writing. The lecturers had to teach them how to write and use phrases or expressions that could help them write an academic essay well. The lecturers needed to give them examples of each type of essay and ask them to use those expressions in their essays.

The HoD stated that *“This subject should be a continuity from the first semester, not just finishing in one semester, which is then forgotten. It must be a continuous learning process. Or the problems is that they don’t get the knowledge they should have gotten when they learned writing in previous semesters, which should support this subject. Because this is an academic writing subject, they should have no problem understanding the topic sentence, how to write, well, things like that. But we have to do this. Even in terms of grammar. For example, in my experience, I often check it (the grammar). I should only see their content, their critical thinking in building arguments and so on. But here I also should teach them grammar. You should do this, you can't do this you lack this and so on”*.

Regarding the quality of the essays, the head of the department discovered an interesting phenomenon regarding students’ academic essays. Their writing improved when students wrote about familiar topics, such as social media. Meanwhile, when the lecturers switched topics, they became stuck. They were unable to write as well as they had on previous topics. They had ideas, but they did not know how to express them in their essays. They struggled to express themselves in English. Problems with language expression or how to write something in English were unavoidable.

*“So, this year has been an interesting one for me. I assigned them the task of writing about social media. Perhaps because the topic is so personal to them, their writing is excellent. It feels like this because they are constantly exposed to things related to the topic, phrases related to the topic. And because this is their daily life, their writing is generally good. Everyone is capable of writing well. However, if the topic is changed to something they are unfamiliar with, that is their problem. Usually, the idea is there; they just have the idea; after all, language is just a tool, right? The issue is the manner in which the language is expressed. The issue is determining how to express this concept. The problem is expressing these ideas in English”*.

When asked about the fundamental problems, the head of the department explained that it is perhaps because the students do not possess a “culture” or habit to write. They had not written in English since they were in junior and senior high school, which was a very early stage of their schooling. They had only recently begun writing exercises while beginning their undergraduate education. As a result, at the university level, the lecturers must begin by teaching them the fundamentals of writing from the very beginning stages.

*“Our students do not have the same writing culture as students from other countries. This writing class on campus is new to them. They do not learn to write in foreign languages, particularly English, until they are in university. I believe it is because this writing culture has not been practised since high school or junior high school. Consequently, it requires lecturers to start all writing lessons from scratch when they enter university. We have to like to fill an empty bottle.”* (the HoD in the interview).

In order to resolve this issue, I sought advice from the Head of Department on how to rectify the situation. She asserted that, in reality, students must assist themselves in order to be able to write well in English. As a lecturer, the HoD suggested that if students studied diligently and with the assistance and guidance of their lecturers, it is feasible for them to create good academic essays. As a result, for the forthcoming academic year, the department will urge that lecturers assist students in learning and using language expressions for academic contexts from the very beginning of the year in order to help students get comfortable with the approach to explain their ideas in English. Early intervention is essential as failing to do so will result in students experiencing difficulty at a higher level of writing class (Writing for Academic Purposes).

The HoD stated that *“Students must be serious in order to learn about academic writing, and they will be proficient within six months. Treatment on campus must also be of the highest quality. Lecturers must assist students in their development, and students must improve themselves. They must assist themselves. In the future, the department will encourage lecturers to improve treatment in class, particularly to familiarise students with utilising unique language expressions for academic writing from the start of the new academic year. Otherwise, they will have a difficult time progressing to the following level.”*

### **7.3.3 Intensive Course**

In order to see the learning phenomena that occur in YEAR1 and YEAR1 students, I interviewed the Head of the Department to ask numerous questions about the Intensive Course programme for YEAR1 students. YEAR1 students learned writing skills in the Intensive Course, as stated in previous chapters, whereas YEAR4 students studied writing skills in the Writing for Academic Purposes course. As a result, this section will go over the issues in the Intensive Course subject and what the department will do to address them.

As the Head of the Department claimed, the results of the Intensive Course evaluation indicated that there were issues with the IC books (materials) and the teaching and learning process (classroom management). The IC books, as discovered, were simply a compilation of materials collected from lecturers and were not a source of original learning materials. It has been asserted by the HoD that there is no pattern to the writing of the books. As a result, she suggested that the quality of IC books has impacted the quality of students' writing skills and that the low quality of IC books leads to the low quality of students' writing skills.

*“Indeed, the preparation of the book was impromptu. To the degree where we don't have a pattern for that, we've never really had a pattern for how the content of the IC books should be structured or the objective achievement for students. Guessing the pattern is all we do here. Also, it's just a collection of materials gathered from a variety of sources, with little thought given to how to put them together into a book. We can see that our students' writing is at a very low level if you look at the correlation between the books and students' writing. Students' writing is at the “baby level””* (The HoD in the interview).

The HoD also pointed out that the lecturers should have been able to see examples of books from various prominent publishers before they began writing the IC books. Thus, lecturers would be able to examine and follow the book model, particularly in terms of material content and linguistic features that should be taught to students. It is essential to focus more on academic content than general content. For students to become more familiar with academic English content, it is necessary for them to be exposed to it as much as possible in the hopes that learning IC materials would prepare them for academic English studies in the following semesters.

*“We should be able to learn from widely used texts, such as those used by Cambridge. At the same level, what language package or degree of English knowledge should an undergraduate student have mastered? Because the materials in existing IC books are fairly easy and generic. Yes, because it is merely a compilation. This IC programme should serve as their gateway to information and academic life in the upcoming academic English semesters. As a result, the academic content should have originated from the IC programme. Because IC will improve their ability and knowledge of it”.*



HoD's examination of the IC programme yielded several essential outcomes. The evaluation results suggest that the IC programme has made no substantial progress. The IC programme has had little impact on YEAR1 students' English proficiency. Since the IC books are an only compilation of materials, the department and IC management plan to address this issue first. The IC book preparation mechanism has to be reworked in order to improve the quality of the IC books and their contents. There will be just a few lecturers on the IC books publication team. They will be selected based on their ability and dedication to providing the best quality of publications. There will no longer be a book compilation model that includes all lecturers, resulting in low-quality of IC books. The staff who write IC books will take a year to put up a comprehensive series of books. A budget from the faculty will also support the process of preparing the books. This is intended to improve the quality of books and IC learning materials, which will have an impact on improving YEAR1 students' English skills.

*"The results of the evaluation show that there is no significant progress of IC. We have to change the books and improve the content of the existing material. Based on this, we will make a policy regarding the IC books project and we will appoint members of the drafting team. Maybe just a few lecturers and we'll give it a year for drafting. There is a process of preparation, review, we check again, repaired again. So, there must be a special project that has a budget from the faculty because this is important for the benefit of students"* (The HoD in the interview).

The HoD has also emphasised the significance of revising the content of the books that will be composed. In contrast to the existing IC books, which are fairly generic (general English), the redesigned books will focus more on academic English content. This is crucial for two reasons. Firstly, as undergraduate students who will become English teachers, they need to get as much academic English material as possible. The academic activities they carry out at the university require more mastery of academic English. This is important for the success of their studies, especially in conducting research and writing undergraduate thesis and teaching English lessons in the future. Secondly, the academic TOEFL test has been one of the IC programme assessment items at the end of the IC programme. As a result, the information in the IC book should have covered English academic topics rather than general ones as now.

*"The next problem is the material in the IC is very general but the final test used to measure students' abilities is the academic TOEFL. So there is no relationship between the material being taught and the test being taught. Therefore, IC should be devoted to drill academic English, not general English because they are university students. So*

*when they speak English, it should be academic English too. They are part of the academic community. They will also become teachers, so academic English should be more widely studied. This is what they will teach their students later at school when they become teachers” (the HoD in the interview).*

In addition to improving the quality of IC books, the department will work together with the IC management team to improve the IC programme’s learning system and classroom management. In the interview, the HoD argued that improving the IC learning system was necessary. Currently, five lecturers teach each class. These five lecturers teach alternately from Monday to Friday. This causes differences in teaching models in each class because five lecturers alternate every day. The result is that students feel that learning is not optimal because there are lecturers who are very passionate about teaching and using English continuously in the classroom. On the other hand, many lecturers are less enthusiastic about teaching and do not even use English in class.

*“In relation to classroom management, the IC teaching pattern is also inappropriate. The number of lecturers in class is 5 people for one week. That’s a lot but the results are not significant. Because every day changing lecturers who teach. Every day a different lecturer teaches. The results of the evaluation also show that there are several opinions from students who state that there are differences in the way lecturers teach in the IC class. There are lecturers who are very passionate about teaching, using full English. There are also lecturers who are not enthusiastic and don’t even use English in class” (The HoD in the interview).*

Based on these findings, there will be alterations in the learning system and the number of lecturers who teach in each class in the upcoming academic year. The HoD stated that *“In my opinion, one IC class is only taught by two lecturers. They go to teaching class together every day. Even if you can’t teach together every day, at least there are co-teachers who will help the lecturers in class. So that during practice, we can take care of all the students, we drill one by one. So during one semester only one lecturer is in charge of one class. So that the lecturer will know the progress of each student in all skills, he knows he has seen the progress” (The HoD in the interview).*

To be in line with the revised books published later, classroom management at the IC programme will be tightly linked to the material included in the books. In addition to the

number of lecturers who teach, the IC programme manager will also set a target for weekly students' achievement so that the development of students' language skills might be evaluated every week. There will be no lecturers who teach in IC classes just to finish the material in the books. The major focus should be on the students' weekly progress toward achieving their language proficiency goals. The new IC books will include targets of weekly achievements to assist lecturers in understanding what they need to do to meet these criteria.

*“We have never had a target, for example, what students can do this week, what materials can they master. If we teach to achieve the target, the model that currently only consumes material will not be repeated. The IC book is supposed to be rich in its contents. We can choose from the book what material we will use to achieve that target. The most important of all is the change in the IC learning system. Again, we have to change things. Starting from the number of lecturers who are only two people to the way of treatment in the class will also change. There will be no more lecturers who just want to spend material without a clear target.”*

At the end of the interview, the HoD also expressed her opinions regarding the importance of improving the evaluation and feedback model to improve IC programme learning quality. Students in YEAR1 should be able to enhance their English proficiency within 600 minutes of study per week. In order to better understand how IC learning impacts students, it is vital to develop an improved evaluation approach. Additionally, students should be given more opportunities to use evaluation results to improve the level of their language abilities through an enhanced evaluation and feedback process.

The HoD stated that *“The amount of 600 minutes in class treatment per week should be more than enough to train academic English students. For this reason, it is also necessary to regulate how the evaluation and feedback mechanism will be useful for students so that they will be able to use the results of the evaluation to improve themselves”*.

#### **7.4 Concluding remarks**

Overall, this chapter has discussed the analyses results of the interview with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The students claimed to having challenges with English language study. Assuming they have many of ideas in their native language, but no ideas how to express them in English. They would like to learn English, but the lack of resources and poor quality of instruction make it impossible. From the lecturers' perspective, students experience challenges owing to their low language competency, significant interference of their mother

tongue, and little exposure to English in high school and university. The department head argues that these concerns impact students' overall English proficiency. This issue stems from the difficulty of identifying lecturers who are interested in teaching, particularly academic writing. The lack of exposure after high school further complicates the learning process. As a result, the department chair initiated major changes, including those to the YEAR1 Intensive Course programme and the YEAR4 Writing for Academic Purposes subject. These changes are to improve the overall quality of learning and hence the students' English language proficiency.

The following chapter will present the summary and the general discussion of the major findings in this study.

## **Chapter 8**

### **Summary of Findings and General Discussion**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a summary of the major findings of the present study. The summary presents the analysis results from three different data sets, RMS analysis in students' academic writing, RMS analysis in teaching and learning documents, and interview data analysis. The analysis results and major findings are presented to answer research questions one to five.

In the sphere of research into English for academic purposes in Indonesia, only a little research has addressed RMS or lexical bundles, especially in the EFL students' academic writing and EFL teaching materials at the university level, despite the fact that they are prevalent (see Budiwiyanto & Suhardijanto, 2020a, 2020b; Saeful Haq et al., 2021; Yuliawati et al., 2020). This is important considering that so far, studies on recurrent multiword sequences, lexical bundles, or formulaic languages have only focused on corpus analysis (see. Biber et al., 1999; Wray, 2002; Biber et al., 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2004; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010). For this reason, this study integrated the content analysis of teaching and learning materials used in the Intensive Course program (for YEAR1) and the Writing for Academic Purposes subject (for YEAR4). The learning materials were analysed from a content perspective to give insight into what is taught to students, considering that the use of RMS in students' academic writing cannot be separated from the teaching and learning process they have experienced. In other words, the RMS used by students in academic writing is the result of exposure to the learning process that has been carried out during their study. For this reason, an analysis of teaching and learning materials is carried out to obtain an idea of what materials students learned and whether teaching and learning materials provide the materials of RMS that might help students in compiling their academic writing.

In addition, this study also analysed the interviews data with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. This analysis phase aimed to obtain students' views on the learning process, their experiences, and suggestions for improving the learning process in the future. Interviews with lecturers were conducted to obtain the teaching experience of lecturers and the things they experienced while teaching in the classroom. Finally, an interview with the head of the department was conducted to obtain an overview of the decision-making process in the department, the problems faced, and the corrective steps that will be taken in the future. This

interview phase was very important in order to reveal aspects outside of language, which might have affected students' writing, especially the use of RMS in their academic writing.

To explain the findings and discuss them in detail, this chapter reviews the study's aims and main findings. It then presents the general discussion of the findings in relation to the context of the study and EFL teaching and learning points of view.

## **8.2 Aims of the study**

This study aimed to contribute to the body of knowledge on RMS and its relevance with English as a foreign language, EFL teaching and learning, and the development of EFL learners' language fluency. This is closely related to the fact that integration of RMS studies into EFL teaching and learning can enhance the learning of register-specific writing. Moreover, since the current study suggested that the use of RMS could be an 'implicit' measure of development (as opposed to e.g., TOEFL or IELTS explicit measures), the RMS learning could be used in the future to measure learning outcomes. By looking at and analysing the use of RMS by students, EFL instructors will be able to determine the level of proficiency or language development of students where RMS are seen as indicators of learning and the development of writing fluency. In other words, the collaboration of implicit and explicit assessment aspects might assist EFL lecturers to measure the learning outcomes and language development more comprehensively.

In order to achieve its aims, this study investigated the RMS in academic writing by EFL students in one Indonesian university. The investigation of RMS use was carried out by analysing the corpus data (students' academic writing). The analysis comprised RMS frequency and distribution analyses, RMS structural features, and RMS functional classifications. In addition to investigating the corpus data to see the use of RMS by EFL students in their academic writing, this study also analysed the teaching and learning documents used in the teaching and learning process. The analysis was done using the content review analysis to obtain information on what materials students learned and whether the teaching materials provided sufficient material about RMS or other language expressions that could assist students in compiling their academic writing. This study also analysed the interview data. Interviews were conducted to gain insight into institutional teaching and learning practices and thereby to explain and contextualise the corpus analysis.

Another noteworthy point is that by concentrating on the use of RMS in academic writing at the university level in Indonesia, this study contributes to the collaboration between the study of RMS and English as a foreign language EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia. The results of this study are expected to build a bridge between the study of RMS and EFL teaching and learning at university level, where RMS are seen as indicators of learning and the development of writing fluency. Moreover, the results of the analysis of the use of RMS supported by analyses of teaching and learning materials and interviews provide a systematic insight into the condition of EFL learning at university level in Indonesia. This is because there have not been many studies of RMS at university-level EFL teaching and learning in Indonesia.

### **8.3 Major Findings and General Discussions**

A corpus-based analysis of EFL university students' writing (as the main data source) was conducted in this study, focusing RMS in the YEAR1 and YEAR4 students' academic writing. This study also integrated the content analysis of teaching and learning materials used and the interviews data. These three analyses (students' academic writing, teaching and learning materials, and interviews) became an integral part of the analysis to reach a comprehensive conclusion from this study.

Overall, the analyses of the three datasets reveal the following results. For the corpus data, both groups of students only depended heavily on the 2-word RMS to construct the sentences in their academic writing (e.g., *of the, in the, this research*). This result is supported by the fact that students in both groups tend to rely on the repetition of known and specific RMS instead of using a wider variety of RMS. They used the specific and the same RMS repeatedly to construct the sentences in their academic writing. This finding is further strengthened by the results of the analysis of the RMS distribution. In general, the results of the analysis of the RMS distribution show that students who were able to produce and use a more diverse range of RMS to assist them in writing were still very low. The shortest RMS were used dominantly by all students in both groups, while only a few students used longer RMS in their academic writing. The same results can also be seen from the analysis of the structure and functions of RMS. Indeed, YEAR4 students used diverse RMS structures and functions; however, the numbers were small, with only minority students utilising diverse RMS structures and functions.

For the analysis of teaching and learning documents, the content analysis results show that both subjects (YEAR1 Intensive Course IC and YEAR4 Writing for Academic Purposes) do not provide sufficient materials that can help students develop their academic writing proficiency, especially vocabulary and language expressions. In fact, the use of RMS in the teaching and learning materials should be useful for students since the RMS themselves can be defined as recurring “expressions” of two or more words. However, the analysis of two IC books showed that the RMS in both books are dominantly sequences of words to instruct students in-class sessions, particularly in listen-and-speak drills. The books have not provided RMS that can help students to learn more complex vocabulary sets. The materials in the WAP documents mainly discuss the explanations of the types and structure of essays. They have not given more examples of expressions and vocabulary to construct sentences specifically for academic writing.

For the third dataset (the interviews), the analysis results show that despite the differences in their respective perspectives, students, lecturers, and the head of the department agreed that there were problems in the teaching and learning process and learning outcomes of English for academic purposes at the university. Each of them had their arguments about the problems, and all of these problems were principally connected. The arguments from the students’ point of view show that they have not received enough material, exercises, and treatment in class to help them improve their English writing skills. From the lecturers’ perspective, they argued that they faced three main problems in the learning process. They were students’ proficiency level, interference from the mother tongue, and lack of exposure to English. The head of the department echoed the problems raised by the lecturers. However, the head of the department suggested that the problems experienced by students were influenced by several factors such as the teaching and learning process that was not optimal, lecturers’ approaches to teaching that were not uniform, and a lack of lecturers who were willing to teach academic writing. Overall, it is perceived from the results of interview analyses that the teaching and learning process that has occurred so far has not optimally provided materials and activities that were in accordance with the needs of students in improving their English proficiency.

The following sections present an overall summary of the findings and conclusions to the five research questions.



### **8.3.1 Research question one: frequencies and distributions of RMS as the indications of students' writing development**

In order to answer research question one – what are the frequencies and distributions of RMS in students' academic writing? and to find out whether there is a development in students' academic writing – the corpus data were analysed to find out the RMS frequency and distribution. The analysis for RMS frequency was carried out to see the most frequent RMS in both groups. The analysis for RMS distribution was carried out specifically by looking at the RMS distribution within the YEAR1 and YEAR4 corpora and the RMS distribution within the essays and research reports that students wrote. The results of analyses from both groups were then compared. The comparison was conducted not to compare the level of proficiency between both groups. Instead, it was done by considering the fact that the sizes of both sub-corpora are small and varied and to see whether there were differences in the use of RMS between YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups.

#### **8.3.1.1 RMS frequency**

According to RMS type and token frequency analyses, YEAR4 students mastered and used more RMS types and tokens than YEAR1 students. However, these results need to be interpreted with caution. It is because the frequencies of RMS types and tokens indicated that both groups had relatively low frequencies of the most frequent RMS in the longer spans. From 3-word to 6-word RMS, both groups' frequencies fell below one. The below one frequency of RMS in the texts mean that the majority of students from both groups rarely used 3-word to 6-word RMS. Instead, they only depended heavily on the 2-word RMS to construct the sentences in their academic writing. This can also be seen from the analysis results, which show that, in fact, the longer RMS were not new RMS types but recycled RMS from the shortest RMS. For example, the most frequent 2-word RMS is *one of*, then the most frequent 3-word RMS and 4-word RMS are *is one of* and *is one of the*, respectively. This result suggested that the students were not able to incorporate new vocabulary into new and longer RMS.

Although this study did not intend to measure the proficiency level of the EFL students, it was suggested that the frequency of RMS students used corresponded with their English proficiency level in all language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, including translation (Diao, 2004; Guo, 2011; Yang, 2006). In other words, the use of RMS can be one of the measuring tools that determine an individual's proficiency level. This is also quite similar to the findings of Ding and Qi (2005). They found that students' ability to use more formulaic

sequences might be a measure of their English competence, both in spoken and written English. Therefore, the results of the RMS frequency analyses in this study suggest that there may be a problem with the proficiency level of students enrolled on the English Education Department at the university.

Their tendency for a few numbers of overused RMS might suggest a lack of progression in their English competence, particularly in terms of lexical diversity and coverage (see. Crossley and Salsbury, 2011; Wray, 2002). For YEAR4 students, the results of the frequency analyses show that there was an indication of only minor growth of both RMS and English skills after four years of exposure to English. This is evidenced by the fact that the shortest RMS (2-word RMS) were the most frequent occurring RMS across all spans in both groups, while the frequencies of the longer RMS were below one. It proved that the students from both groups seldom used longer RMS in their texts. They only rely heavily on the shortest RMS, 2-word, in constructing their sentences.

The results of RMS frequency analyses are strengthened by the results of the analyses of the RMS distribution as described in section 8.3.1.2 below.

#### **8.3.1.2 RMS Distribution across students and within texts**

In terms of RMS distribution among the YEAR1 and YEAR4 corpora, the study found that most students only shared the 2-word RMS. Overall, less than 30% of students from both groups used the longer RMS in their texts. The analysis result in YEAR1 corpus suggested that most students shared 2-word and 3-word RMS, but less than 30% shared the longer RMS. Similarly, the percentage of shared RMS was only high in 2-word and 3-word RMS. When it comes to the longer RMS, less than 40% of YEAR4 students shared longer RMS. The number of RMS used by specific students was also shown to exaggerate the frequency of the most common RMS in longer spans in both sub-corpora.

Concerning English language learning, these findings might also be one of the indications of university learning problems. Less than 50% of students who could use longer RMS in their academic writing also suggested that there were problems in mastering the material by students in both groups. If these findings were related to the language assessment criteria, it could be concluded that the learning objectives, especially academic writing vocabulary, have not been achieved. This is due to the fact that according to language assessment criteria, teaching

materials can only be considered as learned if at least 70% of students have mastered the material (Brown, 2003). Instead, this result indicates that students in both groups have difficulty mastering longer RMS and using them in their academic writing, as demonstrated by the fact that less than half of students were able to use the longer RMS in their academic writing.

These results shared similar findings to those reported by Cortes (2004). She suggested that the repetitive use of RMS by certain individuals in some texts may cause some RMS to arise in high frequency but low level of distribution, which was consistent with the findings of this study. This finding also resembles the case of repetitiveness in the use of RMS as found in the frequency analysis and the distribution among the YEAR1 and YEAR4 corpora and research by Granger (1998). Granger (1998) argued that when non-native speakers of English wrote an essay, they “‘cling on’ to certain fixed phrases and expressions which they feel confident in using” (p. 156). In this current study, instead of trying to use a more varied RMS, the students used the RMS they already knew repeatedly, particularly the 2-word RMS.

On the other hand, Biber and Conrad (1999) argued that since the RMS are commonly simple expressions, they can be acquired easily throughout the process of language learning. Unlike the idioms such as *kick the bucket* or *spill the beans* which their meaning is not derived from the individual word’ meaning, the RMS are easier to recognise in the texts and they are not idiomatic in meaning (e.g., *on the other hand, it is argued that*). Therefore, the RMS can be learned easily in the learning process because they are easier to find in the learning materials. As a result, language learners, such as university students, should be able to master the use of RMS in their academic writing (Cortes, 2004). In other words, as EFL learners at the university level, it should have been easier for the students to master and use more varied RMS to express their ideas in academic writing because the RMS are not idiomatic but they are commonly used in academic registers such as university teaching materials. However, the current study reveals that it was still difficult for students to use longer RMS in academic writing. They were still very dependent on 2-word RMS in writing.

Regarding RMS distribution according to placement within academic writing sections, the YEAR1 corpus analysis revealed that the most prevalent RMS were 2-word to 4-word RMS found in all academic writing components; introduction, main body, and conclusion. 9% of the most common two-word RMS were in the main body paragraphs. 92% of the most frequent

three-word RMS occur in the main body paragraphs, 6% in the introductory paragraph, and 2% in the concluding paragraph. 52% of four-word RMS were in the introduction, 41% in the body, and 7% in the conclusion of academic writing. For both five- and six-word RMS, 100% of students in YEAR1 used it solely in main body paragraphs.

The results of the YEAR4 corpus analysis show that two-word and three-word RMS were found in all sections of YEAR4 students' academic writing, even though their amounts vary. As the highest percentage, the most frequent 2-word RMS identified in the literature review section was 44%. The literature review also contained the highest amount of 3-word RMS, with 68% being the most frequent RMS. The percentage of RMS distribution was also equal in 4-word to 6-word RMS. In the literature review portion, students utilised 4-word to 6-word RMS the most, with 61% using 4-word RMS, 66% using 5-word RMS, and 71% using 6-word RMS. The introductory chapter contains 24% 4-word RMS, the methods chapter contains 15%, and the research findings and conclusion chapters contain none. Similarly, 23% of 5-word RMS were found in the introductory chapter, 11% in the methodology chapter, and none in the research findings or conclusion chapters. In the six-word span, 21% of RMS were in the introduction chapter, 8% were in the methodology chapter, and students did not employ 5-word and 6-word RMS in the research findings and conclusion sections.

Overall, this result reveals that the most frequently used RMS were used extensively, particularly in the literature review chapter. Students used RMS more often in the literature review chapter as a building block to help them write. One of the possible factors that made students use more RMS in the literature review chapter is the fact that the literature review chapter discusses more definitions of terms, theoretical framework, and previous studies. As a result, in their essays, they employed RMS to begin constructing their arguments by stating or explaining the definition, circumstance, or reality (e.g., *is one of the*, *the meaning of the*). They also relied on RMS to assist them in conveying their ideas by mentioning the arguments of other scholars before presenting their arguments (e.g., *according to reference*, *as cited in reference*). This allowed them to better articulate their thoughts and arguments by utilising the RMS as a scaffolding device. Using RMS (for example, *on the other hand*) in their texts, they even attempted to compare and contrast their thoughts and scholars' ideas to other scholars' arguments.

### **8.3.2 Research question two: structural classifications of RMS that help students in writing their texts**

Research question number two entitled what are the structural classifications of RMS in students' academic writing? In order to answer research question two, this phase of analysis involved analysing the structural classifications of RMS in YEAR1 and YEAR4 students' academic writing. The structural features of RMS were classified on the basis of Biber et al. (1999)'s structural framework in the LGSWE corpus, which served as the foundation for the investigation and have been widely used in recent studies on RMS in academic writing (e.g., Chen and Baker, 2010, 2014; Cortes, 2004). The second research question sought to uncover the grammatical structure of the RMS used by the students. The result of the analysis is essential to see how the different structural features of RMS help students write their essays and express their ideas in academic writing. It is also to find out and whether there was a development in terms of structural complexity or diversity. The RMS were grouped into four main structural patterns: Noun Phrases (NP-based, e.g., the end of the), Prepositional Phrases (PP-based, e.g., at the end of), Verb Phrases (VP-based, e.g., it is important to), and Other Expressions.

The results of analysis discovered that overall, YEAR1 students tended to use NP-based RMS over PP-based RMS, whereas the YEAR4 students tended to favour PP-based RMS more frequently. The use of NP-based RMS was nearly two times more in YEAR1 essays than in YEAR4. The NP-based RMS were used as devices to start building their arguments by saying or explaining the definition, simple facts or reality, or situation/reality in their essays (e.g., *is one of the, the meaning of the*). The tendency to use more NP-based RMS in the YEAR1 group helped them to structure the sentences by explaining activities and experiences of the real world (see. Hyland, 2008). The use of this method – explaining the definition or situation – was very helpful for students in starting writing through simple sentences, not compound or complex sentences, by expressing the propositional content related to their general knowledge. The way YEAR1 students started writing essays like this may be influenced by several factors such as (1) the context that YEAR1 students have just started their first year at university, (2) the possibility that they have just mastered how to write simple sentences, and (3) the influence of their general knowledge which was still dominant. Thus, using simple sentences by explaining definitions or simple facts was one of the ways chosen by YEAR1 students in writing essays.

The analysis results of the YEAR4 corpus reveal that YEAR4 students in their academic writing dominantly used the PP-based RMS. The YEAR4 students utilised the PP-based RMS to assist them in articulating their thoughts by mentioning the arguments of other academics before stating their arguments (e.g., according to reference, as cited in reference). They tended to utilise scholars' arguments as references for their arguments. They also tended to express their ideas by comparing and contrasting their thoughts/scholars' opinions with the arguments of other scholars (e.g., on the other hand). The use of this approach made it easier for students to build their arguments. The way YEAR4 students composed sentences using PP-based RMS as scaffolding devices may be influenced by the greater exposure to sentence types as compared with YEAR1 students. For example, they have some experiences with different types of language expressions, especially those used in research reports.

These findings mirror Chen and Baker's results (2014), which showed similar RMS types across different Chinese students' writing levels. NP-based RMS had a higher proportion in the lower level than the other two levels, and PP-based RMS had the broadest range at the highest level. Despite this disparity in the RMS structural classification between the two groups, the findings in the current study show that students in both groups make use of NP-based and PP-based structures, matching the structural characteristics of academic prose. In other words, although the YEAR1 group tended to use more NP-based RMS to construct simpler sentences, the sentences they compose already depend on the sentence structure of academic writings, as reported in Biber et al. (1999; 2004).

Another noteworthy finding is that the examples of how students use the RMS structure and rely more heavily on NP-based and PP-based as dominant structures in the present study showed the little apparent variation of RMS structure in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups. YEAR1 students may be experiencing difficulties since they have not been exposed to structural features and how to use them in academic writings. Moreover, despite the fact that YEAR4 students were capable of writing lengthier and more diverse texts, the difference in RMS structural categorisation was only to a minor degree. Only an insignificant number of students utilised a diverse RMS structure being identified. All in all, these findings confirm what was found in the frequency and distribution analyses. Students only knew limited types of RMS and used them repeatedly in their academic writing.

### 8.3.3 Research question three: functional category of RMS that help students in writing their texts

The third research question entitled what are the functional classifications of RMS in students' academic writing? In order to answer it, this study investigated the functional categories of RMS identified in the academic writing of YEAR1 and YEAR4 students in the first and fourth years of their studies. The purpose of the analysis is to determine how students utilised the RMS in the texts from the perspective of discourse function. Biber et al. (2004) proposed a functional taxonomy of RMS: (1) stance expressions (SE), (2) discourse organizers (DO), and (3) referential expressions (RE). With the use of this functional taxonomy, it is easier to classify RMS based on their purpose in spoken or written texts. As a result, the outcome of the investigation was critical in understanding how the various functional types of RMS assist students in writing their essays and expressing their views in academic writing. This study cited and acknowledged the works by Biber et al. (2004) and Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010). Instead of relying just on one classification system, the current study used both classification systems as its primary analytical framework. The use of both categorisations in identifying the functional categories of RMS was required regarding the problem of multifunctionality. Multifunctionality refers to the fact that RMS may perform more than one function. Depending on the context in which it occurs, a single RMS may perform a variety of distinct functions. For example, the RMS *at the beginning of the* and *at the end of* can be time-place-or text-deictic references due to their textual environment.

Overall, the analysis results show that the YEAR1 students used RMS dominantly as referential expressions. YEAR1 students frequently used this functional RMS when defining terms and concepts in their academic essays. The other functional types of RMS are considerably underused by students, suggesting a degree of unfamiliarity with these RMS functional types. In contrast, the YEAR4 students relied more heavily on *discourse organizers* followed by *referential expressions* with only a slight difference, having proportions as high as 50% – 52% and 44% – 46%, respectively. It suggested that the YEAR4 students tended to use a greater proportion of research-based RMS. The significantly greater use of research-based RMS by YEAR4 students corresponds to the finding that they use more PP-based RMS (section 5.4.1) such as *according to reference*, *as cited in reference* as features to help them construct their sentences by referring to other scholars' arguments. This again lends credence to the argument that the higher-level students have learnt to use more of the RMS for academic writing over the course of their undergraduate studies.

The use of PP-based RMS, which is research-based RMS by YEAR4 students, can be related to the genre of texts they write. In accordance with the explanation about the types of texts in the YEAR4 corpus, YEAR4 students submitted texts such as research proposals and undergraduate theses. Therefore, this also allows PP-based RMS, such as *according to reference*, to be used primarily by students. On the other hand, this fact also needs to be analysed more closely, which indicates that students, especially YEAR4 students, tend to experience difficulties using other types of RMS and rely more on PP-based RMS specifically used in very limited research. They rarely use other types of PP-based RMS in writing types of research reports other than those in the list of the most frequent RMS.

Concerning the level of language proficiency, the result of RMS functional classifications suggested that YEAR4 students may be expected to gradually develop their level of academic language proficiency over the course of their studies. Therefore, this could be reflected in the evidence of progress, such as students' ability to successfully apply various RMS functions typical of academic texts to their writing – not relying heavily upon only one specific functional classification as YEAR1 students did. As previous studies (Pan, Reppen, and Biber, 2016) argued that the lack of variation in RMS functional types might also be related to the inefficiency of RMS use or lack of writing proficiency and lexical knowledge of non-native speakers in the YEAR1 group – since they were in the first year of their study at university. The results have confirmed a developmental pattern for some aspects of RMS use found in other research (e.g., Staples et al., 2013) and some distinctive features of RMS used by L2 students in their academic writing (e.g., Chen and Baker, 2010). The study shows that students relied heavily on the repeated use of a narrow range of lexical bundles in academic writing when they were at the lower level of studies but used more types of lexical bundles when they progressed to the higher level. The findings, therefore, suggest a relationship between levels of academic studies and the range of RMS that L2 students are able to use in academic writing.

#### **8.3.4 Research questions four: analysis of RMS in teaching and learning materials to determine whether the materials provide RMS for students**

After completing the linguistic analyses of RMS (frequency, distribution, structure, and discourse functions), a content review of the RMS in the teaching and learning documents in YEAR1 and YEAR4 groups was carried out. The content analysis of teaching and learning documents was to answer research question four entitled how far do the teaching and learning materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing? For this



purpose, I examined two sets of materials: the Intensive Course IC Books (for the YEAR1 group) and the Writing for Academic Purposes WAP course (for the YEAR4 group) materials. There are two main reasons for conducting an analysis of teaching and learning materials: (1) to provide comprehensive information about what materials students learn (2) to investigate whether the materials provide sufficient materials of RMS in the teaching of academic writing that can help students in learning RMS and use the RMS in composing their academic writing.

As a result of content analysis of teaching and learning materials, it was discovered that there were several disparities between the IC and the WAP course materials. In terms of syllabus, the WAP syllabus was more organised and informative than the IC syllabus. It also followed the university and department guidelines for composing a syllabus. The WAP syllabus explained comprehensively the teaching and learning aspect including the course description, course objective, learning outcomes, material outline for each week, and the assessment components. On the other hand, the IC syllabus did not follow the university and department guidelines. The IC syllabus only explained the learning aims and learning outcomes. The other syllabus components were not explicitly addressed. Despite its incomprehensive syllabus, the IC materials were considerably more organised than those used in the WAP course when it comes to course materials. The IC materials were written in two handbooks used by both students and lecturers in the IC programme. Meanwhile, the WAP materials were only available as single files (e.g., PDF, PPT slides, MS Word documents, or videos).

When it comes to content, both courses have failed to provide sufficient materials to assist students in developing their academic writing skills, particularly in vocabulary and language expression. The analysis of the IC books (for YEAR1 group) showed that the RMS in both books mostly used instruction patterns. As the IC books served as the textbooks and main guidance in teaching and learning process, it should have been common to see the books mostly used instruction patterns. However, from the four language skills, the IC books dominantly used sequences of words to instruct students in-class sessions, particularly in listen-and-speak drills. The materials should have at least provided a balance coverage of instructions for reading and writing skills. The fact that the books used the instruction pattern dominantly rather than the content of language expressions, it was not offered in the books any RMS that can assist students in learning more difficult vocabulary sets. Accordingly, the materials in the WAP (for YEAR4 group) documents were mostly concerned with descriptions of the types and structures of essays. The materials of RMS or so-called useful phrases rarely existed. In other words, the

materials in WAP documents did not provide any further examples of useful phrases and language expressions to be used in constructing sentences for academic writing.

Concerning the EFL teaching and learning process at the university level, it has been discovered that there were issues with the material used by lecturers in order to facilitate the learning process of English as a foreign language. Teaching materials for both groups have not addressed the needs of students to learn the linguistic aspects of the materials especially vocabulary and grammar. This may have impacted the students' writing in both the YEAR1 and YEAR4 students as supported by the findings in the linguistic analyses in the current study. In other words, the use of RMS in academic writing, as evidenced by the findings of linguistic analyses (RMS frequency, distribution, structure, and functions), cannot be isolated from the availability of instructional and learning materials used in the classroom's teaching and learning process. The learning process was one of the aspects that might influence students' writing. It might be assumed that with the condition of English as a foreign language EFL in Indonesia, the teaching and learning process in the classroom should have been the main source of learning for students. Consequently, the absence of learning materials that might help them write their academic texts, as found in the current study, causes the students to only use a limited vocabulary in expressing their ideas in academic writing.

### **8.3.5 Research questions five: interviews to discover the perceptions of the EFL teaching and learning process at the university**

The interviews were conducted in order to answer research question five, entitled how is the EFL teaching and learning process at the university? It was necessary to conduct interviews to support the data acquired for different areas of the thesis, including the study of RMS use in students' academic writing and the analysis of teaching and learning documents. The interviews were conducted with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The questions for students were designed to gather insight into the learning process at the university from the students' perspective. Questions were asked to lecturers to get comprehensive information regarding teaching and learning materials, learning environment, and teaching and learning process. Questions were asked to the head of the department to get thorough information regarding the department's curricula, teaching materials, learning environment, teaching and learning process, and its policy on English language teaching and learning.

In general, the results of interviews with students, teachers, and the head of the department corroborated the findings of the linguistic RMS analyses (see sections 8.3.1 – 8.3.3). The students admitted that they were having difficulties with the English language learning process. They had a lot of thoughts in their native language, but they did not know how to write those concepts into English words and sentences in their academic writing. They desired to study academic writing, but the limited availability of learning tools and learning materials made it difficult for them to do academic writing learning activities in the classroom setting. From the lecturers' point of view, it was also shown that, in general, students had difficulties due to students' low language proficiency, significant interference from the mother tongue, and limited exposure to English both in senior high school and when studying at university. From the standpoint of the head of the department, it was pointed out that these issues had repercussions on the overall level of English competence among students. The challenge of identifying lecturers who have a strong dedication to teaching, particularly in academic writing, was the starting point of these issues. In addition, the low level of student competency due to a lack of exposure since senior high school made the learning process more difficult to navigate. As a result, the head of the department took the initiative to make many adjustments, including those to the Intensive Course programme for YEAR1 students and the Writing for Academic Purposes course offered to YEAR4 students. This adjustment was intended to increase the overall quality of learning, which will, in turn, improved the overall quality of students' English language competency. Thus, the following sections provide in-depth discussion of the key findings from interviews with students, lecturers, and the Head of the Department.

#### **8.3.5.1 Students' Interview**

Students stated that have difficulties with their English proficiency for a variety of reasons. Students chose to study in the English education department for various reasons, each of which was unique in itself. The English department attracted students who were genuinely interested in learning the language. However, some students enrolled in the department due to parental pressure to study in the English department. Aside from that, students came from a diverse range of secondary school educational backgrounds. Because of their various backgrounds, individuals had varying exposure to English during their high school years. In order to gain greater exposure, some students chose to study in schools that had a strong English learning system in place. A number of the students were from rural regions where it was difficult to find good quality language training. As a result, many students have not had the opportunity to master fundamental English abilities since high school, and many have just begun to learn

English while at university. It might be inferred from these circumstance that the various backgrounds or motivations that students possessed for choosing the English education department might have an impact on their willingness to learn the English language.

In university, they learned to speak rather than write because they believed speaking was easier and more straightforward than writing, even though in fact both were equally difficult. Students also stated that the amount of content they were given and the lack of time for practice both had an impact on the ultimate outcome of their writing. Materials for writing for academic purposes were available for both YEAR1 and YEAR4 students. However, the materials only focused on the form and pattern of essays rather than on how to write and communicate ideas in English. Furthermore, lecturers who did not use English throughout the teaching and learning process and the availability of learning models that were only in the form of class discussions rather than regular writing practice models contributed to this problem. Even lecturers did not attend to teach and instead asked students to undertake their own studies on their own time. As a result, students did not have the chance to learn how to write properly as shown in the results of linguistic analyses in this study where most of the students only use very limited vocabulary and sentence structure repeatedly in their academic writing.

This issue impacted the way students learn English as a foreign language. The vast majority of students eventually decided to study independently outside the classroom. They studied by watching videos on YouTube posted by English-speaking YouTubers such as those from the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia. Their decision to study from videos on YouTube channels was also influenced by the fact that there were relatively few learning resources available in the library. Students found it simpler to access learning resources online than to obtain materials from libraries, which were either insufficient or unavailable altogether. They learned about language expressions and how to say or write something in English from the videos. They had all of their ideas in Indonesian, which was their mother tongue. However, they were unable to articulate and express them in English because they did not know how to articulate and express them in English. This strategy was used to compensate for the many inadequacies that students encounter throughout the learning process.

### **8.3.5.2 Lecturers' interviews**

From the lecturers' perspective, the decision to teach particular courses such as Writing for Academic Purposes (WAP), from which the YEAR4 data were collected, was based on their personal preference or on the department's appointment of them to teach specific subjects. This was because only a small number of lecturers were ready to teach writing skills subjects, particularly Writing for Academic Purposes. The department ultimately recruited some lecturers to teach writing-related subjects to students. In terms of the curriculum, all lecturers followed the curriculum developed by all lecturers and authorised by the university as the standard. The disparities arose due to the level of implementation in the classroom. For YEAR1 students, each topic's handbook served as the foundation for and direction for all classroom activities in the Intensive Course subject. For YEAR4 students, the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes was taught in a different setting where the lecturers merely followed the curriculum as a guideline; nevertheless, they were given the flexibility to design materials and determine the methods that would be utilised in the learning process. The approach used in the classroom was selected in accordance with the conditions and needs of the students. The lecturers of Writing for Academic Purposes put greater emphasis on the substance (ideas) and format of essays written by students while instructing them on this subject. Language components received very little attention in terms of both substance and time. The lecturer argued that the language components should have been taught in other subjects such as grammar and structure rather than in skills classes, particularly academic writing subjects.

When teaching language expressions, none of the instructors has ever utilised an academic phrase bank or an academic word list (AWL). Their academic writing subject was composed entirely of language expressions from diverse sources, as opposed to the list of language expressions provided in the intensive course materials for the IC course. Academic writing handbooks, TOEFL and IELTS books, and other similar sources that might be beneficial to students were among the resources included. Moreover, all the lecturers agreed that there were three major issues they have encountered throughout their teaching. They were the degree of students' skill in English, interference from their mother tongue, and a lack of exposure to the English language. In order to overcome these problems, the lecturers advised that students spend more time outside of class practising their English language skills in order to be able to integrate the content they have learnt in class into their academic writing. This was in response to the suggestions for improvement (from both students and the department). They were expected to be able to write well in English, both in terms of vocabulary and structure, as the

ultimate objective of the learning process. Thus, learning materials in linguistics and grammar subjects should be related to academic writing, which is important for the students. Other disciplines must be designed in such a way that they aid students' achievement in English-language skills classes.

#### **8.3.5.3 The head of the department's interview**

From the perspective of the head of the department, the academic activities, which include the teaching and learning process, research, and community service, were the only things that the department made decisions about. The department did not have the authority to make decisions on its own. It necessitated the agreement of all lecturers, and the department was required to adhere to the rules and regulations established by the Ministry of Higher Education, the university, and the faculty. In regards to lecturers who teach subjects in the department, the lecturers made their choices on the subjects to teach based on their personal interests. They selected the subject because they wished to teach it or because it was in accordance with their area of specialisation. Despite this, when it came to finding lecturers who were willing to teach some subjects, specifically academic writing, the head of the department had a tough time. Only a few lecturers were interested in teaching Writing for Academic Purposes. The head of the department believed that it had nothing to do with the lecturers' educational backgrounds or professional skills. It was more about their self-esteem than anything else. The lecturers also felt that those who have graduated from universities in other countries should teach Writing for Academic Purposes. Consequently, the head of the department determined that the lecturers who would teach the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes would be appointed; otherwise, there would be no lecturers teaching the subject of Writing for Academic Purposes.

According to the findings, although students have a very limited capacity to develop writing equivalent to that of a first-year undergraduate student, they wanted to learn academic writing. The lecturers of Writing for Academic Purposes found it challenging to teach the materials since they had to start from the very beginning with fundamental skills such as how to create sentences before they could move on to writing an essay. According to the syllabus, the lecturers should only concentrate on the aspects of academic writing; nevertheless, they should also teach grammar and structure to students because these skills were lacking in their writing. The lecturers and the head of the department were confused as to whether the difficulty was due to the students' ability or to problems with the connectedness of the materials across all writing topics beginning in the YEAR1. The head of the department suggested that it might be

because the students lack a “culture” or a habit of writing. Until recently, they had not written since the beginning of their studies, when they were in junior and senior high school, until recently. They had only recently begun writing exercises while beginning their undergraduate education. As a result, the lecturers are required to start from the very beginning of the writing process at the institution.

As a result, for the upcoming academic year, the department will insist that lecturers assist students in learning and using language expressions appropriate for academic contexts from the very beginning of the year to help students become familiar with the language they should express their ideas in English. Early intervention is essential since failing to do so will result in students experiencing difficulty at a higher degree of difficulty (Writing for Academic Purposes). To become successful in their English writing, students must also assist themselves as much as possible. It is feasible for students to compose academic essays if they study diligently and with the assistance and guidance of their lecturers and fellow students.

Regarding the Intensive Course Programme, there were issues with the Intensive Course Programme’s IC materials and the teaching and learning method, in particular (classroom management). It was discovered that the IC books were just a compilation of materials collected from lecturers without any reliable and valid resources. It has been asserted by the HoD that there was no pattern to the authoring of the books. Thus, the quality of instructional materials influences the quality of students’ writing abilities, and the low quality of instructional materials leads to the low quality of students’ writing skills. Therefore, the IC book production procedure will be evaluated to improve the overall quality of the IC books and the substance of the materials. The team responsible for publishing the IC books will consist of only a few lecturers. They will be chosen on the basis of their competence and commitment to delivering the highest possible quality of publications. As a result, there will no longer be a book compilation model that includes all lecturers, which will result in a decrease in the overall quality of the IC publications. The content of the IC books will be focused more on academic English than on general English.

As part of its efforts to improve the quality of IC textbooks, the department will collaborate with the IC management team to improve the learning system and classroom management for the IC programme. The classroom management at the IC programme will be intricately tied to the content of the books used in the programme. There will be just two lecturers in each lesson,

as opposed to the current five lecturers in each class. In addition to setting a target for weekly student accomplishment, the IC programme manager will establish a target for developing students' language skills so that the progress of students' language skills may be evaluated weekly. IC classrooms will no longer have lecturers who teach only for the purpose of completing the materials in the books. The students' weekly progress toward obtaining their language proficiency objectives should be the primary focus of the lecturers' attention. It is suggested that the new IC books will feature objectives of weekly targets to aid lecturers in understanding the teaching process they must do in order to reach these goals. Ultimately, upgrading the assessment and feedback methodology is required to increase the IC programme's learning quality. First year students should be able to improve their English language skills in as little as 600 minutes of weekly study time. It is critical to establish a more effective evaluation strategy in order to have a better understanding of how IC learning affects students. Moreover, through an improved assessment and feedback procedure, students should be provided more opportunities to apply the evaluation results to increase the level of their language ability.

Overall, despite the differences in their respective perspectives, students, lecturers, and the head of the department agreed that there were problems in the teaching and learning process and learning outcomes of English for academic purposes at the university, in particular for academic writing. As a result of these issues, students' learning outcomes in class have not been optimum. This phenomenon, in particular, creates an argument that supports the conclusions of the linguistic analyses and the content analysis of teaching and learning materials. When it comes to the use of RMS in academic writing, the problems that arise are (1) students only possessing a very limited number of RMS types (vocabulary) and (2) students repeatedly employing those limited number of RMS types in their academic writing. The problems of a lack of development and a lack of routinisation of writing for the majority of students, as reflected in the use of RMS in academic writing cannot be separated from the existence of the difficulties they encountered in learning process of academic writing. These problems appear to be substantially influenced by institutional practices and policy that determine the shape of learning and teaching materials, the assignment of teachers to learner groups, and the delivery of teaching academic writing in class. All of these factors are interconnected and have an impact on one another. The whole experiences in learning process that students went through while studying at university may have had an impact on their decision to use RMS in their academic writing.



Arguing from the standpoint of both lecturers and the head of the department, teaching English as a foreign language is always a challenge. There will always be flawed institutions, imperfect individuals, and problematic conditions, all referred to as “adverse circumstances” that must be dealt with (Brown, 2001). Souriyavongsa et al. (2013), on the other hand, have pointed out that the most significant barrier to learners learning English is an environment or circumstance that does not encourage them to get familiar with English. Because of this, learners are unable to communicate their source language ideas in the target language expressions until they become accustomed to doing so. Interestingly, the findings of the current study, which concluded that the most significant problem in the EFL teaching and learning process is the existence of environmental conditions that do not optimally assist students in meeting their English learning objectives, are consistent with this condition.

The lecturers and the department’s head have expressed their concern about these issues. They discovered that university students in the department where this current study was conducted had very limited opportunity to practise their academic writing skills, which they focused on specifically. In the end, it led to difficulties that students encountered when composing their academic writing, as indicated by the linguistic analyses carried out as part of this current study. Consequently, they encourage one another to improve the overall quality of the teaching and learning process in order to assist their students in improving their academic writing abilities. The enhancement of the learning environment, which includes learning resources, classroom management, and teaching and learning policies, would be the focus of the efforts.

The other essential aspect that needs to be addressed is the language assessment. In terms of assessing students’ proficiency development, the use of RMS in students’ assignments or tests can be one of the assessment components in language test. The findings of this current study which suggest that RMS as an ‘implicit’ measure of development (as opposed to e.g., TOEFL or IELTS explicit measures), have concluded that the RMS learning could be used in the future to measure learning outcomes. By looking at and analysing the use of RMS by students, EFL instructors will have an idea about the level of proficiency or language development of students. For example, in this current study, the findings that show the limited use of RMS and tendency to use same RMS repeatedly indicate that there are problems in students’ mastery and use of vocabulary. In terms of grammar and structure, the lecturers can also use the results of the RMS structure and functions analysis to determine the level of students’ understanding of

grammar and structure materials and how students construct sentences using grammatical structures and functions appropriately. In essence, the collaboration of implicit and explicit assessment aspects might assist EFL lecturers to measure the learning outcomes and language development more comprehensively.

In addition, a notable aspect to take away from this issue is that learning a new language that is completely different from an individual's native language is not easy, nor is the process of learning English as a foreign language. Indeed, it is a lengthy and complex process that necessitates the involvement of a number of different factors during the learning process. The students' effort to learning, teachers' dedications to teach, teaching and learning materials, teaching and learning process, and teaching and learning environment are equally important. Moreover, the fact that the students will become the teachers of English, they were expected to have ability and skills in order to teach their prospective students. Therefore, they will need to have knowledge and ability of producing the texts for teaching later, and the introduction to RMS into the teaching and learning process might become the answer to help them to do it. This is why and how RMS needs to be integrated in the teaching and learning of EFL at the university level in Indonesia.

#### **8.4 Concluding Remarks**

Overall, this chapter has reviewed the findings of this study in relation to the five research questions and presented general conclusions. I will now move to the next and final chapter, which highlights some of the limitations discovered in this study, explores the implications of these findings for pedagogical and materials development, and provides opportunities for further studies.

## **Chapter 9**

### **Limitations, Implications, Recommendations**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

The results reported in this thesis are the continuation of previous studies on RMS under the umbrella of lexical bundles. This study intends to contribute to the study of the use of RMS, especially in the academic writing genre written by undergraduate students in Indonesia. The decision to conduct the research in Indonesia, specifically at the State University of Gorontalo, was based on the fact that previous studies on RMS, lexical bundles, or formulaic sequences in Indonesia had been lacking when compared to similar studies conducted in other Asian countries (see Budiwiyanto & Suhardijanto, 2020a, 2020b; Saeful Haq et al., 2021; Yuliawati et al., 2020). Hence, despite its various shortcomings, this study is expected to contribute to a novel understanding of RMS studies in Asia, especially in the Southeast Asia Region.

This study incorporates numerous components of the foundation of analyses, in addition to the feature of the data-gathering site. In contrast to previous studies that focused on the linguistic analyses of the RMS (frequency, distribution, structure, and function) of the corpus studied (e.g., see. Biber et al., 1999; Wray, 2002; Biber et al., 2004); Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Cortes, 2004; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010), it is worth noting that this study includes analyses of the learning resources used by students, as well as interviews with students, lecturers, and the head of the department. The analyses were carried out with the understanding that students' use of RMS in their academic writing is the result of a learning process that includes a variety of important components, particularly the materials and learning models they encounter, as well as curriculum decisions that will have a direct impact on their use of RMS in their academic writing.

This study was designed not only to help researchers in the field of RMS, lexical bundles, and formulaic sequences but especially to be able to assist English for Academic Purposes practitioners in gaining a general understanding and perspective in relation to RMS used by undergraduate students. Furthermore, these analyses might help EAP practitioners to understand the factors that influence the use of RMS by undergraduate students and the various data that should be included in learning materials and taught to EFL students. In this chapter, I will begin by highlighting the limitations associated with this study and deal with its implications and present recommendations for upcoming studies.

## **9.2 Limitations of this study**

Although I was able to overcome the limits in this study for practical purposes, certain issues still needed to be addressed, particularly for future improvements. The issues with the corpus, such as size, quantity, and representation (Chapters 4–6), the availability of learning materials for analysis (Chapter 7), and the respondents' willingness to be interviewed (Chapter 8) have all been addressed and acknowledged as constraints of this study. It is intended that disclosing these limits as soon as possible would aid in the resolution of future misconceptions. These constraints necessitate additional explanation, including a generalisation of the outcomes and limits, data from learning materials, and interview data. To that aim, the parts that follow will go through these topics.

The first noteworthy point is that the purpose of this research was not to assess a student's knowledge of RMS or the English language. This study was designed to get an overview of the use of RMS by undergraduate EFL students in academic writing, as well as the variables that impact the use of RMS, particularly in relation to pedagogical aspects. This study also did not intend to generalise the findings into broader domains. Instead, the aim of this study was to broaden the repertory of RMS studies, especially with regard to the use of RMS by EFL undergraduate students in Indonesia, primarily in reference to the students' status as potential teachers who will teach English in schools in the future. Despite the fact that it cannot be considered representative of the RMS studies in Indonesia due to the size of the corpus and other restrictions, this study has initiated research that combines linguistic and non-linguistic studies to achieve the targeted findings. At the very least, Dörnyei (2007) suggested that the purposive sampling approach utilised in this study is an important consideration in this sort of research.

Results of linguistic analyses, which included RMS frequency and distribution as well as RMS structure and functions, have provided a comprehensive description of how students use RMS in the composition of their academic writing. However, due to a number of constraints in the construction of the corpus, the results produced must be interpreted with caution. The small size of the corpus (less than 500,000 words), as well as the types of texts submitted by students, these factors should be taken into consideration as things that may be improved in future studies. The types of texts collected to build this corpus vary, ranging from students' essays and short reports, to research proposals and under graduate theses in linguistics, literature, and

ELT. These varied types of texts might affect the results of the analysis, so that in the future, it is necessary to consider conducting research with more similar or homogeneous types of texts. Choosing RMS spans, specifically 3-word to 6-word RMS, on the one hand, offers a number of advantages, including the simplicity with which information may be obtained on whether students reuse the shorter RMS to create the longer RMS or whether they do not. This decision is primarily based on the notion that 2- and 3-word RMS are the smallest units of pre-patterned language usage and, more crucially, the fundamental building blocks of discourse (see. Baumgarten, 2014). On the other hand, the wide range of RMS spans necessitated more time for analysis than previous studies that concentrated on 4- or 5-word RMS.

The inadequacies in the production of this corpus were taken into account when combining data from pedagogical components (curriculum, teaching materials, and interviews) into the data collection for this study, which resulted in a more accurate representation of the data. This is intended to ensure that any deficiencies in corpus data can be filled in with data on pedagogical aspects in order to achieve more optimal results, and it will also be useful for the contribution of this research to the field of English language teaching and learning at the university level in Indonesia. The results of the linguistic analysis are then integrated with the findings of the curriculum, teaching, and learning materials analyses, which are believed to be valuable in providing a broad picture of the students' process of learning RMS during the course of the study. These findings are also intended to give an overview of the difficulties that students and lecturers encounter over the course of the learning process. Indeed, I am aware that these aspects still have a number of limitations, such as a lack of collected learning materials, particularly in the Writing for Academic Purposes course. However, this situation allowed me to speak openly and truthfully about the actual circumstances of the learning materials utilised in the classroom, which I appreciated. It is also expected that this circumstance will produce information that will be used to improve future learning materials.

Likewise the data from interviews, the study encountered some difficulties due to a lack of students and lecturers willing to be interviewed. Only ten students were willing to be interviewed out of a total of 116 students who submitted academic writing, and it was for a variety of reasons. They were apprehensive about being interviewed and much more apprehensive about providing oral testimonies for fear of being accused of making judgements or making assessments of the performance of lecturers and departments. The same situation occurred to the lecturers as well. Only four out of the twelve lecturers who had claimed that

they were willing to be interviewed ultimately accepted and conducted interviews. The fact that this constraint exists, on the other hand, turns out to be a noteworthy result in this study. The reasons for the students' unwillingness to be interviewed revealed that there was an issue with students' lack of confidence in expressing their views and opinions, which was addressed in the study. These factors also contribute to the enhancement of the repertoire of information obtained in this study.

The implications of the findings of this study will be discussed in further details in the following section of this chapter.

### **9.3 Pedagogical implications of this study**

The findings of this study reveal that students are more familiar with fewer distinct types of RMS. The repetition of well-known RMS, rather than a broader variety of RMS, is more common among both groups of students. They are more likely to rely on a small number of RMS and use them repeatedly to construct sentences in their academic writing. In terms of distribution of RMS, the analysis results show that less than 50% of students were able to produce longer RMS. Thus, the frequency of the most frequent RMS in longer spans in both sub-corpora was often exaggerated by the number of RMS that certain students consistently utilised. In other words, from the language learning assessment' point of view, this result shows a problem in terms of mastery of RMS by both YEAR1 and YEAR4 students. The requirements for mastery of the material and the success of learning, at least 70% of students who master the material, are not achieved. This result is reinforced by the results of the structural and functional analysis of the RMS category, which shows that students only use a limited form of RMS structure and function in constructing their academic writing.

Specifically, when it comes to the availability of RMS in teaching and learning materials, this study has revealed that the RMS available in learning materials for YEAR1 students focuses more on skills of listening and speaking than it does on skills of reading and writing. The existing RMS were designed primarily for the purpose of expressing commands, delivering instructions, and ordering learners/readers to perform certain tasks. Additional issues with the learning materials for YEA4 students needed to be addressed. There are not sufficient resources available on lists of academic vocabulary for academic writing as there should be. The absence of particular materials and training on the types of RMS for academic writing and how to use

them in writing might be a contributing factor to the inadequate use of RMS in academic writing settings.

In relation to the pedagogical aspect, the learning materials studied in this study, the IC textbooks or WAP teaching materials, seem to reinforce the assumptions made by Chen (2010), Wood (2010), Wood and Appel (2014) and others, who suggested that textbooks are sometimes ineffective in providing material and how to use RMS in text. This can be interpreted as one of the factors causing problems in the use of RMS in academic writing. Therefore, a more effective way is needed in compiling learning materials that can provide adequate RMS learning resources for the need to increase students' language proficiency, especially in academic writing. Otherwise, what is revealed in the analysis section of the interview results in this study is that students are more dominant in using online learning resources, which will occur in the future. While textbooks used in the classroom should be considered primary learning resources, materials from online sources should be seen as supplementary resources, not the other way around, as is the case in the study.

Therefore, since they constitute a large portion of the academic writing register, the findings of the study indicate that materials on RMS and their use in the learning process, particularly in EFL classrooms, should be explicitly introduced, implemented, and developed in EAP materials. As suggested by Biber et al., (2004); Cortes, (2006); Hyland, (2008b), teaching RMS to language learners has been widely encouraged since the RMS are essential in academic written registers. According to Hyland (2012: 165) and many others (e.g., Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992; Lewis, 1997; Willis, 2003), "the study of high-frequency strings [lexical bundles] and their possible variation may thus have great pedagogic value to teachers of English for academic purposes". In addition, research undertaken by Cortes (2006), Chen (2010), Hyland (2008b), Wood (2010), and Wood and Appel (2014) support the necessity of incorporating RMS into teaching and learning processes in order to increase students' understanding of linguistics concepts and language skills. The previous studies and the analysis results from this current study further strengthen the importance of the inclusion and integration of RMS in EFL teaching and learning activities.

In terms of its application in the classroom, there are two RMS integration models in the language learning process. The first model is a learning model that focuses on the integration of academic RMS in general (Simpson-Vlach and Ellis, 2010). Another model is a learning

model that focuses on the needs of each discipline (Hyland and Tse, 2007; Hyland, 2008b). For example, the lecturers can choose whether to teach generic academic RMS or directly teach specific RMS for the studied field of studies (linguistics, literature, etc.). Both models/approaches have their own set of advantages, and both may be used in the same situation if necessary.

Based on all the findings in this study and supported by the advantages of each RMS integration model in the learning process described above, I suggest that the academic RMS lists are used as a guideline and basis for writing subjects, from YEAR1 of their study, rather than the generic RMS. In the following semesters, students will be provided with RMS materials tailored to the subject they are now enrolled in. In the framework of this study, students enrolled in the Intensive Course IC YEAR1 programme should have learned more academic RMS as part of their program requirements. When it comes to advanced levels, students will study RMS in accordance with the requirements of each subject, according to a set curriculum. For advanced levels, students will study RMS according to the needs of each subject based on a predetermined curriculum. For example, prior to studying RMS specifically for advanced level academic writing, students should first obtain relevant RMS materials for supporting courses for the Writing for Academic Purposes course at YEAR4. As a result, students will have the opportunity to learn the RMS material and how to use it gradually from beginner level to advanced level. It is also important that the lecturers provide feedback on the exercises (see Lewis, 1993, 1997, 2000 and Nattinger and Decarrico, 1992). After learning the use of RMS in-class activities, students may begin constructing sentences and/or paragraphs. Lecturers should offer immediate feedback and advice at this step to help students develop their academic writing skills.

#### **9.4 Recommendations for further studies**

The primary goal of this research is to contribute to the study of RMS and its relevance to English as a foreign language EFL teaching and learning. With all the results obtained and the shortcomings encountered in this study, I suggest several things for improvement in further studies.

The first argument has to do with the limitations encountered throughout the current study. A greater corpus size (more than one million words) and a broader range of texts are necessary in order to get more optimum outcomes. To ensure that the results of the RMS study at the



university level in the Southeast Asian area, particularly in Indonesia, are as complete as possible, it is required to undertake a larger study including more universities that graduate English teacher candidates. It is essential to consider the extent to which potential EFL teachers are capable of understanding and using authentic patterns of English in order to ensure that they are prepared to teach at schools.

The second point has to do with the implications discussed previously. Further studies in Indonesia, in particular, may develop experimental studies that examine the use of RMS in the learning process to determine if there is a more measurable impact on improving students' competence levels. Research that focuses on implementing one or a mixture of both models and methods for teaching RMS in the classroom is recommended to get the best possible outcomes, particularly in improving English proficiency, particularly academic writing skills. In order to do this, experimental research models should be integrated with various adjustments to current field settings.

The last thing is that future studies must take into account all of the obstacles that may arise during the research process, including time constraints, access to research materials, the availability of respondents, and, most importantly, considerations for force majeure events such as the Covid-19 pandemic that occurred recently. Learning from my own experience, the research stages that were carried out and went well at the beginning required a lot of adjustments in the end due to the constraints that have been in place, particularly in the case of the Covid-19 epidemic.

## **9.5 Closing remarks**

As highlighted in the previous sections, the purpose of this study was not to determine the degree of student proficiency. Instead, this study was to gather information regarding the use of RMS in academic writing by EFL undergraduate students in Indonesia who were studying English as a foreign language. The primary goal of this study was to investigate the usage of RMS by undergraduate students in their academic writing and the factors that impact their use of RMS. This study has also discussed its implications for the study of RMS and its relationship to learning English as a Foreign Language. This study has also formulated several recommendations that researchers in the future can carry out. In the end, this study has described various shortcomings that can be addressed in order to improve the study of RMS and its relation to the field of pedagogy in the future. This study has attempted to describe the

phenomenon of the use of RMS in academic writing by EFL undergraduate students in Indonesia, despite the aforementioned numerous limitations and shortcomings. It has also attempted to identify various factors that influence the use of RMS in academic writing by EFL undergraduate students in Indonesia. These findings are expected to contribute to a significant improvement in the integration of RMS studies into pedagogical treatment at the university level in the future.

## References

- Ädel, A & Erman, B. (2012). Recurrent word combinations in academic writing by native and non-native speakers of English. A lexical bundles approach. *English for Specific Purposes* 31, 81-92. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2011.08.004.
- Adolphs, S., & Durow, V. (2004). Social-cultural integration and the development of formulaic sequences. In N. Schmitt (ed.), *Formulaic Sequences: Acquisition, Processing and Use* (pp. 107–126). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Al fadda, H., Osman, R., & Al fadda, N. (2020). Learning Style Preference of Saudi, Pakistani and Chinese Students. *Revista Argentina de Clínica Psicológica*, XXIX. <https://doi.org/10.24205/03276716.2020.1077>
- Alali, F. A., & Schmitt, N. (2012). Teaching formulaic sequences: The same as or different from teaching single words? *TESOL Journal*, 3, 153–180.
- Albury, N. J. & Aye, K. K. (2016). Malaysia's National Language Policy in International Theoretical Context. *Journal of Nusantara Studies*, Vol 1(1), pp. 71-84. Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin. ISSN 0127-9386 (Online).
- Allen, D. (2011). Lexical bundles in learner writing: an analysis of formulaic language in the ALESS learner corpus. *Komaba Journal of English Education*, 1, 105-127.
- Alsagoff, L. (2010). English in Singapore: culture, capital and identity in linguistic variation. *World Englishes*, 29: pp. 336–348. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2010.01658.x.
- Altenberg, B. (1998). On the phraseology of spoken English: The evidence of recurrent word combinations. In A. P. Cowie (Ed.), *Phraseology: Theory, analysis and applications* (pp. 101-122). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Altenberg, B., & Eeg-Olofsson, M. (1990). Phraseology in spoken English. In J. Aarts & W. Meijs (Eds.), *Theory and practice in corpus linguistics* (pp. 1-26). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Alwasilah, A. Chaedar. (2013). Policy on Foreign Language Education in Indonesia. *International Journal of Education*, Vol. 7 No. 1 Desember 2013, pp. 1–19.
- Appel, R. (2022). Lexical bundles in L2 English academic texts: Relationships with holistic assessments of writing quality. *System*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102899>
- Appel, R., & Murray, L. (2020). L1 differences in L2 English academic writing: A lexical bundles analysis. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1475(1585). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100873>

- Badan Bahasa Kemendikbud RI. (2017). Bahasa dan Peta Bahasa di Indonesia. Available from: <http://badanbahasa.kemdikbud.go.id/petabahasa/index.php>. [Accessed 16<sup>th</sup> November 2017].
- Bailey, S. (2014). *Academic writing: A handbook for international students*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315768960>.
- Bamberg, B. (1983). What makes a text coherent? *College Composition and Communication*, 34(4), 417–429.
- Barbieri, F. (2018). I don't want to and don't get me wrong: Lexical bundles as a window to subjectivity and intersubjectivity in American blogs. In Joanna Kopaczyk and Jukka Tyrkkö (Eds), *Applications of Pattern-driven Methods in Corpus Linguistics*, Studies in Corpus Linguistics Series (pp. 251-275). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Bastos, M. T. (2011). Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 8(3), 347-384.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., Bofman, T. (1989). Attainment of syntactic and morphological accuracy by advanced language learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 17-34.
- Bates, A.W. (2015) *Teaching in a Digital Age: Guidelines for Designing Teaching and Learning* Vancouver BC: Tony Bates Associates Ltd.
- Baumgarten, N. (2014). Recurrent Multiword Sequences in L2 English Spoken Academic Discourse: Developmental Perspectives on 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> Year Undergraduate Presentational Speech. *Nordic Journal of English Studies* 13(3), 1-32.
- Baumgarten, N. (2016). L2 English Academic Speaking Development: Insights from a Multilingual University Context. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 232,145–153.
- Biber, D. (2006). *University Language: A Corpus Study of Spoken and Written Registers*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Biber, D. (2009). A corpus-driven approach to formulaic language in English. Multi-word patterns in speech and writing. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 14(3), 275-311.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Cortes, V. (2004). *If you look at...: Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks*. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(3), 371-405.
- Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (1999). Lexical bundles in conversation and academic prose. In H. Hasselgard, S. Oksefjell (Eds.), *Out of corpora: Studies in honour of Stig Johansson* (pp. 181-190). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

- Biber, D., & Federica, B. (2007). Lexical bundles in university spoken and written registers. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26, 263-286.
- Biber, D & Egbert, J. (2016). Register variation on the searchable web: A multidimensional analysis. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 44(2), 95-137.
- Biber, D, Egbert, J & Davies, M. (2015). Exploring the composition of the searchable web: A corpus-based taxonomy of web registers. *Corpora*, 10(1), 11–45.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S. & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow: Longman.
- Boecher, Y. (2005). Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Teacher Distinctions: From Dichotomy to Collaboration. *The CATESOL Journal* 17.1. pp, 67-75.
- Borràs, J. (2023). Comparing L2 learning outcomes in traditional and English as a lingua franca study abroad contexts. *The Language Learning Journal*.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2023.2193581>
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36 (2), pp. 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London: Continuum.
- Brophy J. & Good, T. (1986). Teacher-effects results. In: Wittrock, M.C., ed. *Handbook of research on teaching*. New York, Macmillan.
- Broughton, Geoffrey., Brumfit, Christopher., Flavell, Roger., Hill, Peter., and Pincas, Anita. (1980). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language Second Edition*. University of London Institute of Education. London: Routledge Education Books.
- Brown, H Douglas. (2006). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching Fifth Edition*. USA: Pearson Education Inc.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2007). *Teaching by Principle: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Third Edition. New York: Pearson Longman.
- Budiwiyanto, A., & Suhardijanto, T. (2020a). Frequency and structure of Indonesian lexical bundles on academic prose in legal studies : A driven- corpus approach. *BASA*, 1999, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.20-9-2019.2296703>.
- Budiwiyanto, A., & Suhardijanto, T. (2020b). Indonesian lexical bundles in research articles : Frequency , structure , and function. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 292–303. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v10i2.28592>.
- Butler, C. S. (1997). Repeated word combinations in spoken and written text: some implications for functional grammar. In C. S. Butler, J. H. Connolly, R. A. Gatward, &

- R. M. Vismans (Eds.), *A fund of ideas: Recent developments in functional grammar* (pp. 60-77). Amsterdam: IFOTT, University of Amsterdam.
- Butler, Y. G. (2014). Parental factors in early English education as a foreign language: Case study in Mainland China. *Research Papers in Education*, 29(4), 410–437.
- Butler, Y. G. (2015). English language education among young learners in East Asia: A review of current research (2004–2014). *Lang. Teach* 48.3, pp. 303–342. Cambridge University Press 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444815000105>.
- Campbell, J., Kyriakides, L., Muijs, D. & Robinson, W. (2004). *Assessing teacher effectiveness: developing a differentiated model*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge Falmer.
- Candarli, D. (2021). A longitudinal study of multi-word constructions in L2 academic writing: The effects of frequency and dispersion. *Reading and Writing*, 34, 1191–1223. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-020-10108-3>
- Candarli, D. (2021) A longitudinal study of multi-word constructions in L2 academic writing: the effects of frequency and dispersion. *Reading and Writing* 34:5, pages 1191-1223.
- Chang, C. F., & Kuo, C. H. (2011). A corpus-based approach to online materials development for writing research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(3), 222-234. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.04.001>.
- Chee Jan, Foo. (2010). Understanding the Concerns of Teaching and Learning English in the Context of Asia, *Asian Englishes*, 13:1, pp. 72-77, DOI: 10.1080/13488678.2010.10801273.
- Choi, Yeon Hee & Lee, Hyo Wong. (2008). “Current Trends and Issues in English Language Education in Asia”. *The Journal of Asia TEFL* Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 1-34.
- Chen, L. (2010). An investigation of lexical bundles in ESP textbooks and electrical engineering introductory textbooks. In D. Wood (Ed.), *Perspectives on formulaic language: Acquisition and communication* (pp. 107-128). London and New York: Continuum.
- Chen, Y-H & Baker, P. (2010). Lexical Bundles in L1 and L2 Academic Writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14(2), 30–49.
- Cheng, W., Greaves, C., & Warren, M. (2006). From n-gram to skipgram to concgram. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 11(4), 411–433.
- Cimermanová, I. (2018). The Effect of Learning Styles on Academic Achievement in Different Forms of Teaching. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(3), 219-232.
- Cogo, A. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca: concepts, use, and implications. *ELT Journal* Volume 66/1 January 2012. Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/elt/ccr069

- Conklin, K., & Schmitt, N. (2008). Formulaic sequences: Are they processed more quickly than non-formulaic language by native and non-native speakers? *Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 72-89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm022>.
- Conrad, S., (1996). Academic discourse in two disciplines: professional writing and student development in biology and history. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff.
- Conrad, S. M., & Biber, D. (2005). The frequency and use of lexical bundles in conversation and academic prose. *Applied Linguistics Faculty Publications and Academic Prose*, 10(1), 55-71.
- Cook, V. (2001). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Cortes, V. (2002a). Lexical bundles in academic writing in history and biology. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Arizona University.
- Cortes, V. (2002b) 'Lexical bundles in Freshman composition.' In: Reppen, Randi, Susan M. Fitzmaurice and Douglas Biber (eds.) *Using corpora to explore linguistic variation* (pp. 131–146). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins,
- Cortes, V. (2004) Lexical bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: Examples from history and biology.' *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 397–423.
- Cowie, A.P. (1992). Multiword lexical units and communicative language teaching. In P. J. L, Arnaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 1-12). London: Macmillan.
- Coxhead, A., & Byrd, P. (2007). Preparing writing teachers to teach the vocabulary and grammar of academic prose. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 129–147.
- Csomay, E. (2013). Lexical bundles in discourse structure: A corpus-based study of classroom discourse. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(3), 369–388. doi: 10.1093/applin/ams045.
- Cummings, C. (2002). *Teaching makes a difference*. Taiwan: Teaching Inc.
- Dahunsi, T. N., & Ewata, T. O. (2022). An exploration of the structural and colligational characteristics of lexical bundles in L1–L2 corpora for English language teaching. *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0). <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211066572>
- De Cock, S. (1998). A recurrent word combination approach to the study of formulae in the speech of native and non-native speakers of English. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 3(1), 59–80.

- De Cock, S. 2000. Repetitive phrasal chunkiness and advanced EFL speech and writing. In Christian Mair and Marianne Hundt (Eds.), *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory* (pp. 51-68). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- De Cock, S. (2003). Recurrent sequences of words in native speaker and advanced learner spoken and written English. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Universite' catholique de Louvain, Louvain-la-Neuve: Centre for English Corpus Linguistics.
- De Cock, S. (2004). Preferred Sequences of Words in NS and NNS Speech. *Belgian Journal of English Language and Literatures (BELL), New Series 2*, 225-246.
- De Cock, S., Granger, S., Leech, G., & McEnery, T. (1998). An automated approach to the phrasicon of EFL learners. In S. Granger (Ed.), *Learner English on computer* (pp. 67-79). London: Longman.
- Ding, Y. R. & Y, Qi. (2005). Use of formulaic language as a predictor of L2 oral and written performance. *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages*, 28(3), 49-53.
- Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2012). Lexical Bundles in Academic Texts by Non-native Speakers. *Brno Studies in English Volume 38, No. 2*, pp. 37-58. ISSN 0524-6881. DOI: 10.5817/BSE2012-2-3.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007) Research methods in applied linguistics, 1st edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, N. C. (1996). Sequencing in SLA: Phonological memory, chunking and points of order. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 91-126. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100014698>.
- Ellis, N.C. (2008). Phraseology: The periphery and the heart of language. In F. Meunier & S. Granger (Eds.), *Phraseology in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching*. Asmterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ellis, N. C., Simpson-Vlach, R., & Carson, M. (2008). Formulaic language in native and second language speakers: Psycholinguistics, corpus linguistics, and TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(3), 375-396. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/cllt.2009.003>.
- English First. (2017). EF English Proficiency Index: The World's Largest Ranking of Countries by English Skill. English First: UK.
- Eshghinejad, S. (2016). EFL students' attitudes toward learning English language: The case study of Kashan University students. *Cogent Education* (2016), 3: 1236434.
- Fang, Z. (2021). *Demystifying Academic Writing Genres, Moves, Skills, and Strategies*. Routledge.



- Foster, P., (2001). Rules & routines: a consideration of their role in the task-based language production of native and non-native speakers. In: Bygate, M., Skehan, P., Swain, M. (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing* (pp. 75-94). New York: Longman.
- Gairns, R & Redman, S. (1986). *Working with Words*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gao, X. (2015). Linguistic instrumentalism and national language policy in Mainland China's state print media coverage of the 'Protecting Cantonese Movement'. *Chinese Journal of Communication*, 1–19. doi: 10.1080/17544750.2016.1207694.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Dornyei, Z. & Schimidt, R. (eds.). *Motivational second language acquisition*. Honolulu: Oxford.
- Gardner. R. C. (2006). The social-educational model of second language acquisition: A research paradigm. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 6 (1), pp. 237-260.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. 1972. *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Genesee, F. (2016). North America. Rethinking early childhood education for English language learners: the role of language. *Early Childhood Education in English for Speakers of Other Languages*. Edited by Victoria A. Murphy and Maria Evangelou. London: British Council.
- Granger, S. (1998). Prefabricated patterns in advanced EFL writing: Collocations and formulae. In A. P. Cowie (Ed.), *Phraseology: Theory, Analysis and Applications* (pp. 145-160). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Geramia, Mohammad Hossein and Baighlou, Shiva Madani Ghareh. (2011). Language Learning Strategies Used by Successful and Unsuccessful Iranian EFL Students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 29, pp. 1567 – 1576.
- Gilakjani, Abbas Pourhossein. (2012). "Visual, Auditory, Kinaesthetic Learning Styles and Their Impacts on English Language Teaching". *Journal of Studies in Education* ISSN 2162-6952. Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 104-113.
- Gill, S. K. (2007). Shift in language policy in Malaysia. In A. Carli & U. Ammon (eds.), *Linguistic inequality in scientific communication today*. The AILA Review, vol. 20. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 106–122.
- Gill, S. K. 2012. The complexities of re-reversal of language-in-education policy in Malaysia. In A. Kirkpatrick & R. Sussex (eds.), *English as an international language in Asia: Implications for language education*. Dordrecht: Springer, pp. 45–62.

- Gilquin, G., Granger, S., & Paquot, M. (2007). Learner corpora: The missing link in EAP pedagogy. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(4), 319-335.
- Granger, S., & Meunier, F. (2008). Phraseology in language learning and teaching: Where to from here? In F. Meunier & S. Granger (Eds.), *Phraseology in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Granger, S., & Meunier, F. (Eds.). (2008). *Phraseology: An interdisciplinary perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Greenbaum, S. (1996). Afterword. In R. J. Baumgardner (Ed) *South Asian English: Structure, Use, and users* (pp. 239-245). Urbana, IL: The University of Illinois Press.
- Griffiths, C. (2007). Language learning strategies: Students' and teachers' perceptions. *ELT Journal*, 61 (2), pp. 91-99.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Harste, J. C. (2003). What do we mean by critical literacy now? *Voices from the Middle*, 10 (3), pp. 8-12.
- Haswell, R. (1991). *Gaining ground in college writing: Tales of development and interpretation*. Dallas, TX: Southern Methodist University Press.
- Hercovitch, B. (2012). English is the language of the Asian century. <http://www.abc.net.au/news/2012-09-13/herscovitch-english-asia/4257442>.
- Hiep, P.H. (2005). "Imported" Communicative Language Teaching Implications for Local Teachers. *Journal of English Teaching Forum*. 43 (4), pp. 2-9.
- Howarth, P. (1993). A phraseological approach to academic writing. In: Blue, G.M. (Ed.), *Language, Learning and Success: Studying through English, Review of ELT*, 3 (pp. 58-69).
- Howarth, P. (1996). Phraseology in English Academic Writing: Some Implications for Language Learning and Dictionary Making. *Lexicographica Series Maior* 75. Max Niemeyer, Tübingen.
- Howarth, P. (1998). Phraseology and Second Language Proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(1), 24-44.
- Howatt, A. P. R. and Smith, Richards. (2014). The History of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, from a British and European Perspective. *Language and History*, Vol. 57 No. 1. pp. 75–95.
- Ho Wah, Kam. (2004). "English Language Teaching in East Asia Today: An Overview" In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.). *English language teaching in East Asia today: Changing policies and practices* (pp. 1-32). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

- Hu, Y. (2007). China's foreign language policy on primary English education: What's behind it? *Language Policy*, 6, 359–376. doi:10.1007/s10993-007-9052-9.
- Hudson, J. (1998). *Perspectives on Fixedness: Applied and Theoretical*. Lund: Lund University Press.
- Hundt, M., Schneider, G., & Seoane, E. (2016). The use of the be-passive in academic Englishes: local versus global usage in an international language. *Corpora*, 11(1), 29-61. <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2016.0084>
- Hyland, K. (1999a) Disciplinary discourses: Writer stance in research articles. In C. Candlin and K. Hyland (Eds.) *Writing: Texts: Processes and practices*, (99–121). Longman. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315840390-6>
- Hyland, K. (1999b). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(3), 341-367. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/20.3.341>
- Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2007). Is there an “academic vocabulary”? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 235- 253. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00058.x>
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 148–164.
- Hyland, K. (2008a). Academic clusters: Text patterning in published and postgraduate writing. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 18(1), 41-62.
- Hyland, K. (2008b). As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27, 4-21.
- Hyland, K. (2012). Bundles in academic discourse. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 150-169. doi: 10.1017/S0267190512000037.
- Hyland, K. (2018). As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. In Hyland, K. (Ed), *The Essential Hyland: Studies in Applied Linguistics*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.
- Hyland, K., & Jiang, F. (. (2018). Academic lexical bundles How are they changing? *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 23(4), 383–407. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.17080.hyl>
- Imperiani, E. (2012). English language teaching in Indonesia and its relation to the role of English as an international language. *Passage*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Ishikawa, S. (1995). Objective measures of low-proficiency EFL narrative writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4, 51-70.
- Jenkins, J. (2006a). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL QUARTERLY* Vol. 40, No. 1, March 2006.

- Jenkins, J. (2006b). Points of view and blind spots: ELF and SLA. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 16, No. 2, 2006. Blackwell Publishing Ltd
- Jones, M. & Haywood, S. (2004). Facilitating the acquisition of formulaic sequences: An exploratory study in an EAP context. In Schmitt, N. (ed.), *Formulaic sequences*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 269–291.
- Jones, M. and Haywood, S. (2004) Facilitating the acquisition of formulaic sequences: an exploratory study in an EAP context. *In: N. Schmitt (ed) Formulaic sequences*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 269–292.
- Kachru, Braj B. 1985. Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the Outer Circle. In Quirk and Widdowson, ed.
- Kachru, Braj B. 1992. *The other tongue: English across Cultures*. 2nd ed. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Kazemi, M., Kohandani, M., Farzaneh, N. (2014). The Impact of Lexical Bundles on How Applied Linguistics Articles are Evaluated. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 98, 870–875.
- Kecskes, I. (2007). Formulaic language on English Lingua Franca. In I. Kecskes & L. R. Horn (Eds.), *Explorations in pragmatics: Linguistic, cognitive, and intercultural aspects* (pp. 191–218). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2011). English as a lingua franca in ASEAN: A multilingual model. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Kirkpatrick, Andy. (2017). Language education policy among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). *European Journal of Language Policy* 9.1 (2017) 7-26 Liverpool University Press.
- Kirkpatrick, Andy & Liddicoat, Anthony J. (2017). Language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia. *Lang. Teach.* 50.2, pp. 155–188 Cambridge University Press.
- Koprowski, M. (2005) Investigating the usefulness of lexical phrases in contemporary coursebooks. *ELT Journal*, 59(4), 322–332.
- Lambert, W.E. (1990). Persistent issues in bilingualism. In B. Harley et al (Eds.), *The development of second language proficiency* (pp. 201-218). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lauder A. (2008). Makara, *Sosial Humaniora*, Vol. 12, No. 1, Juli 2008: pp 9-20.
- Lewis, M. (1993) *The lexical approach: the state of ELT and the way forward*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, M. (1997) *Implementing the lexical approach*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.

- Lewis, M. (ed) (2000) Teaching collocation: further developments in the lexical approach. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Li, C. (2009). A research on second language acquisition and college English teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 2(4), 57-60. doi: 10.5539/elt.v2n4p57
- Li, J., & Schmitt, N. (2009). The acquisition of lexical phrases in academic writing: A longitudinal case study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18, 85–102.
- Liao, Hsien-Chung & Yang, Cheng-Cheng. (2012). “Teaching Practice and Cultural Difference of an English as Foreign Language Classroom in Taiwan”. *English Language Teaching*; Vol. 5, No. 11; 2012 ISSN 1916-4742 E-ISSN 1916-4750. Canada: Canadian Center of Science and Education.
- Lie, Anita. (2007). Education policy and EFL curriculum in Indonesia: Between the commitment to competence and the quest for higher test scores. *TEFLIN Journal*, 18(1), pp. 1-14.
- Lie, Anita. (2017). English and Identity in Multicultural Contexts: Issues, Challenges, and Opportunities. *TEFLIN Journal: Malang* Vol. 28, Iss. 1. 71-92. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v28i1>, pp. 71-92.
- Lin, Y. L. (2013). Discourse functions of recurrent multi-word sequences in online and face-to-face intercultural communication. In J. Romero-Trillo (Ed.), *Yearbook of Corpus Linguistics and Pragmatics* (pp. 105–129). London: Springer.
- Lin, Y. L. (2016) Development of Multi-Word Sequences by Adolescent EFL Learners through Online Interaction: Does online contact with native English speakers lead to a more native-like use of multi-word sequences? *English Today. Cambridge University Press*, 32(4), 27–32.
- Littlewood, William. (2001). Students’ attitudes to classroom English learning: a cross-cultural study. *Language Teaching Research* 5, pp. 3-28.
- Liu, D. (2012). The most frequently-used multi-word constructions in academic written English: A multi-corpus study. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31(1), 25-35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.07.002>
- Lo Bianco, J., Orton, J., & Gao, Y. (Eds.). (2009). *China and English: Globalisation and the dilemmas of identity*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Low, E.-L. and Kuang, R. T. S. (2016) “Convergence and divergence of English in Malaysia and Singapore,” In Leitner, G., Hashim, A., and Wolf, H.-G. (eds.), *Communicating with Asia: The Future of English as a Global Language*, chapter, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 43–55.

- Magulod Jr, G. C. (2019). Learning Styles, Study Habits and Academic Performance of Filipino University Students in Applied Science Courses: Implications for Instruction. *Journal of Technology and Science Education*, 9(2), 184-198.
- Mat, C. S., & Yunus, M. (2014). Attitudes and motivation towards learning English among FELDA school Students. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 8(5), pp. 1-8.
- McCulley, G. (1985). Writing quality, coherence, and cohesion. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 19(3), 269–282.
- Macqueen, S. (2012). *The emergence of patterns in second language writing: A sociocognitive exploration of lexical trails* (Vol. 137). Bern: Peter Lang.
- Mitchell, R. & Myles, F. (2001). Second language learning: key concepts and issues. In C. N. Candlin and N. Mercer (Ed.), *English language teaching in its social context*, pp.11-27). London: Routledge.
- Millar, N. (2009) Assessing the processing demands of learner collocation errors. *Poster presented at Corpus Linguistics 2009*. Liverpool: U.K
- Millar, N. (2011). The processing of malformed formulaic language. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(2), 129-148. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/amq035>
- Moon, R. (1992). Textual Aspects of fixed expression in learners' dictionaries. In P. J. L. Arnaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and Applied Linguistics* (pp. 13-27). London: Macmillan.
- Moon, R. (1998). *Fixed Expressions and Idioms in English*. Clarendon Press. Oxford.
- Mukhuba, T. (2005). Bilingualism, language attitudes, language policy and language planning: A sociolinguistic perspective. *Journal of Language and Learning*, 3, 268–278.
- Murphy, Victoria A and Evangelou, Maria. (2016). Early Childhood Education in English for Speakers of Other Languages. Edited by Victoria A. Murphy and Maria Evangelou. London: British Council.
- Myles, F., Hooper, J., & Mitchell, R. (1998). Rote or rule? Exploring the role of formulaic language in classroom foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 48, 323-363.
- Nattinger, J. (1986). Lexical Phrases, functions and vocabulary acquisition. *The ORTESOL Journal*, 7, 1-14.
- Nattinger, J. F., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Nesi, H., & Basturkmen, H. (2006). Lexical bundles and discourse signalling in academic lectures. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 11, 3, 283–304. ISSN 1384–6655 / E-ISSN 1569–9811. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Nesselhauf, N. (2005). *Collocations in learner corpus*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Nordquist, R. (2017). English as a Second Language (ESL) Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms. Available from: <https://www.thoughtco.com/english-as-a-second-language-esl-1690599> [Accessed 14th November 2017].
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*. Englewood-Cliffs, NJ. Prentice-Hall.
- Nur, C. (2004). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practical constraints. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.). *English language teaching in East Asia today: Changing policies and practices* (pp. 178-186). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.
- Oxford, R. (2001). Integrated Skills in the ESL/EFL Classroom. In: *ESL Magazine* 6: 1.
- Obaidul H, M. and Kirkpatrick, A. (2016). Foreign language policies in Asia and Australia in the Asian century. *Language Problems & Language Planning* 40:1 (2016), 26–46. doi 10.1075/lplp.40.1.02ham ISSN 0272–2690 / E-ISSN 1569–9889. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Pan, L & Block, D. (2011). “English as A “Global Language” in China: An Investigation into Learners’ and Teachers’ Language Beliefs”. Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.system.2011.07.011.
- Park, J. S., & Wee, L. (2012). *Markets of English: Linguistic capital and language policy in a globalizing world*. New York: Routledge.
- Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In Jack C. Richards and Richard W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language & Communication* (pp. 191-226). London/New York: Longman.
- Pellicer-Sánchez, A. (2017). Learning L2 collocations incidentally from reading. *Language Teaching Research*. Vol. 21(3), 381–402.
- Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Taylor & Francis.
- Qi, Y., & Ding, Y. (2011). Use of formulaic sequences in monologues of Chinese EFL learners. *System* 39, 164-174.

- Rahman, A. (2007). The history and policy of English education in Bangladesh. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.) *English Education in Asia: History and Policies* (pp. 67-93). Soul: Asia TEFL.
- Renandya, W. A., Lim W. L, Cedric Leong Kai Wah and George M. Jacobs. (1999). "A Survey of English Language Teaching Trends and Practices in Southeast Asia". *Asian Englishes*, 2:1, 37-65, DOI: 10.1080/13488678.1999.10801018
- Richards, Jack C. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, Jack C. (1990). *The Dilemma of Teacher Education in Second Language Teaching*. Second Language Teacher Education. Edited by Jack C. Richards and David Nunan. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, Jack C & Renandya, Willy A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ruth, B. (2013). Lexical bundles across four legal genres. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 18(2), 229-253.
- Saeful Haq, A., Mita Amalia, R., Yuliawati, S. (2021). Lexical Bundles of Indonesian and English Research Articles: Frequency Analysis. *JALL (Journal of Applied Linguistics and Literacy)*, Vol. 5 No. 1, 37 – 53.
- Sánchez-Hernández, P. (2013). Lexical bundles in three oral corpora of university students. *Nordic Journal of English Studies* 12(1), 187-209.
- Schmitt, N. (2004). *Formulaic sequences: acquisition, processing, and use*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Schmitt, N., & Carter, R. (2004). Formulaic sequences in action: An introduction. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic Sequences* (pp. 1-22). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Schmitt, N., Grandage, S., & Adolphs, S. (2004). Are corpus-derived recurrent clusters psycholinguistically valid? In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences* (pp. 127-152). Amsterdam: John Benjamins
- Schmitt, N., Dornyei, Z., Adolphs, S., & Durow, V. (2004). Knowledge and acquisition of formulaic sequences: A longitudinal study. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic Sequences* (pp. 55-86). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Scott, M. (1997). *WordSmith Tools Manual*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning Teaching: A Guidebook for English Language Teachers* 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. Macmillan.



- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Simpson, R. (2004). Stylistic features of academic speech: The role of formulaic expressions. In T. Upton & U. Connor (Eds.), *Discourse in the professions: Perspectives from corpus linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Simpson-Vlach, R., & Ellis, Nick C. (2010). An Academic Formulas List: New Methods in Phraseology Research. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(4), 487-512. doi:10.1093/applin/amp058.
- Sowden, Colin. (2012). ELF on a mushroom: the overnight growth in English as A Lingua Franca. *ELT Journal* Volume 66/1. Oxford University Press.
- Strzalkowski, T. (Ed.) (1998). *Natural Language Information Retrieval* (Introduction pp. ix). Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Tan, P.L. (2011). Towards a Culturally Sensitive and Deeper Understanding of Rote Learning and Memorization of Adult Learners. *Journal of Adult Studies in International Education*, 15(2), 124-145.
- Tripathi, P. D. (1998) "Redefining Kachru's 'Outer Circle' of English," *English Today*, Cambridge University Press, 14(4), pp. 55–58.
- Underwood, G., Schmitt, N., & Galpin, A. (2004). The eyes have it: An eye-movement study into the processing of formulaic sequences. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing, and use* (pp. 153–172). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Vivian Wu, Wen-chi and Natalie Wu, Pin-Hsiang, (2008). Creating an Authentic EFL Learning Environment to Enhance Student Motivation to Study English. In Paul Robertson, Roger Nunn and Darren Lin (Eds) *Asian EFL Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 4: Conference Proceedings (pp. 211-226). Asian EFL Journal Press.
- Walsh, S., Morton, T., & O'Keeffe, A. (2011). Analysing university spoken interaction. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 16(3), 325-344.
- Wang, M.C.; Haertel, G.D.; Walberg, H.J. (1993b). What helps students learn? *Educational leadership* (Alexandria, VA), vol. 51, no. 4, p. 74–79.
- Wang, Z. (2013). A study on the reasons for the inefficiency of college English teaching and some tentative countermeasures. *English Language Teaching*, 7(1), 9-18. doi:10.5539/elt.v7n1p9.
- Weinert, FE. (2001). Concept of competence: a conceptual clarification. In: Rychen DS, Saganik LH (eds) *Defining and selecting key competencies*. Hogrefe & Huber, Seattle, pp 45–65.

- Wiktorsson, M. (2003). Learning Idiomaticity: A Corpus-based study of idiomatic expressions in learners' written production. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation in Lunds Universitet, Sweden. Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations.
- Wong, J. K. K. (2004). Are the Learning Styles of Asian International Students Culturally or Contextually Based?. *International Education Journal*, 4(4), 154-166.
- Wood, D. (2006). Uses and functions of formulaic sequences in second-language speech: An exploration of the foundations of fluency. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 63(1), 13-33.
- Wood, D. (2009). Effects of focused instruction of formulaic sequences on fluent expression in second language narratives: A case study. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics/Revue Canadienne de Linguistique Appliquee*, 12(1), 39-57.
- Wood, D. (2010). Lexical clusters in an EAP textbook corpus. In D. Wood (Ed.), *Perspectives on formulaic language: Acquisition and communication* (pp. 88-106). London and New York: Continuum.
- Wood, D. and Appel, A. (2014) Multiword constructions in first year business and engineering university textbooks and EAP textbooks. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 15, 1-13.
- Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic sequences in second language teaching: Principle and practice. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), 487-489.
- Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wray, A. 2005. Idiomaticity in an L2: Linguistic processing as a predictor of success. Paper submitted for Proceedings of 2005 IATEFL Conference.
- Wray, A. (2008). *Formulaic Language: Pushing the Boundaries*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wray, A. (2013). Formulaic language. *Language Teaching*, 46(03), 316-334. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444813000013>.
- Wray, A., & Perkins, M.R. (2000). The functions of formulaic language: an integrated model. *Language and Communication*, 20, 1-28.
- Yoo, I. W., & Shin, Y. K. (2022). English lexical bundles in a learner corpus of argumentative essays written by Korean university students. *Corpora*, 17, 23-42. <https://doi.org/10.3366/cor.2022.0245>
- Yuliawati, S., Ekawati, D., & Erika Mawarrani, R. (2020). *Penulisan Akademik: Perspektif Linguistik Korpus dan Analisis Wacana*. UNPAD Press.

- Zein, S. (2017). Access policy on English language education at the primary school level in the ASEAN Plus Three member states: motivations, challenges and future directions, *Asian Englishes*, DOI: 10.1080/13488678.2017.1389063.
- Zheng, Y. (2015). The complex, dynamic development of L2 lexical use: A longitudinal study on Chinese learners of English. *System*, 56, 40-53.

## Appendices

### Appendix A: YEAR1 data set of the most and the least frequent RMS

#### YEAR1

116 Texts. Word Type is 11243. Word Tokens 130454

Minimal Frequency is 5. Minimal Range is 5

Total No. of N-Gram Types is 2180 (will be different based on N Gram Size)

Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 40936 (will be different based on N Gram Size)

#### Two Words

The highest 50

Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>of the</i>	938	105
2	<i>in the</i>	711	106
3	<i>to the</i>	413	84
4	<i>is a</i>	392	90
5	<i>is the</i>	338	89
6	<i>it is</i>	320	88
7	<i>the word</i>	262	36
8	<i>as a</i>	260	72
9	<i>from the</i>	257	75
10	<i>there are</i>	251	88
11	<i>can be</i>	245	55
12	<i>such as</i>	240	72
13	<i>of a</i>	228	54
14	<i>on the</i>	224	77
15	<i>and the</i>	205	76
16	<i>to be</i>	179	72
17	<i>in a</i>	178	56
18	<i>as the</i>	167	59
19	<i>with the</i>	166	66
20	<i>that is</i>	165	72
21	<i>for the</i>	164	63
22	<i>one of</i>	153	77
23	<i>a word</i>	151	28

24	<i>by the</i>	145	65
25	<i>for example</i>	143	46
26	<i>in this</i>	139	52
27	<i>which is</i>	136	58
28	<i>the first</i>	133	48
29	<i>part of</i>	131	34
30	<i>that the</i>	131	58
31	<i>word formation</i>	125	22
32	<i>is not</i>	116	51
33	<i>in Indonesia</i>	111	41
34	<i>do not</i>	110	45
35	<i>in English</i>	109	27
36	<i>they are</i>	109	47
37	<i>according to</i>	105	46
38	<i>used in</i>	101	29
39	<i>at the</i>	100	49
40	<i>of Gorontalo</i>	99	40
41	<i>that are</i>	99	50
42	<i>the library</i>	98	5
43	<i>there is</i>	98	58
44	<i>the meaning</i>	93	28
45	<i>in Gorontalo</i>	92	34
46	<i>language is</i>	91	33
47	<i>used to</i>	91	36
48	<i>the same</i>	90	40
49	<i>based on</i>	89	46
50	<i>of this</i>	89	43

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>in the</i>	106	711
2	<i>of the</i>	105	938
3	<i>is a</i>	90	392
4	<i>is the</i>	89	338
5	<i>it is</i>	88	320

6	<i>there are</i>	88	251
7	<i>to the</i>	84	413
8	<i>on the</i>	77	224
9	<i>one of</i>	77	153
10	<i>and the</i>	76	205
11	<i>from the</i>	75	257
12	<i>as a</i>	72	260
13	<i>such as</i>	72	240
14	<i>that is</i>	72	165
15	<i>to be</i>	72	179
16	<i>with the</i>	66	166
17	<i>by the</i>	65	145
18	<i>for the</i>	63	164
19	<i>as the</i>	59	167
20	<i>that the</i>	58	131
21	<i>there is</i>	58	98
22	<i>which is</i>	58	136
23	<i>in a</i>	56	178
24	<i>can be</i>	55	245
25	<i>of a</i>	54	228
26	<i>in this</i>	52	139
27	<i>is not</i>	51	116
28	<i>that are</i>	50	99
29	<i>at the</i>	49	100
30	<i>has a</i>	49	76
31	<i>the first</i>	48	133
32	<i>they are</i>	47	109
33	<i>according to</i>	46	105
34	<i>based on</i>	46	89
35	<i>for example</i>	46	143
36	<i>this is</i>	46	88
37	<i>do not</i>	45	110
38	<i>is an</i>	45	83
39	<i>is also</i>	44	73
40	<i>is one</i>	44	73
41	<i>of this</i>	43	89

42	<i>the most</i>	43	79
43	<i>will be</i>	43	63
44	<i>want to</i>	42	72
45	<i>in Indonesia</i>	41	111
46	<i>so that</i>	41	71
47	<i>are not</i>	40	65
48	<i>does not</i>	40	75
49	<i>of Gorontalo</i>	40	99
50	<i>the same</i>	40	90

### The lowest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>this was</i>	5	5
2	<i>though there</i>	5	5
3	<i>thousands of</i>	5	5
4	<i>time it</i>	5	5
5	<i>time of</i>	5	5
6	<i>to accept</i>	5	5
7	<i>to all</i>	5	5
8	<i>to come</i>	5	5
9	<i>to determine</i>	5	5
10	<i>to each</i>	5	5
11	<i>to fit</i>	5	5
12	<i>to fulfill</i>	5	5
13	<i>to increase</i>	5	5
14	<i>to many</i>	5	5
15	<i>to participate</i>	5	5
16	<i>to put</i>	5	5
17	<i>to reach</i>	5	5
18	<i>to study</i>	5	5
19	<i>to tell</i>	5	5
20	<i>to think</i>	5	5
21	<i>to your</i>	5	5
22	<i>tourist destinations</i>	5	5
23	<i>tradition in</i>	5	5

24	<i>unable to</i>	5	5
25	<i>understood by</i>	5	5
26	<i>unique tradition</i>	5	5
27	<i>up the</i>	5	5
28	<i>use a</i>	5	5
29	<i>use to</i>	5	5
30	<i>used a</i>	5	5
31	<i>using a</i>	5	5
32	<i>very close</i>	5	5
33	<i>was an</i>	5	5
34	<i>was carried</i>	5	5
35	<i>was not</i>	5	5
36	<i>way and</i>	5	5
37	<i>we don't</i>	5	5
38	<i>when one</i>	5	5
39	<i>whether it</i>	5	5
40	<i>who do</i>	5	5
41	<i>why I</i>	5	5
42	<i>with her</i>	5	5
43	<i>with new</i>	5	5
44	<i>word usually</i>	5	5
45	<i>words come</i>	5	5
46	<i>words they</i>	5	5
47	<i>words this</i>	5	5
48	<i>world in</i>	5	5
49	<i>you see</i>	5	5
50	<i>your own</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>up the</i>	5	5
2	<i>use a</i>	5	5
3	<i>use to</i>	5	5
4	<i>used a</i>	5	5
5	<i>used on</i>	5	10
6	<i>users of</i>	5	7



7	<i>uses the</i>	5	7
8	<i>using a</i>	5	5
9	<i>using English</i>	5	8
10	<i>usually use</i>	5	7
11	<i>very beautiful</i>	5	6
12	<i>very close</i>	5	5
13	<i>was an</i>	5	5
14	<i>was carried</i>	5	5
15	<i>was not</i>	5	5
16	<i>way and</i>	5	5
17	<i>we as</i>	5	6
18	<i>we don't</i>	5	5
19	<i>we took</i>	5	8
20	<i>we use</i>	5	8
21	<i>when I</i>	5	8
22	<i>when one</i>	5	5
23	<i>when she</i>	5	8
24	<i>whether it</i>	5	5
25	<i>which consists</i>	5	6
26	<i>which have</i>	5	6
27	<i>which in</i>	5	6
28	<i>who do</i>	5	5
29	<i>who was</i>	5	7
30	<i>why I</i>	5	5
31	<i>why they</i>	5	7
32	<i>with all</i>	5	6
33	<i>with another</i>	5	12
34	<i>with different</i>	5	6
35	<i>with her</i>	5	5
36	<i>with new</i>	5	5
37	<i>with various</i>	5	6
38	<i>word meaning</i>	5	12
39	<i>word usually</i>	5	5
40	<i>words as</i>	5	7
41	<i>words but</i>	5	9
42	<i>words come</i>	5	5

43	<i>words have</i>	5	7
44	<i>words they</i>	5	5
45	<i>words this</i>	5	5
46	<i>world in</i>	5	5
47	<i>write the</i>	5	7
48	<i>you know</i>	5	6
49	<i>you see</i>	5	5
50	<i>your own</i>	5	5

### Three Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 625 (will be different based on N Gram Size)**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 6906 (will be different based on N Gram Size)**

### The highest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>one of the</i>	106	61
2	<i>the process of</i>	62	22
3	<i>the use of</i>	61	25
4	<i>of the word</i>	58	18
5	<i>is one of</i>	57	39
6	<i>it can be</i>	51	30
7	<i>of a word</i>	49	14
8	<i>the meaning of</i>	45	23
9	<i>part of speech</i>	43	6
10	<i>a combination of</i>	37	12
11	<i>based on the</i>	37	28
12	<i>word formation process</i>	37	13
13	<i>as well as</i>	36	23
14	<i>there are many</i>	36	23
15	<i>can be used</i>	35	13
16	<i>the form of</i>	35	23
17	<i>for example the</i>	34	19
18	<i>formed from the</i>	32	11
19	<i>part of the</i>	32	15
20	<i>according to reference</i>	31	15
21	<i>in the form</i>	31	23

22	<i>a lot of</i>	30	20
23	<i>there is a</i>	30	21
24	<i>a new word</i>	28	15
25	<i>such as the</i>	28	15
26	<i>there is no</i>	28	23
27	<i>is formed from</i>	27	7
28	<i>is made from</i>	27	5
29	<i>the study of</i>	27	12
30	<i>meaning of the</i>	26	14
31	<i>the part of</i>	26	7
32	<i>be able to</i>	25	16
33	<i>is the process</i>	25	13
34	<i>the united states</i>	25	8
35	<i>there are several</i>	24	24
36	<i>that can be</i>	23	13
37	<i>is used to</i>	23	13
38	<i>it is a</i>	23	16
39	<i>part of a</i>	23	12
40	<i>the end of</i>	23	16
41	<i>the name of</i>	23	15
42	<i>the 18<sup>th</sup> century</i>	23	14
43	<i>used as a</i>	23	15
44	<i>as a noun</i>	22	7
45	<i>in order to</i>	22	12
46	<i>it is the</i>	22	14
47	<i>of word formation</i>	22	12
48	<i>the word formation</i>	22	9
49	<i>my hometown is</i>	21	12
50	<i>state university of</i>	21	7

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>one of the</i>	61	106
2	<i>is one of</i>	39	57
3	<i>it can be</i>	30	51
4	<i>based on the</i>	28	37

5	<i>there are many</i>	27	36
6	<i>the use of</i>	25	61
7	<i>there are several</i>	24	25
8	<i>as well as</i>	23	36
9	<i>in the form</i>	23	31
10	<i>the form of</i>	23	35
11	<i>the meaning of</i>	23	45
12	<i>there is no</i>	23	28
13	<i>the process of</i>	22	62
14	<i>there is a</i>	21	30
15	<i>a lot of</i>	20	30
16	<i>for example the</i>	19	34
17	<i>of the word</i>	19	58
18	<i>according to the</i>	16	20
19	<i>be able to</i>	16	25
20	<i>do not know</i>	16	19
21	<i>it is a</i>	16	23
22	<i>it is not</i>	16	20
23	<i>the end of</i>	16	23
24	<i>there are some</i>	16	20
25	<i>they do not</i>	16	20
26	<i>a new word</i>	15	28
27	<i>according to reference</i>	15	31
28	<i>in the world</i>	15	19
29	<i>is known as</i>	15	16
30	<i>part of the</i>	15	32
31	<i>so that it</i>	15	17
32	<i>such as the</i>	15	28
33	<i>the culture of</i>	15	19
34	<i>the name of</i>	15	23
35	<i>used as a</i>	15	23
36	<i>a variety of</i>	14	19
37	<i>a word or</i>	14	19
38	<i>form of a</i>	14	18
39	<i>is a word</i>	14	20
40	<i>it is the</i>	14	22

41	<i>meaning of the</i>	14	26
42	<i>of a word</i>	14	49
43	<i>of the most</i>	14	16
44	<i>one of them</i>	14	15
45	<i>that there are</i>	14	21
46	<i>the 18<sup>th</sup> century</i>	14	23
47	<i>there are two</i>	14	21
48	<i>be found in</i>	13	15
49	<i>can be caused</i>	13	35
50	<i>in the community</i>	13	16

### The lowest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>in the western</i>	5	5
2	<i>Indonesia is the</i>	5	5
3	<i>influenced by the</i>	5	5
4	<i>is a tradition</i>	5	5
5	<i>is different from</i>	5	5
6	<i>is something that</i>	5	5
7	<i>is the only</i>	5	5
8	<i>island saronde island</i>	5	5
9	<i>it comes from</i>	5	5
10	<i>it is known</i>	5	5
11	<i>it is located</i>	5	5
12	<i>know how to</i>	5	5
13	<i>known as a</i>	5	5
14	<i>letters of a</i>	5	5
15	<i>like to say</i>	5	5
16	<i>located in the</i>	5	5
17	<i>new word with</i>	5	5
18	<i>not know what</i>	5	5
19	<i>not only in</i>	5	5
20	<i>of Gorontalo and</i>	5	5
21	<i>of Gorontalo province</i>	5	5
22	<i>of the above</i>	5	5

23	<i>other hand the</i>	5	5
24	<i>provinces in Indonesia</i>	5	5
25	<i>purpose of this</i>	5	5
26	<i>reference there are</i>	5	5
27	<i>that have the</i>	5	5
28	<i>that I can</i>	5	5
29	<i>that will be</i>	5	5
30	<i>the level of</i>	5	5
31	<i>the location of</i>	5	5
32	<i>the place of</i>	5	5
33	<i>the Quran of</i>	5	5
34	<i>the vocabulary of</i>	5	5
35	<i>the world in</i>	5	5
36	<i>their own culture</i>	5	5
37	<i>there are three</i>	5	5
38	<i>think it is</i>	5	5
39	<i>this essay I</i>	5	5
40	<i>those who have</i>	5	5
41	<i>three types of</i>	5	5
42	<i>to give a</i>	5	5
43	<i>used to refer</i>	5	5
44	<i>was carried out</i>	5	5
45	<i>we don't consume</i>	5	5
46	<i>which is to</i>	5	5
47	<i>which is usually</i>	5	5
48	<i>who do not</i>	5	5
49	<i>words used in</i>	5	5
50	<i>work in the</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>that will be</i>	5	5
2	<i>the change of</i>	5	11
3	<i>the example of</i>	5	8
4	<i>the first letter</i>	5	7
5	<i>the following is</i>	5	13

6	<i>the influence of</i>	5	7
7	<i>the lack of</i>	5	7
8	<i>the level of</i>	5	5
9	<i>the location of</i>	5	5
10	<i>the most popular</i>	5	6
11	<i>the object of</i>	5	8
12	<i>the place of</i>	5	5
13	<i>the Quran of</i>	5	5
14	<i>the tradition of</i>	5	9
15	<i>the vocabulary of</i>	5	5
16	<i>the world in</i>	5	5
17	<i>their own culture</i>	5	5
18	<i>there are three</i>	5	5
19	<i>there is also</i>	5	6
20	<i>think it is</i>	5	5
21	<i>this article is</i>	5	7
22	<i>this essay I</i>	5	5
23	<i>this kind of</i>	5	8
24	<i>those who have</i>	5	5
25	<i>three types of</i>	5	5
26	<i>to become a</i>	5	6
27	<i>to build a</i>	5	6
28	<i>to describe the</i>	5	8
29	<i>to get married</i>	5	8
30	<i>to get the</i>	5	10
31	<i>to give a</i>	5	5
32	<i>to refer to</i>	5	7
33	<i>to use the</i>	5	6
34	<i>used by the</i>	5	6
35	<i>used to refer</i>	5	5
36	<i>was carried out</i>	5	5
37	<i>we can see</i>	5	6
38	<i>we don't consume</i>	5	5
39	<i>went to the</i>	5	14
40	<i>when it comes</i>	5	7
41	<i>when they have</i>	5	6

42	<i>when they want</i>	5	6
43	<i>which is to</i>	5	5
44	<i>which is usually</i>	5	5
45	<i>who do not</i>	5	5
46	<i>with other people</i>	5	8
47	<i>word that is</i>	5	8
48	<i>words for example</i>	5	7
49	<i>words used in</i>	5	5
50	<i>work in the</i>	5	5

#### Four Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 86**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 792**

**The highest 50**

**Based on Frequency**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>is one of the</i>	45	32
2	<i>in the form of</i>	28	20
3	<i>is formed from the</i>	23	5
4	<i>the meaning of the</i>	22	11
5	<i>is the process of</i>	20	10
6	<i>the part of speech</i>	20	5
7	<i>the word formation process</i>	15	6
8	<i>part of a word</i>	14	6
9	<i>the process of forming</i>	14	9
10	<i>in the united states</i>	13	6
11	<i>on the other hand</i>	13	10
12	<i>state university of Gorontalo</i>	13	79
13	<i>the end of the</i>	13	9
14	<i>the name of the</i>	13	6
15	<i>the people of Gorontalo</i>	13	7
16	<i>the initial letters of</i>	12	7
17	<i>on the island of</i>	11	10
18	<i>one of them is</i>	11	10
19	<i>process of forming a</i>	11	6
20	<i>the form of a</i>	11	10



21	<i>there are so many</i>	11	10
22	<i>word formation process in</i>	11	6
23	<i>I would like to</i>	10	10
24	<i>of a word or</i>	10	7
25	<i>of forming a word</i>	10	5
26	<i>of two or more</i>	10	6
27	<i>one of the most</i>	10	10
28	<i>can be found in</i>	9	8
29	<i>for example the word</i>	9	5
30	<i>it is used to</i>	9	6
31	<i>are a lot of</i>	8	5
32	<i>cannot be separated from</i>	8	8
33	<i>Gorontalo is one of</i>	8	8
34	<i>I do not know</i>	8	6
35	<i>in such a way</i>	8	8
36	<i>is the study of</i>	8	5
37	<i>known as serambi Madinah</i>	8	7
38	<i>the beginning of the</i>	8	7
39	<i>the capital city of</i>	8	7
40	<i>the island of Sulawesi</i>	8	7
41	<i>as soon as possible</i>	7	6
42	<i>as well as the</i>	7	7
43	<i>by the people of</i>	7	5
44	<i>can be useful for</i>	7	6
45	<i>end of the word</i>	7	5
46	<i>in the context of</i>	7	5
47	<i>in the 18<sup>th</sup> century</i>	7	5
48	<i>is known as serambi</i>	7	6
49	<i>it can be said</i>	7	5
50	<i>pronounced as a word</i>	7	6

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>is one of the</i>	32	45
2	<i>in the form of</i>	20	28
3	<i>the meaning of the</i>	11	22

4	<i>I would like to</i>	10	10
5	<i>is the process of</i>	10	20
6	<i>on the island of</i>	10	11
7	<i>on the other hand</i>	10	13
8	<i>one of the most</i>	10	10
9	<i>one of them is</i>	10	11
10	<i>the form of a</i>	10	11
11	<i>there are so many</i>	10	11
12	<i>the end of the</i>	9	13
13	<i>the process of forming</i>	9	14
14	<i>can be found in</i>	8	9
15	<i>cannot be separated from</i>	8	8
16	<i>Gorontalo is one of</i>	8	8
17	<i>in such a way</i>	8	8
18	<i>as well as the</i>	7	7
19	<i>known as serambi Madinah</i>	7	8
20	<i>of a word or</i>	7	10
21	<i>state university of Gorontalo</i>	7	13
22	<i>that there is no</i>	7	7
23	<i>the beginning of the</i>	7	8
24	<i>the capital city of</i>	7	8
25	<i>the initial letters of</i>	7	12
26	<i>the island of Sulawesi</i>	7	8
27	<i>the people of Gorontalo</i>	7	13
28	<i>acronym is a word</i>	6	6
29	<i>as soon as possible</i>	6	7
30	<i>can be concluded that</i>	6	6
31	<i>can be useful for</i>	6	7
32	<i>do not want to</i>	6	6
33	<i>hopefully this paper can</i>	6	6
34	<i>I do not know</i>	6	8
35	<i>if you want to</i>	6	6
36	<i>in accordance with the</i>	6	6
37	<i>in the united states</i>	6	13
38	<i>is known as serambi</i>	6	7
39	<i>it is use to</i>	6	9

40	<i>my hometown is Gorontalo</i>	6	6
41	<i>of two or more</i>	6	10
42	<i>part of a word</i>	6	14
43	<i>process of forming a</i>	6	11
44	<i>pronounced as a word</i>	6	7
45	<i>so that it can</i>	6	6
46	<i>that is often used</i>	6	6
47	<i>the name of the</i>	6	13
48	<i>the study of the</i>	6	7
49	<i>the word formation process</i>	6	15
50	<i>be able to</i>	6	6

### The Lowest 36

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>that there is no</i>	7	7
2	<i>the study of the</i>	7	6
3	<i>two or more words</i>	7	5
4	<i>acronym is a word</i>	6	6
5	<i>can be concluded that</i>	6	6
6	<i>do not want to</i>	6	6
7	<i>formed from the initial</i>	6	5
8	<i>from the initial letters</i>	6	5
9	<i>hopefully this paper can</i>	6	6
10	<i>if you want to</i>	6	6
11	<i>in accordance with the</i>	6	6
12	<i>in the process of</i>	6	5
13	<i>is the same as</i>	6	5
14	<i>it is said that</i>	6	5
15	<i>my hometown is Gorontalo</i>	6	6
16	<i>of more than one</i>	6	5
17	<i>of the new word</i>	6	5
18	<i>so that it can</i>	6	6
19	<i>that is often used</i>	6	6
20	<i>there are still many</i>	6	5
21	<i>to be able to</i>	6	6

22	<i>to find out the</i>	6	5
23	<i>when it comes to</i>	6	5
24	<i>when they want to</i>	6	5
25	<i>with the aim of</i>	6	5
26	<i>a new word with</i>	5	5
27	<i>in Gorontalo there are</i>	5	5
28	<i>in this essay I</i>	5	5
29	<i>is a form of</i>	5	5
30	<i>is a word or</i>	5	5
31	<i>it can be concluded</i>	5	5
32	<i>it is known as</i>	5	5
33	<i>the end of a</i>	5	5
34	<i>the other hand the</i>	5	5
35	<i>used to refer to</i>	5	5
36	<i>would like to say</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>word formation process in</i>	5	11
2	<i>a new word with</i>	5	5
3	<i>are a lot of</i>	5	8
4	<i>by the people of</i>	5	7
5	<i>end of the word</i>	5	7
6	<i>for example the word</i>	5	9
7	<i>formed from the initial</i>	5	6
8	<i>from the initial letters</i>	5	6
9	<i>in Gorontalo there are</i>	5	5
10	<i>in the context of</i>	5	7
11	<i>in the process of</i>	5	6
12	<i>in the 18<sup>th</sup> century</i>	5	7
13	<i>in this essay I</i>	5	5
14	<i>is a form of</i>	5	5
15	<i>is a word or</i>	5	5
16	<i>is formed from the</i>	5	23
17	<i>is the same as</i>	5	6
18	<i>is the study of</i>	5	8

19	<i>it can be concluded</i>	5	5
20	<i>it can be said</i>	5	7
21	<i>it is known as</i>	5	5
22	<i>it is said that</i>	5	6
23	<i>of forming a word</i>	5	10
24	<i>of more than one</i>	5	6
25	<i>of the new word</i>	5	6
26	<i>the end of a</i>	5	5
27	<i>the other hand the</i>	5	5
28	<i>the part of speech</i>	5	20
29	<i>there are still many</i>	5	6
30	<i>to find out the</i>	5	6
31	<i>two or more words</i>	5	7
32	<i>used to refer to</i>	5	5
33	<i>when it comes to</i>	5	6
34	<i>when they want to</i>	5	6
35	<i>with the aim of</i>	5	6
36	<i>would like to say</i>	5	5

#### Five Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 10**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 73**

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>in the form of a</i>	10	9
2	<i>the process of forming</i>	10	6
3	<i>is the processes of forming</i>	9	6
4	<i>on the island of sulawesi</i>	8	7
5	<i>Gorontalo is one of the</i>	7	7
6	<i>the end of the word</i>	7	5
7	<i>is known as serambi Madinah</i>	6	5
8	<i>of two or more words</i>	6	5
9	<i>it can be concluded that</i>	5	5
10	<i>on the other hand the</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>in the form of a</i>	10	9
2	<i>Gorontalo is one of the</i>	7	7
3	<i>on the island of Sulawesi</i>	8	7
4	<i>is the process of forming</i>	9	6
5	<i>the process of forming a</i>	10	6
6	<i>is known as serambi Madinah</i>	6	5
7	<i>it can be concluded that</i>	5	5
8	<i>of two or more words</i>	6	5
9	<i>on the other hand the</i>	5	5
10	<i>the end of the word</i>	7	5

### Six Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 1**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 8**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>is the process of forming a</i>	8	5

### Appendix B: YEAR4 data set of the most and the least frequent RMS

#### YEAR4

**79 Texts. Word Type 10046. Word Tokens 287551**

**Minimal Frequency is 5. Minimal Range is 5**

#### Two Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 5593 (will be different based on N Gram Size)**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 138967 (will be different based on N Gram Size)**

#### The highest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>of the</i>	1968	79
2	<i>in the</i>	1451	77
3	<i>this research</i>	952	78
4	<i>to the</i>	922	78
5	<i>on the</i>	799	79
6	<i>the data</i>	790	76
7	<i>the researcher</i>	775	69

8	<i>it is</i>	728	74
9	<i>is a</i>	707	77
10	<i>in this</i>	706	77
11	<i>based on</i>	693	77
12	<i>the students</i>	653	48
13	<i>can be</i>	625	75
14	<i>is the</i>	623	79
15	<i>this study</i>	619	69
16	<i>will be</i>	588	72
17	<i>of this</i>	565	77
18	<i>that the</i>	555	69
19	<i>according to</i>	522	76
20	<i>as a</i>	504	77
21	<i>and the</i>	504	69
22	<i>as the</i>	504	77
23	<i>there are</i>	487	72
24	<i>to be</i>	451	72
25	<i>such as</i>	444	72
26	<i>with the</i>	431	69
27	<i>to reference</i>	427	72
28	<i>in reference</i>	423	59
29	<i>from the</i>	411	70
30	<i>by the</i>	398	74
31	<i>the research</i>	351	72
32	<i>they are</i>	344	65
33	<i>about the</i>	320	69
34	<i>by reference</i>	311	58
35	<i>learning process</i>	299	27
36	<i>one of</i>	297	71
37	<i>related to</i>	288	64
38	<i>in a</i>	287	66
39	<i>for the</i>	283	64
40	<i>research is</i>	280	70

41	<i>which is</i>	280	63
42	<i>in order</i>	278	57
43	<i>in learning</i>	267	27
44	<i>that is</i>	266	69
45	<i>reference in</i>	262	60
46	<i>order to</i>	255	57
47	<i>cited in</i>	252	44
48	<i>of a</i>	249	60
49	<i>for example</i>	246	48
50	<i>is not</i>	246	57

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>is the</i>	79	623
2	<i>of the</i>	79	1968
3	<i>on the</i>	79	799
4	<i>this research</i>	78	952
5	<i>to the</i>	78	922
6	<i>and the</i>	77	504
7	<i>based on</i>	77	693
8	<i>in the</i>	77	1451
9	<i>in this</i>	77	706
10	<i>is a</i>	77	707
11	<i>of this</i>	77	565
12	<i>according to</i>	76	522
13	<i>the data</i>	76	790
14	<i>can be</i>	75	625
15	<i>by the</i>	74	625
16	<i>it is</i>	74	728
17	<i>as a</i>	72	516
18	<i>such as</i>	72	444
19	<i>the research</i>	72	351
20	<i>there are</i>	72	487



21	<i>to be</i>	72	451
22	<i>to reference</i>	72	427
23	<i>will be</i>	72	588
24	<i>one of</i>	71	297
25	<i>from the</i>	70	411
26	<i>is to</i>	70	219
27	<i>research is</i>	70	280
28	<i>about the</i>	69	320
29	<i>as the</i>	69	504
30	<i>that is</i>	69	266
31	<i>that the</i>	69	555
32	<i>the researcher</i>	69	775
33	<i>this study</i>	69	619
34	<i>with the</i>	69	431
35	<i>in a</i>	66	287
36	<i>they are</i>	65	344
37	<i>for the</i>	64	283
38	<i>related to</i>	64	288
39	<i>to find</i>	63	167
40	<i>which is</i>	63	280
41	<i>used in</i>	62	221
42	<i>is an</i>	61	141
43	<i>the study</i>	61	226
44	<i>of a</i>	60	249
45	<i>reference in</i>	60	262
46	<i>research the</i>	60	152
47	<i>to analyze</i>	60	164
48	<i>in reference</i>	59	423
49	<i>the first</i>	59	181
50	<i>by reference</i>	58	311

**The lowest 50**

**Based on Frequency**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>they still</i>	5	5
2	<i>thinking and</i>	5	5
3	<i>third previous</i>	5	5
4	<i>through a</i>	5	5
5	<i>through observation</i>	5	5
6	<i>throughout the</i>	5	5
7	<i>times and</i>	5	5
8	<i>to assist</i>	5	5
9	<i>to continue</i>	5	5
10	<i>to define</i>	5	5
11	<i>to expand</i>	5	5
12	<i>to imagine</i>	5	5
13	<i>to indicate</i>	5	5
14	<i>to realize</i>	5	5
15	<i>to select</i>	5	5
16	<i>to try</i>	5	5
17	<i>took the</i>	5	5
18	<i>translation to</i>	5	5
19	<i>two words</i>	5	5
20	<i>use descriptive</i>	5	5
21	<i>use pre</i>	5	5
22	<i>use some</i>	5	5
23	<i>use when</i>	5	5
24	<i>uses a</i>	5	5
25	<i>uses language</i>	5	5
26	<i>uses to</i>	5	5
27	<i>very essentials</i>	5	5
28	<i>very influential</i>	5	5
29	<i>vocabularies and</i>	5	5
30	<i>vocabulary it</i>	5	5
31	<i>was first</i>	5	5
32	<i>was going</i>	5	5

33	<i>we may</i>	5	5
34	<i>were obtained</i>	5	5
35	<i>were several</i>	5	5
36	<i>willingness to</i>	5	5
37	<i>won't you</i>	5	5
38	<i>word reference</i>	5	5
39	<i>work such</i>	5	5
40	<i>works is</i>	5	5
41	<i>works which</i>	5	5
42	<i>world the</i>	5	5
43	<i>writer also</i>	5	5
44	<i>writer in</i>	5	5
45	<i>writer to</i>	5	5
46	<i>writing according</i>	5	5
47	<i>writing based</i>	5	5
48	<i>written or</i>	5	5
49	<i>yet the</i>	5	5
50	<i>you cannot</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>which may</i>	5	7
2	<i>which used</i>	5	6
3	<i>which was</i>	5	6
4	<i>which we</i>	5	10
5	<i>while name</i>	5	7
6	<i>who already</i>	5	12
7	<i>who teach</i>	5	6
8	<i>who use</i>	5	7
9	<i>who was</i>	5	11
10	<i>why and</i>	5	8
11	<i>will choose</i>	5	7
12	<i>will happen</i>	5	10

13	<i>will interpret</i>	5	6
14	<i>will investigate</i>	5	7
15	<i>will know</i>	5	11
16	<i>will say</i>	5	8
17	<i>will try</i>	5	7
18	<i>willingness to</i>	5	5
19	<i>with it</i>	5	6
20	<i>with them</i>	5	13
21	<i>with three</i>	5	6
22	<i>woman who</i>	5	10
23	<i>women are</i>	5	34
24	<i>won't you</i>	5	5
25	<i>word order</i>	5	8
26	<i>word reference</i>	5	5
27	<i>word translation</i>	5	47
28	<i>words as</i>	5	6
29	<i>words can</i>	5	6
30	<i>words were</i>	5	6
31	<i>work such</i>	5	5
32	<i>works are</i>	5	8
33	<i>works can</i>	5	12
34	<i>works is</i>	5	5
35	<i>works which</i>	5	5
36	<i>world and</i>	5	6
37	<i>world the</i>	5	5
38	<i>writer also</i>	5	5
39	<i>writer in</i>	5	5
40	<i>writer to</i>	5	5
41	<i>writer will</i>	5	8
42	<i>writing a</i>	5	7
43	<i>writing according</i>	5	5
44	<i>writing based</i>	5	5
45	<i>writing for</i>	5	15

46	<i>written or</i>	5	5
47	<i>years and</i>	5	6
48	<i>yet the</i>	5	5
49	<i>you cannot</i>	5	5
50	<i>you're scared</i>	5	17

### Three Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 2755**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 39716**

**The highest 50**

**Based on Frequency**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>according to reference</i>	407	72
2	<i>based on the</i>	334	70
3	<i>in order to</i>	254	57
4	<i>cited in reference</i>	250	42
5	<i>of this research</i>	219	68
6	<i>the use of</i>	219	41
7	<i>the researcher will</i>	196	47
8	<i>this research is</i>	192	63
9	<i>one of the</i>	191	61
10	<i>of this study</i>	177	51
11	<i>in this research</i>	170	62
12	<i>as cited in</i>	157	28
13	<i>it can be</i>	155	51
14	<i>in learning process</i>	145	14
15	<i>the result of</i>	139	50
16	<i>related to the</i>	138	48
17	<i>name and name</i>	137	17
18	<i>reference as cited</i>	137	28
19	<i>the target language</i>	131	14
20	<i>is one of</i>	122	50
21	<i>in this study</i>	121	44

22	<i>reference in reference</i>	121	30
23	<i>this study is</i>	133	48
24	<i>this research will</i>	107	43
25	<i>to find out</i>	106	48
26	<i>the meaning of</i>	104	41
27	<i>the process of</i>	104	38
28	<i>the implementation of</i>	102	13
29	<i>in this case</i>	99	45
30	<i>to analyze the</i>	99	49
31	<i>reference stated that</i>	95	40
32	<i>this research the</i>	95	48
33	<i>in terms of</i>	92	33
34	<i>of the study</i>	88	38
35	<i>of English department</i>	87	26
36	<i>of the research</i>	84	41
37	<i>the form of</i>	82	42
38	<i>collecting the data</i>	78	47
39	<i>the data the</i>	78	44
40	<i>as well as</i>	77	26
41	<i>reference cited in</i>	77	25
42	<i>analyzing the data</i>	76	44
43	<i>it means that</i>	76	30
44	<i>name by name</i>	75	19
45	<i>the other hand</i>	75	36
46	<i>meaning of the</i>	72	30
47	<i>there are some</i>	72	37
48	<i>the main character</i>	71	17
49	<i>to the target</i>	70	7
50	<i>based on reference</i>	69	18

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>according to reference</i>	72	407

2	<i>based on the</i>	70	334
3	<i>of this research</i>	68	219
4	<i>this research is</i>	63	192
5	<i>in this research</i>	62	170
6	<i>one of the</i>	61	191
7	<i>in order to</i>	57	254
8	<i>it can be</i>	51	155
9	<i>of this study</i>	51	177
10	<i>is one of</i>	50	122
11	<i>the result of</i>	50	139
12	<i>to analyze the</i>	49	99
13	<i>related to the</i>	48	138
14	<i>this research the</i>	48	95
15	<i>this study is</i>	48	113
16	<i>to find out</i>	48	106
17	<i>collecting the data</i>	47	78
18	<i>the researcher will</i>	47	196
19	<i>in this case</i>	45	99
20	<i>analyzing the data</i>	44	76
21	<i>in this study</i>	44	121
22	<i>the data the</i>	44	78
23	<i>this research will</i>	43	107
24	<i>cited in reference</i>	42	250
25	<i>the form of</i>	42	82
26	<i>of the research</i>	41	84
27	<i>the meaning of</i>	41	104
28	<i>the use of</i>	41	219
29	<i>reference stated that</i>	40	95
30	<i>used in this</i>	40	60
31	<i>in analyzing the</i>	38	55
32	<i>of the study</i>	38	88
33	<i>the process of</i>	38	104
34	<i>that can be</i>	37	61

35	<i>the purpose of</i>	37	64
36	<i>there are some</i>	37	72
37	<i>find out the</i>	36	63
38	<i>the other hand</i>	36	75
39	<i>is expected to</i>	35	45
40	<i>conducted by reference</i>	34	67
41	<i>on the other</i>	34	65
42	<i>the research question</i>	34	58
43	<i>in terms of</i>	33	92
44	<i>of the data</i>	33	50
45	<i>the data that</i>	33	39
46	<i>that will be</i>	32	63
47	<i>there are many</i>	32	42
48	<i>there is a</i>	32	59
49	<i>and it is</i>	31	47
50	<i>can be used</i>	31	47

#### **The lowest 50**

##### **Based on Frequency**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>their speaking ability</i>	5	5
2	<i>then the students</i>	5	5
3	<i>they are also</i>	5	5
4	<i>they have their</i>	5	5
5	<i>third previous study</i>	5	5
6	<i>this research according</i>	5	5
7	<i>this research researcher</i>	5	5
8	<i>this study because</i>	5	5
9	<i>those are the</i>	5	5
10	<i>to analyzing the</i>	5	5
11	<i>to be interpreted</i>	5	5
12	<i>to be learned</i>	5	5
13	<i>to collect data</i>	5	5



14	<i>to conduct a</i>	5	5
15	<i>to deliver the</i>	5	5
16	<i>to describe and</i>	5	5
17	<i>to gain the</i>	5	5
18	<i>to make an</i>	5	5
19	<i>to reproduce the</i>	5	5
20	<i>to take part</i>	5	5
21	<i>to the main</i>	5	5
22	<i>to the next</i>	5	5
23	<i>to the researcher</i>	5	5
24	<i>use in the</i>	5	5
25	<i>used for a</i>	5	5
26	<i>used in teaching</i>	5	5
27	<i>used qualitative method</i>	5	5
28	<i>used to collect</i>	5	5
29	<i>useful for the</i>	5	5
30	<i>very important for</i>	5	5
31	<i>view of the</i>	5	5
32	<i>wants to find</i>	5	5
33	<i>want to analyze</i>	5	5
34	<i>way to improve</i>	5	5
35	<i>what have been</i>	5	5
36	<i>when they have</i>	5	5
37	<i>whether it is</i>	5	5
38	<i>which has a</i>	5	5
39	<i>which is different</i>	5	5
40	<i>which they are</i>	5	5
41	<i>will give a</i>	5	5
42	<i>will use qualitative</i>	5	5
43	<i>with the aim</i>	5	5
44	<i>with the purpose</i>	5	5
45	<i>word that is</i>	5	5
46	<i>words in a</i>	5	5

47	<i>words phrases and</i>	5	5
48	<i>work such as</i>	5	5
49	<i>writing according to</i>	5	5
50	<i>writing based on</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>using reference's theory</i>	5	9
2	<i>using the language</i>	5	6
3	<i>very important for</i>	5	5
4	<i>view of the</i>	5	5
5	<i>vocabulary is the</i>	5	12
6	<i>want to say</i>	5	6
7	<i>wants to find</i>	5	5
8	<i>way to analyze</i>	5	5
9	<i>way to improve</i>	5	5
10	<i>we are talking</i>	5	7
11	<i>we do not</i>	5	10
12	<i>what do you</i>	5	11
13	<i>what have been</i>	5	5
14	<i>what is being</i>	5	6
15	<i>what the author</i>	5	9
16	<i>when it comes</i>	5	18
17	<i>when the speaker</i>	5	9
18	<i>when they have</i>	5	5
19	<i>when you are</i>	5	6
20	<i>whether it is</i>	5	5
21	<i>which has a</i>	5	5
22	<i>which is different</i>	5	5
23	<i>which is vey</i>	5	6
24	<i>which they are</i>	5	5
25	<i>while this research</i>	5	8
26	<i>who has a</i>	5	6

27	<i>who will be</i>	5	7
28	<i>will affect the</i>	5	9
29	<i>will be analyze</i>	5	7
30	<i>will be classified</i>	5	6
31	<i>will be more</i>	5	7
32	<i>will be selected</i>	5	7
33	<i>will classify the</i>	5	6
34	<i>will give a</i>	5	5
35	<i>will investigate the</i>	5	6
36	<i>will make them</i>	5	6
37	<i>will try to</i>	5	7
38	<i>will use a</i>	5	6
39	<i>will use qualitative</i>	5	5
40	<i>with the aim</i>	5	5
41	<i>with purpose</i>	5	5
42	<i>word that is</i>	5	5
43	<i>words and sentences</i>	5	6
44	<i>words in a</i>	5	5
45	<i>words phrases and</i>	5	5
46	<i>work such as</i>	5	5
47	<i>works can be</i>	5	6
48	<i>writing according to</i>	5	5
49	<i>writing based on</i>	5	5
50	<i>writing is a</i>	5	12

#### Four Words

Total No. of N-Gram Types is 791

Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 8961

The highest 50

Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>as cited in reference</i>	157	28
2	<i>reference as cited in</i>	133	28
3	<i>is one of the</i>	79	43
4	<i>reference cited in reference</i>	77	25
5	<i>of this research is</i>	67	40
6	<i>students of English department</i>	62	21
7	<i>on the other hand</i>	60	32
8	<i>in the form of</i>	58	31
9	<i>to the target language</i>	56	7
10	<i>to find out the</i>	54	34
11	<i>in this research the</i>	51	32
12	<i>of this study is</i>	49	30
13	<i>word for word translation</i>	47	5
14	<i>the meaning of the</i>	44	25
15	<i>in analyzing the data</i>	42	33
16	<i>in this case the</i>	42	29
17	<i>was conducted by reference</i>	42	20
18	<i>according to reference quotation</i>	40	24
19	<i>in order to make</i>	40	20
20	<i>the data will be</i>	40	20
21	<i>used in this research</i>	20	27
22	<i>the researcher will use</i>	39	16
23	<i>the result of the</i>	39	24
24	<i>to analyze the data</i>	39	27
25	<i>according to reference in</i>	37	17
26	<i>according to reference the</i>	36	22
27	<i>teaching and learning process</i>	35	12
28	<i>the result of this</i>	35	21

29	<i>in this research is</i>	34	27
30	<i>the data the researcher</i>	34	25
31	<i>this research the researcher</i>	32	22
32	<i>in front of the</i>	31	7
33	<i>it can be concluded</i>	31	14
34	<i>in the process of</i>	30	17
35	<i>of collecting the data</i>	30	22
36	<i>this chapter presents the</i>	30	24
37	<i>based on the explanation</i>	29	18
38	<i>can be concluded that</i>	29	12
39	<i>according to reference as</i>	28	17
40	<i>the source of data</i>	28	14
41	<i>this research will be</i>	28	23
42	<i>to collect the data</i>	28	22
43	<i>in this study the</i>	27	16
44	<i>on the use of</i>	27	10
45	<i>reference according to reference</i>	27	20
46	<i>the data of this</i>	27	22
47	<i>the implementation of the</i>	27	7
48	<i>this research is to</i>	27	21
49	<i>to reference in reference</i>	27	12
50	<i>will be used in</i>	27	18

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>is one of the</i>	43	79
2	<i>of this research is</i>	40	67
3	<i>to find out the</i>	34	54
4	<i>in analyzing the data</i>	33	42
5	<i>in this research the</i>	32	51
6	<i>on the other hand</i>	32	60
7	<i>in the form of</i>	31	58
8	<i>of this study is</i>	30	49

9	<i>in this case the</i>	29	42
10	<i>as cited in reference</i>	28	157
11	<i>reference as cited in</i>	28	133
12	<i>in this research is</i>	27	34
13	<i>to analyze the data</i>	27	39
14	<i>used in this research</i>	27	40
15	<i>reference cited in reference</i>	25	77
16	<i>the data the research</i>	25	34
17	<i>the meaning of the</i>	25	44
18	<i>according to reference quotation</i>	24	40
19	<i>the result of the</i>	24	39
20	<i>this chapter presents the</i>	24	30
21	<i>this research will be</i>	23	28
22	<i>according to reference the</i>	22	36
23	<i>of collecting the data</i>	22	30
24	<i>the data of this</i>	22	27
25	<i>this research the researcher</i>	22	32
26	<i>this study is to</i>	22	25
27	<i>to collect the data</i>	22	28
28	<i>collecting the data the</i>	21	22
29	<i>students of English department</i>	21	62
30	<i>the result of this</i>	21	35
31	<i>this research is expected</i>	21	25
32	<i>this research is to</i>	21	27
33	<i>in order to make</i>	20	40
34	<i>reference according to reference</i>	20	27
35	<i>research is expected to</i>	20	23
36	<i>the data will be</i>	20	40
37	<i>the research question the</i>	20	21
38	<i>was conducted by reference</i>	20	42
39	<i>analyzing the data the</i>	19	22
40	<i>that related to the</i>	19	22
41	<i>based on the background</i>	18	18

42	<i>based on the explanation</i>	18	29
43	<i>will be used in</i>	17	27
44	<i>according to reference as</i>	17	28
45	<i>according to reference in</i>	17	37
46	<i>data of this research</i>	17	26
47	<i>in collecting the data</i>	17	19
48	<i>in the process of</i>	17	30
49	<i>is the study of</i>	17	20
50	<i>is to find out</i>	17	19

### The lowest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>significances in terms of</i>	5	5
2	<i>stated by reference that</i>	5	5
3	<i>statement it can be</i>	5	5
4	<i>that there are several</i>	5	5
5	<i>that there are some</i>	5	5
6	<i>that there are two</i>	5	5
7	<i>that will use in</i>	5	5
8	<i>the background statement above</i>	5	5
9	<i>the data are collected</i>	5	5
10	<i>the data in the</i>	5	5
11	<i>the data is the</i>	5	5
12	<i>the first is the</i>	5	5
13	<i>the first previous study</i>	5	5
14	<i>the form of a</i>	5	5
15	<i>the goal of this</i>	5	5
16	<i>the most important thing</i>	5	5
17	<i>the participant of this</i>	5	5
18	<i>the qualitative method will</i>	5	5
19	<i>the research and the</i>	5	5
20	<i>the research in this</i>	5	5

21	<i>the researcher found that</i>	5	5
22	<i>the researcher tries to</i>	5	5
23	<i>the second previous study</i>	5	5
24	<i>the significance of the</i>	5	5
25	<i>the source of the</i>	5	5
26	<i>the third previous study</i>	5	5
27	<i>theories related to the</i>	5	5
28	<i>there are many studies</i>	5	5
29	<i>there are still some</i>	5	5
30	<i>there are three types</i>	5	5
31	<i>therefore the researcher will</i>	5	5
32	<i>therefore this research is</i>	5	5
33	<i>therefore this research will</i>	5	5
34	<i>this chapter presents a</i>	5	5
35	<i>this research are to</i>	5	5
36	<i>this research is in</i>	5	5
37	<i>this study are students</i>	5	5
38	<i>this study in order</i>	5	5
39	<i>to be analyzed in</i>	5	5
40	<i>to reference qualitative research</i>	5	5
41	<i>to solve problems</i>	5	5
42	<i>to the meaning of</i>	5	5
43	<i>used to measure the</i>	5	5
44	<i>wants to find out</i>	5	5
45	<i>which deal with this</i>	5	5
46	<i>which will be used</i>	5	5
47	<i>will be analyzed by</i>	5	5
48	<i>will help us to</i>	5	5
49	<i>writing according to reference</i>	5	5
50	<i>written by name the</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
----	---------	-------	-----------



1	<i>the result of translation</i>	5	7
2	<i>the second previous study</i>	5	5
3	<i>the significance of the</i>	5	5
4	<i>the source of the</i>	5	5
5	<i>the story of the</i>	5	6
6	<i>the students ability in</i>	5	7
7	<i>the students will be</i>	5	6
8	<i>the target language as</i>	5	6
9	<i>the target language the</i>	5	6
10	<i>the theory of reference</i>	5	8
11	<i>the third previous study</i>	5	5
12	<i>theories related to the</i>	5	5
13	<i>there are many studies</i>	5	5
14	<i>there are still some</i>	5	5
15	<i>there are three kinds</i>	5	6
16	<i>there are three types</i>	5	5
17	<i>therefore the researcher will</i>	5	5
18	<i>therefore the researcher is</i>	5	5
19	<i>therefore this research will</i>	5	5
20	<i>they are going to</i>	5	6
21	<i>this chapter presents a</i>	5	5
22	<i>this research are to</i>	5	5
23	<i>this research is aimed</i>	5	7
24	<i>this research is in</i>	5	5
25	<i>this research will focus</i>	5	6
26	<i>this study are students</i>	5	5
27	<i>this study in order</i>	5	5
28	<i>this study is the</i>	5	6
29	<i>this study will focus</i>	5	6
30	<i>this study will use</i>	5	8
31	<i>to be analyzed in</i>	5	5
32	<i>to be the participants</i>	5	6
33	<i>to find out what</i>	5	6

34	<i>to reference qualitative research</i>	5	5
35	<i>to reference quotation it</i>	5	6
36	<i>to solve the problems</i>	5	5
37	<i>to the meaning of</i>	5	5
38	<i>to the study of</i>	5	6
39	<i>used to measure the</i>	5	5
40	<i>using reference's theory of</i>	5	9
41	<i>wants to find out</i>	5	5
42	<i>what they want to</i>	5	7
43	<i>when it comes to</i>	5	18
44	<i>which deal with this</i>	5	5
45	<i>which will be used</i>	5	5
46	<i>will be analyzed by</i>	5	5
47	<i>will help us to</i>	5	5
48	<i>word for word translation</i>	5	47
49	<i>writing according to reference</i>	5	5
50	<i>written by name the</i>	5	5

### Five Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 247**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 2258**

### The highest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Freq	Range
1	<i>reference as cited in reference</i>	133	28
2	<i>it can be concluded that</i>	29	12
3	<i>of this research is to</i>	26	21
4	<i>according to reference in reference</i>	25	11
5	<i>in front of the class</i>	25	6
6	<i>according to reference as cited</i>	24	13
7	<i>to reference as cited in</i>	23	12
8	<i>this research is expected to</i>	23	19
9	<i>of this study is to</i>	21	19

10	<i>in this research the researcher</i>	20	16
11	<i>according to reference cited in</i>	19	12
12	<i>cited in reference stated that</i>	19	12
13	<i>it can be said that</i>	19	9
14	<i>study was conducted by reference</i>	19	8
15	<i>to reference cited in reference</i>	19	12
16	<i>in this study the researcher</i>	18	10
17	<i>the data of this research</i>	18	14
18	<i>in analyzing the data the</i>	17	16
19	<i>in order to make the</i>	17	12
20	<i>in this case the researcher</i>	17	15
21	<i>technique of collecting the data</i>	17	12
22	<i>the result of this study</i>	17	11
23	<i>the data the researcher will</i>	16	11
24	<i>the participant of this research</i>	16	11
25	<i>the teaching and learning process</i>	16	10
26	<i>based on the explanation above</i>	15	14
27	<i>the students of English department</i>	15	11
28	<i>will be used in this</i>	15	14
29	<i>data collection and data analysis</i>	14	14
30	<i>as cited in reference stated</i>	13	6
31	<i>in teaching and learning process</i>	13	6
32	<i>pre test and post test</i>	13	6
33	<i>the result of this research</i>	13	11
34	<i>analyzing the data the researcher</i>	12	11
35	<i>as the source of data</i>	12	7
36	<i>be sued in this research</i>	12	11
37	<i>cited in reference state that</i>	12	9
38	<i>English department universitas negeri Gorontalo</i>	12	7
39	<i>is to find out the</i>	12	10
40	<i>previous study was conducted by</i>	12	5
41	<i>this study focuses on the</i>	12	12
42	<i>to speak in front of</i>	12	6

43	<i>based on reference's theory that</i>	11	6
44	<i>chapter also provides some previous</i>	11	11
45	<i>conducted by reference entitled name</i>	11	5
46	<i>listening speaking reading and writing</i>	11	9
47	<i>on the other hand reference</i>	11	8
48	<i>research is expected to be</i>	11	11
49	<i>research was conducted by reference</i>	11	6
50	<i>study is to find out</i>	11	11

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>reference as cited in reference</i>	28	133
2	<i>of this research is to</i>	21	26
3	<i>of this study is to</i>	19	21
4	<i>this research is expected to</i>	19	22
5	<i>in analyzing the data the</i>	16	17
6	<i>in this research the researcher</i>	16	20
7	<i>in this case the researcher</i>	15	17
8	<i>based on the explanation above</i>	14	15
9	<i>data collection and data analysis</i>	14	14
10	<i>the data of this research</i>	14	18
11	<i>will be used in this</i>	14	15
12	<i>according to reference as cited</i>	13	24
13	<i>according to reference cited in</i>	12	19
14	<i>cited in reference stated that</i>	12	19
15	<i>in order to make the</i>	12	17
16	<i>it can be concluded that</i>	12	29
17	<i>technique of collecting the data</i>	12	17
18	<i>this study focuses on the</i>	12	12
19	<i>to reference as cited in</i>	12	23
20	<i>to reference as cited in reference</i>	12	19
21	<i>according to reference in reference</i>	11	25
22	<i>analyzing the data the researcher</i>	11	12

23	<i>be used in this research</i>	11	12
24	<i>chapter also provides some previous</i>	11	11
25	<i>research is expected to be</i>	11	11
26	<i>study is to find out</i>	11	11
27	<i>technique of collecting data and</i>	11	11
28	<i>the data the researcher will</i>	11	16
29	<i>the participants of this research</i>	11	16
30	<i>the result of this research</i>	11	13
31	<i>the result of this study</i>	11	17
32	<i>the students of English department</i>	11	15
33	<i>this chapter also provides some</i>	11	11
34	<i>also provides some previous studies</i>	10	10
35	<i>in this step the data</i>	10	10
36	<i>in this study the researcher</i>	10	18
37	<i>is to find out the</i>	10	12
38	<i>the teaching and learning process</i>	10	16
39	<i>used in this research is</i>	10	11
40	<i>a brief overview of research</i>	9	9
41	<i>cited in reference state that</i>	9	12
42	<i>data and source of data</i>	9	9
43	<i>issues related to data collection</i>	9	9
44	<i>it can be said that</i>	9	19
45	<i>listening speaking reading and writing</i>	9	11
46	<i>main issues related to data</i>	9	9
47	<i>that will be used in</i>	9	9
48	<i>the data will be analyzed</i>	9	11
49	<i>the main issues related to</i>	9	9
50	<i>the reason why the researcher</i>	9	9

#### The lowest 50

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Freq	Range
1	<i>aim of this research is</i>	5	5

2	<i>and technique of analyzing data</i>	5	5
3	<i>are in the form of</i>	5	5
4	<i>as cited in reference also</i>	5	5
5	<i>as cited in reference defined</i>	5	5
6	<i>based on the background above</i>	5	5
7	<i>based on the background statement</i>	5	5
8	<i>based on the problem statement</i>	5	5
9	<i>based on the research problem</i>	5	5
10	<i>brief overview of research design</i>	5	5
11	<i>by research method used in</i>	5	5
12	<i>can be seen in the</i>	5	5
13	<i>chapter presents the theories related</i>	5	5
14	<i>cited in reference states that</i>	5	5
15	<i>data in the form of</i>	5	5
16	<i>data in this research is</i>	5	5
17	<i>design followed by research method</i>	5	5
18	<i>English as a foreign language</i>	5	5
19	<i>focuses on the following research</i>	5	5
20	<i>followed by research method used</i>	5	5
21	<i>in order to achieve the</i>	5	5
22	<i>in reference there are three</i>	5	5
23	<i>in the form of a</i>	5	5
24	<i>in this study in order</i>	5	5
25	<i>it is supported by reference</i>	5	5
26	<i>it will help us to</i>	5	5
27	<i>objective of this study is</i>	5	5
28	<i>of English department universitas negeri</i>	5	5
29	<i>of this research are to</i>	5	5
30	<i>of this research is qualitative</i>	5	5
31	<i>of this study can be</i>	5	5
32	<i>on the background statement above</i>	5	5
33	<i>order to find out the</i>	5	5
34	<i>overview of research design followed</i>	5	5

35	<i>qualitative method will be used</i>	5	5
36	<i>reference cited in reference the</i>	5	5
37	<i>related to the study of</i>	5	5
38	<i>research is to find out</i>	5	5
39	<i>research significances in terms of</i>	5	5
40	<i>research the researcher will use</i>	5	5
41	<i>that related to the topic</i>	5	5
42	<i>the limitation of this study</i>	5	5
43	<i>the object of research in</i>	5	5
44	<i>the qualitative method will be</i>	5	5
45	<i>the research question of this</i>	5	5
46	<i>the researcher will classify the</i>	5	5
47	<i>this chapter presents the research</i>	5	5
48	<i>this research is to find</i>	5	5
49	<i>this study in order to</i>	5	5
50	<i>which will be used in</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>in order to achieve the</i>	5	5
2	<i>in reference there are three</i>	5	5
3	<i>in the form of a</i>	5	5
4	<i>in this research the writer</i>	5	6
5	<i>in this study in order</i>	5	5
6	<i>is the study of the</i>	5	6
7	<i>it is supported by reference</i>	5	5
8	<i>it will help us to</i>	5	5
9	<i>language into the target language</i>	5	9
10	<i>objective of this study is</i>	5	5
11	<i>of data in this research</i>	5	6
12	<i>of English department universitas negeri</i>	5	5
13	<i>of this research are to</i>	5	5
14	<i>of this research is qualitative</i>	5	5

15	<i>of this study can be</i>	5	5
16	<i>on the background statement above</i>	5	5
17	<i>order to find out the</i>	5	5
18	<i>overview of research design followed</i>	5	5
19	<i>previous study was conducted by</i>	5	12
20	<i>qualitative method will be used</i>	5	5
21	<i>reference cited in reference stated</i>	5	6
22	<i>reference cited in reference the</i>	5	5
23	<i>related to the study of</i>	5	5
24	<i>research is to find out</i>	5	5
25	<i>research significances in terms of</i>	5	5
26	<i>research the researcher will use</i>	5	5
27	<i>speaking is one of the</i>	5	7
28	<i>students of English department in</i>	5	10
29	<i>that can be used to</i>	5	6
30	<i>that related to the topic</i>	5	5
31	<i>the limitation of this study</i>	5	5
32	<i>the object of research in</i>	5	5
33	<i>the objective of the study</i>	5	6
34	<i>the qualitative method will be</i>	5	5
35	<i>the research question of this</i>	5	5
36	<i>the researcher will ask the</i>	5	6
37	<i>the researcher will classify the</i>	5	5
38	<i>the researcher will use the</i>	5	8
39	<i>the result of this study</i>	5	9
40	<i>there are three kinds of</i>	5	6
41	<i>this chapter presents the research</i>	5	5
42	<i>this research is aimed to</i>	5	7
43	<i>this research is to find</i>	5	5
44	<i>this study can be used</i>	5	6
45	<i>this study in order to</i>	5	5
46	<i>this study is a qualitative</i>	5	6
47	<i>used in this research are</i>	5	6



48	<i>used to analysed the data</i>	5	6
49	<i>was conducted by reference in</i>	5	7
50	<i>which will be used in</i>	5	5

#### Six Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 81**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 589**

**The highest 50**

**Based on Frequency**

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>according to reference as cited in</i>	23	12
2	<i>to reference as cited in reference</i>	23	12
3	<i>according to reference cited in reference</i>	19	12
4	<i>previous study was conducted by reference</i>	12	5
5	<i>will be used in this research</i>	12	11
6	<i>as cited in reference stated that</i>	11	6
7	<i>this chapter also provides some previous</i>	11	11
8	<i>this research is expected to be</i>	11	11
9	<i>chapter also provides some previous studies</i>	10	10
10	<i>in analyzing the data the researcher</i>	10	9
11	<i>in this case the researcher will</i>	9	8
12	<i>it can be concluded that the</i>	9	8
13	<i>main issues related to the data collection</i>	9	9
14	<i>the data the researcher will use</i>	9	7
15	<i>the main issues related to the data</i>	8	9
16	<i>as cited in reference state that</i>	8	6
17	<i>in this study the researcher will</i>	8	5
18	<i>issues related to the data collection and</i>	8	8
19	<i>reference as cited in reference quotation</i>	8	6
20	<i>reference as cited in reference state</i>	8	6
21	<i>related to the data collection and data</i>	8	8
22	<i>study is to find out the</i>	8	8
23	<i>the technique of collecting the data</i>	8	7
24	<i>to data collection and data analysis</i>	8	8

25	<i>aim of this study is to</i>	7	7
26	<i>also presents the research question the</i>	7	7
27	<i>analyzing the data the researcher will</i>	7	6
28	<i>as cited in reference there are</i>	7	6
29	<i>by reference with the title name</i>	7	6
30	<i>data collection and data analysis this</i>	7	7
31	<i>objective of this research is to</i>	7	7
32	<i>of collecting data and technique of</i>	7	7
33	<i>purpose of this research is to</i>	7	7
34	<i>technique of collecting data and technique</i>	7	7
35	<i>the aim of this study is</i>	7	7
36	<i>the objective of this research is</i>	7	7
37	<i>the researcher will collect the data</i>	7	6
38	<i>the theories related to this research</i>	7	7
39	<i>the theory that related to the</i>	7	7
40	<i>this chapter also presents the research</i>	7	7
41	<i>based on the background of the</i>	6	6
42	<i>based on the explanation above the</i>	6	6
43	<i>chapter also presents the research question</i>	6	6
44	<i>in terms of theoretical and practical</i>	6	6
45	<i>in this research the researcher will</i>	6	5
46	<i>of this study is to find</i>	6	6
47	<i>reference as cited in reference states</i>	6	6
48	<i>reference as cited in reference there</i>	6	5
49	<i>reference cited in reference stated that</i>	6	5
50	<i>the data of this research are</i>	6	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>according to reference as cited in</i>	12	23
2	<i>according to reference cited in reference</i>	12	19
3	<i>to reference as cited in reference</i>	12	23
4	<i>this chapter also provides some previous</i>	11	11

5	<i>this research is expected to be</i>	11	11
6	<i>will be used in this research</i>	11	12
7	<i>chapter also provides some previous studies</i>	10	10
8	<i>in analyzing the data the researcher</i>	9	10
9	<i>main issues related to the data collection</i>	9	9
10	<i>the main issues related to the data</i>	9	9
11	<i>in this case the researcher will</i>	8	9
12	<i>issues related to the data collection and</i>	8	8
13	<i>it can be concluded that the</i>	8	9
14	<i>related to the data collection and data</i>	8	8
15	<i>study is to find out the</i>	8	8
16	<i>to data collection and data analysis</i>	8	8
17	<i>aim of this study is to</i>	7	7
18	<i>also presents the research question the</i>	7	7
19	<i>data collection and data analysis this</i>	7	7
20	<i>objective of this research is to</i>	7	7
21	<i>of collecting data and technique of</i>	7	7
22	<i>purpose of this research is to</i>	7	7
23	<i>technique of collecting data and technique</i>	7	7
24	<i>the aim of this study is</i>	7	7
25	<i>the data the research will use</i>	7	9
26	<i>the objective of this research is</i>	7	7
27	<i>the technique of collecting the data</i>	7	8
28	<i>the theories related to this research</i>	7	7
29	<i>the theory that related to the</i>	7	7
30	<i>this chapter also presents the research</i>	7	7
31	<i>analyzing the data the researcher will</i>	6	7
32	<i>as cited in reference state that</i>	6	8
33	<i>as cited in reference stated that</i>	6	11
34	<i>as cited in reference there are</i>	6	7
35	<i>based on the background of the</i>	6	6
36	<i>based on the explanation above the</i>	6	6
37	<i>by reference with the title name</i>	6	7

38	<i>chapter also presents the research question</i>	6	6
39	<i>in terms of theoretical and practical</i>	6	6
40	<i>of this study is to find</i>	6	6
41	<i>reference as cited in reference quotation</i>	6	8
42	<i>reference as cited in reference state</i>	6	8
43	<i>reference as cited in reference states</i>	6	6
44	<i>the purpose of this research is</i>	6	6
45	<i>the researcher will collect the data</i>	6	7
46	<i>the source of data in this</i>	6	6
47	<i>this study is to find out</i>	6	6
48	<i>a brief overview of research design</i>	5	5
49	<i>as cited in reference states that</i>	5	5
50	<i>as the object of this research</i>	5	5

### The lowest 31

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>the purpose of this research is</i>	6	6
2	<i>the source of data in this</i>	6	6
3	<i>this study is to find out</i>	6	6
4	<i>a brief overview of research design</i>	5	5
5	<i>as cited in reference states that</i>	5	5
6	<i>as the object of this research</i>	5	5
7	<i>based on the background statement above</i>	5	5
8	<i>by research method used in this</i>	5	5
9	<i>chapter presents the theories related to</i>	5	5
10	<i>collecting data and technique of analyzing</i>	5	5
11	<i>data and technique of analyzing data</i>	5	5
12	<i>design followed by research method used</i>	5	5
13	<i>followed by research method used in</i>	5	5
14	<i>in order to find out the</i>	5	5
15	<i>in this study in order to</i>	5	5
16	<i>is expected to be useful for</i>	5	5

17	<i>of English department universitas negeri Gorontalo</i>	5	5
18	<i>of research design followed by research</i>	5	5
19	<i>of this research is to find</i>	5	5
20	<i>overview of research design followed by</i>	5	5
21	<i>reference as cited in reference also</i>	5	5
22	<i>reference as cited in reference defined</i>	5	5
23	<i>research design followed by research method</i>	5	5
24	<i>research method used in this research</i>	5	5
25	<i>technique of collecting the data and</i>	5	5
26	<i>the will be used in this</i>	5	5
27	<i>the aim of this research is</i>	5	5
28	<i>this chapter presents the theories related</i>	5	5
29	<i>this research is to find out</i>	5	5
30	<i>this research the researcher will use</i>	5	5
31	<i>which will be used in this</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>based on the background statement above</i>	5	5
2	<i>by research method used in this</i>	5	5
3	<i>chapter presents the theories related to</i>	5	5
4	<i>collecting data and technique of analyzing</i>	5	5
5	<i>data and technique of analyzing data</i>	5	5
6	<i>design followed by research method used</i>	5	5
7	<i>followed by research method used in</i>	5	5
8	<i>in order to find out the</i>	5	5
9	<i>in this research the researcher will</i>	5	6
10	<i>in this study in order to</i>	5	5
11	<i>in this study the researcher will</i>	5	8
12	<i>is expected to be useful for</i>	5	5
13	<i>of English department universitas negeri Gorontalo</i>	5	5
14	<i>of research design followed by research</i>	5	5
15	<i>of this research is to find</i>	5	5

16	<i>overview of research design followed by</i>	5	5
17	<i>previous study was conducted by reference</i>	5	12
18	<i>reference as cited in reference also</i>	5	5
19	<i>reference as cited in reference defined</i>	5	5
20	<i>reference as cited in reference there</i>	5	6
21	<i>reference cited in reference stated that</i>	5	6
22	<i>research design followed by research method</i>	5	5
23	<i>research method used in this research</i>	5	5
24	<i>technique of collecting the data and</i>	5	5
25	<i>that will be used in this</i>	5	5
26	<i>the aim of this research is</i>	5	5
27	<i>the data of this research are</i>	5	6
28	<i>this chapter presents the theories related</i>	5	5
29	<i>this research is to find out</i>	5	5
30	<i>this research the researcher will use</i>	5	5
31	<i>which will be used in this</i>	5	5

#### Seven Words

**Total No. of N-Gram Types is 26**

**Total No. of N-Gram Tokens is 182**

#### Based on Frequency

No	N Grams	Frequency	Range
1	<i>according to reference as cited in reference</i>	23	12
2	<i>this chapter also provides some previous studies</i>	10	10
3	<i>the main issues related to data collection</i>	9	9
4	<i>issues related to data collection and data</i>	8	8
5	<i>main issues related to data collection and</i>	8	8
6	<i>reference as cited in reference state that</i>	8	6
7	<i>related to data collection and data analysis</i>	8	8
8	<i>analyzing the data the researcher will use</i>	7	6
9	<i>technique of collecting data and technique of</i>	7	7
10	<i>the aim of this study is to</i>	7	7
11	<i>chapter also presents the research question the</i>	6	6
12	<i>in analyzing the data the researcher will</i>	6	5

13	<i>of this study is to find out</i>	6	6
14	<i>reference as cited in reference there are</i>	6	5
15	<i>the objective of this research is to</i>	6	6
16	<i>the purpose of this research is to</i>	6	6
17	<i>this chapter also presents the research question</i>	6	6
18	<i>collecting data and technique of analyzing data</i>	5	5
19	<i>design followed by research method used in</i>	5	5
20	<i>followed by research method used in this</i>	5	5
21	<i>of collecting data and technique of analyzing</i>	5	5
22	<i>of this research is to find out</i>	5	5
23	<i>reference as cited in reference states that</i>	5	5
24	<i>research design followed by research method used</i>	5	5
25	<i>this chapter presents the theories related to</i>	5	5
26	<i>to data collection and data analysis this</i>	5	5

#### Based on Range

No	N Grams	Range	Frequency
1	<i>according to reference as cited in reference</i>	12	23
2	<i>this chapter also provides some previous studies</i>	10	10
3	<i>the main issues related to data collection</i>	9	9
4	<i>issues related to data collection and data</i>	8	8
5	<i>main issues related to data collection and</i>	8	8
6	<i>related to data collection and data analysis</i>	8	8
7	<i>technique of collecting data and technique of</i>	7	7
8	<i>the aim of this study is to</i>	7	7
9	<i>analyzing the data the researcher will use</i>	6	7
10	<i>chapter also presents the research question the</i>	6	6
11	<i>of this study is to find out</i>	6	6
12	<i>reference as cited in reference state that</i>	6	8
13	<i>the objective of this research is to</i>	6	6
14	<i>the purpose of this research is to</i>	6	6
15	<i>this chapter also presents the research question</i>	6	6
16	<i>collecting data and technique of analyzing data</i>	5	5

17	<i>design followed by research method used in</i>	5	5
18	<i>followed by research method used in this</i>	5	5
19	<i>in analyzing the data the researcher will</i>	5	6
20	<i>of collecting data and technique of analyzing</i>	5	5
21	<i>of this research is to find out</i>	5	5
22	<i>reference as cited in reference states that</i>	5	5
23	<i>reference as cited in reference there are</i>	5	6
24	<i>research design followed by research method used</i>	5	5
25	<i>this chapter presents the theories related to</i>	5	5
26	<i>to data collection and data analysis this</i>	5	5