

Using Contrastive Analysis (CA) to Promote Conceptualisation of English Sentence Patterns in The Malaysian ESL Classroom

DAVID T. TEH

Te Puna Wananga

Faculty of Education and Social Work

University of Auckland

ABSTRACT

Conventionally, the first language (L1) is regarded as a source of interference in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom. But the use of the L1 has been recorded in Malaysian ESL classroom, with many supporting the use of L1 to teach English. This paper examined the use of Contrastive Analysis (CA) of Mandarin Chinese and English as a pedagogic approach to promote conceptualisation of the English sentence patterns among Malaysian ESL learners, 7 respondents from a school in Sabah were recruited as participants of a study. An Error Analysis task, which served as a form of Need Analysis, was administered to identify a particular language learning need. In particular, the Need Analysis determined the participants' ability to: (i) identify grammatical errors, (ii) justify rectifications of said errors. Then, the intervention programme, based on the concepts of Structural/Taxonomic Model and also Shi's (2002) Contrastive Analysis of English and Mandarin Chinese, was administered to the participants. Sandwiching this intervention programme are the Pre-, Post- and a Delayed Posttest, intending to examine the use of CA of English and Mandarin Chinese. Qualitative data was also obtained from the participants in the form of Reflective Logs, in which they provided feedback regarding the use of the CA-oriented intervention programme while input from the teacher was recorded in the lesson plans. Statistically, the findings indicated that CA helped to improve participants' ability to detect grammatical errors, but less so when it comes to explaining or justifying them. The participants were receptive towards the idea of learning English sentence structures with the use of Mandarin Chinese, as the use of L1 helped them to conceptualise sentence patterns better. These findings highlighted some implications for future considerations. There is a need to reconsider how English is learnt, taught and assessed, as well as how teachers ought to be equipped to address an increasingly multilingual ESL classroom in Malaysia.

KEYWORDS: contrastive analysis; structural/taxonomic model; sentence pattern

Introduction

Despite its negative image as an outdated and a minimalist approach to language teaching, the use of the First Language (L1) in the English as a Second Language (L2) classroom has undergone some revival in recent decades. The use of translation, for example, is garnering more traction and popularity, especially in countries of the outer and expanding circle

(Carroll & Sambollin Morales, 2016; Debreli & Oyman, 2016; Hwang, 1994; Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Shabir, 2017; Torre, 2014).

Unsurprisingly, the use of L1 as a means to teach English as a L2 is not a new notion in Malaysia. Recent studies have explored the role of Malay (Abdul Aziz & Mohd Don, 2014; Benson et al., 2001; Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020; Darmi et al., 2018; Hiew, 2012; Ong & Tajuddin, 2020) and Mandarin Chinese (Hwang, 1994; Philip et al., 2019; Tan, 2019; Wong, 2012) as L1 in the Malaysian ESL classroom. There are also suggestions for teachers to use their students' L1 to clarify unfamiliar vocabularies during lessons (Hiew, 2012).

Similarly, L1 in the ESL classroom is also best complemented with the use of bilingual dictionaries and thesauruses, as many agreed with the use of L1 to promote comprehension of a literary text (Hiew, 2012). Teachers are, therefore, encouraged to paraphrase English phrases in Malay or Mandarin to promote comprehension and understanding when it comes to difficult words and phrases (Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020; Darmi et al., 2018; Hwang & Embi, 2007; Ong & Tajuddin, 2020; Sowell, 2016). Another study indicates that "Malaysian students tend to rely on their L1 when writing" to "formulate strategies at different stages" (Stapa, 2008, p.158) as learners find this helpful when they try to articulate their ideas. To some extent, the findings are congruent with previous literature where advance students tend to use the L1 to:

- (i) Generate ideas/content
- (ii) Monitor language use;
- (iii) Source lexical items

(Wang & Wen, 2002, as cited in Stapa, 2008, p.150)

However, very few studies look into using L1 to teach sentence patterns in English, especially within the Malaysian ESL setting. Learners' inability to make sense of rules and structures easily demotivates them from learning English in a fully immersive L2 learning environment (Jumal et al., 2019; Li, 2011; Sowell, 2016; Yong, 2010). For these learners, L1 is useful in helping them to conceptualise L2 structures, especially when differences between these languages impede understanding of meaning and grammar. In essence, this study intends to demonstrate a practical application of Contrastive Analysis (CA) for pedagogical purposes in Malaysian English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom.

Contrastive Analysis (CA)

One language learning theory that involves the use of L1 is Contrastive Analysis (CA). By definition, CA compares, contrasts and studies the linguistic relationship between languages which could promote language acquisition and language learning methodologically and structurally (Gilquin, 2000; James, 1980; Willems et al., 2003). Because of its emphasis on comparing and contrasting language structures, CA is a prime candidate in a grammar or structure-focused language pedagogical approach. Theoretically, making distinctions and noticing similarities between languages could heighten language awareness among learners. They would have acquired the knowledge of what linguistic patterns that are transferable and non-transferable between languages (Gilquin, 2000; James, 1980; Willems et al., 2003). Drawing from the theoretical foundations of Structuralism, language is viewed as finite, usually minimalised and simplified in the process of acquisition (James, 1980). This is because, without pre-determined boundaries or parameters attached, the study of language could be immensely time-consuming and cost-inefficient.

Structural-Taxonomic Model (STM)

Among the many CA models that have been developed over the years, the Structural-Taxonomic Model (STM) is the most promising. The STM model enables the measurement of differences in grammatical structure and establishes the maximum difference or similarity between two language systems (James, 1980). It does not heavily involve complex transformations of syntax and morphological patterns, unlike the more contemporary Chomskyan models. Generally, there are two major procedures in STM.

Step 1: Describing the surface structure

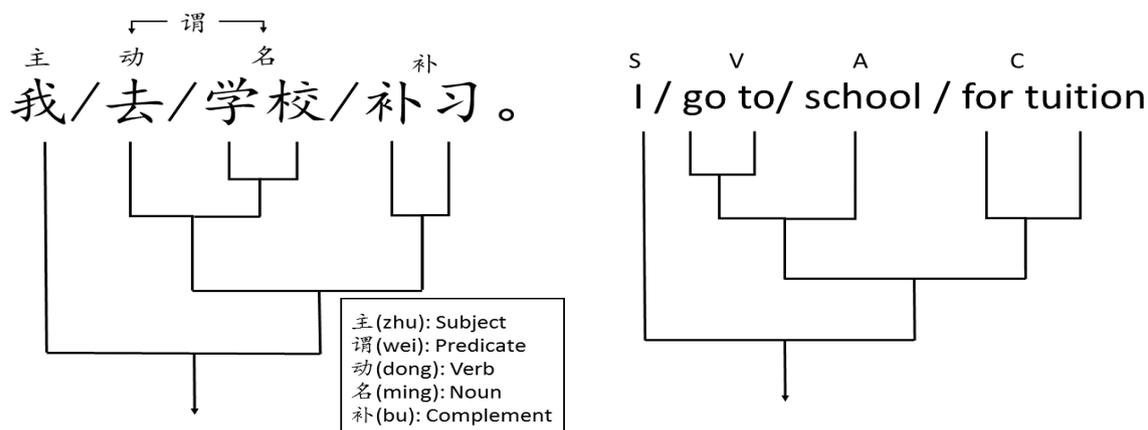
The first step is to first parse the sentences in the L1 and L2 into parts of speech:

L1: Mandarin Chinese – 我去学校补习(I-go-learn-school-[repair-practice])

L2: English – I go to school for tuition

Figure 1

Sentence Parsing in Structural/Taxonomic Model (Mandarin Chinese & English)



First is to manipulate the surface structure of the sentence. The example given above has 4 constituents, which correlate to the sentence pattern S-V-A-C (Figure 1). Based on the analysis, the Verb Phrase and the Adverbial constituents combine to form the primary branch of the Predicate. The “reason” that explains these two constituents is added into the sentence as the Complement being the third constituent. Lastly, the Verb Phrase, Adverbial and Complement Constituent combine to form the Predicate, co-existing with the Subject head of the sentence.

The parsing of this sentence is first conducted entirely in Mandarin Chinese before its key components are translated. This is to mitigate any bias when examining a language from a different point-of-view. Based on the analysis here, the sentence pattern given here is S-V-C (Figure 1). The ^{wèi yǔ}谓 语, which refers to the Predicate or the Proposition, is slightly different from the English Predicate, in the sense that the Intransitive Verb and the Adverbial of place/location are ingrained as a whole instead of being treated as distinct constituents. The primary constituent of the Predicate is the combination of the Verb and the Noun Constituent, which is then supplemented with the Complement Constituent. In turn, the compound constituents of the Predicate combine with the Subject to form the sentence. This sentence

also has 4 constituents. To summarise, the sentence has 4 constituents, thus yielding the formulaic expression:

Figure 2

Example of a STM Formulaic Expression

Pronoun + Verb_(Intransitive) + Adverbial_(Location) + Noun Phrase_(Complement)

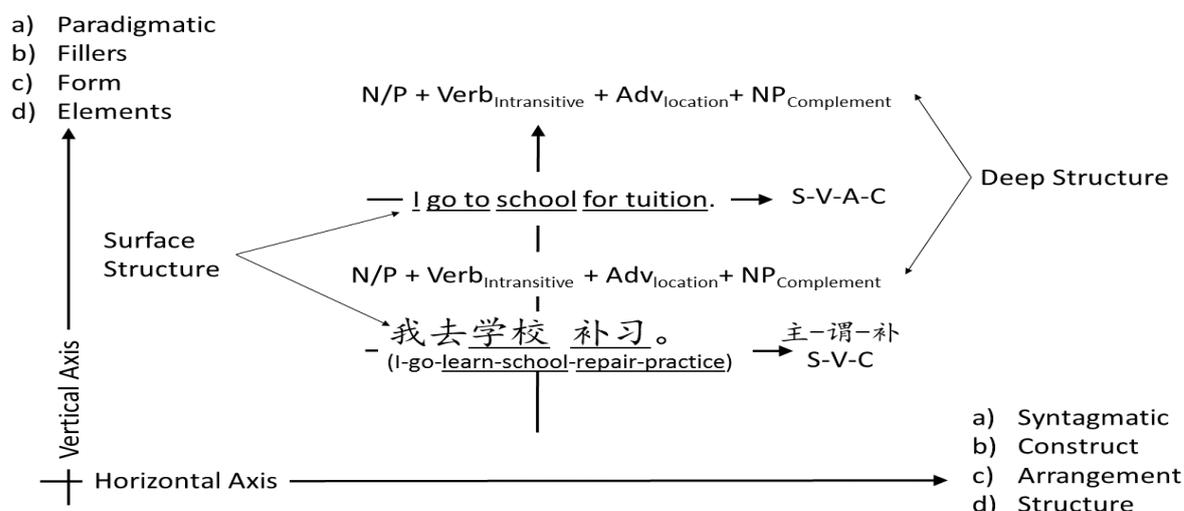
Step 2: Analysing the deep structure

The next step is analysing the constituents of the sentences vertically. James (1980) stated that the STM requires a “common ground” (p.39) for comparison and contrast, which is achieved by identifying the devices for “form and arrangement” (Fries, 1952, as cited in James, 1980, p.39). In this example, English and Mandarin Chinese are seemingly similar in the use of:

- “function words” –
 - a. signifiers of elements likely to precede or follow content words
- “arrangement” –
 - a. the relative order of elements in constructions

(James, 1980, p.39)

Based on the formulaic expression (Figure 2), one can theoretically substitute words or phrases of similar category or class into the expression without jeopardising the overall syntactical structure of the sentence. Hence, the probability of making grammatically unsound sentences is reduced. However, this technique places little emphasis on the semantic value of constituents, hence the validity and reliability of the translated meaning fall upon the translator. In Figure 3, the products of the Vertical Axis of both sentences are compared and contrasted. In the example, the two sentences (in English and Mandarin Chinese) share almost identical deep structures, with most of their forms and elements having equivalents. Armed with this information, one can exploit these two sentence structures for pedagogical purposes. Using the obtained formulaic expression (Figure 2) and deep structure (Figure 3) as a blueprint, one can construct sentences of different meanings while adhering to the syntactical requirements of sound grammar.

Figure 3*STM Analysis of Mandarin Chinese and English Sentence Structure*

In summary, the STM model is used to design the intervention programme of this study. This allows the study to answer the following research questions:

- I. Does CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) promote the conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among Malaysian ESL learners?
- II. What are the factors or elements:
 - a. may make CA a useful approach to teaching English sentence patterns with the use of Mandarin Chinese?
 - b. may not make CA a useful approach to teaching English sentence patterns with the use of Mandarin Chinese?

Methodology

This study primarily adopts a classroom-based action research framework (Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019), where its primary focus is on understanding how the use of CA may impact on language learning, and what factors may make it useful in the Malaysian classroom setting. At the same time, this study identified a specific classroom issue through the use of needs analysis, which is a hallmark of classroom research with an action research orientation. This allows teachers to iteratively improve classroom practice (Korkmaz, 2017), which is crucial for one's professional development.

This is, therefore, a small scale study, where it only involves a total of 7 participants: 4 females and 3 males. These participants were recruited from the same school, living in a rural area of Sabah, Malaysia, aged between 14 and 15. They come from Chinese and mixed-Chinese descent, growing up in an environment that predominantly uses a localised variant of Malay, and surrounded by a large Hakka speaking community. In any case, English is not their first language, often their 3rd or 4th language. They are proficient in Hakka dialect, as this is their mother tongue and heritage language, while they have learnt Mandarin Chinese formally in schools and use them extensively when speaking to their peers. All 7 participants unanimously agree that their dominant and first language is Mandarin Chinese. For these reasons, there is no real purpose and need to use English in the community, other than to learn it in an academic setting. Hence, one key observation here is that the

participants displayed little to no progress in their English proficiency. This could be attributed to the environment that the participants were situated in. Subsequently, the objective of this study is to explore how the use of CA can be helpful in a learning environment that is deprived of exposure to the English language.

There are two stages in this study. The first stage involves adopting the precepts of CA and applying them in a series of research lessons (see *Appendix 3 & 4* for sample lessons) that comprises of two cycles. Sandwiching these two cycles, the pre-, post- and delayed posttest were also administered to the participants. The data obtained here is quantitative in nature. In the next stage, the participants provided feedback about what they think and feel about the research lessons, where their L1, Mandarin Chinese, was incorporated and used. Qualitative data is collected through reflective logs by a participating teacher and the student-participants (see *Appendix 1 & 2*).

Quantitative Data

To answer research question I, a working hypothesis was proposed to see how CA can be used as a L2 language learning approach:

H: CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) does promote the conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among learners

Error Analysis (EA), commonly associated with CA, was adopted as the central mechanism for the needs analysis, Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest. EA allows the study to measure and evaluate the participants' prior and subsequent conceptualisation of English sentence patterns. Operationally, EA manifests as an Error Identification exercise with broad themes, where participants were expected to:

- (i) *identify the distortions or deviations in a given text*
- (ii) *rectify and provide viable justification for the correction for each distortion or deviation identified.*

The participants would find such exercises familiar as they are exposed to this in their *Pentaksiran Tingkatan Tiga* (PT3) English paper. The Pre-, Posttest and Delayed Posttest adopted the Error Identification test rubric from the English PT3 Section A assessment (see *Appendix 6*). A 200-word text is given to each respondent, where each line contains an error that is not pre-identified. There is a total of 10 errors in each text. Participants were not allowed to refer to peers nor any reference materials during the exercise. To ensure test reliability, the selected texts used for the Error Identification exercises have a Flesch Reading Ease ranging between 82.1% to 87.6% (Table 1).

Table 1

Flesch Reading Ease for Each Text

No.	Error Identification	Flesch Reading Ease (%)
1.	Needs analysis	82.7
2.	Pre-test	87.6
3.	Post-test	82.1
4.	Delayed Post-test	85.7

The answer scheme provided for all four exercises were rated and verified by another language teacher, attaining a preliminary agreement level of 100% for identifying errors and

92.5% for justifying rectifications. Upon discussion and review, the agreement levels for both sections are at 100% and 97.5% respectively (Table 2). The teachers were not able to fully agree on how certain items should be rectified, as they have different opinions about how the particular language pattern should be explained. The findings were then tallied.

Table 2

Level of Agreement between Raters

No.	Error Identification	Preliminary Agreement Level (%)		Final Agreement Level (%)	
		Identifying Errors	Justifying Rectification	Identifying Errors	Justifying Rectification
1.	Needs Analysis	100	100	100	100
2.	Pre-test	100	90	100	100
3.	Post-test	100	80	100	90
4.	Delayed Post-test	100	100	100	100
5.	Average	100	92.5	100	97.5

Operated as Pre-, Post- and Delayed Posttest, the participants' responses in the Error Analysis exercise yielded statistical data that helped to determine if the intervention had successfully promoted conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among the participants. After the participants had completed the Error Analysis exercises, their responses were collected and redistributed randomly to other participants for peer-marking. Collectively, under the teacher's guidance and supervision, they tallied the number of errors that they had managed to identify successfully. Then, participants were interviewed individually to determine the number of errors that they were able to explain successfully and accurately.

Intervention Design

It is worth noting that EA exercise was operationalised as a needs analysis, which aimed to identify the participants' specific language needs. The findings then informed the intervention programme. However, the subject content of the CA-oriented intervention programme was derived from Shi's (2002) synchronic study of Mandarin Chinese. His work described the grammatical structures of Modern Mandarin Chinese, and how it has evolved from Old and Middle Chinese. From this, it became possible to describe the similarities and differences between Modern Mandarin Chinese and Modern English, which in turns allow teachers to utilise this information to inform the CA-oriented intervention programme.

Figure 4

4 Steps & Procedures in Contrastive Analysis (Whitman, 1970)

1. Taking the two languages, L1 and L2, and writing formal descriptions of them
2. Pick forms from the description for contrast
3. Contrasting chosen form
4. Predicting difficulty through the contrast

How a CA-oriented intervention programme should be delivered was drawn from older literature. Whitman (1970) described the steps and procedures involved in CA, which

reflects how a CA approach would appear to be. This is later incorporated throughout the lessons, although it is significantly more prominent in Cycle 2. The programme consists of two cycles:

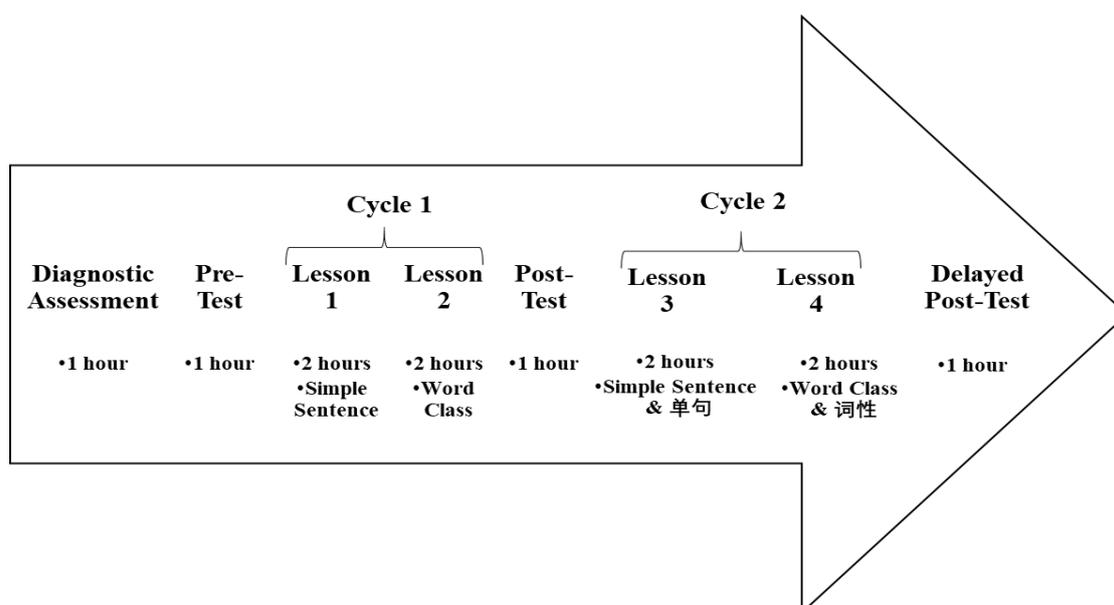
- (i) *Cycle 1* – Introducing and reviewing Simple Sentence and Word Class in English
- (ii) *Cycle 2* – Reviewing and cross-referencing Simple Sentence and Word Class in Mandarin Chinese and in English

The rationale for Cycle 1 is to activate the participants' prior knowledge about the Simple Sentence and Word Class that they should have acquired prior to their participation in this study. Cycle 2 aims to relate and provide linkage between the principles governing the Simple Sentence and Word Class in English with those in Mandarin Chinese.

Intervention Delivery

Figure 5

Intervention Programme Timeline



This study was conducted outside the normal school hours, so the intervention programme was only delivered on a 2-hour long session, occurring once per week. The participants attended a total of four sessions (Figure 5) which spanned across two cycles, sandwiching a posttest in between cycles. The Error Identification exercises required an hour each, so a total of 4 hours was spent on administering the tests and obtaining feedback from the participants. In total, the whole study lasted about 12 hours of face-to-face interaction between the teacher and participants (Figure 5).

Reflective Logs

To answer research question II, qualitative data was also gathered from the participants. These qualitative data were collected in the form of reflective logs (Table 3). Reflections were integral to this study, as they help triangulate quantitative data and raise the trustworthiness of the research findings. The participants were required to complete the reflective log, where they provided feedback about their experience throughout the study (Appendix 1), although their responses were given in English rather than in their L1. They had the opportunity to review their responses before their reflective logs were tabulated.

Table 3

Learners' Reflective Long Template

1. What do you think about learning English without using Mandarin Chinese? a. To what extent is this helpful for you?
2. What do you think about learning English using Mandarin Chinese? a. To what extent is this helpful for you?
3. How would you prefer to learn English? a. Please explain why?
4. What do you like or dislike about the whole programme?

Table 4

Lesson Plan Template with Reflection

Date	:
Time	:
Class	:
Topic	:
Research Stage	:
Learning Outcomes	:
(i)	
(ii)	
Procedures	:
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
Reflection	:

In hindsight, however, insisting that the participants to respond in English may have discouraged them from providing a more in-depth reflection, as they resorted to stringing brief responses. This, in turn, curtailed the study's ability to present a clearer picture of how the participants feel about the CA approach. The teacher's reflections, which were intended as an avenue to observe how the participants respond to a CA-oriented programme, were recorded after each lesson. The reflections were captured using the Lesson Plan Template (Table 4) which were later reorganised into a collective (see *Appendix 2*).

Results

Quantitative Data

The responses that the participants provided during the lessons were tabulated, tallied and recorded. The participants were scored according to how many errors they successfully identified and justified, out of a total of 10 errors per exercise. An average for the cumulative scores for all participants was obtained and presented in Table 5.

Table 5*Needs Analysis Data*

Identifier	Identifying Errors (IE)	Justifying Rectifications (JR)
	($^{dia}\bar{X}_{ie}$)	($^{dia}\bar{X}_{jr}$)
F1	8	1
F2	8	1
F3	8	1
M1	9	1
M2	9	2
M3	7	0
M4	9	8
Mean, \bar{X}	8.29	2.00

$^{dia}\bar{X}_{ie}$: mean score for identifying errors in diagnostic needs analysis
 $^{dia}\bar{X}_{jr}$: mean score for justifying rectifications in diagnostic needs analysis

Clearly, the participants scored relatively well in error identification ($^{dia}\bar{X}_{ie} = 8.29$), indicating that they were competent in identifying language errors. However, they struggled to explain what the errors were and how they should correct the said errors ($^{dia}\bar{X}_{jr} = 2.00$). Conversely, this implies that the participants' ability to identify errors did not stem from their understanding of the English sentence patterns; they instinctively sensed faulty structures in the sentences. This observation was also recorded in the teacher's reflection (see *Appendix 2, Lesson 2*), where participants were observed identifying errors based on what they memorised. This phenomenon is the result of an automated response, akin to that of classical conditioning governed by stimulus-response-reinforcement (SRS) mechanism (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

In summary, the needs analysis (Table 5) and analysis of the teacher's reflection (see *Appendix 2*) indicated that the participants were struggling with: (i) Simple Sentence Structure, and (ii) Word Class, which the intervention programme emphasised on. A month after the needs analysis, the Pretest was administered to the participants.

Table 6 depicts the participants' ability to identify errors. Before the intervention programme began, the participants, on average, managed to identify 7 out of 10 errors accurately ($\text{pre-}\bar{X}_{ie} = 7.43$). After completing the first cycle of the programme, the Posttest was administered and recorded a 50% drop in their proficiency in identifying errors ($\text{post-}\bar{X}_{ie} = 3.71$). Likewise, their ability to justify the correct answers for the said errors also regressed by 51% ($\text{post-}\bar{X}_{ie} = 3.71$; $\text{post-}\bar{X}_{jr} = 2.43$). The participants then underwent a delayed posttest for the CA-oriented Programme after the second cycle was completed. In the delayed posttest (Table 7), they recorded a 2% improvement in identifying errors ($\text{del-}\bar{X}_{ie} = 7.57$) and a 3% drop in justifying their corrections ($\text{del-}\bar{X}_{jr} = 4.57$) of the said errors compared to the pretest data.

Table 6*CA-Oriented Programme Quantitative Data*

Identifier	Pretest		Posttest	
	IE (pre- \bar{X}_{ie})	JR (pre- \bar{X}_{jr})	IE (post- \bar{X}_{ie})	JR (post- \bar{X}_{jr})
F1	7	7	3	3
F2	7	6	5	4
F3	7	2	4	1
M1	7	4	4	2
M2	7	7	4	4
M3	8	0	2	0
M4	9	7	4	3
Mean, \bar{X}	7.43	4.71	3.71	2.43

^{pre-} \bar{X}_{ie} : mean score for identifying errors in pretest
^{pre-} \bar{X}_{jr} : mean score for justifying rectifications in pretest
^{post-} \bar{X}_{ie} : mean score for identifying errors in posttest
^{post-} \bar{X}_{jr} : mean score for justifying rectifications in posttest

Table 7*CA-Oriented Programme with Delayed Posttest*

Identifier	Pretest		Delayed Posttest	
	IE (pre- \bar{X}_{ie})	JR (pre- \bar{X}_{jr})	IE (del- \bar{X}_{ie})	JR (del- \bar{X}_{jr})
F1	7	7	8	7
F2	7	6	7	6
F3	7	2	7	3
M1	7	4	8	3
M2	7	7	8	5
M3	8	0	6	0
M4	9	7	9	8
Mean, \bar{X}	7.43	4.71	7.57	4.57

^{del-} \bar{X}_{ie} : mean score for identifying errors in delayed posttest
^{del-} \bar{X}_{jr} : mean score for justifying rectifications in delayed posttest

As the texts used in the Error Identification exercises have similar Flesch Reading Ease rating, so the pertaining issue is not inherent in the data collection process. The delayed posttest suggests the participants may have required more time to adapt to a CA approach, but this data alone cannot conclusively accept or reject the working hypothesis. As the sample size in this study is fairly small, the findings are not statistically significant, meaning that the interpretation of this quantitative data requires triangulation of other data.

Qualitative Data

There are two modes of qualitative data in this study; the first being learners' reflective log, and the second being the teacher's reflection after each lesson. Most participants agree with the use of Mandarin Chinese when learning English, believing that it helps them to understand the sentence patterns and the word class better. They indicated a strong preference for learning English with the use of Mandarin Chinese. It is also noteworthy that

an additional question was added into the reflective log (see *Appendix 1*), as opposed to the version proposed in Table 3. The objective of this additional question is to inquire what may have transpired during the posttest, especially when the outcome was in contrary to the Working Hypothesis.

The teacher's reflections were captured at the end of every lesson and thus were scattered across different lesson plans. He noted that the participants reacted positively to a CA approach to learning English, although they noticeably require more time to adapt to the new approach. These reflections were compiled into a single document (see *Appendix 2*) to ease cross-referencing.

Discussions

There is a dearth of research regarding the use of CA in the actual language classroom for pedagogical application, as recent CA studies in Malaysia focused on examining mother tongue interference in the L2 classroom (Abdul Manan et al., 2017), English and Malay speech acts in the community (Maros & Halim, 2018), and how learners respond to the use of CA in the classroom (Yacob & Yunus, 2019). Two studies examined CA's pedagogical role in the classroom, but Hassan et al. (2019) mainly utilised CA to analyse learner errors, while Ting's (2016) research focused on the error analysis of undergraduates learning German as a second language. Despite the lack of similar studies in Malaysia, this paper will attempt to refer to and compare its finding to previous studies where possible, which makes the findings of this study all the more intriguing from many perspectives.

I.a Does CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) promote the conceptualization of English sentence patterns among Malaysian ESL learners?

Table 8

Comprehensive Data for Pre-, Post- and Delayed Posttest

Identifier	Pretest		Posttest		Delayed Posttest	
	IE (${}^{\text{pre-}}\bar{X}_{ie}$)	JR (${}^{\text{pre-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)	IE (${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{ie}$)	JR (${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)	IE (${}^{\text{del-}}\bar{X}_{ie}$)	JR (${}^{\text{del-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)
F1	7	7	3	3	8	7
F2	7	6	5	4	7	6
F3	7	2	4	1	7	3
M1	7	4	4	2	8	3
M2	7	7	4	4	8	5
M3	8	0	2	0	6	0
M4	9	7	4	3	9	8
Mean, \bar{X}	7.43	4.71	3.71	2.43	7.57	4.57

Statistically, the participants performed worse in the posttest (${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{ie} = 3.71$; ${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{jr} = 2.43$) compared to the pretest (${}^{\text{pre-}}\bar{X}_{ie} = 7.43$; ${}^{\text{pre-}}\bar{X}_{jr} = 4.71$). Based on this information alone (Table 8) the CA-oriented Programme seemingly failed to promote conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among the participants. However, in the teacher's reflection (see *Appendix 2*), the teacher noted that the participants "performed much better in previous Error Identification tests" [Appendix 2, *Posttest*], while the participants also appeared to be "overconfident and were careless at answering the questions" [Appendix 2, *Posttest*]. This

brings to question whether the participants could have benefited from more time and exposure to the CA approach before taking the posttest.

Specific to the posttest EA exercise (see *Appendix 1*), 3 out of 6 participants explained that they were nervous, while another 3 indicated that they struggled because that specific task contained many words and phrases that they are not familiar with. The feedback from the participants is coherent with what the teacher observed and recorded in his reflection [*Appendix 2, Posttest*]. However, upon review, the Flesch Reading Ease of the said task is on par with the other EA exercises, although it is noted that its rating (82.1%) is the lowest (Table 1). Thus, a mismatched between the text chosen for the posttest and the participants' language proficiency was unlikely. An alternative explanation of why the participants struggled during the posttest is that they were expecting a few more CA sessions before they were to undergo the posttest. Thrusting the participants into the posttest after just two sessions may result in them being under-prepared, thus explaining why they were careless and nervous. This lack of preparation contributed to their struggle to understand the text that they were reading.

The second cycle of the CA Intervention Programme commenced a week after the posttest activity. It is worth noting that the participants revisited what they have learnt in the previous cycle, but with a stronger emphasis on contrasting the Word Class and Sentence Patterns with their counterparts in Mandarin Chinese. Perhaps due to having more time to internalise what they were exposed to over the few weeks, the participants recorded a slight improvement in identifying errors (${}^{\text{del}}\bar{X}_{ie} = 7.57$) and a slight regression in justifying rectifications (${}^{\text{del}}\bar{X}_{jr} = 4.57$) when compared to the pretest.

An overarching view of the quantitative data seems to suggest that the CA of English and Mandarin Chinese slightly improves the participants' ability to detect distortions and deviations in English sentence patterns. But, the data also confirms that CA can impede the participants' understanding of these patterns and their capability to explain them. As such, the findings of the experiment reject the Working Hypothesis, thus resulting in Revised Hypothesis where:

RH: CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) may promote the conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among learners.

RH¹: CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) improves students' ability to identify errors.

RH²: CA of Mandarin Chinese (L1) and English (L2) does not improve students' ability to justify rectifications and corrections of errors.

II.a What are the factors or elements that may make CA an effective approach to teach English sentence patterns with the use of Mandarin Chinese?

Factor 1: CA of English and Mandarin Chinese emphasises understanding of sentence patterns over rote-learning and memorisation

Generally, the participants responded positively towards the idea of learning English with the use of Mandarin Chinese (*Appendix 1*). They agreed that learning English with the use of their L2, Mandarin Chinese, is extremely helpful because they were able to understand what they learnt during the CA-oriented Programme. This confirms previous studies that

highlighted how using the L1 can enhance learners' understanding when learning the L2 (Bartlett, 2017; Debreli & Oyman, 2016; Galali & Cinkara, 2017; Zulfikar, 2019).

F2 – [Learning English with the use of Mandarin Chinese] is good because it can help me understand better and learn more new words

Being able to comprehend what they are learning is crucial to the participants. Contrary to conventional rote learning methods, they do not have to rely on memorisation to learn sentence patterns in English, as memorisation tends to make learning the L2 harder (Yacob & Yunus, 2019). Also, when it becomes a habit for learners to memorise words without properly understanding them, they run into the risk of making grammatical errors (Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020). Instead, the process of internalising the English sentence patterns can be based on their prior understanding in the Mandarin Chinese sentence patterns, as propagated by the principles of CA (Figure 1). The participants were positive about the CA-oriented programme because it structurally and linguistically re-packaged the relationship between the L1 and L2, as recorded in the participants' reflective log (see *Appendix 1*). This allows them to gain an understanding of the English sentence patterns that they were learning, consequently facilitating positive linguistic transfers at the same time mitigating the effects of negative/zero linguistic transfers (James, 1998). Notably, this echoes the recommendations to take advantage of instances of positive transfer between the L1 and L2 that occur in the language classroom (Almoayidi, 2018; Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020; Darmi et al., 2018).

Factor 2: CA of English and Mandarin Chinese lowers learning anxiety and affective filter that are commonly experienced when learning a second or foreign language

5 out of 6 participants disliked the idea of learning English immersively, mainly because they struggle to make sense of or understand the language. Directly, one participant was noticeably frustrated by her inability to fully understand the task or activity.

F3 – I don't like [learning English without using Mandarin Chinese] because sometimes I can't really make sense of it

These responses imply that the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom provides an avenue where L2 learners and teachers can talk and discuss about the L1 and the L2 (James, 1996). In turn, this significantly reduces learning anxiety and affective filter among the learners (Bartlett, 2017; Carroll & Sambollin Morales, 2016; Darmi et al., 2018; Debreli & Oyman, 2016; Sowell, 2016; Zulfikar, 2019). Learners feel more at ease or comfortable when learning in a language that they are familiar with. Discussing or contrasting two language systems in their L1 provide a safe platform for them to explore and experiment with these languages. Also, the learners are more likely to demonstrate L2 use naturally (Carroll & Sambollin Morales, 2016) as discussing the structure of a L2 would seem less intimidating and less stressful. Another participant responded positively when asked if she preferred to learn English with Mandarin Chinese.

F2 – I like it [learning English with Mandarin Chinese] because I think I have improved a little bit

On the contrary, learners may end up glossing over opportunities to learn the L2, especially when the use of L1 is completely prohibited. This is evident from the response provided by participant M3. He reported that he would often resort to avoidance strategy, skipping words that he does not understand when learning the language.

M3 – I don't think [learning English without using Mandarin Chinese] is good because I often skip words that I don't understand

Nevertheless, two participants stated that learning English without the use of their L1 is helpful because they perceive this as a challenge to improve themselves. Shabir (2017) believed in encouraging learners to think in English as they gradually attain higher degrees of English proficiency, as this could also become a powerful source of motivation to learn the L2. Echoing this, Galali & Cinkara, (2017), Sowell (2016) and Li et al. (2016) expressed support to tailor and differentiate the use of L1 in the L2 classroom according to the learning needs.

M4 – Yes [learning English without using Mandarin Chinese] helps because we can understand [or come across] more English words

Factor 3: CA of English and Mandarin Chinese promotes “additive bi/multilingualism” among L2 learners

More interestingly, though, is the fact that several participants remarked how their L1 and L2 improved concurrently. This signifies the possible L1-L2 interaction that positively influences language learning and development.

M2 – Yes both languages [English and Mandarin Chinese] have improved

This is a good example of “Additive Bi/Multilingualism”, a notion strongly advocated by sociolinguists in recent years (Carroll & Sambollin Morales, 2016; May, 2014; Ortega, 2014; Thompson, 2016; Tyler et al., 2018). Conventional language learning theories contemplate languages as conflicting and competing language systems that interfere with language acquisition. Contrary to this perspective, additive bi/multilingualism views languages as mutually interacting systems that promote language acquisition, which is achieved by raising language awareness in the L1 and L2. Hwang (1994) reported that it is possible to raise learners' language awareness based on their prior knowledge in the L1 (p.157). In the context of this study, the participants were observed to formulate structures in the L2 with their existing L1 knowledge (see *Appendix 2, Lesson 3*):

T – They [Participants] were also able to use their L1 knowledge to construct structurally equivalent in the L2, albeit with a number of grammatical errors.

Therefore, CA can help learners to conceptualise sentence patterns by making them more aware of and sensitive towards their similarities and differences. Yang (1992) observed that learners, when using the L1 to learn English, were able to communicate and discuss the structures of both languages. Using the L1 is not seen as a barrier to learning the L2 but as an effort and ongoing process to become bi/multilinguals. More importantly, this is in line with one of the aspirations of the *National Education Blueprint 2013 – 2025* to produce

bilingually proficient learners (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013) as well as the growing emphasis on plurilingualism in the *Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)* (Council of Europe, 2018).

II.b What are the factors or elements that may not make CA an effective approach to teach English sentence patterns with the use of Mandarin Chinese?

Table 9

Pre-, Post- and Delayed Posttest Data for Justifying Rectification

Identifier	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	JR (${}^{\text{pre-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)	JR (${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)	JR (${}^{\text{del-}}\bar{X}_{jr}$)
Mean, \bar{X}	4.71	2.43	4.57

Factor 1: Learners might overgeneralise certain grammar rules or sentence patterns

The participants under-performed in the posttest in terms of justifying changes or corrections to the errors that they have identified (${}^{\text{post-}}\bar{X}_{jr} = 2.43$). The teacher noted that the participants were “over-confident and were careless at answering the questions” (Appendix 2, *Posttest*), and this was later corroborated with the findings obtained from the qualitative data. 3 participants admitted that they were careless when completing the activity, and one underlying assumption made here is that the participants required more time to process and internalise the use of CA. They did perform better in the delayed posttest (${}^{\text{del-}}\bar{X}_{jr} = 4.57$), but this was still lower than the mean average they attained in the pretest, albeit slightly.

Based on this analysis, the use of CA could, hypothetically, result in a false sense of security or even confusion among L2 learners. When the use of Mandarin Chinese is allowed and encouraged, the participants could end up overgeneralising rules or sentence patterns in Mandarin Chinese and transferring them to English indiscriminately. This finding concurs with the conclusions presented by Abdul Manan et al. (2017), Abdul Aziz & Mohd Don (2014), Li et al. (2016) and Wong (2012), where overgeneralisation of grammar rules is cited as the main reason for language interference. Therefore, without proper mitigation and guidance from the teacher, learners might end up forming grammatically unacceptable phrases or sentences, especially when they are not afforded sufficient time to internalise the approach.

Factor 2: Learners might become over-reliant on their L1 as a word-for-word translation tool

Many studies also observed the tendency for learners to fall back to translation to complete tasks assigned to them in class (Abdul Aziz & Mohd Don, 2014; Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020; Galali & Cinkara, 2017; Hassan et al., 2019; Li et al., 2016; Yacob & Yunus, 2019). The quantitative data in Table 9 also suggests that the learners, using a CA approach, may end up relying on their L1 as a translation tool when learning the L2. Although CA stresses the importance of understanding and comprehension as starting points for L2 learning, in this study, a participant resorted to translation as her primary learning strategy.

F2 – I like the [CA]method but sometimes I still have trouble translating from Mandarin Chinese to English

The CA-oriented Programme does not embrace an operant view towards language learning, so both positive and negative reinforcements lack presence throughout the study. While the CA-oriented programme may mould them into more confident learners, they could also become over-reliant on their L1 for word-for-word translation. The main focus of the CA approach is raising learner's language awareness towards the different linguistic structures and patterns of the L2 (James, 1980, 1996, 1998; Ke, 2018; Lennon, 2008). But while CA creates a safety net for learners to explore the different forms of various languages, they may become complacent or even reckless in their use of the L2.

Implications

The findings of this study are generally supportive of a multilingual approach to the teaching of English in Malaysia. The quantitative data does not strongly suggest that the use of CA will help L2 learners to develop a better conceptualisation of English sentence patterns, but the participants have reacted positively to the approach, as indicated in the qualitative data. These highlight how the approach can help the participants to learn the L2 with higher degrees of understanding and motivation. This is consistent with the findings documented in present literature, reaffirming the fact that the L1 is far from irrelevant in the Malaysian ESL classroom (Abdul Aziz & Mohd Don, 2014; Bukhari & Abdul Aziz, 2020; Hiew, 2012; Jumal et al., 2019; Ong & Tajuddin, 2020; Philip et al., 2019; Sowell, 2016; Stapa, 2008; Tan, 2019; Wong, 2012).

There are, nevertheless, several implications from this study. The use of CA may help to promote better conceptualisation of English sentence patterns among learners, especially when raising their awareness towards ungrammatical language constructions. This can be particularly helpful for learners who are situated in areas with limited exposure to English. As indicated in the findings, presenting to learners the target language in a systematic and rule-governed manner can “reduce learning load” (Abbaspour & Zare, 2013, p.65). They feel more at ease learning the L2 as this gives precedence to understanding and comprehension as opposed to mere memorisation or regurgitation. The use of CA as a multilingual language learning system thus provides learners and teachers with a focal point where “meta-linguistic reflection and discourse” (p.65) can occur. By emphasising and encouraging discussion on the sentential level of the L1 and L2, learners are exposed to the language in context, rather than decontextualised use of language. This then mitigates the concerns about structural or formal syllabi not allocating sufficient emphasis on meaning or function of language use (Robinson, 1998).

CA, thus, can serve as an intermediary learning resource aiming at scaffolding learners to be proficient multilinguals in their own context, with their understanding of different language structures and patterns contributing to their multilingual repertoire. In addition, as the findings suggest, the interaction between the L1 and L2 can result in positive language transfer. This builds upon previous studies calling for a review on the treatment of L1 in the ESL classroom (Almoayidi, 2018; Debrelı & Oyman, 2016; Galali & Cinkara, 2017; Li et al., 2016; Shabir, 2017; Zulfikar, 2019). Coincidentally, CA complements the recent incorporation of the CEFR into the Malaysian English Language syllabus, where plurilingual and multilingual competence are gaining traction (Council of Europe, 2018).

Also, a CA-oriented programme can function as a remedial language programme that complements the conventional mandatory language syllabus. This is particularly helpful for

low proficiency learners as using the L1 can considerably lower their affective filter when learning the L2. Following this line of thought, teachers can also stratify and prioritise certain language elements according to their students' immediate language learning needs. This is coherent with the notion of localising or personalising language learning (Tabari, 2013; Torre, 2014). Nevertheless, this study points to the need for teachers who are *proficient bilinguals* in both their L1 and the targeted L2 to fully apply CA in their teaching practice. While CA approach may not necessarily be relevant in every school, ensuring that teachers are familiar with the approach would certainly empower them to react and adapt their teaching approaches to suit their students' immediate language learning needs. This means they have to be more versatile and robust against future challenges in the ESL classroom, especially in suburban and rural areas where there is limited use of English in the community. Furthermore, as the study concluded, the use of CA is susceptible to the failings of traditional methods like the Grammar-Translation and Audiolingual Approach. Teachers would need to bear the responsibility of mitigating the learners' tendency to overgeneralise sentence patterns in the L2 by encouraging activities that raise their language awareness and promoting metalinguistic discussions. This can be far more effective if the teachers are bi/multilinguals.

Conclusion

This study does not confirm that CA helps learners learn English quicker and better than other approaches. But there are several positive observations and feedback in this study that support this approach. At the very least, this study has demonstrated that it is possible to utilise notions of CA and apply them for pedagogical purposes in an authentic Malaysian ESL classroom setting. Nonetheless, further in-depth studies are required to determine how and when such an approach would be helpful to assist learners to conceptualise, and preferably, internalise sentence patterns of both the L1 and L2 on a larger scale. Future studies could also undertake a longitudinal experimental paradigm that involves students living in urban or suburban settings so that they can provide more conclusive suggestions and applications in the Malaysian ESL classroom.

References

- Abbaspour, E., & Zare, J. (2013). A critical review of recent trends in second language syllabus design and curriculum development. *International Journal of Research*, 2(2), 63–82.
- Abdul Aziz, R., & Mohd Don, Z. (2014). The overgeneration of be+ verb constructions in the writing of L1-Malay ESL learners in Malaysia. *Research in Corpus Linguistics*, 35–44.
- Abdul Manan, N. A., Zamari, Z. M., AS Pillay, I., Mohd Adnan, A. H., Yusof, J., & Raslee, N. N. (2017). Mother tongue interference in the writing of English as a Second Language (ESL) Malay learners. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7(11), 1294–1301.
- Almoayidi, K. A. (2018). The effectiveness of using L1 in second language classrooms: A controversial issue. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(4), 375–379.
- Bartlett, K. A. (2017). The use of L1 in L2 classrooms in Japan: A survey of university student preferences. *Kwansei Gakuin University Humanities Review*, 22, 71–80.
- Benson, R., Hardy, L., & Maxfield, J. (2001). *The international classroom: using reflective practice to improve teaching and learning*. ERIC Clearinghouse.
- Bukhari, F. binti, & Abdul Aziz, A. (2020). L1 (Bahasa Malaysia) Impact in Process and Product of Learning Writing in L2. *International Journal of Applied Science and Engineering Review*, 1(2), 28–58.

- Carroll, K. S., & Sambollin Morales, A. N. (2016). Using university students' L1 as a resource: Translanguaging in a Puerto Rican ESL classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 39(3-4), 248-262.
- Council of Europe. (2018). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors*. Council of Europe.
- Darmi, R., Puteh-Behak, F., Abdulllah, H., Darmi, R., & Wahi, W. (2018). Variations of L1 use in the English Language Class. *GEMA Online®Journal of Language Studies*, 18(2), 284-311.
- Debreli, E., & Oyman, N. (2016). Students' Preferences on the Use of Mother Tongue in English as a Foreign Language Classrooms: Is It the Time to Re-Examine English-Only Policies?. *English Language Teaching*, 9(1), 148-162.
- Galali, A., & Cinkara, E. (2017). The Use of L1 in English as a Foreign Language Classes: Insights from Iraqi Tertiary Level Students. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(5), 54-64.
- Gilquin, G. (2000). The integrated contrastive model: Spicing up your data. *Languages in Contrast*, 3(1), 95-123.
- Hassan, N. S. I. C., Nor, N. H. M., Rosly, R., & Zakaria, W. N. F. W. (2019). ESL Learners' Language Errors in a Reflective Writing Assessment. *Issues in Language Studies*, 8(1), 31-43.
- Hiew, W. (2012). English Language Teaching and Learning Issues in Malaysia: Learners' Perceptions via Facebook Dialogue Journal. *Researchers World*, 3(1), 11.
- Hwang, D., & Embi, M. A. (2007). Approaches employed by secondary school teachers to teaching the literature component in English. *Malaysian Journal of Educators and Education*, 22, 1-23.
- Hwang, Y. L. (1994). The study of Contrastive Analysis of Chinese and English form of address. *Tainan University Humanities Journal*, 39(1), 153-159.
- James, C. (1980). *Contrastive Analysis*. Longman.
- James, C. (1996). A Cross-Linguistic Approach to Language Awareness. *Language Awareness*, 5(3-4), 138-148.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring error analysis*. Longman.
- Jumal, N. A. B., AlSaqqaf, A., & Nik Mohamed, N. Z. (2019). Code Switching in Malaysian Secondary ESL Classroom: A Preliminary Study from Sabah. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 9(5), 327-334.
- Ke, P. (2018). *Contrastive Linguistics* (Vol. 1). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1385-1>
- Korkmaz, S. Ç. (2017). Classroom Research: What Do ELT Teacher Trainees Experience When Performing Collaborative Group-Work Tasks?. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 6(1), 31-52.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). A postmethod perspective on English language teaching. *World Englishes*, 22(4), 539-550.
- Laufer, B., & Girsai, N. (2008). Form-focused instruction in second language vocabulary learning: A case for contrastive analysis and translation. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(4), 694-716.
- Lennon, P. (2008). Contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage. *Bielefeld Introduction to Applied Linguistics. A Course Book. Bielefeld: Aisthesis Verlag*.
- Li, J. S. (2011). *EFL learners' perceptions of grammatical difficulty in relation to second language proficiency, performance, and knowledge*. University of Toronto.
- Li, Y., Wang, L., & Liu, X. (2016). The values of learners' mother tongue use in target

- language classrooms. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 46–57.
- Maros, M., & Halim, N. S. (2018). Alerters in Malay and English speech act of request: A contrastive pragmatics analysis. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 24(1).
- May, S. (2014). *The Multilingual Turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and Bilingual Education*. Taylor and Francis. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203113493>
- Ministry of Education Malaysia. (2013). *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (Preschool to Post-Secondary Education)* (pp. 1–292).
- Ölmezer-Öztürk, E. (2019). Beliefs and practices of Turkish EFL teachers regarding oral corrective feedback: a small-scale classroom research study. *The Language Learning Journal*, 47(2), 219–228.
- Ong, J. W., & Tajuddin, A. J. A. (2020). Towards a Principled Use of L1--Observing an EFL Teacher's L1 Use in Rural Sabah, Malaysia. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 19(6), 206–222.
- Ortega, L. (2014). *Ways forward for a bi/multilingual turn in SLA* (S. May (ed.); pp. 42–63). Routledge.
- Philip, B., Tan, K. H., & Jandar, W. (2019). Exploring Teacher Cognition in Malaysian ESL Classrooms. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 25(4).
- Robinson, P. (1998). State of the art: SLA theory and second language syllabus design. *The Language Teacher*, 22(4), 7–14.
- Shabir, M. (2017). Student-Teachers' Beliefs on the Use of L1 in EFL Classroom: A Global Perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 10(4), 45–52.
- Shi, Y. (2002). *The Establishment of Modern Chinese Grammar: The formation of the resultative construction and its effects*. John Benjamins.
- Sowell, J. (2016). A Survey of Malaysian Teachers' Practices and Attitudes towards Use of the L1 in the English Language Classroom. *International Journal of English: Literature, Language and Skills*, 5(3), 53–62.
- Stapa, M. (2008). Using Bahasa Melayu while writing in English: A case study of Malay students. *Research in English Language Teaching*.
- Tabari, A. G. (2013). Challenges of language syllabus design in EFL/ESL contexts. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(4), 869.
- Tan, G. H. (2019). *20 years of research into L1 use in Malaysian ESL classrooms: a qualitative analysis*. National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University.
- Thompson, A. S. (2016). *How do multilinguals conceptualize interactions among languages studied? Operationalizing perceived positive language interaction (PPLI)* (L. Ortega, A. E. Tyler, H. I. Park, & M. Uno (eds.); pp. 91–111). Georgetown University Press.
- Ting, T. (2016). *Error Analysis in German Writing by Chinese Malaysian Students* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Torre, M. G. da. (2014). Locally-oriented language courses. *Revista Da Faculdade de Letras: Linguas e Literaturas*, 2(3), 115–126.
- Tyler, A. E., Ortega, L., Uno, M., & Park, H. I. (2018). *Usage-inspired L2 instruction: Researched pedagogy* (Vol. 49). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Whitman, R. L. (1970). Contrastive analysis: Problems and procedures. *Language Learning*, 20(2), 191–197.
- Willems, D., Defrancq, B., Coleman, T., & Noël, D. (2003). *Contrastive Analysis in Language: Identifying linguistic units of comparison*. Springer.
- Wong, B. E. (2012). Acquisition of English tense and agreement morphology by L1 Malay and L1 Chinese speakers. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 18(3), 5–14.
- Yacob, N. S., & Yunus, M. M. (2019). Students' Perspectives on Challenges and Solutions

- to Learning English in Malaysian ESL Context. *Journal of Language and Communication (JLC)*, 6(2), 487–496.
- Yang, B. G. (1992). A Review of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. *Dong-Eui University Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2, 133–149.
- Yong, L. (2010). *Grammar and the Chinese ESL Learner: A longitudinal study on the acquisition of the English Article System*. Cambria Press.
- Zulfikar, Z. (2019). Rethinking the use of L1 in L2 classroom. *Englisia: Journal of Language, Education, and Humanities*, 6(1), 42–51.

APPENDIX 1 Learner's Reflective Log

1. What do you think about learning English without using Mandarin Chinese?

a. To what extent is this helpful for you?

F1 – No, because I cannot understand what the teacher is saying

F2 – Not really because my English is not very good.

F3 – I don't like it because sometimes I can't really make sense of it.

M1 – I don't like it because sometimes I don't know what it means in English

M2 – I don't think it's good because I often skip words that I don't understand

M3 – It is good because I can learn proper English.

M4 – Yes it helps because we can understand more English words.

2. What do you think about learning English using Mandarin Chinese?

a. To what extent is this helpful for you?

F1 – Yes, because I can understand much more.

F2 – It is good because it can help me understand better and learn more new words.

F3 – Yes I can understand more than the other method.

M1 – Yes because I can understand better

M2 – Yes, I can understand better

M3 – N.A.

M4 – Yes, this can help me understand grammar correctly.

3. How would you prefer to learn English?

a. Please explain why

F1 – I like it because I can learn more new words in both English and Mandarin Chinese

F2 – I like it because I think I have improved a little bit.

F3 – I like it a little bit

M1 – Yes, because both my English and Mandarin Chinese have improved a little bit.

M2 – Yes both languages have improved

M3 – I like it because I could learn a lot more English and Mandarin Chinese language.

M4 – I like it.

4. What do you like or dislike about the whole programme?

F1 – I like the way the teacher is teaching

F2 – I like the method but sometimes I still have trouble translating from Mandarin Chinese to English.

F3 – I like it only a little bit, because learning English is too hard.

M1 – I love knowing many new words.

M2 – I like it because I can gain more knowledge

M3 – I like it

M4 – I like it.

❖ How did you feel about the Posttest?

F1 – There are many words that I couldn't understand.

F2 – We couldn't understand their languages.

F3 – I was careless and nervous.

M1 – I was careless

M2 – I was being careless

M3 – N.A.

M4 – There are many words that I couldn't understand

APPENDIX 2 Compilation of Teacher's Reflection

	Reflection
Programme Needs Analysis	<p>My first overall impression of the students is that they have a certain command of the language but severely lack reading. I will have to design a reading programme (Article + Mind Mapping) for students to consistently use English to analyse the things they read. It would seem that the most appropriate focus is to focus on the Simple Sentence patterns and their related parts of speech.</p> <p>Apart from M3, the others seem to fall between the Lower Intermediate – Intermediate English proficiency level. For M3, he has below-par reading and comprehension skills, often unable to verbalise simple words, especially when the words are longer than two</p>

Cycle	Lesson	Reflection
		syllables. Nonetheless, he does show some signs of learning difficulty, although more observation still has to be done.
1	1	Introduced the notion of Sentence Types to the students today. Students seem to understand the concepts but have reservations about the practical uses. M2 was able to complete his task fairly quickly, followed by M4. The others took more time to complete the task. Response from students is lukewarm at best. Assigned them a 5 sentence writing task to help them practice. The next lesson will move into Word Classes. I will need to modify a PT3 English Error Identification task to test students' understanding/proficiency in this subject area.
1	2	The students have shown some improvements, but most of it could be attributed to the short term memory retention and behavioural response. When the lesson turned highly technical (especially when focusing on Word Classes), I could see that students were highly demotivated and extremely passive. This is probably due to the low subject knowledge in that subject matter. Students' response is monotonous and robotic, highlighting the fact that the students don't find the lesson very engaging. An impromptu interview with student F2 revealed that she had some problems with Verbs & Conjunctions, largely because she couldn't really understand the technicality behind the word class. She stated that she may have improved slightly on her grammatical knowledge, but remain pretty much confused and unclear about the English grammar.
	Posttest	Surprisingly, students actually performed much better in previous Error Identification tests. This was something that I have not anticipated. Students actually made more errors in the Posttest. They seemed to be over-confident and were careless at answering the questions. It was also noted that the Error Identification Test is slightly more difficult than the previous ones, an issue that I have not foreseen before the test was administered. Students may have actually improved grammatically but students' over-confidence may have impeded that progress. A more in-depth mining of information is required to confirm this suspicion. I will approach some of the students individually and get feedback from the in order to find out a clearer picture regarding the use of this approach to teach English.
2	3	Students were asked to write sentences with more cohesion in forms of paragraphs instead of isolated and distinct units of sentences. As a result, the students were able to dive into context far more easily. They were also able to use their L1 knowledge to construct structurally equivalent in the L2, albeit with a number of grammatical error. This is seen as a major indication that the CA of English and Mandarin Chinese seemingly help improve students' grammatical proficiency in English. The next lesson will focus on the word classes, which would build upon today's progress. I would like to see how students respond and compare both types of approaches.
2	4	This session marks the end of the CA Intervention Programme. Students just barely got accustomed to the idea of writing Simple Sentences. The students struggled in the beginning, thinking about the different kinds of Word Classes in both Chinese and English. The association of Word Classes and sentence construction was rather strong, something that is apparent during the activity.

APPENDIX 3 Cycle 1 Lesson Plan Sample

Class: PT3 -Lower Form (Lower-Intermediate Proficiency)

Topic: Grammar – The Simple Sentence

Duration: 2 hours

Research Stage: CA Intervention Programme Lesson 1 (Cycle 1)

Learning Outcomes:

- (i) Students activate prior knowledge and re-learn about the basic sentence structure
- (ii) Students activate prior knowledge and re-learn to identify the Subject, Verb & Predicate
- (iii) Students activate prior knowledge and re-learn to construct Simple Sentences

Procedures:

1. Conduct a short dictation on “Spiderman”. Each student has to write as dictated:

“Spiderman is one of the most famous heroes in comic books. He is also known as Peter Parker. He is a very smart high school student, although not very popular in school. One day, he was bitten by a spider in a lab. After that, he realised he can climb walls and sense danger. He then decides to use his new powers to help others.”

2. Get students to switch their dictation with their peers. They are to peer mark their friends’ dictation. Highlight and explain potential challenging vocabulary. Use a chain reading technique here to check students’ dictation.
3. Distribute the handouts to students. Get them to do a final check before pasting them onto their books.
4. Inform students that the lesson will be focusing on the Simple Sentence. All Simple Sentence:
 - a. Must have “Subject”
 - b. Must have “Predicate”
 - c. 1 Predicate = 1 Verb
5. Provide a few examples to demonstrate to students the different forms of the Simple Sentences.
6. Get students to analyse the sentences in the dictation text. Get them to determine if they are all Simple Sentences and justify why.
7. Distribute visual Stimulus to students. Students have to:
 - a. Brainstorm key vocabulary related to stimulus
 - b. Construct Simple Sentences (minimum 8 sentences)
8. Provide individual attention to whoever finishes their work first. Also get students to peer-mark using pencils to decide if their friends have constructed good Simple Sentences.
9. Go through the students’ writing individually, rectifying language errors in detail.

**Reflection:**

Introduced the notion of Sentence Types to the students today. Students seem to understand the concepts but have reservations about the practical uses. M2 was able to complete his task fairly quickly, followed by M4. The others took more time to complete the task. Response from students is lukewarm at best. Assigned them a 5 sentence writing task to help them practice. The next lesson will move into Word Classes. I will need to modify a PT3 English Error Identification task to test students’ understanding/proficiency in this subject area.

APPENDIX 4 Cycle 2 Lesson Plan Sample

Class: PT3 -Lower Form (Lower-Intermediate Proficiency)

Topic: Grammar – Word Classes

Duration: 2 hours

Research Stage: CA Intervention Programme Lesson 4 (Cycle 2)

Learning Outcomes:

- (i) Students activate prior knowledge and re-learn about the different forms of Word Class in both English and Chinese.
- (ii) Students use the different forms of Word Class to construct Simple Sentences.

Procedures:

1. Drawing from their prior experience learning Chinese, get them to list down the types of Word Classes they are familiar with:

Chinese	English	Chinese	English
名词	Nouns	介词	Determiner
代名词	Pronouns	副词	Adverb
动词	Verbs	形容词	Adjectives
方向词	Preposition	助词	Aspect Markers
连词	Conjunctions		

2. Make links between the different word class in Chinese with the ones in English. Highlight both the similarities and differences:
 - a. Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Determiners, Adverbs, Adjectives, Conjunctions and Preposition share similar grammatical form and function in both English and Chinese.
 - b. One notable difference is the Aspect Markers, which is usually omitted in the list of English word classes. Grammatically, Aspect Markers are forms of Prepositions in English. It is used to denote time in the absence of deictic tenses.

*Note: Avoid becoming overly linguistic when explaining the differences as students may not be able to comprehend all the information given. They might end up being more confused.

3. Briefly explain the roles of different word classes to students. Compare and contrast similarities and differences between the word classes in both English and Mandarin:

i.e. The position of adverbs is usually after the verb (in English) The position of adverbs is usually before the verb (Mandarin) I go home happily. (Verb) (Adverb) 我高兴地回家。 (状) (动)	i.e. The Perfect Aspect (助词) is used to linked adverbials and determiners to the verb or noun. (i) My car - 我的车子 (Determiner) (助) (名) (ii) Go home happily - 高兴地回家 (Verb) (Adverbial) (状) (动) (iii) Ate happily - 吃得开心 (Verb) (Adverbial) (动) (状)
--	--

4. Distribute Sentence Sequencer Worksheet to students. Inform students that this sequencer is meant to assist students construct simple, active voice sentences.

THEME:							
Determiner	Subject: Nouns/ Pronouns	Verb Clause/ Phrase	Determiner	Adjectives	Object: Nouns/ Pronouns	Adverbs	Prepositional Phrase

5. Demonstrate to students how to use the sequencer:
 - a. Decide on a theme
 - b. Brainstorm vocabulary related to the theme
 - c. Using the generated vocabulary, construct simple sentences
6. Highlight the sentence structure involving the use of different Word Classes. Compare and contrast the structure with that of the Chinese Language:

- a. Subject-Verb-Object: 主-谓-宾
 b. Determiner-Subject-Verb-Determiner-Object-Adverb: 定-主-状-谓-补-定-宾

7. Move around to monitor and supervise students' progress.

Reflection:

This session marks the end of the CA Intervention Programme. Students just barely got accustomed to the idea of writing Simple Sentences. The students struggled in the beginning, thinking about the different kinds of Word Classes in both Chinese and English. The association of Word Classes and sentence construction was rather strong, something that is apparent during the activity.

APPENDIX 5 – Sample Texts used in Error Identification Exercises

There was once a rich man who lived in a huge mansion in Northern India. One day, the man lost his bag of money and he asked for help from a wise judge. He told the judge that there are many servants in his house but he did not know who stole his money. The judge said to the man, "Call all your servants here and I shall find out who the thief is." Later, all of them appeared before the judge. The judge said, "I have some magic sticks but each stick has the same length. Bring your sticks back to me tomorrow morning because the thief's stick will grow longer by a finger's length." Frightened, the thief thought of a way to cover up his theft. Finally, he found an answer and he cut his stick shortest by exactly a finger's length. "When it grows in the night, it will be the same length as others," he thought. He was proud of his brilliant plan. The next morning, everyone gathered in front of the judge with their sticks having the same length, except the thief's. The judge pointed at the thief and said, "It's you who have stolen the money!"

Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level : 5.2
Flesch Reading Ease : 87.6

APPENDIX 6 – Sample Error Identification Exercises

During the last school holidays, my friends and I went on a trip to Ulu Yam Waterfall. We gathered at the bus station early in the morning. The journey there took a hour and a half. It was my first trip together with my friends. Everyone were so excited. We brought some snacks and drinks from home. Upon arrived, we were captivated by the beautiful views of the hills and forests. It was truly breath-taking. The chirping by birds and the sound of the waterfall made me feel so peaceful. Ulu Yam Waterfall is famous for it's beautiful recreation park among tourists. We can do many things there. We can hike up the hills, swim over the waterfalls, and fish at the rivers. We got to see and learned about the flora and fauna in the park. As we were swimming at the waterfall, it suddenly started to rain. We run to find a safe shelter. After a few minutes, the rain stopped pouring. We have a small barbecue near the waterfalls. We rested for a while after eating. Before we headed home, we clear up our things and left the area as we found it. Although it was quite tiring, it was a fun and educational trips.	e.g. <u>an</u> (a) _____ (b) _____ (c) _____ (d) _____ (e) _____ (f) _____ (g) _____ (h) _____ (i) _____ (j) _____
--	--

[10 Marks]

Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level : 4.4
Flesch Reading Ease : 82.1