KEYWORDS IN A LONGITUDINAL CORPUS OF NARRATIVE WRITINGS BY MALAYSIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

**FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
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ABSTRACT

A keyword in a corpus study refers to a word that is significantly more frequent in a particular corpus than the other (Hunston, 2002, p. 68). Keywords are also indicators of the "aboutness" of a particular text (Baker, 2004; Hyland, 2008; Bondi & Scott, 2010). In relation to second language development, translanguaging is defined as the "flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals to make sense of their worlds" (Garcia, 2014, p. 3). This present study focuses on the changing use of keywords from a translanguaging perspective over a five-month period across three points in time in a longitudinal corpus of 129 narrative essays of 43 bilingual and multilingual students. It was observed that the relative frequencies of keywords were not consistent over time. For example, the keywords, *scared* and e*xcited* showed a decrease in relative frequency over time while *December, sibling, practise, hostel, scold* and *highland* showed an increase. The keywords, *Malaysia, colour, karaoke, favourite, celebrate* and *amazing* first showed increase in relative frequency before decreasing over time. Changes were observed in the use of some keywords over a five-month period. The keyword, *colour* was initially used as a noun. Over time, *colour* as a noun was still used but in Time 3, it was used as an adjective. The keywords, *celebrate* and *practise*, initially used as verbs, were used as nouns in Time 3. Furthermore, a pattern of fluctuation was observed where a range of adverbs were seen to co-occur with three keyword adjectives, *scared, excited*, and *amazing* over time. In Time 3 particularly, only adverbs, *extremely* and *most*, and *super* and *extra,* have co-occurred with *scared* and *excited* respectively. This suggests that the development of learner language is an unpredictable and fluctuating process that is never linear (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). From a translanguaging perspective, it is observed that the students express meaning through their written linguistic variations that co-occurred

with keywords. This is seen through their spelling and sentence variations while engaging in Bahasa Malaysia through words of *peluang, ayah*, *keluarga* and *marah.* These linguistic variations should not be viewed as errors (Canagarajah, 2011) but as a process of meaning making and a learning strategy for bilingual and multilingual to fully deploy their linguistic repertoires freely without regard for named languages (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015; Velasco & Garcia, 2014; Li & Ho, 2018).

Keywords: keywords, translanguaging, co-occurred, linguistic variations, errors.

ABSTRAK

Kata kunci dalam kajian korpus merujuk kepada perkataan yang ketara lebih kerap dalam korpus tertentu daripada yang lain (Hunston, 2002, p. 68). Kata kunci juga merupakan penunjuk "tentang" teks tertentu (Baker, 2004; Hyland, 2008; Bondi & Scott, 2010). Berhubung dengan perkembangan bahasa kedua, penterjemahan ditakrifkan sebagai "penggunaan sumber linguistik yang fleksibel oleh orang dwibahasa untuk memahami dunia mereka" (Garcia, 2014, p. 3). Kajian ini memfokuskan kepada penggunaan kata kunci dari perspektif penterjemahan dalam tempoh lima bulan merentasi tiga titik masa dalam korpus membujur 129 esei naratif 43 pelajar dwibahasa dan berbilang bangsa. Adalah diperhatikan bahawa kekerapan relatif kata kunci tidak konsisten dari semasa ke semasa. Sebagai contoh, kata kunci, *takut* dan *teruja* menunjukkan penurunan kekerapan relatif dari semasa ke semasa manakala *Disember, adik-beradik, latihan, asrama, memarahi* dan *tanah tinggi* menunjukkan peningkatan. Kata kunci, *Malaysia, warna, karaoke, kegemaran, raikan* dan *menakjubkan* mula-mula menunjukkan peningkatan dalam kekerapan relatif sebelum berkurangan dari semasa ke semasa. Perubahan diperhatikan dalam penggunaan beberapa kata kunci dalam tempoh lima bulan. Kata kunci, *warna* dan *amalan*, pada mulanya digunakan sebagai kata nama, digunakan sebagai kata sifat dan kata kerja, masing-masing dari semasa ke semasa. Kata kunci, *raikan,* pada mulanya digunakan sebagai kata kerja, digunakan sebagai kata nama dalam Masa 3. Tambahan pula, julat kata keterangan yang turun naik dilihat berlaku bersama dengan tiga kata adjektif kata kunci, *takut, teruja* dan *menakjubkan* dari semasa ke semasa, Dalam Masa 3 terutamanya, kemunculan kata keterangan, *sangat, kebanyakan*, dan *tambahan*, telah berlaku bersama dengan *takut* dan *teruja* masing-masing. Ini menunjukkan bahawa perkembangan bahasa pelajar adalah proses yang tidak dapat

diramalkan dan turun naik yang tidak pernah linear (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Dari perspektif penterjemahan bahasa, diperhatikan bahawa pelajar menyatakan makna melalui variasi linguistik bertulis mereka yang berlaku bersama kata kunci. Ini dilihat melalui variasi ejaan dan ayat mereka semasa melibatkan diri dalam Bahasa Malaysia melalui perkataan *peluang, ayah, keluarga* dan *marah*. Variasi linguistik ini tidak boleh dilihat sebagai kesilapan (Canagarajah, 2011) tetapi sebagai strategi pembelajaran dan proses membuat makna pelajar dwibahasa dan berbilang bahasa untuk menyatakan pemikiran mereka sepenuhnya menggunakan repertoir linguistik mereka secara bebas (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015; Velasco & Garcia , 2014).

Kata kunci: kata kunci, penterjemahan bahasa, berlaku bersama, variasi linguistik, kesilapan.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Keywords in corpus linguistic studies play a crucial role in texts, reflecting the aboutness of a text (Baker, 2004, p. 347) and how a corpus is more distinct than the other. From a phraseological perspective, the meanings of keywords are closely associated with the words and phrases that co-occurr with keywords (Hunston, 2002; Baker, 2004, p. 348). Groom (2010) posits that the meaning of a keyword is the "property of an extended lexical unit of open and closed class words" (2010, p. 73) instead from a keyword on its own. Bondi and Scott (2010, p. 2) ground this by highlighting the relationship between keywords and their co-texts whereby the meanings of keywords in a text are reflected in collocational patterns of keywords (2010, p. 3). Baker (2004, p. 350) adds that the meanings of keywords can be identified through co-occurring language phrases and patterns.

In relation to research in second language acquisition, bilingual students have been commonly viewed as imperfect users of English because their use of language varies from the ideal standards and language norm of native speakers (Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Klein, 1998). Rather than viewing bilingual students as deficient users of the native language (Cook, 2013; Ortega, 2013, p. 15), students who know more than one language are different from monolinguals and their use of language in speech and in text ought to be appreciated and analyzed in their own rights (Chau, 2012, p. 195) as a whole person rather than a deficient monolingual (Cook, 2013).

The present study examines the language use of bilingual and multilingual students from a translanguaging perspective. Specifically, it looks at the narrative essays of these students through a corpus analysis of keywords.

1.2 Background of the study

1.2.1   Translanguaging

The term, translanguaging was created by Cen Williams (1994) initially referred to as a practice of students who alternate languages when in use and mainly focus on bilingualism in English-Welsh language practices (Beiler, 2020). Since then, the scope and definition of translanguaging has been extended by scholars and applied more broadly in the educational field (Garcia, 2014). Garcia views it as a "flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals to make sense of their worlds" (2014, p. 3). More importantly, she adds that translanguaging is not to be referred as two separate languages, or even the shift of one language or code to another. Instead, translanguaging is grounded in the principle whereby bilinguals select language features from *all* of their language repertoires and "soft essemble" (Garcia, 2014, p. 3) them to fit certain communicative situations.

Otheguy, Garcia and Reid (2015) see translanguaging as the full deployment of a speaker's language repertoire *freely* without constraints from named languages. This said repertoire consists of the speaker's lexical and structural resources. Otheguy et al. further elaborate translanguaging as one who uses his or her idiolect (linguistic repertoire) without observing socially and politically language boundaries and labels. This could mean that transglanguaging "adopts the perspective … from *inside* the speaker" (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 298) without focusing too much on the named language. Essentially, translanguaging is not referring to two separate languages; it is a process of meaning making from one communicative resource that includes *all* language practices of bilingual and multilingual students (Garcia, 2014) without regard to any named languages (Li & Ho, 2018). Translanguaging helps us understand multilingual practices (Beiler,

2020) as well as to "appreciate [multilinguals'] competence in their own terms" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 3).

Therefore, the present study seeks the definition of translanguaging by Li and Ho (2018) as a process of meaning making that not only encompasses the dynamic practices of bilinguals and multilinguals who fully deploy their linguistic repertoires without restraint, but pushes the boundaries of named languages whereby bilinguals and multilinguals' translanguaging are not to be viewed as errors (Canagarajah, 2011).

1.2.2 Translanguaging and Education

According to Beiler (2020), translanguaging has developed a critical educational approach, looking at the needs of linguistically marginalized learners. Beiler believes in the importance of teachers to encourage bilingual students to draw on their translanguaging practices more often. Garcia (2014) describes translanguaging in education as a process of which teachers and students interact in complex discursions that "include *all* the language practices of students … to develop new language practices and sustain old ones" (2014, p. 3) that pave a way for new socio-political realities and challenges linguistic inequality.

In reality, the system of language education around the world generally does not embrace all the features and language practices of bilingual and multilingual students (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015). The teaching of native languages, foreign languages, second languages and additional languages have been "shaped by acts of selective legitimation that license only linguistic features associated with powerful speakers and states" (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 301). This would mean that translanguaging is limited in schools everywhere to adhere to the conventions of the standard language being taught. Mostly, monolingual students are allowed to fully deploy their idiolect, but bilinguals and

multilinguals are restricted from doing so. Traditional teaching does not encourage learners to integrate new linguistic features and practices into their personal language repertoire (Otheguy et al. 2015).

In relation to translanguaging and language assessment, Otheguy et al. posit that language assessments involve testing the students' accuracy, richness, complexity and flexibility to adhere to politically defined boundaries in the national curriculum, reflecting an assessment of political and cultural proficiency rather than the actual and organic use of the students' language. The "accuracy of measurement" (Otheguy et al., 2015) is pertinent in educational and language testing. This restricts bilingual and multilingual students from translanguaging and even if they do, they are assessed negatively, producing an inaccurate measure of their language knowledge and competency. If schools were to test students' linguistic proficiency, it would be unfair to ask them to perform only some of their linguistic resources and not fully deploying their idiolect.

1.3 Problem Statement

Studies on keywords have also been too focused on native speakers' texts. While these studies on native speakers' use of keywords have contributed important findings such as revealing ideologies, culture and social identities (Baker, 2004; Taylor, Thorne & Oliffe, 2015; Leon, 2015; Poole, 2016), not many studies on keywords have been conducted on non-native speakers' use of the second language. There also seems to be little acknowledgement to the value of learner corpora (Hunston, 2002, p. 192). Hunston posits that most corpora tend to comprise the language of native speakers only, particularly studies in phraseology and collocation (2002, p. 193). She stresses that this has allowed too much of a dependence on the corpora of native speakers of English by overvaluing their use of the language and de-valuing the language use by non-native speakers.

Because of the "disenfranchising view of language" (Larsen-Freeman, 2012, p. 297) of non-native speakers, their use of the second language is not validated and is deemed as errors (2012, p. 298) where their linguistic system is seen as a deficient version of the native speakers' (Cook, 2013).

In schools, the translanguaging of bilingual and multilingual students tend to be restricted through language assessments that view their linguistic variations as mistakes of the standard language (Cook, 2013). The traditional philosophy is that languages should be kept separate and only the 'target' language should be used in educational programs (Garcia & Kano, 2014). Bilingual and multilingual students are thus seen as less proficient users of English without taking into account their sociolinguistic backgrounds, language flexibility, richness and complexity that show that the learning a second language is not a linear process (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015; Garcia, 2014). Otheguy et al. (2015) add that traditional language teaching suppresses the language repertoire of bilingual students and does not encourage students to integrate "new linguistic features and practices into their own repertoire" (2015, p. 302). This leads to the assumption that non-native speakers' use of English is not on par as native speakers' because they do not have the same linguistic features that native speakers have (Hunston, 2002, p. 195). This paints a view of non-native speakers as being a "target deviation" (Klein, 1998, p. 527) of the standard of the language.

There also seems to be a limited number of studies on translanguaging in writing (Canagarajah, 2011). Canagarajah posits that some scholars may think translanguaging in writing is not permitted and not appropriate. Velasco and Garcia (2014) support that by positing that translanguaging encountered the most resistance in writing. Canagarajah thinks that because in writing, rich paralinguistic cues are not available to interpret writing whereby written localisms or slangs are eliminated to adhere to the standard language.

The lack of tone, gestures and contextual details in writing create an assumption that writing has always adopted the standard language. The idea of "autonomous literacy" (Canagarajah, 2011) presents an ideology that written texts are static products, leading interlocutors to the assumption that negotiating meanings in interactive face-to-face conversations are not necessary in writing. These assumptions have possibly led other researchers to adopt the conventions of the standard language in writing. Teachers in schools may permit translanguaging for verbal interactions in classrooms via group work or teacher-student conversations, but they do not permit it in writing, which is generally considered a more formal activity for students' writing to be assessed (Canagarajah, 2011).

Therefore, the present study examines the language use of bilingual and multilingual students from a translanguaging perspective by analyzing the narrative texts of the students through their use of keywords.

1.4 Research Aim

This longitudinal study is based on a written corpus of 129 texts by 43 students with the aim of identifying the different keywords of each point in time based on a written narrative essay task, as well as the use of keywords over time.

1.5 Research Questions

This research is guided by two research questions:

1. What are the common keywords identified from the students' texts at three different points in time over five months?

2. Based on the common keywords identified, what are the changes in the use of keywords over time?

Research question one seeks to identify the common keywords in students' written essays, collected at three different points in time over a five-month period. To achieve that, the students' written texts are uploaded onto Keywords Extractor in Compleat Lexical Tutor, a corpus analysis tool. Three keyword lists that represent the three data collection points in time are produced. Then, common keywords from each keyword list are identified. A keyword is selected for analysis if it occurs in two different types of texts in at least two different points in time (Chau, 2015, p. 36). Therefore, from the three keywords lists, 14 common keywords were selected for analysis.

Research question two observes the changes in the uses of the common keywords over time by analyzing them with their co-occurring words and phrases. From a translanguaging perspective, the words and phrases that co-occurred with the keywords from each point in time are recorded and discussed in this study.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study could highlight the importance of bilingual and multilingual speakers' written texts in their language use. This can be seen in the analysis of keywords that suggests the complex process and progress of bilingual and multilingual learners' linguistic system that is constantly in flux, always fluid and never linear (Larsen-Freeman, 2006).

From a translanguaging perspective, the findings of the study provide understanding - especially among language teachers and educators – on validating bilinguals and multilinguals' language use that should not be seen as errors but as a process of meaning making and learning strategies by fully deploying their linguistic repertoires without regard for named languages (Li & Ho, 2018).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Corpus Linguistics

Corpus linguistics is the study of language through corpora (Sinclair, 2000) whereby a corpus (corpora: plural form) is a large collection of language stored electronically (Bennett, 2010, p. 2; Hunston, 2002). Hunston particularly stressed that a corpus on its own can represent a "speaker's experience of language" (2002, p. 3), but a corpus stored electronically can display invaluable information such as frequency count, phraseology and collocation. This is very helpful in analyzing learners' written text, very much like the focus of this study.

Hunston explained that there are two main types of corpus studies; a corpus-based and a corpus-driven study. Corpus-based studies use corpus data to prove or investigate a theory (Hyland, 2016) with the sole aim of either refuting, validating or refining it (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001). Hyland (2016) describes corpus-based studies as an analysis of corpus through their "frequencies and behaviour" (2016, p. 121). On the other hand, corpus-driven studies refute the entire method and idea of corpus linguistics, claiming that the corpus itself is its own source of method and theory of language (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001), or as a platform for discovery (Hyland, 2016).

In essence, the importance of corpus linguistics in relation to this study is to be a platform for the analysis of the meanings of words within texts and their individual contexts (Teubert, 2001, p. 52). Teubert (2001) affirms that there is meaning behind every word used in a particular context. Stubbs (1996) posits that corpus linguistics is the study of words and its meaning not in isolation, but taking into account the relevant contexts the words are used in.

2.2 Language Development

Language use and language acquisition is a complex and dynamic system which occurs in a developing learner's linguistic system (Larsen-Freeman, 2006). A learner's language development is not constant nor is it fixed; rather, it is seen as the waxing and waning of patterns that sometimes is progressive yet regressive; "that change can be gradual (yet) sudden" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006); an adapting system to a changing context, from a target-language perspective. Each L2 learner displays individuality and is uniquely transformed through their language development. Larsen-Freeman presents some of the assumptions concerning language development and competence:

- Native and target languages are fixed and homogeneous
- Language development and progress is defined from a one-dimensional perspective of only one subsystem
- Language development is solely a cognitive resource
- Learners' language use and development is in a steady and consistent manner

Larsen-Freeman (1997, 2006) argue that language development is dynamic and fluid, ever-evolving and changing as interactions happen among individuals. Language grows and organizes itself organically because learners are actively involved in transforming their linguistic world and not just conforming to it (Donato, 2000). As language self-organizes itself, it is constantly in flux; though some patterns stabilized, the system is never static (Larsen-Freeman, 2019).

Larsen-Freeman posits that language development is not just cognitive, but a social resource (2006, 2012). Language is social in nature because it is used for many social actions whereby learners' identities, goals and interactions have an effect on their language performance (Van Lier, 2004). They adapt and co-adapt between, and among

interlocutors, forming language patterns that self-organize organically (Larsen-Freeman, 2012), even for experienced language learners, whose grammars potentially change together with their experiences. This supports the idea of language development as an integration of activities among individuals in communicative situations, variating and fluctuating dynamically (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, 2012). In the present study, the students' language development is observed through their written texts and the changes in the use of keywords over time.

2.3 Learner corpora

Learner corpora consists of authentic language data produced by learners of a second or foreign language (Gilquin, Granger & Paquot, 2007) according to a specific and explicitly designed criteria for second language acquisition purposes (Granger, 2002). It is seen to be useful in studies related to second language acquisition and is gathered via electronic collections. Granger (2002) details that learner corpora is encoded in a standardized way and is documented as to their origins. A few keywords constitute to what learner corpora is; "authenticity", "textual data" and "explicit design criteria".

In terms of authenticity, Granger (2002) posits that it is almost impossible for the learner data to be as natural and authentic as it should be, for language teaching activities may involve varying degrees of "artificiality" (Granger, 2002, p. 8). However, if written essays are carried out in authentic and ideal classroom settings, learner corpora of written essays will be acknowledged as authentic written data (Xu, 2016). In terms of textual data, learner corpora should have continuous "stretches of discourse" (Granger, 2002) instead of disconnected sentences. As for the explicitness of the design criteria, Granger suggests that special attention is to be given to the word, *criteria* on which learner corpora is built

on, factoring in the learners' individual characteristics, backgrounds and the research settings and environment should be taken into consideration.

2.4 Multicompetence

Multicompetence is defined as "the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind or the same community" (Cook, 2013). Cook suggests multicompetence as a view of second language acquisition (SLA) and bilinguals and multilinguals "as a whole person" (2013, p. 2) rather than a monolingual. Multicompetence is perhaps the closest to certain approaches that acknowledge language as a "continuously changing system" (De Bot, Lowie & Vespoor, 2005). This is because the whole mind of the user is involved, not just their first or second language. Multicompetence describes a bilingual or multilingual as a different person from a monolingual. It "changes the angle which second language acquisition is viewed" (Cook, 2013, p. 3), constituting a deeper understanding of bilinguals. Multicompetence encompasses the view of bilinguals as users of a distinct language with its own set of vocabulary and linguistic rules that gradually evolved and expanded into the adult's linguistic competence. Thus, their linguistic features and language use ought to be look at in their own right instead of being deficient when compared to a monolingual.

Generally, bilingual and multilingual users' unique grammatical forms are seen to make mistakes when they fail to conform to the language of monolinguals, that is when their language proficiency is seen as deficient when compared (Cook, 2013, p. 4). However, Cook then emphasizes the meaning of multicompetence; people who are multi-competent to have known not just one, but two or three languages throughout their lives. Cook questions the reason for treating them differently, and instead multicompetent users

should be acknowledged. Cook listed some examples of the effects of L2 on the L1, as seen below (2013, p. 4):

- lexicon: bilinguals and multilinguals usually seems unable to switch off one language while processing the other.

- syntax: The L1 syntax of a bilingual and multilingual is subtly altered by their second language.

- pragmatics: bilinguals and multilinguals have a variety of language functions and translations that monolinguals do not have.

In regards to language teaching, it has often been seen as indirectly moulding bilinguals and multilinguals to be like native speakers (Cook, 2013, p. 5). Cook thought about how the concept of multicompetence seeks to change that by re-aligning the goals of language teaching of honing successful multilinguals, and not an imitation of a native speaker. This goal is to be seen in language-teaching classrooms whereby students are not forced to use only the second language in classroom; it supports principled use of second language that supports classroom goals to be achieved more efficiently by its use (Cook, 1999). The development of a multicompetence perspective to address "the bias in favour of the native speaker" (Cook, 2013, p. 5) is a bold and important direction in SLA research that seeks to acknowledge the uniqueness of multilinguals. In the present study, the bilingual and multilingual students' language use are acknowledged and are not compared to the standards of monolinguals.

2.5 Keywords

Keywords and their co-texts contribute to the meaning of a text (Bondi & Scott, 2010) whereby a keyword reflects the aboutness or distinctiveness of a text (2010, p. 2). It assists researchers to identify linguistic features of a text (Bondi & Scott, 2010, p. 6). In other

words, keywords act as important and distinctive markers that differentiate how one text is more unique than the other as well as playing an important role in finding units of meaning in a text (Stubbs, 1996, p. 21).

If meaning and keywords are related, does it mean that the meaning from keywords can reflect the culture, ideology or social context of the text? Burman and Parker (1993, p. 193) disclosed that keywords may be able to direct the researcher to important concepts of a text that may bring to light a particular ideology or discourse (Baker, 2004, p. 347). Baker discussed that the earliest researchers probed on keywords because they believed keywords could indicate societal or cultural concerns (p. 246). Bondi and Scott (2010, p. 3) concurred that keywords may facilitate understanding of the cultural and ideological implications of the text through keyword and concordance analysis.

On the technical and statistical aspect of keywords, a keyword is able to point researchers to discover important textual and linguistic elements that are mostly frequent or infrequent (Baker, 2004, p. 348), depending on the researcher's aim and purpose. The analysis of keywords will generate keyword frequency lists whereby the keyword with the highest frequency is deemed as most key, reflecting a statistical process (Baker, 2004, p. 346) that shows which text is more distinct than the other. From there, the researcher identifies key-lists, keyword phrases and linguistic features that bring about the aboutness, meaning and ideological implications of the texts and its writers (Bondi & Scott, 2010; Baker, 2004). The processes and methods of analyzing keywords, known as keyword analysis, are discussed in the next section.

2.6 Keyword analysis

Keyword analysis is a statistical and technical process (Baker, 2004, p. 346), as explained in section 2.1. Generally, keyword analysis involves analyzing and examining large data

sets and tabulating word frequencies using a qualitative data management software (Taylor et. al, 2015, p. 110). In this study, the softwares involved in keyword analysis are Antconc, a text analysis software designed by Lawrence Anthony, and Lextutor, a keyword extractor platform designed by Tom Cobb. These two softwares are explained in Chapter 3. These corpus linguistic softwares, like other corpus analysis tools, (i.e. Wordsmith Tools as one of the most commonly used software for keyword analysis), assist tremendously in the analysis of keywords.

A keyword analysis usually produces a keyword list, which is the keywords of a text that is "deemed as most key, or (the) most distinct linguistic feature in a text" (Baker, 2004, p. 347). Baker posits that keyword lists are usually generated from a software whereby it is "usually presented in order of keyness" (2004, p. 348), that is, the higher the keyness value, the more distinct a particular keyword against a reference corpus. Keyword lists are important because it is an opportunity for more than one corpus to be compared, revealing lexical differences between at least two texts in terms of writing style and aboutness of texts (Baker, 2004, p. 348). Hyland (2008) supports this aspect of analysis by further commenting that keywords offer a better characterization and a more "key" analysis of the differences between corpora, compared to the common frequency lists of most common words (2008, p. 145). Hence, this support the methods of this study in analyzing keywords.

An important factor to note in keyword analysis is that keywords need to be explored with words that co-occur with it. Bondi and Scott (2010) believe so, commenting that keywords are not just words on their own; rather, it needs to be associated together with keyword clusters and phrases that collocate with keywords (Bondi & Scott, 2010, p. 4). Grabowski (2015) adds that keywords are explored qualitatively through words that co-occurred with them. Bondi and Scott (2010) label this as "lexical relations" (2010, p. 3)

whereby when a keyword is analyzed with its phraseology or the text it co-occurred in, linguistic sequences and phrases can be identified, contributing to "the identification of aboutness of a text" (2010, p. 4).

The usual linguistic components associated with keyword analysis include lists of linguistic items such as keywords, concordances and frequencies, collocations, word clusters, phraseology and meaning (Hyland, 2008; Stubbs, 1996; Baker, 2004; Taylor et. al, 2015). This study entails such components as well, and are explained in Chapters 3 and 4.

2.7 Translanguaging

As mentioned briefly in Chapter 1, the term, translanguaging refers to a practice of students who alternate languages when in use and mainly focused on bilingualism in English-Welsh language practices (Beiler, 2020). Originally, it was a pedagogical practice where multilingual students alternate languages for productive and receptive use by either reading in English and writing in Welsh or vice versa (Ortega, 2013).

Translanguaging may be seen as a succession to another familiar practice known as code switching, in which multilinguals alternate between two or more languages. However, the idea of code switching still includes a theoretical idea that when bilinguals switch, he or she manipulates between two separate linguistic systems (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015). Sahib (2019) supports this by describing code switching as an alternation of named languages given by political states or school systems. Otheguy et. al. add on that it was the attempt to put aside the idea of a dual conception that prompted the idea of translanguaging. Garcia (2014) further propels this by describing translanguaging not as a reference to two separate languages, or a shift of one language to the other, but rather a practice of selecting language features from a bilingual's repertoire and "(softly)

assemble" (Garcia, 2014, p. 3) them. She adds that it is the "flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals to make sense of their worlds" (Garcia, 2014). Otheguy et al. (2015) view translanguaging as an act of deploying all of a speaker's language repertoire *freely*, in which their repertoire consists of their lexical and structural resources. He further elaborates that translanguaging is when one uses his or her idiolect (linguistic repertoire) without observing socially and politically language boundaries and labels. This means that translanguaging "adopts the perspective … from *inside* the speaker" (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 298) without focusing too much on the named language. Sahib (2019) supports this point, stating that translanguaging refers to the internal perspective of speakers, and how they want to deploy their language is simply their own. While there is nothing wrong with categories of named languages, as code switching and language mixing are based on named language categories as well. Otheguy believes that these express the view from outside the speaker, and thus cannot be assumed to "describe the duality in the individual's personal linguistic competence" (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 298). Translanguaging is a phenomenon that occurs naturally for multilingual students and cannot be restrained by monolingual educational policies (Canagarajah, 2011).

In addition, translanguaging could be described as how bilinguals draw on "their *full* linguistic repertoires for sense-making" (Beiler, 2020). Translanguaging helps in understanding multilingual practices (Beiler, 2020) as well as recognizing and appreciating multilinguals' competence in their own right (Canagarajah, 2011). The scope and areas of studies in translanguaging have evolved over time and have been applied more broadly in the educational field (Garcia, 2014).

At times, translanguaging can be theorized in terms of individual proficiency and cognitive competence where translanguaging scholars seek to rectify from the point of view of Noam Chomsky, who viewed language competence as innate and monolingual

from a homogenous environment (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 4). Canagarajah's differing opinion is that translanguaging is a "social accomplishment" whereby even multilinguals process and draw from their diverse linguistic repertoire to communicate, often times moving between languages to construct meaning. Canagarajah believes this is a "creative improvisation according to the needs of the context and local situation" (2011, p. 5).

Otheguy et. al. (2015) recognizes that not everyone can deploy their linguistic repertoire freely. Even monolinguals monitor their language use to some extent depending on the social situation. What Otheguy means is that bilinguals with larger lexical and structural features compared to monolinguals usually have to monitor more intensely their language use, as the deployment of their full linguistic resources may "run up against strong norms articulating the sharpness of linguistic boundaries" (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 297). That means that their language use may not conform to that of the monolingual's. Thus, translanguaging allows and appreciates these creative linguistic deployments for "(richer) and unfettered expression(s)" (Otheguy et. al., 2015) of communication and understanding of bilinguals and multilinguals.

Translanguaging is not to be seen as an effective language learning platform or tool for bilinguals and multilinguals; it is seen as a rejection of political and educational ideologies (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014), "without regard for socially and politically defined language labels and boundaries" (Otheguy et. al., 2015). Otheguy posits that language labels and boundaries have been constructed throughout history for social purposes in which translanguage is from a perspective that loosens the grip of social categories and ideologies, but to appreciate and acknowledge learners' use of language freely, without judgement. Essentially, Li and Ho (2018) view translanguaging as more than the dynamic practices of bilinguals and multilinguals who communicate freely with full deployment of their linguistic repertoires; it pushes the boundaries of named languages as a process

of constructing knowledge that goes beyond individual, named languages, focusing on effective communication, language production and cognitive activity.

2.7.1 Idiolects

An idiolect is an important part in sustaining the concept of translanguaging (Otheguy, Garcia & Reid, 2015). An idiolect is a person's own personal language, the mental grammar that surfaces when one is interacting with others, and thus enables the person's language use. Otheguy et al. (2015) posit that an idiolect is the underlying system when a person speaks, and this system consists of grammatical and lexical features. The idiolects of bilinguals and multilinguals contain more linguistic features "and a more complex socio-cultural marking of which features to use" (Otheguy et al, 2015, p. 290).

No two idiolects are the same; each idiolect is unique on their own, differing linguistically because they involve underlying structural differences in the language user's mental grammars. Otheguy et. al. (2015, p. 290) lists some examples of idiolects:

- how one speaks differs from the other. A speaker may pronounce words differently, such as the word, *which,* that can be pronounced as *which* or *witch*.
- A language user who uses a different verb morphology, such as, *"I could've gone"* as compared to another who says, *"I could've went"*.
- A language user who uses the phrase*, "he be talking to me"* and "*he is talking to me"* is seen to have a more semantically complex system compared to one who uses the phrase, *"he is talking"*.
- A language user who distinguishes between words like infer and imply, less and few, are seen to have a lexicon structured differently

These examples show that while no idiolects are the same, there are overlapping areas lexically and structurally among idiolects who communicate with the people in their

surroundings (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 293). Through these interactions, thousands of organized lexical and structural features are shared amongst people who interact most often with each other. Idiolects are deployed selectively based on the context of the social interaction, and the who is the interlocutor. This is so when monolinguals are allowed to deploy almost all of their lexical and structural repertoire freely as compared to bilinguals who can only do so at certain social settings (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 295). This is seen in the education field when bilinguals conform to the standards of the target language. In the present study, the students' language is regarded as idiolects in their own right without comparing it to a monolingual's.

2.7.2 Translanguaging in Education

Translanguaging in education is defined as a process whereby teachers and students engage in intricate and complex discursive practices that include *all* language practices of students, so that they can cultivate new language practices while sustaining old ones (Garcia, 2014). Garcia believes bilingual and multilingual students should be able to translanguage freely which can allow them to engage fluidly in language practices while softly assembling their linguistic features that, in the bigger picture, allows for the "travelling" of language across geographic spaces to enable them to participate as global citizens (Garcia, 2014, p. 4). Beiler (2020) thinks that translanguaging has grown and developed as a critical educational approach that includes the needs of learners of marginalized languages, and speakers of minority languages. Garcia and Kano (2014) believe that translanguaging in education can give voice to new socio-political realities through querying linguistic inequality. Beiler (2020) thinks this view is asserted on two perspectives of societal language hierarchies; firstly, monolingual ideologies which sets the parameters and mastery of a national majority language and secondly, monoglossic ideologies, which "value a specific kind of multilingualism (whereby) languages are kept

"pure" and separate" (Canagarajah, 2011; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). Translanguaging in education can also provide effective communication between teachers and students whereby students may translanguage unconsciously without being aware of its functions and outcomes (Sahib, 2019). Translanguaging in education allows equity in language to be fostered and built because it does not value how one language is better than the other; rather, it acknowledges, recognizes and appreciates students' backgrounds and classroom experiences and language use with relevance (Sahib, 2019).

Realistically, translanguaging in education "is underdeveloped in general" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 8). Otheguy, Garcia and Reid (2015) consider how language education is focused on a named language known as the standard language, and this has existed in history many years ago until today. Such standards may not embrace all features that do not associate with the named language, focusing only on idiolectal features of those "who share a superior class membership" (Otheguy et. al., 2015, p. 301). Schools around the world limit translanguaging in students; even monolingual students whose linguistic variations that fall short of the standard language may be penalized. Traditional teaching does not encourage learners to integrate new language features they have learned, more so in practicing these features and assimilating them into their own language repertoire (Otheguy et. al., 2015). Language assessments also play a major role in education. In relation to translanguaging and language assessments, Otheguy et. al. believe that preventing bilinguals to translanguage, or assessing them negatively may produce an incorrect measure of their language proficiency. If schools were to test students' linguistic ability, students should be asked to deploy their full linguistic repertoire, rather than just deploying a portion of their idiolect. Otheguy et. al. suggest bilingual and multilingual students should not be compared to monolingual students who were permitted to deploy all or most of their linguistic repertoire in classrooms. Bilinguals

and multilinguals thus may be compelled to suppress big parts of their idiolect in classrooms without translanguaging. In this study, the language of the students was analyzed as a whole to acknowledge the students' translanguaging in their written essays.

2.8 Previous Studies

Longitudinal studies are pertinent to observe variable patterns and gradual changes over time. Chau (2012) conducted a pseudo-longitudinal study to discover the development of phraseological competence of bilingual students through word combinations and regular language patterns in their written essays. The research design required the students to write an essay based on a series of pictures of a given scenario. As this is a longitudinal study, the findings showed gradual changes and shifts in the use of verb and noun sequences that began in simple communicative clusters before progressing to a more "refined set of clusters" (Chau, 2012, p. 202) over time, illuminating important processes of second language development over time. This present study referred to Chau's detailed and precise methods of keyword analysis (Chau, 2012, pp. 198 – 199) as well as his research's purpose of recognizing bilingual and multilingual learners in their own rights. Lorenzo, Herrera, Hernández-Candelas and Badea (2014) conducted a longitudinal study to determine the influence of formal music training on pre-schoolers' language development. The study design was carried out over a span of two years in which pre-tests were conducted six times in that time frame. The participants were divided into a controlled and experimental group whereby formal music training was provided to the experimental group. The results from the six tests suggest that continual formal music education over a period of time can enhance early childhood language development in which the experimental group's test scores were significantly higher than the controlled group. As this study was conducted longitudinally, it was helpful to discover that music can also impact other domains of learning and not just language development.

With reference to keywords and its relationship with contexts, a study by Taylor, Thorne and Oliffe (2015) was carried out on keywords from interview transcripts regarding cancer communication. Individual interview data were collected over a timeframe of two years with the purpose of identifying language similarities and differences between men and women through keyword analysis. The keywords were measured for their keyness, which could indicate something unique with the content of the text. The findings revealed that certain keywords were used more frequently by a particular gender, but the study concluded that no sufficient, meaningful conclusions were derived from the findings. Instead, the researchers found that the words used were very much context-based. Another study that showed similar findings to this is one conducted by Poole (2014) who investigated letters to shareholders from two commercial banks over a 3-year timeframe. These letters were compiled during a profit/loss period whereby keywords from the letters were identified via keyword analysis and concordance lines. It was revealed that the words that co-occurred with keywords were seen to convey messages that either asserted a vision and strategy in ensuring success while in the midst of the economy crisis, or describing its negative impact to the economy.

Keyword analysis could also reveal the types of words used in different genres of corpora and reflect cultures and ideologies discussed. A study conducted by Baker (2004) researched on this aspect, analyzing one million words of gay and lesbian erotic narratives each to "compare discourses of gender" (Baker, 2004, p. 348) and to find out how identity is constructed differently in each genre via keyword analysis, keyword lists and analyses of concordance lines and keyword clusters. The findings revealed that words that co-occurred with keywords were key in determining the differences in discourse between gay and lesbian narratives, while revealing certain ideologies behind each genre whereby

gay and lesbian perceptions differ in terms of experiences, reflected in the selection of words used in their narratives.

In the direction of analyzing bilinguals' language use in their own rights, Man and Chau (2019) conducted a study on undergraduate learners' argumentative essays longitudinally, with a focus on evaluative meaning-making from their linguistic resources of *that*-clauses rather than on grammatical accuracy. Their findings revealed that second language development is a dynamic and complex process because learners adjust their linguistic choices over time to adapt to the demands of written communication, as well as discovering more experiences with language that allows them to make linguistic choices in their communication (Man & Chau, 2019, p. 29). In view of language development as a dynamic and complex process, Larsen-Freeman (2006) conducted a study on five learners of English who originated from China. The learners were reported to have learned English for many years and were familiar with its use. The learners were asked to write about a past episode of their lives that they are comfortable sharing, without regard of writing it in perfect English or with referring to a dictionary. The findings showed that as they progressed in their language use, the rate of change in their use of English fluctuates for all five learners at different points in time. Larsen-Freeman summarizes that their variating and fluctuating language use is a reflection of learners dynamically adapting their linguistic resources to the context of communication while transforming their linguistic repertoires.

This study refers to previous studies conducted on translanguaging to review and identify the advantages from a translanguaging perspective towards bilingual and monolingual learners. In studies related to translanguaging and writing, Velasco and Garcia (2014) researched on using translanguaging in developing the academic writing of bilingual learners. Their study analyzed young bilingual learners (kindergarteners to fourth

graders) where translanguaging was used in the planning and drafting stages of writing, while analyzing why and how translanguaging is used and how it affects the writings of the bilingual learners. Out of 24 writing samples collected, only eight displayed translanguaging. It was discovered that the bilingual learners used translanguaging as a writing strategy to achieve higher standards of creativity, thought and language use rather than when restricted to monolingual processes. Some of the manifestations of translanguaging used in the written texts of the bilingual learners were vocabulary acquisition and planning, drafting, glosses, word retrieval and rhetorical engagement. The learners used translanguaging as a form of self-direction in their writing, revealing their own dynamics of their language practices as bilinguals.

Kiramba (2017) analyzed the writing practices in a multilingual and rural fourth-grade classroom in Kenya. She deduced that her students are at least bilingual and at the same time learning English. Her fourth-grade students were given written tasks in two different languages; English, which was the medium of instruction as well as the subject, and Kiswahili, which is only taught as a subject. There were six English compositions and three Kiswahili compositions collected, each containing different topics learned throughout the school term. The findings showed that the students used semiotic resources to meet their communicative goals and the students translanguaged in their written compositions, especially in describing less common words. Kiramba probed further and found that some students faced tension when translanguaging, in terms of language separation, correctness and finding the balance between their own written intentions and the "authorization single-voicedness" (Kiramba, 2017) required by the school and her country's national curriculum. Kiramba also found that her students faced difficulties in communicating in English due to many factors, one of it being the education system in Kenyan schools and the lack of initial literacy in English. Kiramba suggests that educators

should consider translanguaging and multilingual practices and resources during classroom interactions and learning as a legitimate cognitive tool for allowing authentic voices of the students to be heard.

Canagarajah (2011) conducted a study on the teaching of second language writing in which he examined his students' own reflections on their writing development, particularly on an Arabic student. The student's translanguaging was interpreted through the activities and assignments produced by her throughout the writing course. The findings showed that the student's translanguaging act as a learning and communicative strategy called code-meshing, in the process of making meaning. This included strategies such as voice for identity, recontextualization, direct interaction with the reader and textualization. Specifically, some examples include idiosyncratic features, Arabic expressions, spelling mistakes and sentence variations that were seen in the student's writings and were further labelled as interactional strategies, performance strategy, negotiation strategy or a strategy of delaying translations. Upon interviewing the student, Canagajarah found that she was conscious and selective of the word choices when translanguaging, as well as some sentence variations she made throughout her writing. The student's reflections revealed that she discovered a deeper understanding of herself and her language use.

Garcia and Kano (2014) designed an English essay writing class for Japanese students whereby their bilingual practices were used dynamically to teach and learn. Garcia and Kano designed the English essay writing class to prepare the Japanese students for the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT) in which the focus was on two issues: the organization of the text and the quality of ideas formulated in the students' writings. These two issues were the focus of the study because apart from language barrier and linguistic differences, most Japanese students struggled to organize their ideas as well as express

their ideas on themes which they are not familiar and are foreign to Japanese culture such as democracy, independence and individuality. Therefore, Garcia and Kano believe it is important that the teacher acknowledges what the students already know and know how to do, which is their own unique ideas and ways on how they organize their ideas in Japanese written texts. This study allowed the Japanese students to use their entire linguistic repertoire, giving them agency to use their language practices flexibly to construct meaning in their English essays. Garcia and Kano interviewed the students to find out their perceptions on their translanguaging process, and the interviews revealed that each learner, whether an experienced or an emergent bilingual, have different translanguaging strategies in their language learning which showed that each has a different learning style. For emergent bilinguals, they found that using translanguaging fully from their linguistic repertoires has helped them tremendously in completing their writing tasks as they move fluidly from their lexicon in Japanese to generate lexicon in English. All in all, this study that incorporated a translanguaging pedagogy by taking into account the *entire* linguistic repertoires of the students produced better written texts in one language; English, through understanding the students' views that showed their greater awareness of both Japanese and English.

Continuing the focus of previous studies through a translanguaging lens, Blasena (2020) investigated the influence on structured translanguaging on student writing production and their use of adjectives. The study was carried out on twenty-eight students in an elementary school who produced two descriptive writing samples with the same writing instruction, but one sample written in Spanish and the other in English. Their writing samples in both languages were compared, and the findings showed that their writing performances were similar; the word counts and use of adjectives in both languages showed only a slight increase and decrease in Spanish and English respectively. However,

it was found that the students chose to translanguage nouns more than adjectives in their descriptive essays, revealing that their essays were not particularly hindered by language barriers, but they needed more support and direction with adjectives and sentence structures.

In a study conducted by Ortega and Prada (2020), they adopted a translanguaging perspective in medical communication skills when caring for patients. Ortega and Prada discussed the importance of integrating translanguaging in the settings of medical education by considering language practices that "go beyond monolingual vernaculars as linguistic practices in their own right" (Ortega & Prada, 2020, p. 252). Some examples of translanguaging integration are the incorporation of non-standard linguistic features and influences from multiple languages to effectively communicate with patients who are multilingual. This also includes breaking down medical jargon to words patients can understand. Ortega and Prada believe that through translanguaging in this perspective, patients who are multilingual may be validated through their experiences of health and illnesses, in their own words which they are comfortable in and are able to express themselves with ease. Ortega and Prada also acknowledge that perhaps there may be some form of resistance to the translanguaging concept of teaching "non-standard" language especially in the medical field, but they believe that medical educators may have already embraced translanguaging without realization, as patient-centred communication is vital part of clinical skills for medical students. More importantly, they will also develop skills to establish meaningful connections with local multilingual patients who may often come from oppressed or marginalized communities.

In a recent study regarding translanguaging as a learning strategy, Nursanti (2021) researched on teaching English to Indonesian multilingual students. The English teacher had to explain the student materials using English and Bahasa Indonesia, the local

language to increase the students' comprehension. The findings showed that the students used their first language, which was Bahasa Indonesia, more frequently in classrooms compared to their second language. English. This happened particularly during group discussions and presentations. Nursanti explained that by doing so, the students were employing translanguaging as part of their language strategy to make sense of their language use. This was further supported by interviews with the students whereby Nursanti discovered that translanguaging actually decreased the students' anxiety in class because they felt confident they could understand English through Bahasa Indonesia.

Li and Ho (2018) conducted a study that examined self-directed learning of the Chinese language via adults who learned it through online language learning platforms, from a translanguaging view. The learners took charge of their language learning over a four-week period in which their writings, speech and facial expressions during their language learning was recorded. The learners came from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds as well as having different motivations to learn language. Li and Ho analyzed their findings from a translanguaging approach to push boundaries between named languages, particularly on how the learners unconsciously use their multilingual resources fully to transform their learning experiences. The findings showed that one learner, while deconstructing a Chinese language character that was made up of two radicals (or two characters), was able to associate the first radical, with the side of another character of a different word, "creating his narrative of the meaning of the character" (Li & Ho, 2018, p. 42) and identifying it in his first language (L1), English, as the word, "perhaps". The learner was not only able to retrieve information and process it, but actively making meaning as he learns a new language. Li and Ho describe this discovery as translanguaging in action, whereby the learner was able to move across both languages – his L1 being English and his second language (L2) is Chinese – from his prior

knowledge he had himself with his L1 together with what he has picked up through learning L2. They believe that learners draw on their own different resources of the knowledge that they possess in making meaning.

These previous studies have been helpful in the analysis and interpretation of the present study which analyzes how keywords, through a translanguaging perspective, are conveyed over time by learners of the second language. More importantly, these previous studies serve as an insight on translanguaging in students' written texts not as errors, neither are they viewed as two separate languages, but validated as a process of meaning making from one communicative resource that encompasses all language practices of bilinguals and multilinguals without any constraints of named languages (Li & Ho, 2018).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This study sought to identify the use of keywords of bilingual and multilingual students, from a translanguaging perspective, over time. This section aims to aid the present study by providing steps and procedures to the following research questions:

1. What are the common keywords identified from the students' texts at three different points in time over five months?

2. Based on the common keywords identified, what are the changes in the use of keywords over time?

3.1 Research Design

This research was based on a corpus of 129 written narrative essays by 43 secondary school students. The students' narrative essays were collected across three different points in time over a five-month period. Following Man and Chau (2019), this study adopted a longitudinal design. Man and Chau (2019) studied how a group of undergraduates developed their evaluative meaning-making capacities over a period of 11 weeks. The present study, as noted earlier, examines students' use of keywords over a period of five months. The reason for the five-month timeframe is due to practical reasons according to the school's availability, which will be explained in Section 3.4.

The identification of keywords in the first research question employed the use of Keywords Extractor v. 2.2 in Compleat Lexical Tutor (Lextutor), an online corpus tool that identifies keywords. To identify keywords, the student corpus was uploaded on Keywords Extractor. The keywords identified from Lextutor were tabulated into three keyword lists. Each keyword list represented each point in time, i.e. Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3. The second research questions expanded the analysis of keywords through a

concordance analysis by examining concordance lines of the phrases and co-words of each keyword. The analysis procedures were discussed in detail in sections 3.4 and 3.5.

3.2 Participants

Originally, the participants consisted of 67 students from two classes in an all-girls secondary school in Klang. All of them were in Form Four (16-year-old) when the data collection began in February 2017. The students were selected based on convenience sampling. They were the students of the researcher at that time, and this selection was supported by the school administration. The students were briefed on the purpose of this study and they were given a consent form to fill in for confidential purposes (see Appendix A). The school is an urban school situated in town and some demographic details of the students were collected, such as their names, age and past English language results (PT3 results). No additional language information nor interviews regarding the languages used by the students was conducted to accurately identify if they were bilinguals or multilinguals. This was due to time constraint of the school's schedule and is not within the scope of the study.

Nonetheless, it could be indicated that all 67 students were bilinguals or multilinguals as the researcher herself was their English teacher, thus having access to their written English essays throughout the year, as well as in-person interactions during English classes and group presentations that indicated that the students spoke the Malay, Chinese and Tamil language as their mother tongue while learning English as part of the SPM national curriculum and syllabus.

By the end of the study, attrition was experienced as the number of students present during all three data collections were irregular. The written corpus collected at each point in time was uploaded onto the Keywords Extractor, generating a keyword list for each point in

time. The keywords were tabulated, whereby the cut-off point of the number of keywords was the top 20 keywords, each from Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3. This is further explained in section 3.5.

To identify how keywords and their meanings are conveyed over time, the keywords are not meant to be analysed on its own, but are analysed together with the words preceding and succeeding it (Baker, 2004; Bondi & Scott, 2010; Grabowski, 2015), as explained in sections 1.1 and 2.2. Thus, the co-occurring words and phrases were analyzed together with their keywords. This is explained in section 3.5.3.

3.3 Research Material – Narrative Essay

The material used in this study was the collection of written narrative essays from the students. The nature and genre of the essay was in line with the Form 4 English examination syllabus for written essays, known as continuous writing (Paper 1, Section B). The topic of the essay has been determined prior to the data collection. During the data collection, the students were asked to write a narrative essay with the same topic at all three data collection points in time over a five-month period. The topic of the written narrative task was:

"What was the happiest moment of my life?"

Students wrote in the setting of an examination, without any assistance from a dictionary. The timeframe to complete the narrative task is one hour.

3.4 Corpus Design

The first research question identified the different keywords that were more frequent in the student corpus of each point in time compared to a reference corpus. The student corpus comprised of the written narrative essays of Form Four secondary school students.

They were required to do the same narrative task for three times over a five-month period. The essays were collected manually at three different points in time as shown in Table 3.4.1 below:

Data Collection Periods	Date and month of collection
Time 1	23rd January 2017
Time 2	15th April 2017
Time 3	7th July 2017

Table 3.4.1: Data collection periods over time

The dates of the three data collection periods were fixed based on practical reasons of the school such as school examinations and mid-term school holidays that took place in May and June respectively. Consent forms were given to the students and their demographic details were collected, such as their names, age and past English results (PT3).

The students were instructed to write at least 300 to 350 words, which is the standardized format of the SPM examination for the written essays in the English subject. The narrative task required students to write about their happiest moment in their lives. The time for students to complete their writing task was 1 hour, which encompassed two classroom periods. No dictionaries were allowed as the written task was carried out in the setting of an examination. All essays were collected once the time ended.

As mentioned in section 3.2, 67 students initially partook in the first data collection point in time. At each data collection period, the number of students who participated in this study were inconsistent. Hence, the total number of essays collected at each period in time were irregular. In Time 1, 67 written essays were collected whereas in Time 2, 57 essays were collected and in Time 3, 50 essays were submitted. Thus, after identifying the students who participated in all three data collection periods in time, only the essays of 43 students were chosen for analysis. Overall, 129 essays were collected for analysis (43 students x 3 essays each student).

3.5 Data Analysis Methods

3.5.1 Collection and coding of narrative essays

As mentioned in Section 3.4, the dates of the three data collection periods were fixed based on practical reasons of the school such as school examinations and mid-term school holidays that took place in May and June respectively. Prior to the study being carried out, permission was granted from the school to carry out this study. When the first data collection was carried out, the students were briefed of the purpose of this study. They were given a consent form to fill in for confidential purposes (see Appendix A).

The students' written essays were collected manually by the researcher who was present at all three points in time and manually typed and saved in the format of a Microsoft Word document. Each essay was coded with a number and an alphabet (e.g. 001a, 001b). Each number (e.g. 001, 002) represents each student's written essay, whereas the alphabet indicates the three different points in time. For example, Time 1 is represented in the alphabet (a), Time 2 in (b) and Time 3 in (c). The corpus was analysed electronically on the Antconc 3.5.8 software (Anthony, 2019) a concordance analysis tool. This free software allows the researcher to upload the corpus and to key in word/s of analysis to generate a list of concordance lines.

3.5.2 Keyword Analysis

To answer research question one, a keyword analysis was carried out on the student corpus, which was the identification and selection of keywords for analysis. To identify keywords, the written essays of students that were typed out were uploaded onto Keywords Extractor v. 2.2 in Compleat Lexical Tutor, a free online website created by Tom Cobb that provides a variety of corpus-based tools. The function of Keywords Extractor is to compare a written corpus to a reference corpus, namely the Brown US

written 1 million corpus as it is already embedded in the Keywords Extractor itself. The Brown US corpus is by no means used as a tool to measure the standards of the students' writing to the native speaker's; it merely acts as the data set with a balanced sampling of a range of genres of texts suitable for keyword identification (Chau, 2012; Leon, 2015). The identified keywords from Keywords Extractor represented words that appear more frequent in the written corpus than in a reference corpus.

Each corpus from each point in time was uploaded onto the Keywords Extractor and generated a keyword list for Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3. Given the long list of keywords found in students' texts that were more key than the reference corpus, only the top 20 keywords from each point in time was selected for further analysis. Keywords at the top of the list usually have the highest "keyness" scores (Bondi & Scott, 2010, p. 60) and therefore are "statistically the most strongly associated with the discourse of the (narrative) question" and are often an indication of the subject matter (2010, p. 9). As this study only analyzes a subset of keywords, the findings do not represent the entire student population of this study. Table 3.5.2 below shows the details of the student corpus across three points in time.

Time	No. of Students	No. of texts	Corpus size
1	43	129	11761
2	43	129	10989
3	43	129	11095

Table 3.5.2: Details of the student corpus

As the corpus size is different in each point in time, the relative frequencies of the top 20 keywords were calculated per one million words to normalize word counts across time.

To answer the second research question, the identification of keywords was based on an emergence criterion of the "appearance of at least *two instances* of a (keyword) … in *two different contexts* of language use" (Chau, 2015, p. 36) over time. This means that from

the three keyword lists, keywords that appeared at *two* and *three* points over time were selected for analysis. The selection of keywords should not be from one text, but at least from two different texts, i.e. two different students. The researcher employed a corpus analysis tool, the Antconc 3.5.8 software that displayed the concordance lines and written texts of each student.

After manual comparison based on the emergence criterion, only 14 common keywords were selected for analysis, as shown in the table 3.5.2.1 below. This is further elaborated in sections 4.2 and 4.3 of Chapter 4.

Table 3.5.2.1 Fourteen Keywords selected for Analysis across Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3

No.	Keyword	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
1	Colour	/	/	/
2	karaoke	/	/	/
3	Scared	/	/	/
4	Practise	/	/	/
5	Favourite	/	/	/
6	scold	/	/	/
7	Highland	/	/	/
8	Malaysia	/	/	/
9	December	/	/	/
10	Sibling	/	/	0
11	Excited	/	/	/
12	Hostel	/	/	/
13	Celebrate	/	/	/
14	Amazing	/	/	/
Total		**14**	**14**	**13**

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

Prior to the first research question in identifying keywords over time, each of the student's electronic document was crosschecked manually with its original written text to ensure both written and electronic text are the same. Grammatical errors were ignored when

analyzing bilinguals and multilinguals' language use in their own right (Larsen-Freeman, 2012), as the purpose of this study does not identify changes in grammatical accuracy over time (Man & Chau, 2019, p. 31).

The corpus from Time 1 was uploaded onto Keywords Extractor whereby a list of keywords was generated. As mentioned earlier in section 3.5.2, only the top-20 keywords from each keyword list were selected for further analysis. The same procedures were carried out for the electronic texts of Time 2 and Time 3.

To answer research question two, all three top-20 keyword lists have been tabulated whereby the keywords that fulfilled the emergence criterion were selected. This consisted of the top 14 common keywords that appeared at two to three points in time. As this study only analyzes a subset of keywords, which is the 14 keywords, the findings do not represent the entire student population of this study. Each of the 14 common keywords were keyed into the Antconc 3.5.8 software (Anthony, 2019) to generate concordance lines that displayed words and phrases that co-occurred with the keywords. The sentences from the concordance lines of the keywords were extracted from the texts and included as examples for further analysis. During the analysis, the meanings of keywords were identified as individual words on its own to show how the keywords are used in the student corpus, while concurrently analysing the keywords together with their co-occurred words and phrases. The words and phrases that co-occurred with the keywords were compared with other examples from each point in time to identify changes in the keywords and their use over time.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of this study that examines keywords and their meanings identified from the student corpus over three points in time. The meanings of keywords were analyzed with the words and phrases that co-occurred with the keywords.

4.2   Keyword frequencies of student corpus from Time 1 to Time 3

This section explores the keywords identified at three points in time, with reference to the two research questions:

1. What are the common keywords identified from the students' texts at three different points in time over five months?

2. Based on the common keywords identified, what are the changes in the use of keywords over time?

As explained in Section 3.5.2, a corpus analysis tool, known as Keywords Extractor has assisted in identifying keywords that occurred more frequently in the student corpus than the reference corpus, which is the Brown's one-million written corpus. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the top 20 keywords that are more key in the student corpus compared to the reference corpus are selected for analysis.

The keywords obtained from Keywords Extractor represent to some extent the aboutness of a corpus against Brown's 1-million reference corpus. This reflects the uniqueness of the content of each point in time from the other. The column of the keyword frequency count shows the number of occurrences of the words in each time.

To provide a clearer figure, Tables 4.2.1, 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 below show the relative frequencies of keywords and their percentages (%) of the top 20 keywords that are more frequent in each point in time than a reference corpus.

Table 4.2.1: Relative frequencies of top 20 keywords more frequent in the student corpus than a reference corpus in Time 1

No.	Keyword	Frequency count
	Time 1	
	Total word count: 11,761	
1	Malaysia	510
2	Thai	595
3	colour	425
4	yoga	425
5	karaoke	340
6	December	340
7	sibling	85
8	excited	765
9	favourite	595
10	practise	85
11	scared	850
12	neighbour	170
13	realise	85
14	clothe	85
15	hostel	85
16	scold	170
17	celebrate	680
18	amazing	425
19	happy	6377
20	highland	85

Table 4.2.1 shows the relative frequency counts of the top 20 keywords that are more frequent in Time 1 than a reference corpus, with a total word count of 11,761 words. As seen in the table above, it is discovered that the word, *Malaysia* is most key in Time 1, ranking first with a frequency of 510, followed by the words, *Thai* and *colour,* both with a frequency count of 595 and 425 respectively. The word, *happy* has a frequency count of 6377 but is only ranked at the 19th place of being most frequent in Time 1 than in a reference corpus.

Table 4.2.2: Relative frequencies of top 20 keywords more frequent in the student corpus than a reference corpus in Time 2

No.	Keyword	Frequency count
	Time 2	
	Total word count: 10,989	
1	colour	455
2	celebrate	910
3	sibling	182
4	December	364
5	yoga	455
6	July	455
7	practise	182
8	strawberry	364
9	June	364
10	karaoke	364
11	highland	91
12	hostel	182
13	scold	182
14	Malaysia	273
15	Aeon	273
16	favourite	273
17	excited	728
18	crush	728
19	amazing	273
20	scared	364

Table 4.2.2 shows the relative frequencies of the top 20 keywords that are more frequent in Time 2 than the reference corpus, with a total word count of 10,989 words. The table shows that the word, *colour* is most key with a frequency of 455, followed by the word, *celebrate* with a frequency count of 910. The word, *sibling* is ranked 3rd with a frequency count 182.

Table 4.2.3: Relative frequencies of top 20 keywords more frequent in the student corpus than a reference corpus in Time 3

No.	Keyword	Frequency count
**Time 3**	
No.	Keyword	Frequency count
	Total word count: 11,095	
1	Malaysia	721
2	ASEAN	901
3	December	450
4	highland	540
5	favourite	811
6	practise	360
7	homework	360
8	karaoke	90
9	hostel	360
10	celebrate	630
11	amazing	540
12	telephone	811
13	excited	630
14	scold	270
15	*lapis*	270
16	scared	180
17	September	270
18	special	270
19	colour	180
20	cheer	901

Table 4.2.3 shows the relative frequencies of the keywords that are more frequent in Time 3 than a reference corpus, with a total word count of 11,095 words. As shown by the data in Table 4.2.3, the word, *Malaysia* has is most key with a frequency count of 721 The word, *ASEAN* is ranked second with a frequency count of 901, followed by the word, *December* at a frequency count of 450.

Table 4.2.4 Overall frequency of keywords that are more frequent in the student corpus from Time 1 to Time 3 than in a reference corpus

No.	Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
	Total word count: 11,761		**Total word count: 10,989**		**Total word count: 11,095**	
1	Malaysia	510	colour	455	Malaysia	721
2	Thai	595	celebrate	910	ASEAN	901
3	colour	425	sibling	182	December	450

4	yoga	425	December	364	highland	540
5	karaoke	340	yoga	455	favourite	811
6	December	340	July	455	practise	360
7	sibling	85	practise	182	homework	360
8	excited	765	strawberry	364	karaoke	90
9	favourite	595	June	364	hostel	360
10	practise	85	karaoke	364	celebrate	630
11	scared	850	highland	91	amazing	540
12	neighbour	170	hostel	182	telephone	811
13	realise	85	scold	182	excited	630
14	clothe	85	Malaysia	273	scold	270
15	hostel	85	Aeon	273	*lapis*	270
16	scold	170	favourite	273	scared	180
17	celebrate	680	excited	728	September	270
18	amazing	425	crush	728	special	270
19	happy	6377	amazing	273	colour	180
20	highland	85	scared	364	cheer	901

Based on research question one, the different keywords identified from Time 1 to Time 3 reflect how each point in time is different from the other. Table 4.2.4 shows the top-20 keywords observed in students' narrative essays that are more frequent from Time 1 to Time 3 than a reference corpus. Each keyword list represents to some extent the aboutness of a corpus from a particular point in time. The keywords reflect the different content in the students' narrative essays.

In regard to research question two, keywords that appeared across three points in time were identified. Their identification was based on an emergence criterion of keywords as mentioned in section 3.5.2, whereby a keyword is selected for analysis if it occurs in at least two different contexts and in two different points in time. Therefore, the common keywords that appear over time are tabulated, as shown in Table 4.2.5 below.

Table 4.2.5 Keywords across Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3

No.	Keyword	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
1	Colour	/	/	/
2	Yoga	/	/	0
3	karaoke	/	/	/

4	Scared	/	/	/
5	Practise	/	/	/
6	Favourite	/	/	/
7	scold	/	/	/
8	Highland	/	/	/
9	Malaysia	/	/	/
10	December	/	/	/
11	Sibling	/	/	0
12	Excited	/	/	/
13	Hostel	/	/	/
14	Celebrate	/	/	/
15	Amazing	/	/	/
Total		**15**	**15**	**13**

Table 4.2.5 displays fifteen keywords that appeared across Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3. As mentioned in section 3.5.2, each keyword from the table above was crosschecked with the student corpus on the Antconc 3.5.8 software (Anthony, 2019) to ensure each keyword occurs at least in two different written texts, i.e. from two different students. It was found that the keyword, *yoga*, though appearing in Time 1 and 2, only appeared in *one* student's text at both points in time. This means that *yoga* appeared in the same text of only *one* student in Time 1 and Time 2. Therefore, it was not included in the analysis as it did not fulfil the emergence criterion of this study, which is that a keyword is selected for further analysis only if it occurs at least in two different texts, across two or three points in time. Therefore, the total number of keywords selected for analysis are 14 keywords.

From Table 4.2.5, the keywords are open-classed keywords that are different in meaning and use.. The keywords are *colour, yoga, karaoke, scared, practise, favourite, scold*, *highland, Malaysia, December, sibling, excited, hostel, celebrate* and *amazing*. However, one keyword, *yoga*, will not be included in the analysis, as discussed earlier. The keyword, *sibling* only appeared in Time 1 and Time 2. Therefore, the total number of keywords to be analyzed are 14 keywords, shown in table 4.2.6 below.

Table 4.2.6 Fourteen Keywords for Analysis across Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3.

No.	Keyword	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
1	colour	/	/	/
2	karaoke	/	/	/
3	scared	/	/	/
4	practise	/	/	/
5	favourite	/	/	/
6	scold	/	/	/
7	highland	/	/	/
8	Malaysia	/	/	/
9	December	/	/	/
10	Sibling	/	/	0
11	Excited	/	/	/
12	Hostel	/	/	/
13	celebrate	/	/	/
14	amazing	/	/	/
Total		**13**	**12**	**10**

The following sections discuss the analysis of 14 common keywords across Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3.

4.3 Fourteen Common Keywords over Time

There are 14 keywords that appeared across two to three different points in time. The keywords are *colour, karaoke*, *scared, practise, favour, scold*, *highland*, *Malaysia, December, sibling, excited, hostel, celebrate* and *amazing*. As discussed earlier in the previous section, the keyword, *yoga* is not selected for analysis as it did not fulfil the emergence criterion. This study only analyzes a subset of keywords, which is the top 14 keywords. Therefore, the findings do not represent the entire student population of this study.

4.3.1 The keyword, *colour*

The noun, c*olour* is generally known as colour words that describes an attribute of something. The relative frequencies of *colour* can be seen below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
colour	425	colour	455	colour	180

Table 4.3.1. Relative frequencies of *colour*

Based on Table 4.3.1, the frequency of *colour* in Time 1 was 425 which increased to 455 in Time 2 before decreasing to Time 3 in 180. This indicates that the use of colour across three points in time were inconsistent. Larsen-Freeman (2006) describes this as a "waxing and waning of patterns" (2006, p. 590) of learner language development that is not fixed and constant.

Colour appeared across three points in time as seen in the Table 4.3.1.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…but different *colour*… …purple in *colour*… …yellow *colour*… …never sees caste, religion and *colour*…	…purple n black in *colour*… …the *colour* is very relaxing… …was my favourite *colour*… …gold in *colour*… …skin *colour*…	…a lot of *colour* light bulb… …different *colour*…

Table 4.3.1.1 Examples of *colour*

As can be seen from Table 4.3.1.1, colour was used mainly as a noun. This is particularly true at Time 1 and Time 2. The most common meaning is describing the appearance or attribute of something that has colour when under the presence of light, causing a visual sensation. However, in Time 3, the student additionally used *colour* as an adjective, as seen in "…a lot of *colour* light bulb…". This could indicate that the student was selecting her language features freely in the use of the keyword, *colour.*

The following are examples of students' texts in Time 1 and 2 that reflect *colour* as a noun:

(1) Finally we bought the dress but different *colour*.　　　　　　　(002a)

　　Finally he bought me one, yellow *colour.*　　　　　　　　　　(005b)

One of my friend bought for me a gift which I like is dream catcher, in purple n black *colour.* (027b)

In 002a, the noun phrase shows the use of *colour* to describe the attribute of the student's shoe. In 005b, the phrase describes the colour of the student's item, whereas in 027b, the meaning is identical as the previous two examples, which is to describe the appearance of the dream catcher in purple and black in colour.

While the above examples describe the outlook and appearance of something, the next meaning of *colour* describes the skin complexion of a person that represents a particular race. This is reflected in the examples below:

(2) True friendship never sees caste, religion, and *colour* of person. (043a)
    I was glad she did not judge me based on my skin *colour.* (022b)

In 043a, the noun, *colour* is seen to represent the skin tone of a person when identifying characteristics of a true friendship. This meaning comes through in the noun phrase with the nouns, *caste* and *religion*. The noun, *caste* is defined as a social rank in a system whereas *religion* is a belief of someone. The noun combinations of *caste, religion* and *colour* in a sentence portray a different context to the conventional definition of *colour*. The phrase in example 022b describes the student as feeling glad she is not judged by her skin colour. The meaning of colour that defines a skin complexion of a person is reflected in the compound noun, *"skin colour"*.

In Time 3 however, the student additionally uses *colour* as an adjective in the phrase, "…a lot of *coloured* light bulb." This is seen in context below:

(3) That is my dad who went to see the Sky Avenue, to see the light bulb and
    snoopy fair, when at 4 o' clock there were a lot of *colour* light bulb to make
    many cartoon were beautiful. (021c)

From the example above, *colour* is used as adjective to describe the light bulbs as being colourful. This addition only appeared once in Time 3.

Thus, the keyword, *colour* was used as a noun in Time 1 and Time 2 and additionally used as an adjective in Time 3.

4.3.2 The keyword, *karaoke*

The keyword, *karaoke* is known as a noun in a form of entertainment where patrons in a bar take turns to sing in a microphone, accompanied with pre-recorded music. Below shows the relative frequencies of karaoke over time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
karaoke	340	karaoke	364	karaoke	90

Table 4.3.2 Relative frequencies of *karaoke*

Based on Table 4.3.2, the relative frequencies of *karaoke* appeared to be inconsistent over time. In Time 1, the relative frequency of *karaoke* was 340 before increasing to 364 in Time 2. In Time 3, the frequency of *karaoke* decreased sharply to 90.

Table 4.3.2.1 shows the examples of *karaoke* that appeared over time:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…at the *karaoke.* …singing in the *karaoke* room… …go to sing *karaoke*… After finish *karaoke*…	…we go for *karaoke*… …in the *karaoke* room… We have *karaoke*… …go to the *karaoke* play and dance…	…sing in *karaoke*…

Table 4.3.2.1: Examples of *karaoke*

Below are some sentences of *karaoke* from Time 1 to Time 3:

(1) We sing our hearts out at the *karaoke.* (034a)

We have *karaoke* right after the movies. (022b)

On Christmas day, we go to sing in *karaoke* with *keluarga.* (015c)

The phrase, *"we sing our hearts out at the karaoke"* in 034a depicts the scenario of the student singing to her heart's content in what presumed to be a karaoke place, indicating that *karaoke* was used as a noun. In example 022b, it describes the student has sung at the *karaoke* for hours until late at night. The verb phrase in example 015c indicates a similar meaning of the student singing *karaoke* with her family. However, the student used *keluarga*, which means family in Bahasa Malaysia, to describe them enjoying karaoke on Christmas day. This is a reflection of the student in using features of her linguistic repertoire to make meaning.

4.3.3 The keyword, *scared*

The keyword, *scared* is an adjective to describe someone or a particular situation as frightening, unpleasant or worrying. The table below presents the relative frequencies of *scared* across time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
scared	850	scared	364	scared	180

Table 4.3.3 Relative frequencies of *scared*

Based on Table 4.3.3, the relative frequency of *scared* was highest in Time 1 with 850 before decreasing sharply to 364 and 180 in Time 2 and Time 3 respectively.

The meaning of *scared* is seen to have a negative connotation about someone or something as seen in Table 4.3.3.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…Xue Er *scared* about… …Sandra was *scared*. …it's quite *scared* for me… …was *scared* about… …I was very *scared*. …was *scared* of her mom…	…I was so *scared* to go… …he's too *scared*. … brother too *scared* with… …I was *scared* of…	…I was mixed with feelings, *scared,* shy… …were so *scared* to come…

…wa *scared* of spirit… …I was very *scared* to go… …I'm too *scared* to go… …I'm really *scared* to talk…		

Table 4.3.3.1: Examples of *scared*.

From Table 4.3.3.1, *scared* is used as an adjective from Time 1 to Time 3. It is seen that function words are *about, for, very, of, too* and *to* co-occurred with *scared.* Each function word has its own purpose. The preposition, *about* introduces who or what someone or something is related to while *for,* based on the examples in Table 4.3.3.1, indicates that the student feels something is scary for her. The adverb, *very* emphasizes adjectives while the preposition, *of,* based on the examples in Table 4.3.3.1, is defined as a link between two nouns whereby the first noun identifies the feature of the second noun being talked about. The adverb, *too* indicates that there is a greater amount of something than is desirable while the preposition, *to* indicates a place someone intends to visit.

From Table 4.3.3.1, it was observed that there was a pattern of fluctuation in the aadverbs that co-occurred with *scared* over time. The adverbs, *quite, very, too* and *really* occurred in Time 1. The adverb, *so* emerged in Time 2 while *quite, very* and *really* were not seen. In Time 3, only the adverb, *so* remained. This pattern of fluctuation could indicate the complexity learner language over time.

4.3.4 The keyword, *practise*

The meaning of *practise* is a verb that is defined as doing something repeatedly in order to be able to do it better. The table below shows the relative frequencies of *practise* across time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
practise	85	practise	182	practise	360

Table 4.3.4 Relative frequencies of *practise*

In Table 4.3.4, the frequencies of *practise* increased over time from 85 in Time 1, to 182 in Time 2 and the highest of 360 in Time 3.

The use of *practise* is seen to increase gradually over time. This is seen in Table 4.3.4.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
We really *practise* very hard…	We really *practise* before… …we used to *practise*…	…Saturday have dance *practise*… …we finish the *practise*… …At the *practise* moment… …need to *practise*…

Table 4.3.4.1: examples of *practise*

As seen in Table 4.3.4.1, the use of *practise* gradually increased from one sequence in Time 1 to four sequences in Time 3. *Practise* is used mainly as a verb. This is true in Time 1 and 2 as seen in the examples below for context:

(1) We really *practise* very hard for our yoga concert and this made us more
Closer and our relationship became stronger.   (028a)
We really *practise* before the concert and we achieved.   (028b)
Before my yoga concert, we used to *practise* from morning
till the late night.   (027b)

The three examples above show the use of *practise* as a verb that describe the students as practicing hard for their yoga concert (028a), either before the concert (028b) or during morning and night time (027b).

In Time 3, the students still use *practise* as a verb, but additionally, it is used as a noun in the first three sequences of Time 3, as seen below in context:

(2) That time we visited the school on Saturday have dance *practise*
and else.   (028c)
After 2 weeks we finish the *practise* and we need to go cheers for
Malaysia athlet to won the games.   (027c)
At the *practise* moment we always joking with each other and have
many laughing sounds.   (025c)

50

All three examples above indicate that *practise* is used as a noun to refer to something, either to describe the student's dance practice (028c), to describe the practice that the students and her friends have completed (027c) or as a compound noun to describe a particular moment during practice (025c). Moreover, this unique addition to the keyword, *practise* as a noun is only seen in Time 3 and not anywhere else.

4.3.5 The keyword, *favourite*

The keyword, *favourite* is an adjective describing someone or something that one likes the most. Table 4.3.5 below shows the relative frequencies of favourite over time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
favourite	595	favourite	273	favourite	811

Table 4.3.5 Relative frequencies of *favourite*

The relative frequencies as seen in Table 4.3.5 showed that *favourite* decreased from 595 in Time 1 to 273 in Time 2 before a sharp increase to 811 in Time 3.

The examples of *favourite* are seen in Table 4.3.5.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…my *favourite* accounts class…	…my *favourite* colour…	…Natasha's *favourite* artist…
…my *favourite* colour.	…my *favourite* food…	…Natasha's *favourite* boy group…
…first *favourite* food…	…my *favourite* gadget…	...meet my *favourite* celebrity…
…*favourite* K-pop star…		…father's *favourite* cake…
…with my *favourite* person…		…her *favourite* drama…
…my *favourite* singer…		…her *favourite* female artist…
…my *favourite* things…		…Rose' *favourite* group…
		…not my *favourite* group…
		…her *favourite* K-pop…

Table 4.3.5.1 Examples of *favourite*

In Table 4.3.5.1, all sentences of *favourite* are used consistently as an adjective to describe the students' favourite items or their favourite people. These indicates the consistent use of *favourite* over time.

4.3.6 The keyword, *scold*

The keyword, *scold* is a verb whereby a person is speaking to another person angrily because they have done wrong. The table below are the frequencies of *scold* over time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
scold	170	Scold	180	scold	270

Table 4.3.6 Relative frequencies of *scold*

In Table 4.3.6, the frequencies of *scold* showed an increase over time, from 170 in Time 1 to 180 in Time 2 and finally at 270 in Time 3.

The examples of *scold* are seen in Table 4.3.6.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…my mom and sis was *scold* me… …and she *scold* me…	…sometimes they will *scold* us…	…not get anger although *scold* her. She *scold* us also… … she will *scold* us…

Table 4.3.6.1 Examples of *scold*

In Table 4.3.6.1, all examples of *scold* are used as a verb to describe someone scolding another person for their actions. This indicates that *scold* was used consistently over time. However, through the keyword, *scold,* some linguistic variations could be seen in the sentences that co-occur with *scold*. These are highlighted below:

(7) Then my mum and sis was *scold* me because I make mistake. (014a)

Amy will not *marah* although *scold* her. (019c)

Both sentences indicate linguistic variations from the students in explaining their experiences. Through the variations, meaning can still be determined; in example 014a, it is indicated that the student's mother and sister scolded her for a mistake, whereas in example 019c, Amy will not get angry eventhough she has scolded someone. Example

019c showed the student engaging in Bahasa Malaysia with the word, *marah* to express meaning. This may indicate a form of translanguaging in writing.

4.3.7 The keyword, *highland*

The keyword, *highland* is known as a relatively high ground or a land which is above sea level. The frequencies of *highland* can be seen in Table 4.3.7 below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
highland	85	highland	91	highland	540

Table 4.3.7 Relative frequencies of *highland*

From Table 4.3.7, it is seen that there is an increase in relative frequency for *highland* over time. Time 1 shows a frequency of 85 that increased to 91 in Time 2 before rising sharply to 540 in Time 3.

The examples below show the noun, *highland* appearing in Time 1 to Time 3 as seen in Table 4.3.7.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…in Cameron *Highland.*	…go Genting *Highland...*	…leave the Genting *Highland*… …came to Genting *Highland*… …reached Genting *Highland*… …went to Genting *Highland*… …was at Genting *Highland*… …around the Genting *Highland*…

Table 4.3.7.1: Examples of *highland*

In Table 4.3.7.1, *highland* is used a proper noun to give identification or a name to something or someone, referring to well-known tourist destinations in Malaysia which are Cameron Highlands and Genting Highlands. This indicates that the use of *highland* is consistent over time.

4.3.8 The keyword, *Malaysia*

The keyword, *Malaysia* is a proper noun, giving identification to something, whereby in this keyword, it is a country that is part of Asia. The relative frequencies of Malaysia can be seen in Table 4.3.8 below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
Malaysia	510	Malaysia	273	Malaysia	721

Table 4.3.8 Relative frequencies of *Malaysia*

The table shows the inconsistent relative frequencies of *Malaysia* over time. Time 1 records a frequency of 510 before decreasing to 273 in Time 2. However, the frequency of *Malaysia* rose sharply to 721 in Time 3.

The keyword, *Malaysia* appeared across all three points in time as seen in table 4.3.8.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…coming to *Malaysia*… …back to *Malaysia*… …presence to *Malaysia*… …out of *Malaysia*… …live in *Malaysia*… …see in *Malaysia*…	…coming to *Malaysia*… …morning to *Malaysia*… …out of *Malaysia*…	…back to *Malaysia*… …coming to *Malaysia*… …home to *Malaysia*… …concert in *Malaysia*… …history of *Malaysia*… …playing for *Malaysia*… …cheers for *Malaysia*… Finaly it was *Malaysia* who…

Table 4.3.8.1: Examples of *Malaysia*

From the examples Table 4.3.8.1, *Malaysia* is used as a proper noun from Time 1 to Time 3. In Time 3, one example showed *Malaysia* as a subject noun that is doing something. This is discussed later on in this section.

From Table 4.3.8.1, it is seen in most examples that prepositions co-occurred with *Malaysia*. The first type of preposition is *to,* in the sequence, *to Malaysia.* In this example,

the preposition, *to* is used to indicate a place that someone or something visits, moves towards or points at. The examples are seen below:

(1) That was the day that I knew about my favourite singer, Selena maria Gomez is coming *to Malaysia* to perform. (038a)

After that, we pack our bags because we were leaving in the morning *to Malaysia.* (004b)

Next, after all we back *to Malaysia* and overnight at homestay at Johor that we order for the day past. (012c)

In example 038a, the student knew that her favourite singer is coming to Malaysia as seen in the sequence, *to Malaysia*, whereas example 004b shows a similar meaning of her friends who are leaving in the morning to Malaysia. This is also seen in example 012c whereby the student's friends and herself head back to Malaysia after an overnight stay in Johor. These three examples reflect the meaning of the sequence, *to Malaysia,* which is to indicate the place someone is visiting or moving towards to.

The second type of preposition that co-occurred with Malaysia is *of*. This is seen in the examples below:

(2) We also excited about a new that has a trip *out of Malaysia* and can't wait a date that we have to go. (012a)

So this my first trip that I go *out of Malaysia* without my parents around. (011b)

To see *history of Malaysia.* (016c)

There are two senses seen in the examples. Firstly, it is seen in examples 012a and 011b through the sequence, *out of Malaysia*, whereby *of* describes when someone or something goes out of a place, he or she leaves it. The second sense is seen in example 016c through the sequence, *history of Malaysia*, that combines two nouns where the first noun, *history*, identifies the feature of the second noun, *Malaysia*.

The third type of preposition is *in*, in the sequence, *in Malaysia*. The preposition, *in* describes someone or something that is in somewhere else. Below are the examples of *in Malaysia*:

(3) She hope there is a chance to open a concert *in Malaysia*.   (010a)

Life *in Malaysia* is hard for fangirl because kpop starts are very less coming to Malaysia.   (017a)

We went for the Caversham park which is there is a lot animals we could not see *in Malaysia.*   (003c)

The fourth type of preposition is *for* in the sequence, *for Malaya.* The preposition, *for* is used in a situation whereby if something is for someone, they are intended to have it, or benefit from it. From the three examples below, the meaning of *for* seems to imply that someone is benefiting from something, as seen below:

(4) We literally screamed cause we were so happy to meet all the great players playing *for Malaysia* and they ended up getting gold medal for our country Malaysia.   (030c)

After 2 weeks we finish the practice and we need to go and cheer *for Malaysia* athlet to won the games.   (002c)

In example 030b, the sequence, *for Malaysia* reflect the meaning of *for* that describes the country, Malaysia as on the receiving end to benefit a gold medal from the players' hard work. In example 002c, it shows that the Malaysian athletes benefited from the cheers of the supporters that encouraged them in their participation.

As mentioned earlier, there is one example that only appeared in Time 3 that showed *Malaysia* as a subject noun doing something. This is seen in the example below:

(12)   Finaly it *was Malaysia* who won the game.   (019c)

The example shows that Malaysia is used additionally as the subject noun in that phrase. The student meant to say that it was actually the Malaysian team who won a game, as seen in context below:

> (13)   The football keeper was very sporting and cheerfull. Finally it was Malaysia
>
> who won the game. We got a chance to take picture with the athelets.

The use of *Malaysia* as a subject noun in doing something and appearing only in Time 3 is an addition to the other sequences of *Malaysia* that were used over time. These linguistic variations could suggest the students are translanguaging to express meaning.

4.3.9 The keyword, *December*

The keyword, *December* is a variable noun that is the twelfth and last month of the Western calendar. The relative frequencies of December can be seen in Table 4.3.9 below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
December	340	December	364	December	450

Table 4.3.9 Relative frequencies of *December*

The table shows the increase in frequency of *December* over time. Time 1 records a frequency of 340 that increased to 340 and 450 in Time 2 and Time 3 respectively.

The keyword, *December* appeared across all three points in time. This is seen in Table 4.3.9.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…19 Decemeber 2016… …25 December 2015… …1ˢᵗ December if 2016… …in December 2014…	On December… …23ʳᵈ December 2015… …17ᵗʰ December 2015… …came back in December.	…17ᵗʰ December 2014… …11ᵗʰ December 2017. …24ᵗʰ December last year… On 16ᵗʰ December was my cousin… …26ᵗʰ December today…

Table 4.3.9.1: Examples of *December*

Table 4.3.9.1 indicates the consistent use of *December* in students' texts over time. The examples describe events that happened on a particular date in December.

4.3.10 The keyword, *sibling*

The keyword, *sibling* is known as one's family member, specifically a brother or sister. The keyword, *sibling* only appeared in Time 1 and Time 2. This is seen in Table 4.3.10 below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
Sibling	85	Sibling	182	-	-

Table 4.3.10 Relative frequencies of *sibling*

Table 4.3.10 shows the relative frequencies of sibling that increased over time, from 85 in Time 1 to 182 in Time 2.

The table below presents examples of sentences of *sibling*:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…more *sibling* love.	…with my *sibling*. …youngest *sibling* so far.	-

Table 4.3.10.1: Examples of *sibling*

In Table 4.3.10.1, the examples of *sibling* indicate the consistent use of *sibling* over time. All three examples reflect the same meaning of *sibling*. The *sibling* sequence in Time 1 is a compound noun that describes the student's love for her sibling while the examples in Time 2 describe the students' siblings.

4.3.11 The keyword, *excited*

The keyword, *excited* is an adjective that describes someone as being very happy that one cannot relax because one is thinking about something pleasant that will happen. The keyword, *excited* can be a synonym of the adjective, *happy*.

The relative frequencies of excited are recorded in Table 4.3.11 below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
Excited	765	excited	728	excited	630

Table 4.3.11 Relative frequencies of *excited*

In Table 4.3.11, it is seen that the frequencies of excited decrease over time. In Time 1, it is recorded that the frequency of excited is 765 before decreasing to 728 in Time 2 and 630 in Time 3.

The examples of excited can be found in Table 4.3.11.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…so *excited* because…	…so *excited* about…	…so *excited* and nervous.
…were so *excited*.	…so *excited* to see…	…so *excited* for…
…I'm so *excited*, I can't…	…so *excited* to wear…	…so *excited* to…
…very *excited* because…	…very *excited* and…	…so *excited* when…
…more *excited* actually.	…very *excited* person…	…extra *excited* because…
…nervous, *excited* and in joyness…	…very *excited* to get…	…super *excited* because…
…very *excited* to see…	…I was *excited*.	…very *excited* because…
…very *excited* and happy…	…happy and *excited*.	
…our *excited* feeling…		

Table 4.3.11.1: Examples of *excited*

In Table 4.3.11.1, the examples indicate the consistent use of *excited* over time. However, it is observed that adverbs co-occurred with *excited.* The adverbs, *so, very, more, extra* and *super* are function words that co-occur with *excited* to emphasize the quality of *excited.* As seen in Table 4.3.11.1, there seems to be an increase and decrease of range in the use of adverbs. The adverbs, *so, more* and *very* occurred in Time 1 whereas in Time 2, the adverb, *more* was not found, but *so* and *very* remained. In Time 3, there was an emergent of two new adverbs, *super* and *extra*, while there was a decrease in range for the adverb, *very*. These fluctuating occurrences of adverbs that co-occurred with *excited* could indicate the complexity and inconsistency of learner language over time. Through

the keyword, *excited*, linguistic variations could be seen in the sentences, whereby just two sentences are selected as examples below:

> (14) Tia was very *excited* to get the ticket because one a life time *peluang* to see her favourite group. (028b)
>
> *Ayah* super *excited* because Farid will be coming home during holiday. (024c)

The linguistic variations above show that the students use Bahasa Malaysia to describe certain words. In example 028b, the student used *peluang,* which means a chance, in Bahasa Malaysia to describe a once in a lifetime opportunity of purchasing a ticket. In example 024c, the student used *ayah*, which means father, to describe her father being excited on the return of her brother, Farid. These two uses of the students' first language could indicate translanguaging as they try to explain their experiences through writing.

4.3.12 The keyword, *hostel*

The keyword, *hostel* is a large house for people or students to stay for a period of time. Table 4.3.12 below shows the relative frequencies of *hostel*:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
Hostel	85	Hostel	180	hostel	360

Table 4.3.12 Relative frequencies of *hostel*

The table presents the increasing frequencies of *hostel* across time. Time 1 shows a frequency of 85 while Time 2 shows an increase to 180 before reaching the highest in Time 3 of a frequency of 360.

The noun, *hostel* appeared in students' texts in all three points in time, shown in the table below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
…bus came to *hostel* that we stay…	…I stayed in *hostel.* …I been in *hostel* for…	…in *hostel,* first night… All my *hostel* friends… …is *hostel* life… …stayed at their *hostel.*

Table 4.3.12: Examples of *hostel*

Table 4.3.12 shows the consistent use of the keyword, *hostel* over time. In Time 3, the students additionally used *hostel* as a compound noun through the sequences of *hostel friends* and *hostel life* as seen in context below:

(15)   All my *hostel friends* were in the front classes I am a little bit shy and awkward on the first day I was mixed with feelings, scared, shy, happy and so on.

(025c)

One of the happiest thing in my life that I will never forget about is *hostel life* it was a nice place to stay, new place new friends. (007c)

Examples 025c and 007c show an additional use of *hostel* as a compound noun that only occurred in Time 3. A compound noun is a combination of noun + noun in *hostel friends* and *hostel life* to describe the students' friends and her stay in the hostel.

4.3.13 The keyword, *celebrate*

The verb, *celebrate* is known as doing something enjoyable during a special occasion or to mark someone's success. This keyword appeared in all three points in time and Table 4.3.13 below shows the frequencies of *celebrate* across time:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
Celebrate	680	celebrate	910	celebrate	630

Table 4.3.13 Relative frequencies of *celebrate*

From Table 4.3.13, it is indicated that the frequencies of *celebrate* are inconsistent, from 680 in Time 1 to an increase in Time 2 with 910 before decreasing to 630 in Time 3.

The examples of *celebrate* can be seen in Table 4.3.13.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
… family *celebrate* birthday…	… to *celebrate* hari raya.	…can *celebrate* birthday…
…family *celebrate* my birthday…	…to *celebrate* with her…	… *to celebrate* our visit…
…we *celebrate* CNY…	… to *celebrate* my birthday…	… to *celebrate* birthday…
…she can't *celebrate* my birthday…	…to *celebrate* birthday there…	…to *celebrate* my father's…
…I *celebrate* my birthday…	…to *celebrate* his birthday…	… he *celebrate* his birthday.
...to *celebrate* my uncle's…	…to *celebrate* with my…	…we *celebrate* early…
… also *celebrate* our birthday.	…is *celebrate* "Hari Raya"…	…at the *celebrate* 2018…
...for *celebrate* our birthday.	...parents *celebrate* my birthday...	
	…we *celebrate* my birthday…	
	...for *celebrate* my dad...	

Table 4.3.13.1: Examples of *celebrate*

From Table 4.3.13.1, the examples indicate the consistent use of *celebrate* over time. The sequences, *family celebrate birthday* and *parents celebrate* are similar in meaning as noun phrases, as seen in context below:

(16)   My *family celebrate birthday* for me.   (013a)

My *family celebrate my birthday* at house.   (040a)

The best moment in my life is my *parents celebrate* my birthday party. (002b)

The noun phrases above describe a similar meaning of the students' family and parents celebrating their birthdays.

The sequence, *we/she/I/he celebrate* are categorized together as noun phrases, particularly because of the pronouns that precede the keyword, *celebrate.* These sequences have the same meaning, as seen in the examples below:

(17)   Last month, when *we celebrate* CNY I get many red packet.   (038a)

She can't celebrate my birthday because she has many work to do. (033a)

I celebrate my birthday party when I was 15 years old.   (025a)

He told me 2010 where *he celebrate* his birthday party with family. (041c)

The examples above show *celebrate* as a verb in the noun phrases. The sequence, *to celebrate* is when the preposition, *to* co-occurred with *celebrate*, forming to-infinitive clauses with *celebrate*. The examples below display this sequence:

(18)   My aunty suddenly plan *to celebrate* my uncle's 50th birthday at Penang. (019a)
All my cousin back my grandmother *to celebrate* hari raya.   (022b)
The day has past and so the night has come in which my uncle had taken
all my family and I to a fancy restaurant *to celebrate* our visit to Australia. (036c)

The preposition, *to* is an indication of a place that someone is going to visit or move towards. The examples above reflect this meaning whereby the students were going to celebrate an event, either an uncle's birthday (example 019a), a Hari Raya celebration (example 022b) or in a fancy restaurant (example 036c).

The sequence, *for celebrate*, occurred once each in Time 1 and Time 2. This sequence is seen in context below:

(19)   Me and my friend, Shangkari hanged out together to Berjaya Time Square in
Kuala Lumpur by train *for celebrate* our birthday.   (035a)

The happiest moment is when my family and I went to Lost World of Tambun at
Ipoh, Perak for our short vacation *for celebrate* my dad get a new job. (028b)

The two examples above show a variation of *celebrate* with the preposition, *for*. While the meaning of *celebrate* remain the same from Time 1 to Time 2, the preposition, *for* is used as the preposition, *to* to indicate the action of doing a celebration.

Next, the sequence, *at the celebrate 2018*, occurred only once in Time 3. This sequence is seen in context below:

(20)   The happiest moments in my life is *at the celebrate 2018* new years with my
family and cousins.   (008c)

While the meaning of *celebrate* did not change, the sequence in the example above is a variation of the pattern, preposition + determiner + noun, whereby the above example shows the sequence of preposition + determiner + verb whereby *celebrate* is additionally used as a noun while being in its root word as a verb.

4.3.14 The keyword, *amazing*

The keyword, *amazing* is an adjective that describes something as being very surprising, bringing pleasure, wonder and approval to one. The relative frequencies of *amazing* can be found below:

Time 1		Time 2		Time 3	
Word	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**	**Word**	**Freq.**
Amazing	425	amazing	273	amazing	540

Table 4.3.14 Relative frequencies of *amazing*

From Table 4.3.14, the relative frequencies of *amazing* did not indicate consistency over time. Time 1 records a frequency of 425 before decreasing to 273 in Time 2 and increasing to 540 in Time 3.

Examples of *amazing* are shown in Table 4.3.14.1 below:

Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
...*so amazing* to see…	… an *amazing* day…	…was *so amazing* with…
… an *amazing* place…	…unbelievable and *amazing*…	… extremely *amazing* news…
…the *amazing* day…	…an *amazing* opportunity…	…most *amazing* food…
…an *amazing* place…		…the *amazing* time…
…Paris is *amazing*!		…an *'amazing'* vintage…
		…some *amazing* western dinner.

Table 4.3.14.1: Examples of *amazing*

The examples in Table 4.3.14.1 indicate the consistent use of *amazing* over time. It is observed that only a few adverbs co-occurred with *amazing* from Time 1 to Time 3. In Time 1, only the adverb, *so* is seen to have occurred. In Time 2, no adverbs are seen to co-occur with *amazing*. However, the adverbs, *extremely* and *most* were seen to only

emerge in Time 3. The fluctuating ranges of adverbs that co-occurred with *amazing* over time could indicate the complexity of language learning of the bilingual and multilingual students.

In Section 4.4, each of these findings is discussed in further detail.

4.4 Discussion of Findings

The present study examines the narrative essays of bilingual and multilingual students from a translanguaging perspective to identify how meaning is expressed through the use of keywords over time. A keyword analysis is conducted to identify the common keywords that appeared over time. 14 common keywords are selected; *colour, karaoke, scared, practise. favour, scold, highland, Malaysia, December, sibling, excited, hostel, celebrate* and *amazing*. Some observations were made from the findings from Time 1 to Time 3.

From the keyword analyses in this chapter, it is seen that the relative frequencies of keywords were not consistent over time. The keywords, *December, sibling, practise, hostel, scold* and *highland* showed an increase in relative frequency over time while keywords, *scared* and e*xcited* showed a decrease from Time 1 to Time 3. The keywords with an increase and decrease in relative frequencies across three points in time are *Malaysia, colour, karaoke, favourite, celebrate* and *amazing.* The irregular fluctuation of frequencies over time are similar to previous studies with frequencies that showed irregularity (Baker, 2004; Leon, 2015; Taylor, Thorne & Oliffe, 2014; Poole, 2016). These fluctuations of frequencies may reflect the progress of a developing bilingual or multilingual's linguistic system, described by Larsen-Freeman (2006) as a "waxing and waning of patterns" (2006, p. 590) of learner language development that is not fixed nor constant as it adapts to changing contexts in communication. As mentioned in Chapter 2,

Larsen-Freeman (2006) describes language development as a complex process that is not steady and permanent, but a dynamic system that is constantly in flux, changing and evolving while concurrently growing and organizing itself in an organic way (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 591). The learners' language development as a dynamic, organic system challenges some assumptions, such as the steady, consistent manner of language development and how it is being explored from a one-dimensional angle that views language as simple and uniformed-like. Larsen-Freeman presented these assumptions in her study to prove that language development is the opposite of that; learners are actively transforming their linguistic repertoires, linguistic systems and individual elements of language that interact in ways that are "supportive, competitive and conditional" (Larsen-Freeman 2006, p. 693). This reflects a non-static progression and an organic growth of their linguistic repertoires. Furthermore, learners do not progress in a consistent manner as they go through stages of language development. Fluctuations and variations are essential characteristics of dynamic systems (Larsen-Freeman, 2006) and should not be considered as errors.

Secondly, the findings showed the different uses of a few keywords over time. This is observed in three keywords; *colour, practise* and *celebrate.* The keyword, *colour,* was used initially as a noun in students' writing but in Time 3, *colour* was used as an adjective. The same observation is seen in the keywords, *practise* and *celebrate,* which were used as verbs in Time 1 but in Time 3, *practise* and *celebrate* were additionally used as a noun. The different uses of keywords seen in *colour, practise* and *celebrate* could only be captured longitudinally over time, resonating with previous longitudinal studies on language development (Chau, 2012; Lorenzo et. al., 2014; Man & Chau, 2019). As mentioned in Chapter 2, Chau (2012) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the development of phraseological competence of bilingual learners through word

combinations and regular patterns of language in their written essays. The findings showed gradual changes and shifts in the use of verb and noun sequences over time, highlighting important processes of second language development that were captured over time. Lorenzo et. al. (2014) also conducted a longitudinal study to identify the influence of formal music training on pre-schoolers' language development. The findings suggest that continual formal music education over a period of time can enhance early childhood language development. It was also helpful in discovering that music can impact other domains of learning and not just language development. Thus, longitudinal studies allow researchers to observe gradual changes and patterns over time, indicating that the development of learner language is best observed and captured over time.

Thirdly, through keywords, a pattern of fluctuation was observed where a range of adverbs were seen to co-occur with the keywords. Some adverbs were used consistently over time while some were used only in Time 3. This is seen in keywords, *scared, excited* and *amazing*. For the keyword, *scared*, the adverbs, *quite, very, too* and *really* co-occurred with *scared* in Time 1. In Time 2 and Time 3, only the adverb, *so* was used together with *scared.* For keyword, *excited,* the adverbs, *very, so* and *more* co-occurred in Time 1, each with different frequencies of occurrences. In Time 2, only adverbs, *so* and *very* were used. In Time 3, two new adverbs, *super* and *extra* were used but there was a decrease in the use of the adverb, *very*. As for the keyword, *amazing*, only the adverb, *so* is seen to co-occur with *amazing* in Time 1. In Time 2, no adverbs were used. However, in Time 3, the adverbs, *extremely* and *most* were used. The pattern of fluctuation seen in the range of adverbs that co-occurred with *scared, excited* and *amazing* may indicate the complexity of the development of learner language that is "not discrete and stage-like" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 590), nor is it constant and steady. Alternately, Larsen-Freeman (2006) describes language development as a progression of stages that is regularly fluid, ever-

changing and never linear. Larsen-Freeman adds that fluctuation and variability in language use is because learners are dynamically adapting their linguistic resources to the context of communication that is also never fixed and ever-changing.

From a translanguaging perspective, it is seen that the students express meaning through the linguistic variations that were identified from the keywords, *excited, karaoke* and *scold.* Through these keywords, the students engaged a few words in Bahasa Malaysia such as *peluang, ayah*, *keluarga a*nd *marah* to express their thoughts and experiences. This act of translanguaging by the students resonate with previous studies discussed in Chapter 2 regarding the translanguaging of bilinguals and multilinguals in written production (Canagarajah, 2011; Velasco & Garcia, 2014; Garcia & Kano, 2014; Li & Ho, 2018; Ortega & Prada, 2020). A translanguaging perspective of the students' written engagement in Bahasa Malaysia may reveal the complexities and dynamics of bilinguals and multilinguals in leveraging and orchestrating their diverse linguistic repertoires for language learning (Li & Ho, 2018). Li and Ho, who conducted a study on adults who translanguaged through self-directed learning of the Chinese language, posit that the adults translanguage to make sense of their meanings whereby they use their linguistic repertoires fully to express themselves. As the learners go through the process of making meaning, Li and Ho found that learners drew on their own unique and dynamic language resources and knowledge from their life and work experiences, reflecting high levels of creativity to achieve their learning goals. Otheguy, Garcia and Reid (2015) believe that bilinguals and multilinguals are able to do so by deploying their language repertoire *freely* without any constraints. This is further supported by Velasco and Garcia (2014) who think that bilinguals and multilinguals possess complex linguistic repertoires whereby they select features based on communicative tasks. As they translanguage, they softly assemble their linguistic practices to adapt and meet communicative situations (Garcia,

2014). This is because bilinguals gather different linguistic features from an intricate and seamless network of "multiple semiotic designs" (Garcia & Kano, 2014) while they adapt their language use to the task at hand. Velasco and Garcia (2014) state that students should have the space and flexibility to express themselves and present their ideas in their main language, whereby with this uninterrupted opportunity, students may be able to write well in a second language once they develop the proficiency in it. The present study is similar to Velasco and Garcia's in which they analyzed translanguaging in young students' stages of writing. As this present study did not interview the students in the reasons or the awareness of their written linguistic choices, it can only be suggested that the students may have used translanguaging as a learning strategy to express their thoughts in making meaning. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Velasco and Garcia (2014) describe translanguaging as problem-solving strategies exhibited by learners that are different from monolingual users. In their study, they interviewed students to identify their reasons in translanguaging in their written texts, concluding that bilinguals and multilinguals translanguage as a learning strategy by "using what they know, to solve what they do not" (Velasco & Garcia, 2014). This could be related to the term, multicompetence coined by Vivian Cook, who describes it as "the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind or the same community" (Cook, 2013). Multicompetence involves the whole mind of the user, not just their first or second language. Bilinguals and multilinguals are seen "as whole person(s)" (Cook, 2013, p. 2) rather than a monolingual. Thus, they should be treated in their own rights instead of being a "deficient monolingual" (Cook, 2013).

Apart from that, the keywords in the present study revealed spelling and sentence variations made by the students. Some examples of linguistic variations can be seen through keywords, *Malaysia*, *scold,* and *celebrate* in the phrases, *"The football keeper was very sporting and cheerfull. Finally it was Malaysia who won the game. We got a*

chance to take picture with the athelets", "Then my mum and sis was scold me because I
make mistake", "All my cousin back my grandmother to celebrate hari raya." From a
translanguaging perspective, these linguistic variations are not to be seen as a different
language from English, neither is it a shift from one language to another (Garcia, 2014).
As discussed in Chapter 2, Garcia defines translanguaging as a practice where bilinguals
and multilinguals softly select features from their linguistic repertoires. They flexibly
deploy their linguistic resources to "make sense of their worlds" (Garcia, 2014). Li and
Ho (2018) believe translanguaging as more than the dynamic practices of bilinguals and
multilinguals; it is a process of constructing knowledge that goes beyond individual,
named languages, focusing on effective communication, language production and
cognitive activity. It is the maximization of bilinguals and multilinguals' full linguistic
resource in meaning-making. If a translanguaging perspective pushes the boundaries of
named languages (Li & Ho, 2018), bilinguals and multilinguals' full linguistic
deployment in their communication are not to be viewed as errors, but as a process of
meaning making of the students' own unique ways to organize their ideas and softly
assembling their words to make meaning (Garcia & Kano, 2014). Canagarajah (2011)
conducted a similar study by observing and analyzing his students' writing through their
essay drafts, journal entries and written assignments by categorizing their translanguaging
and linguistic variations as negotiation strategies in meaning making. The present study
resonates with his findings, particularly on his opinion that some of his students' linguistic
variations such as spelling variations, idiosyncrasies, non-idiomatic expressions, unusual
idiomatic and syntactic choices were "attributed to translanguaging … and not treated as
errors" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 13). This idea is further supported in a similar study
conducted by Kiramba (2017) who studied written samples of Kenyan students in their
English assignments. She concluded that the students prioritized communicating their

thoughts and ideas over adhering to the rules and grading practices of their English assignments. This echoes Otheguy's (2015) perspective on translanguaging as a full deployment of a learner's linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to social and political boundaries of named languages. Thus, translanguaging is not referring to two separate languages, neither is it codeswitching, but it is a process of meaning making that includes *all* language practices of bilingual and multilingual students (Garcia, 2014) from one communicative repertoire without regard to any named languages (Li & Ho, 2018).

Moreover, the examples of the written spelling and sentence variations of the present study may suggest influences of other languages through their everyday communication that has seeped into the students' writing. Ortega and Prada (2020) support this, stating that translanguaging truly integrates and validates learners' real use of language through acknowledging non-standard words and mixed influences from other languages. Blasena (2020) posits that the different backgrounds and cultures of students could mean that different words in different languages carry different "emotional and language-specific connotations" (2020, p. 11) to the students. Perhaps it could be related to the idiolect of a person, which refers to one's own unique, personal language that emerges through interaction with others that enables a person's language use. As discussed in Chapter 2, no two idiolects are the same; each is personal and unique, reflecting their own unique linguistic repertoire during meaning making. The findings of the present study acknowledge that the students' language is regarded as idiolects in their own right without comparing it to a monolingual's. Nonetheless, there are overlaps among the idiolects of people during communication; language users share many linguistic features with one another as they interact together. Otheguy, Garcia and Reid (2015) posit that the idiolects of bilinguals and multilinguals possess more linguistic features that reflect a "more

complex socio-cultural marking" (2015, p. 292) of the use of features. Overlapping idiolects of people are those who usually share a common cultural identity, and the idiolect happens to be the "cornerstone sustaining the concept of translanguaging" (Otheguy et al. 2015). Li and Ho (2018) describe that translanguaging can provide a space for bilinguals and multilinguals to compile their personal and individual histories, experiences, attitudes and beliefs, making their communication a meaningful experience.

Furthermore, the written spelling and sentence variations in this present study may suggest translanguaging as a learning strategy and a tool for the students to communicate. Canagarajah (2011) posits that bilinguals and multilinguals translanguage as a strategy to figure out and construct meaning. The present study draws on previous studies mentioned in Chapter 2 such as Canagarajah's study that examined the writings of an Arabic student's own reflections on their writing development. The student deployed some learning strategies such as interactional strategies, performance strategy, negotiation strategy or a strategy of delaying translations in her writings. These learning strategies are a performative strategy that reflected what the participant is *saying*, which is the "experience and process in meaning making" (Canagarajah, 2011) that is most important. Like Canagarajah (2011), Velasco and Garcia's (2014) research participants, who are bilinguals, used problem-solving strategies in their writing. For example, Velasco and Garcia observed that the bilinguals self-regulate and negotiate as a learning strategy in their writing. Some of the demonstrations of translanguaging in the written texts of the bilinguals are vocabulary acquisition, planning, glosses, drafting for word retrieval and rhetorical engagement. Velasco and Garcia note that the participants use translanguaging as a form of self-direction in their writing, revealing their own dynamics of their language practices as bilinguals. Garcia and Kano (2014) believe that translanguaging is a learning strategy for learners to self-regulate their language use and development of either

languages while reflecting complex local practices of interactions among communities during communication. Nonetheless, translanguaging as a learning strategy may imply that perhaps the students in this present study may have faced difficulties in expressing themselves in the target language through their spelling and linguistic variations. This could be related to a previous study conducted by Garcia and Kano (2014) who, upon researching Japanese students in their English essay writing class and coaching them for the SAT examination, realized that apart from their language barrier and linguistic differences, the Japanese students struggled to organize their ideas in writing in the target language. This was due to unfamiliarity with the written SAT examination themes of the target language that differ from the Japanese culture, as well as the expectation of being familiar with these ideas. Thus, Garcia and Kano allow them to fully employ their linguistic practices dynamically in their writing as they move fluidly from their lexicon in Japanese to generate lexicon in English.

The findings of Garcia and Kano's (2014) study may indicate that perhaps the students in this present study faced the same struggles as the Japanese students in terms of language barriers, linguistic differences and in organizing words in the target language in writing. As interviews were not conducted, it could only be suggested that the students in the present study may have felt the same pressure and expectation to be familiar with the standards and marking schemes of the narrative written task that is similar to their SPM English examination. In Canagajarah's (2011) study, upon interviewing his Arabic student, he found that she was very self-conscious and selective of the word choices when translanguaging, as well as some sentence variations she made throughout her writing. Regardless of the presumed challenges and struggles the students may have faced, Li and Ho (2018) validate the students' translanguaging by stating that they draw on their "sometimes very different resources and funds of knowledge in meaning making" (2018,

p. 48) that can be a "creative improvisation" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 5) in how they make sense of their expressions of thoughts and ideas.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed keywords and their meanings conveyed over time, from a translanguaging perspective. The top 20 keywords from each point in time are identified, producing three keyword lists. Each list represents the aboutness of each sub-corpus of each particular point in time.

14 common keywords that appeared across two to three points in time were identified. The meanings of all 14 keywords can be inferred through the words or phrases that co-occurred with the keywords. The findings show that the relative frequencies of these keywords are irregular and not consistent over time. Further, a pattern of fluctuation can be seen in a range of adverbs that co-occurred with the keywords over time. This may indicate the complexity of the development of learner language that is never linear nor constant (Larsen-Freeman, 2006).

From a translanguaging perspective, meaning was expressed through the students' linguistic variations whereby they engaged a few words in Bahasa Malaysia such as *peluang, ayah, keluarga a*nd *marah.* Spelling and sentence variations were also observed through the keywords. This act of translanguaging could also be a learning and communicative strategy for students in making meaning.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 1, this study analyzes the use of keywords in students' written narrative texts over time, from a translanguaging perspective. In this chapter, a summary of the findings of Chapter 4 are discussed, with reference to the research questions below:

1. What are the common keywords identified from the students' texts at three different points in time over five months?

2. Based on the common keywords identified, what are the changes in the use of keywords over time?

Section 5.2 presents the summary of findings. Section 5.3 considers the limitations of the study, while Section 5.4 discusses the implications of the study. Finally, section 5.5 presents the conclusion of the study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

This study focused on the written narrative texts of bilingual and multilingual students on how meaning is expressed, from a translanguaging perspective, through the use of keywords over time. A longitudinal corpus of 129 narrative texts written by 43 Malaysian secondary school students were collected across three points in time and were used as the main material for the study. A keyword analysis was conducted and 14 common keywords that appeared across two to three points in time were identified. The keywords are *colour, karaoke*, *scared, practise. favour, scold*, *highland*, *Malaysia, December, sibling, excited, hostel, celebrate* and *amazing*.

The findings showed that the relative frequencies of keywords were not consistent over time. The relative frequencies of keywords, *December, sibling, practise, hostel, scold* and *highland* showed an increase over time while keywords, *scared* and *excited* showed a decrease from Time 1 to Time 3. The keywords with an increase and decrease in relative frequencies across three points in time were *Malaysia, colour, karaoke, favourite, celebrate* and *amazing.* The irregular fluctuation of frequencies may reflect a developing bilingual or multilingual's linguistic system that is not fixed and is constantly in flux and evolving in an organic way (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 591).

Furthermore, the findings also showed the different uses of three keywords over time, observed in *colour, practise* and *celebrate.* The keyword, *colour* was initially used as a noun but over time, it was used as an adjective. The keywords, *practise* and *celebrate,* initially used as verbs, were used as nouns in Time 3. This indicates that the changing use of keywords is best observed over time. Through keywords, a pattern of fluctuation was observed where a range of adverbs were seen to co-occur with keywords, *scared, excited* and *amazing* across three points in time. The pattern of fluctuation may indicate the complexity of the development of learner language that is never linear, "discrete and stage-like" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 590), but fluid and ever-changing.

From a translanguaging perspective, it was observed that the students conveyed meaning through their linguistic variations through keywords, *excited, karaoke* and *scold.* The students engaged a few words in Bahasa Malaysia such as *peluang, ayah*, *keluarga a*nd *marah* to express their thoughts and experiences. Spelling and sentence variations made by the students were also observed through keywords, *Malaysia*, *scold,* and *celebrate* in the phrases, *"The football keeper was very sporting and cheerfull. Finally it was Malaysia who won the game. We got a chance to take picture with the athelets", "Then my mum and sis was scold me because I make mistake", "All my cousin back my grandmother to*

celebrate hari raya.". This act of translanguaging could be the students' attempt to make sense of their meanings by softly assembling their linguistic features and fully using their linguistic repertoires. The students' translanguaging could also be a learning strategy to express their thoughts in making meaning. More importantly, their translanguaging is not to be seen as errors, neither are they viewed as two separate languages. Rather, it should be acknowledged as a process of meaning making from one communicative repertoire that encompasses all language practices of bilinguals and multilinguals (Garcia, 2014) without any constraints of named languages (Li & Ho, 2018) to integrate and validate learners' real use of language.

5.3 Limitations of this Study

This study involves identifying keywords from bilingual and multilingual students' written texts, revealing different and common keywords across three points in time, in which the meanings and uses of the common keywords are analyzed over time.

As this study consists of a small number of participants of 43 students who have written 129 texts over three points in time, the findings could not be generalized to reflect the entire second language community. Furthermore, the duration of the study, which was over a five-month period, could be too short a time to identify any significant changes in the meanings of keywords over time. The dates of the three data collection periods were not consistent as they were chosen based on practical reasons of the school such as school examinations and mid-term school holidays that took place in May and June respectively. As this study only focused on the top 14 common keywords, the findings could not represent the entire student population of this study. Additional language information regarding the identification of the students as bilinguals or multilinguals was also not collected due to time constraints of the school's schedule.

Moreover, interviews to identify the reasons behind the students' use of their linguistic repertoires in their writing could not be carried out due to time constraint. This study acknowledges that interviewing the students is pertinent in identifying the strategies they used to deploy their linguistic repertoire, as well as understanding the challenges, struggles and considerations they encountered during their language production (Canagarajah, 2011). Canagarajah believes that interviews could provide deeper insight not only for researchers, but for the participants and learners themselves to reflect and themselves and their language use. Due to the absence of interviews in the present study, the discussion of findings in Section 4.4 regarding the translanguaging of the students are merely suggestions based on similar findings from previous studies that have comparable conclusions and discoveries to the present study.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The implications of this study are considered and discussed in this section.

The findings of this study showed the language use of bilingual and multilingual students from a translanguaging perspective through the use of keywords over time. Further studies on how keywords reflect the cultural backgrounds and ideologies of students can be explored so that deeper meaning and appreciation can be attained towards students' language use.

Furthermore, the findings on translanguaging in students' writing can be considered for future research purposes in providing some insight and understanding to language teachers and educators on possible reasons for students to translanguage and fully deploy their linguistic repertoire. Therefore, their translanguaging will not be marked as errors but seen as a learning strategy to make meaning. The students' challenges, struggles and

considerations during their language production should be explored further through interviews to produce a deeper understanding on their language use.

In relation to language teaching, a translanguaging perspective highlights the need for a transdisciplinary approach (Li & Ho, 2018) that goes beyond the confines of psychology, linguistics and education. Li and Ho posit that by doing so, research in bilingualism and multilingualism can go further than the boundaries of linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language learning and language use.

In language classrooms, translanguaging pedagogies could be explored further by incorporating learning strategies that allow bilingual and multilingual students to deploy their full linguistic repertoire either in written or speaking production such as written assignments or through group discussions. As students fluidly and flexibly translanguage, these learning pedagogies in classrooms may allow them to "sustain and develop their literacy abilities" (Garcia & Kano, 2014, p. 272). Language teachers and educators should permit the use of translanguaging as a pedagogical strategy to provide a safe space for bilingual and multilingual students to not only fully deploy their linguistic repertoires, but also an opportunity for teachers to collaborate with students using the students' repertoires as a resource (Canagarajah, 2011).

With the understanding of translanguaging, it is important for teachers and educators to acknowledge what the students already know and are trying to communicate - which is their own unique ideas and ways of linguistic expressions – without dismissing them as errors or mistakes. By doing so, it validates and appreciates the students' language use and could encourage them to spur on in their meaning making.

5.5 Conclusion

This study examines the narrative texts of bilingual and multilingual students to identify how meaning is conveyed, from a translanguaging perspective, through their use of keywords over time. A longitudinal corpus of 129 narrative texts by 43 Malaysian secondary school students were collected across three points in time. Keywords were identified from Time 1 to Time 3. From a keywords analysis, 14 common keywords that appeared across two to three points in time were determined. The keywords are *colour, karaoke, scared, practise. favour, scold, highland, Malaysia, December, sibling, excited, hostel, celebrate* and *amazing*.

The findings showed that the relative frequencies of keywords were not consistent and irregular over time. Moreover, the different uses of keywords were observed over time. For example, the keyword, *colour* was initially used as a noun but over time, it was used as an adjective. *Practise* and *celebrate* were used as verbs in Time 1 but in Time 3, both were used as nouns. A pattern of fluctuation was observed through the keywords, seen in a range of adverbs that co-occur with keywords of *scared, excited* and *amazing*. Some adverbs co-occurred only in two points in time while some emerged only in Time 3. The pattern of fluctuation of adverbs may suggest the complexity of the development of learner language that is never linear nor constant (Larsen-Freeman, 2006).

From a translanguaging perspective, meaning was conveyed through the linguistic variations in the keywords, *excited, karaoke* and *scold.* Through these keywords, the students engaged a few words in Bahasa Malaysia such as *peluang, ayah*, *keluarga a*nd *marah* to express meaning. Spelling and sentence variations made by the students were also discovered through keywords, *Malaysia, scold,* and *celebrate* in the phrases, *"The football keeper was very sporting and cheerfull. Finally it was Malaysia who won the game. We got a chance to take picture with the athelets", "Then my mum and sis was scold me because I make mistake", "All my cousin back my grandmother to celebrate*

hari raya.". This act of translanguaging by the students could be a learning strategy of their attempt to make sense of their meanings by fully using their linguistic repertoire to softly assemble their linguistic features. More importantly, their translanguaging are not to be seen as errors nor as two separate languages, but recognized as a process of making meaning from one communicative repertoire of all language practices of bilinguals and multilinguals (Garcia, 2014) without any constraints of named languages (Li & Ho, 2018) to integrate and validate learners' real use of language.

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