dissertation

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Linguistic Landscape as Additional Learning Resources for
English Language Teaching in Rural Area of an EFL Country

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
LL	Linguistic Landscape
K-13	*Kurikulum* / Curriculum 2013
Kemendikbud	*Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan* / Ministry of National Education and Cultures
PD	Professional Development
BSNP	*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* / National Education Standards Agency
LPDP	*Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan* / Indonesian Endowment Fund for Education
GTA	Grammar Translation Approach
KBK	*Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi* / Competency-based Curriculum
KTSP	*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* / School-based Competence Curriculum
L1	Home language
L2	National language
L3	Third language

CHAPTER 1 – Introduction

1.1. Introduction

The first chapter of this dissertation presents the overall context of the research. It establishes the background and the purpose that this research aims to fulfil. The next section begins the exploration of the issue in question by providing the rationale. It will then describe the context of Ketapang as the target area of research, and then present the research questions which provide guidance in this dissertation. The last section will give a brief overview of the remaining chapters.

1.2. The rationale

To match the rapid development of English Language Teaching (ELT), and as a way of preparing their workforce to compete in this global era, most countries are trying to promote English in their education system, including Indonesia. Under the Ministry of Education and Cultures, Indonesia has implemented a new curriculum, called **Curriculum 2013**. Within this curriculum, the Indonesian government has established English as a compulsory subject in both junior and senior secondary schools across the nation (Kemendikbud, 2013). However, despite its obvious benefits, the implementation of such a policy might also be problematic. One of the obstacles that may arise is the unequal distribution of curriculum properties (i.e. curriculum training, learning materials, etc.) across every part of the country, considering the vast area involved, and other technical problems.

A study conducted by Dardjowidjojo (2000) regarding students' attainment under the previous curriculum states that the Indonesian secondary school graduates seemed unable to communicate in English intelligibly. However, with the implementation of this Curriculum 2013, this problem could actually worsen, due to the reduced number of hours dedicated to the subject of English compared with the previous curriculum. This means that teachers and students will have to work harder to achieve their learning objectives within a more limited timeframe. Moreover, for the regions which are far from the capital city (regarding all the limitations they face), the consequences are evident. Considerable research also supports the view that such rural areas often have insufficient teaching-learning facilities and materials (e.g. teacher handbooks and

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student textbooks), and lower student engagement in the teaching-learning process, since students might not consider learning English as being relevant to their lives (Ahmad, 2014; Sahiruddin, 2013).

In this regard, I believe that it is of paramount importance to investigate the actual application of the curriculum within the context of rural areas, specifically in the area of learning resources that rural areas possess. Moreover, my research focus here is to specifically address the obligations that I have as an international student from Indonesia. Firstly, as an awardee of an Indonesian Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP) scholarship which came from a rural area, I feel obliged to contribute to the educational development of my region within my area of expertise. Secondly, I have a particular interest in the authentic texts scattered in the form of signs which might have significant contributions to the way of teaching and learning English in the school where the study will be conducted.

1.3. Research context: Ketapang

Ketapang – one of Indonesia's underdeveloped regions – is located in West Borneo (Setkab, 2015). With around half a million inhabitants, Ketapang has forty-nine secondary high schools (M2Indonesia, 2016). It does not receive many tourists as it is not a tourist city, and the majority of people in Ketapang speak Malay and Dayak as their home language (L1) (Sullissusiawan, 2012) with around 200 000 inhabitants speaking Malay in Ketapang. They also speak Bahasa as their national language (L2) (Bamba, 2016), while English, in this case, is considered as having a higher prestige within the community compared to both languages mentioned above. Sugono et al. (2011) suggest that people's attitude toward English is influenced by its function in helping the user find employment, even if the people themselves hardly ever speak English.

Although English is a required subject in schools, few students have more than the rudimentary skills required to use the language properly. One of the contributing factors to this is that in a rural area such as Ketapang, students do not have an adequate opportunity to be exposed to English outside the classroom in the context of their daily life. In this sense, Ketapang could be categorised as a typical rural area in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) country (figure 1). Even though some researchers have

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suggested that learners who can speak more than one language have a higher metalinguistic awareness and that they might be able to learn a third language (L3) faster, they may not learn it efficiently due to interferance from their L1 and L2 (Lu, 2013). Additionally, another emerging challenge is that English is barely used at all in students' daily life, and has little presence in rural areas (Gil, 2006).

National economic development also has consequences for ELT, which requires school leavers to develop their English. The majority of typical socio-economic situations in rural areas have lagged behind those in urban areas for the last few years (Israel et al., 2001), resulting in a concentration of lower-skilled and lower-paid employees in rural areas. On the contrary, most of the highly-skilled people (as well as the higher-income jobs) are clustered in urban areas (Hobbs, 1995). Hobbs (1995) believes that the availability of well-payed jobs in urban areas affects people's interest in seeking higher education. Given the situation described above, many students in rural areas tend to abandon their English studies, since the beliefs within their local communities imply that English will not be useful for them in the near future if they are going to be, say, a farmer or carpenter.

Figure 1. Map of Ketapang Regency

(BPS Ketapang, 2016)

1.4. The purpose of the study

In order to address this lack of exposure to English, many researchers have suggested solving this issue by raising students' awareness of the elements in their surroundings as a possible way to support their English language learning. The Linguistic Landscape (henceforth **LL**) can serve as a means to develop students' English proficiency by providing a context, so they can relate the materials they have learnt in class with the actual English use occuring around them. Gorter (2006) suggests the introduction of LL as a new approach to learning English, describing LL as the language that exists around us in textual form (signage), such as place names, billboards, official notices, etc. This method (as Sayer, 2010 concluded in his study), can be used as a pedagogical resource in the EFL classroom to provide students with exposure to English, and to activities which connect the English language they encounter in class to that found in their community environment.

However, it will take considerable effort to make students aware of the English around them and how it can be used as a source of learning. In order to do so, it is a necessity to firstly analyse and describe what LL actually exists and might be useful for students' learning. Therefore, the objectives of this research are to investigate the LL as a form of English exposure that students may encounter around the school neighbourhood in Ketapang, and the English language teachers perception of LL if it is to be applied as additional learning resources. Additionally, to date, there is insufficient literature published on the use of LL to support English language learning in rural areas, and none in the context of rural areas in West Borneo, Indonesia. Therefore, this study intends to provide additional information to fill the gap within this research area.

1.5.   Research questions

In accordance with its objectives, this research intends to answer the following questions:

1. What are the Linguistic Landscapes that exist around a school in Ketapang?
2. In what ways do these Linguistic Landscapes benefit English language learning?
3. How do the English language teachers perceive the Linguistic Landscapes for teaching-learning purposes?

1.6.   Overview of the dissertation

- Chapter 2 reviews the literature, focusing on the linguistic landscape as the basis of its foundation, the Indonesian educational system, and the curriculum change that includes the current implemented curriculum (Curriculum 2013).
- Chapter 3 discusses the methodology specific to this study. It explores the reasons for adopting qualitative research as the preferred method and case study as the approach. The process of the research, including ethical considerations, will also be addressed.
- Chapter 4 explains the analysis of two types of data collected for this research. The first section will discuss the analysis of qualitative data from visual materials, and the second section will explore the results from the interviews. Categorisation and thematic divisions will be used throughout the analysis.
- Chapter 5 summarises the findings from Chapter 4 by using the three research questions as its theme. This will then be followed by acknowledging limitations to the research and providing some suggestions for further studies, as well as for English language teachers to make use of the findings.

CHAPTER 2 – Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

The following chapter will critically examine existing research related to the topic of this dissertation in order to construct a theoretical framework of Linguistic Landscape. Initially, therefore, various definitions of 'Linguistic' and 'Landscape', as well as the implications of Linguistic Landscape on English learning, will be presented. Afterwards, I intend to briefly explore several works in relation to the Indonesian educational system. Particular attention will be given to the variation in ELT conditions in Indonesia between rural and urban areas, and how the educational system affects language teaching in both. A review of the process of curriculum change in Indonesia will be presented, particularly regarding the Curriculum 2013 (the current curriculum), which influences the necessity for teachers in rural areas to employ any written English around them as additional learning resources. Overall, this chapter will elaborate certain crucial terms that describe the correlation in which Linguistic Landscape can be used for language teaching in rural areas.

2.2. Empirical studies on Linguistic Landscape in the ELT classroom

2.2.1. History of the Study of Landscape

To establish a common comprehension of Linguistic Landscape as the theoretical framework of this research, it is important to firstly define what is meant by Landscape. This section of the literature review therefore elaborates experts' perceptions on how they define Landscape from various perspectives.

Jaworski and Thurlow (2010) have argued that the study of Landscape has been exclusively in the fields of art historians and geographers (Andrews, 1999; Cosgrove, 1998). Taken as an example, Cosgrove (1985, p46) describes landscape as 'an artistic or literary response to the visible scene'. His inclusion of this perspective in the field of geography influenced others – such as art historians – to interpret landscapes as (as he perceives it) a 'way of seeing the external world' and 'a visual ideology' (p47).

With the rapid growth of interest amongst multi-disciplinary scholars, various meanings of what constitutes Landscape have emerged. The very basic definition of **landscape** given by Cenoz and Gorter (2008) was literally 'a tract of land' (p268). Recently, as an

object of investigation. Landscape has been seen as two sides of natural and unnatural settings (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010). Unlike the natural landscape that most people can see in areas such as countryside, mountains, etc. they argue that the term Landscape in urban space is equivalent to the 'natural décor' of a city which carries 'emblematic significance' to the passers-by that include social and cultural activity (xv). While Ben-Rafael underlined social interaction, Jaworski and Thurlow (2010) emphasise Landscape as an area which is open and can be accessed by other people. Alternatively, Cosgrove (1998) defines Landscape as an environment continually evaluated by the government through aerial planning to support people's living. In this sense, it is clear to see Landscape as a natural setting impacted by the actions/activities of human endeavours, where humans socialise through interaction and convey meanings in an observed area controlled by the government. In relation to their particular uses, **Landscape**, in a broader sense, can be perceived as how people view and interpret meaning from spaces/spheres around them in relation to the social and cultural practice (Jaworski and Thurlow, 2010).

2.2.2. Definitions of Linguistic Landscape

In recent times, numerous studies from applied linguists and sociolinguists have emerged in favour of undertaking a deeper analysis into the language inscription used in public and private spaces (i.e. Gorter, 2006; Kallen & Dhonnacha, 2010; Sayer, 2010; Rowland, 2013). After initial introduction by Voegelin (1933), the term *Linguistic Landscape* has been widely used as the basis to interpret the holistic situation of linguistics in a certain community. Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition in their seminal work introduced the now widely accepted understanding of LL as:

> The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration (p8).

Many percieve the above definition of Landry and Bourhis as the starting point of LL study, as they seek to link publicly displayed discourse to the sociolinguistic aspects of its surroundings. Many LL researchers concur with this, and use a narrower definition of LL as that which is seen as written language in the public sphere/space (Cenoz and Gorter, 2008). However, this view of LL might not be entirely shared among other LL

experts. On some occasions, experts tend to emphasise how they perceive LL from perspectives other than linguistic, such as social, cultural and even political contexts (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010).

Firstly, from the perspective of social relationships, Jaworski and Thurlow (2010) propose that all landscape is semiotic, meaning that LL as a unification of signs (working as elements of communication) is always construed by the interpretation of socio-cultural activities. In this sense, they believe that Linguistic Landscape is constituted by human intervention and meaning-making as a part of socio-cultural acts in any public sphere in the form of written language. The second perspective is cultural. From this point of view, some researchers have focused on the presence of languages in various situations as a representation of local culture within a multilingualist context (Barni & Bagna, 2010; Kallenn & Dhonnacha, 2010). Brown (2000) assesses the relationship between culture and language by arguing that a language is a part of a culture and vice versa. Both are inseparable, as language expresses cultural reality. In addition, Swales (1990) explains that in every discourse community – the common ways in which members of a social group use language, i.e. academic disciplines – each community member uses language differently from others, which implies that particular cultures will use and interpret language differently and based on their shared cultural knowledge.

The last facet of LL is in the context of politics and power-related issues. Landry and Bourhis (1997) and Tan (2014) describe two types of sign: non-official, and official signs. Non-official (or private) signs include the common commercial advertising on billboards, shop signage, etc. Official signs, which can be referred to as top-down signs (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010), imply the power of central government through the presence and dominance of one particular language in LL items over others, which thus shapes and influences a society's linguistic identity. Waksman and Shohamy (2010) describe this situation in terms of how LL signs are purposely designed and placed around an area by the municipality. Numerous studies have been conducted into the influence of political power on the spread of LL and linguistic identity (see Backhaus, 2006; Marten, 2010; Tan, 2014), underlining the principal norm of how governments manage LL to promote or diminish the minority as well as the majority language(s) respectively.

Given the variations in meaning that LL possesses and the focus of its study (i.e. in relation to the social, cultural and political, as mentioned above), different interpretations can be drawn depending on the core issue under investigation. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, I will focus on the definition of LL as a pedagogic tool, and the main concern is that of language used in written form which is visible in public places.

However, this narrow definition of LL itself can vary depending on the places or spheres in which the linguistic element communicates its meaning. Gorter (2006) explained that in cases where written English is shown in certain public places (such as shopping areas in cities), the term 'Linguistic Cityscape' can be employed. From another point of view, Cenoz and Gorter (2008) prefer to use the term 'Multilingual Cityscape' in the case of the huge number of signs that exist in a commercial, urban area. There may have been a gradual change, nevertheless, on the focus of LL; where it once refered to languages' presense across all regions of a country, now many experts seem concerned primarily with urban areas (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010; Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Weyers, 2016). One reason for this may well be that – as Kallen and Dhonnacha (2010) argue – in relation to its language and linguistic value, the existence of LL in urban areas has engendered immense problems which need further investigation. They further explain:

> '[LL's] physical design frequently creates competition for spatial dominance, while social diversity in many urban areas – seen both in the resident population and in the transient population of tourists, businesspeople, students and other such groups – brings together different languages and linguistic value systems without necessarily seeking consensus or a common linguistic order' (Kallen & Dhonnacha, 2010, p19).

In spite of the many definitions and focuses of LL, the objective of this research is to use the specific understanding of LL and relate it to ELT in rural areas. Therefore, in this study, **Linguistic Landscape** can be referred to as linguistic objects that mark the public space in any written form of English (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010), and which can be useful for learning English, including road signs, street names, stores, offices, billboards, and so on.

2.2.3. Previous studies on Linguistic Landscape

In most studies, LL was used to analyse the many aspects of English that exist in certain countries. They can be used to inform the reasons behind the use of English, language change, and the advantages of using LL in future learning. Sayer (2010), for instance, conducted a study on the social meaning of English encountered in Oxaca, Mexico (see example in figure 2 below), and categorised six reasons why people tend to use English to convey messages in public places (namely, because English is advanced and sophistocated, and indicates fashion, to appear cool, sexy, and as it is preferable for expressions of love or subversive identities). Additionally, Backhaus (2006) examined the purpose of using English in official and non-official signs found in Tokyo, Japan. The first function is that of expressing power, while the second is for communicating solidarity and strengthening relations amongst the Japanese. Research in Bangkok, meanwhile, reports growing shifts from Thai and Chinese to English, as well as as an increase in the influences that English is exerting on local languages in public signage (Huebner, 2006). Again focusing on an Asian country, two recent studies in Japan into the use of LL amongst university students suggested that these approaches can be harnessed to analyse student interpretation of the multilingual signage around them (Rowland, 2013; Rowland, 2016).

Figure 2. Example of Linguistic Landscape
(cited from Sayer, 2010)

However, research on LL can also demonstrate some bias. For instance, Gorter (2006) identifies three major considerations that might negatively affect research in this area if not carefully addressed. The first is in selecting the sample. He suggests that the quantity and location of the sample must be representative of the local town, community or

specific area. The second consideration is the definition of LL itself. Each researcher may have their own definition of what constitutes LL. Some may include moving English text (such as that found on buses or a passer-by's t-shirt) as a form of LL, others not. The last issue is that of the categorisation of signs. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) contend that in processing the data of LL, a specific coding scheme needs to be developed so data can be categorised and analysed. In this regard, Gorter (2006) suggests that thorough research must also consider basic variables of the coding scheme, for instance: the location of the signs, font used, number of languages appearing on the signs, language order in multilingual signs, and whether the text has been partially or fully translated. Thus, by identifying such elements, the result of an investigation into LL can accurately represent the local context in which it is found.

2.2.4. Linguistic Landscape as an additional source of input

In the previous section, despite some considerations that need to be addressed in conducting research on LL, the literature provides brief discussion about different aspects of LL that some researchers include in their investigation of language appearance in society. In relation to the proposed research, the focus of LL (further explored in this section) is on which LL can be used as additional source of input to support language learning.

In the debate surrounding input for learning, Krashen's (1982) pioneering 'Input Hypothesis' theory describes input as merely 'structures that we have not yet acquired' (p21). Ellis (2008) develops this further by arguing that input is any information that can be used to support language learning and which can take many forms, such as linguistic properties (grammar, vocabulary and phonology), or the dynamic form of TV programmes that are accessible to learners. At the beginning of its emergence, the 'Input Hypothesis' – emphasising the role of input for Second Language Acquisition (SLA) – was traditionally popular among many SLA researchers, but nevertheless controversial to others (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). In his hypothesis, Krashen asserts that the process of acquiring a language can be achieved through exposure to structures beyond one's current competence. On the one hand, this notion of input has received more attention and contributed to recent approaches to SLA (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Gass, 2003). On the other hand, however, this theory is controversial and has undergone some critique, especially in regard to the notion that learners could develop the ability to speak simply

by language input, which seems counterintuitive, as output also serves an important role in second language acquisition (Bot, 1996).

Regarding the use of LL as input or learning materials in ELT classes, one of the most significant theories proposed was that of Cenoz and Gorter (2008). They explore the potential of LL through the 'Incidental Learning' theory, defined as the process of acquiring knowledge without any previous intention, or learning one thing while paying attention to something else (Hulstijn, 2003). For example, the learner may acquire some new vocabularies while the main activity was listening to a song. In this matter, Cenoz and Gorter believe that language learning through LL is likely to be incidental. Learners tend to have little or no awareness of the learning process which may be provoked by the English text they encounter in form of advertisements, billboards, stores names, etc. in everyday activities. It is important to recognise that, according to Hulstijn (2003), retentional gains in incidental learning may not be overly evident, but by continual exposure to the learning target the result can be tangible. This statement corresponds with Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2010) claim that 'the more dense and numerous the LL items, the more one may expect perceptions of LL to be diversified . . . and so also the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction passers-by draw from the LL' (xviii).

However, there are some limitations to the correlation of LL as learning input. The first is that of retentional gains. Even though these can be augmented by continuous exposure, this theory depends on some basic factors, such as the frequency with which the learner is exposed to the signage around them (Ellis, 2008) and whether these signs are relevant to them. Considering the amount of LL present in a certain area, rural (when compared with urban) areas seem to have an insufficient number of signs that learners can see. Moreover, learners as passers-by in public spaces could view English signs as something 'given' which they may take for granted (Ben-Rafael et al., 2010), and no learning process will occur in this case.

The second criticism attached to the approach of using LL as input is that of isolating the effect of LL from other types of input that the learner receives in the process of learning a language. Through conducting controlled laboratory experiments (Gorter & Cenoz, 2004), it is possible to identify the role of LL in SLA, but nonetheless difficult to do so

(Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Cenoz and Gorter (2008) further emphasise the limitation of using LL in learning a language by saying,

'Even if only those items of language the learner has paid attention to are processed and stored, it would be difficult to know which elements of the linguistic landscape draw the learner's attention and how aware the learner is of paying attention to them' (p273).

Nevertheless, the use of LL as additional learning resources has been suggested by some experts to have significant effects on learners' language learning, which can be summarised as follows:

1. Learners' Pragmatic Competence

Exposure to the LL can particularly provide better input at different linguistic levels or competencies. As proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) among their other communicative competencies (i.e. linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence), *pragmatic competence* (Kasper & Rose, 2001) – which refers to the ability to communicate one's intended message, or in this case to interpret the message conveyed by others in a commonly nuanced socio-cultural context – can be further developed through LL analysis. Any written English placed in a public place will tend to include indirect language and metaphors which are sometimes written in full text, but in many cases, will only consist of one word or phrase, and whose meaning is attached to the context in which they are placed (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Thus, in relation to the relevancy of LL as learning resources, it is the duty of the English language teacher to bring them into the classroom and, together with students, decipher and interpret (Dagenais et al., 2008) their meaning. This is the situation in which Ellis (2005) emphasises that explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge through interaction with environments and negotiation for meaning in the classroom.

2. Enhance learners' sensitivity to social aspects of language

Sayer (2010) contends that the study of LL can not only be carried out by the linguists or language researchers, but also by the language learners themselves. In his study, Sayer suggests the potential benefits of allowing students to investigate the LL and explore the meaning of authentic texts around them. This method can be beneficial in terms of providing an exciting way for students to connect their theoretical knowledge with what

actually exists beyond their classroom. Calvert and Sheen (2015) suggest that giving students an appropriately challenging and meaningful task can increase their learning engagement. Therefore, such learning methods will help learners develop their sensitivity to connotational aspects of language by developing their analytical understanding of how language is used in wider society.

3. Developing multimodal literacy

As previously mentioned, LLs can have positive impact on learners' pragmatic competence and their sensitivity to the social aspects of language. However, as LLs appear in the form of written texts, they also relate to literacy skills. A traditional view provided by Barton and Hamilton (1998) states that 'literacy is best understood as a set of social practices; these can be inferred from events which are mediated by written texts' (p6). Given the recent development of technology and media for communication, however, there has been a gradual shift in the meaning of literacy. Goddard (2002) remarks that literacy cannot be achieved solely through the means of written language. Readers tend to combine texts with various additional media that help them better comprehend their meaning (i.e. sounds, visuals, semiotic symbols). For example, text messages include different types of font, with colour variation and accompanying icons; such combination was later coined multimodal literacy (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Likewise, LL is considered as multimodal literacy because it combines both visual and written texts. This characteristic blending coupled with the specific location where LLs are placed provide different contexts for the readers (passers-by) to conceptualise the meaning.

By and large, and based on the research findings presented above, it seems reasonable to conclude that LLs can be highly useful in promoting English language learning in the classroom when used under the right circumstances, as they: (1) increase the potential of incidental learning; (2) develop learners' pragmatic competence; (3) enhance learners' sensitivity to social aspects of language; and (4) develop multimodal literacy. Sayer (2010) further recommends that this approach be adapted and used by teachers to focus English learning instruction on vocabulary, grammatical features and idioms. The use of LL could even solve learning problems such as insufficient learning resources, and the claim that some learners have low exposure to English. In the case of low student

the main issue regarding the problems that occur in rural areas in Indonesia as a result of unequal distribution of curriculum properties merits particular examination, and will be carefully described in the following sections.

2.6. ELT in Rural Areas

2.6.1. ELT rural vs urban

The importance of English language acquisition was acknowledged in Indonesia shortly after its independence in 1945 (Jazadi, 2000; Lamb & Coleman, 2008). As in other South-East Asian countries, English is perceived to be a key factor '[t]o help our young people succeed in life and find greater personal fulfillment' through 'effective interaction in different cultural environments' (Nunan, 2003, p598). Even though Indonesia still considers English as a foreign language (Jazadi, 2000), the influence of English is evident across the country. This is particularly apparent in urban areas, where the use of English is mainly employed for communicative purposes (e.g. job interview) and business. Taking as an example the area of business advertisements, numerous products are also named and promoted in English. For example, as noted in one of Indonesia's daily newspapers, '*Kompas*', there is a tendency for novels to be titled in English even though they are written in Bahasa (Lamb & Coleman, 2008). Meanwhile, as English has penetrated the educational system, its effects are also reflected in Indonesian curriculum. One of these effects has been explored by Baso (2014), and shows how the influence of English affected the Indonesian universities curriculum in the East Borneo. She mentions that the content of the curriculum in tertiary level supposedly included TOEFL programme which also combined with English for Specific Programme to meet the demand of multi-national companies of their employees to acquire certain level of English. However, her study found that in practice, none of the universities in East Borneo was providing these programmes within their curriculum.

While the decentralisation of power – and subsequent urgency of regional autonomy was emphasised (Bjork, 2004; Huda, 2016) – began in 1998, there are still disparities as to how each region perceives policies from the central government. Huda maintains that this is the result of: (1) misconception from regional bodies in taking over the new responsibilities; (2) the attitude of central authorities; and (3) different perceptions on

how to view the goal of decentralisation itself. A study by Lamb and Coleman (2008) examining two provinces in Indonesia reveals that one of the main aspects that distinguishes rural and urban areas in the educational context is in terms of tuition-fee policy. They say that in rural areas, there is a tendency for people in poor communities not to send their children to school, despite the fact that state schools are supposed to be free of charge. This is because those schools still require students to pay other forms of so-called 'educational costs', including 're-registration cost, school's development contribution, uniform fees, examination fees, etc.' (Coleman et al., 2004, p46). Hossain (2016) argues that 'rural schools mostly receive an education that is inferior compared to the students that live in the urban areas' (p2). Additionally, he mentioned other criteria that may contribute to the different achievements of students in English language learning in rural areas. Firstly, in terms of family factors, some experts believe that parents and relatives exert the biggest influence on young people's educational decisions (Esterman & Hedlund, 1995; Israel et al., 2001), asserting that students in rural areas have low performance compared to students from urban areas due to the disparity of educational background of their parents (Israel et al., 2001). Secondly, financial factors might affect students' performance, as students from rural areas primarily come from families with a low-income background. This can cause these students to have difficulties in finding adequate learning resources or enrolling in a more expensive higher-grade school when compared to students from urban areas. The last factor is that of educational logistic support. Most schools in rural areas still use a chalkboard/blackboard and do not have enough books to adequately support learning (Hossain, 2016). Another form of educational support is the availability of qualified and trained teachers in rural areas, as it was reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (1999) that the majority have had little or no PD before they teach English. Evidence such as that above indicates one particular shortcoming in the implementation of the Indonesian curriculum which is interpreted by Fullan (2007) as the failure of central government during the planning stage to take account of local context, situation and culture.

2.6.2. Rural

The term 'rural' itself can be viewed as a multi-interpretational word. It may be described as a subjective state of mind or an objective quantitative measure, depending

on whose interpretation it is based (Roka, 2016; US Department, 2016). One of the applications of the term *rural* is to describe certain places that consist of few people or cities. Compared to urban areas, which are well-populated and surrounded by cities, rural areas are sparsely populated areas usually formed of farmland or country areas (Hossain, 2016, p1). Alternatively, Corzo and Lopera (2016) describe rural areas as places with 'difficult access to education services, far from the urban zones, uneven distribution of wealth, welfare, quality of life, and higher levels of poverty' (p131). In the case of Indonesia, the rural area is a region whose territory and inhabitants are less socio-economically advantaged than other regencies on a national scale (Setkab, 2015). The assessment criteria used to define whether a regency can be categorised as rural or not are the: (a) economic status, (b) human resources, (c) facilities, (d) accessibility, (e) education and (f) characteristics of the area. Based on these criteria, President Decree (2015) Number 131 stated that Ketapang regency (as the focus of this study) in West Borneo province is included as one of the rural areas under the category of underdeveloped regencies.

Ketapang regency is located in West Borneo, Indonesia. As one of the underdeveloped regions, it has a vast area of 31.588 km^2, with 475.985 inhabitants in 2015 (BPS Ketapang, 2016). It is a multicultural region consisting of Chinese, Madurese, Javanese and Malay populations/languages, with Dayak as the native people (König, 2016), who live in Ketapang. The majority of the people work as farmers, fishermen and civil servants, while the main income of the region came from industrial sectors, such as wood, palm oil and swift's nest harvesting (Pemkab, 2007). As a former kingdom, it has been divided into three sub-kingdoms (*kerajaan*), namely Kerajaan Matan, Kerajaan Sukadana and Kerajaan Simpang. Under republic rules, it is currently divided into twenty districts, with the centre of trading and government activity (for example, the seaport, airport, regent office, and other government offices) located in *Delta Pawan* district. Therefore, this study will focus its research on the Delta Pawan district, amongst others, since it might provide more data and evidence of what this study intends to examine.

2.7. Conclusion

Due to the complex issues faced by EFL learners in rural areas (inluding policy, environmental, and conceptual constraints), teaching English can be highly challenging

for educators. It seems impossible for them to rely solely on and adhere to those government instructions embodied in the curriculum to maximise ELT in Ketapang. Therefore, there is a need for teachers to broaden their creativity to develop their own teaching materials. One possible way that this could be achieved in rural areas is to relate learning materials to contextual learning resources in students' local communities by using the linguistic landscape as an additional learning material. This aside, the use of LLs will also be beneficial in increasing the potential of incidental learning, developing learners' pragmatic competence, enhancing learners' sensitivity to social aspects of language, and developing multimodal literacy. This way, a meaningful and relevant learning process can take place which is likely to increase the students' engagement with learning English.

CHAPTER 3 – Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology and research design chosen for this study. It begins with a discussion around the applied methodology, which is qualitative in nature and used to support a case study approach. This is followed by the elaboration of the research design that includes sampling, method of data collection, and the process of conducting the research. Finally, since the data is a combination of documentary analysis and interview which involves human participation – namely English language teachers – the ethical considerations are addressed.

3.2. Methodology

In order to address the research questions identified in Chapter 1, this study will employ a qualitative method. The aims of using a qualitative method are to provide rich and complex description to achieve an in-depth understanding of research participants or an issue of social/educational importance that are being investigated (Denscombe, 2010). Lichtman (2013, p17) argues that the purpose of qualitative research is 'to describe, understand, and interpret human *phenomena*, human *interaction*, or human *discourse*'. In this regard, human phenomena reflect lived experiences, while interaction describes how people interact and communicate their culture with each other, and human discourse explains how people communicate their ideas. As the focus of this study describes humans' perception and social phenomena around them, the qualitative method was employed, as it allows the researcher to explore the process and obtain the meaning and interpretation of such phenomena (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). As Creswell (2014) highlights, qualitative research can combine multiple forms of data in analysis, such as interviews, document analysis, and observation of audio and visual materials, instead of just relying on a single form of data.

One of the core characteristics of qualitative research proposed by Creswell (2014) is reflexivity. Here, reflexivity means that instead of 'merely advancing biases and values in the study, [...] the background of the researchers actually may shape the direction of the study' (Creswell, 2014, p186). He further underlines the role of the researcher, as their personal background, culture, and experience could have potential both in shaping

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the interpretation of the data and creating biases. In this regard, the researcher's knowledge of the environment, school, and some of the teachers can affect the research process in terms of how they collect and analyse the data. According to Warwick and Chaplain (2013), this situation can affect how participants respond to the given questions. There are some advantages of this situation, which firstly allows the researcher to have a wider perspective of the location and situation where the LL is being investigated, and secondly, more nuanced understanding of the answers provided by participants. On the other hand, some issues can emerge, as, in this case, some of the participants know me as the researcher, from studying for a bachelor's degree at the same university. To address this issue, I have designed an ethical scrutiny (contained in the ethical application) which emphasises that participation in the research is entirely optional, and that a decision not to participate will in no way affect their relationship with either me or QUB.

To support the methodology, I also employ a case-study approach. The fundamental concept of a case-study is to investigate and report real-life phenomena, including complex and dynamic circumstances (Cohen et al., 2011). Yin (2009) states that case studies try to define situations which are not always easily described by numerical analysis. Some experts have defined the notion of a case study in different ways, including categorising it into several types and designs. Yin (1984) divides case studies into the exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. Similarly, Merriam (1997) identifies three types of case study: descriptive, interpretive, and evaluative. She also categorises case studies into what she calls domains or kinds, including ethnographic, historical, psychological, and sociological.

Stenhouse (1988) suggests that the case study is better specified into four styles, namely: ethnographic, evaluative, educational, and action research. Of all the variations of what constitutes types of case study, I have chosen the definition of educational case study as the most appropriate for this research. Stenhouse (1988) defines educational case study as a way to understand educational action 'to enrich the thinking and discourse of educators either by the development of educational theory or by refinement of prudence through the systematic and reflective documentation of evidence' (p50).

However, case studies also exhibit several weaknesses, as elaborated by some experts. One of the basic principles of any case study is the specific object or target of study which makes the result only applicable to the target situation, and 'may not be generalizable except where other readers/researchers see their application' (Cohen et al., 2011, p293). As this research focuses on some areas around one school, including the English language teachers from the school, the results will not be easily generalised to other schools in this region, or to any schools in rural areas, due to this school's specific environment and staff. Nevertheless, Wellington (2000) asserts that the important aspect of a case study is not in making a generalisation of results, but rather on how one relates the case and learns from it.

3.3. Research Design

3.3.1. Sample

This research employs a non-probability sample – namely, purposive sampling. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), purposive sampling is a method in which the researcher chooses participants based on the typicality or special characteristics that they possess and that are in line with the study being conducted. Ball (1990) further describes that purposive sampling also seeks those who have in-depth knowledge of something. This might relate to their professional career, power or experience, from being what he describes as 'knowledgeable people'.

First, the focus of this research is to investigate the Linguistic Landscape that appear around a specific school in Ketapang. Following the definition provided in the literature review, the investigation will focus on signage in the form of written English text that could be categorised as language exposure for students, such as the pictures of store names, street names, T-shirts, advertisements, posters, billboards, etc. Second, this research also aims to discover how English language teachers perceive the LL as teaching material, and therefore, I will conduct an interview with four English language teachers from the selected school in Ketapang.

3.3.2. Methods of Data Collection

According to Creswell (2014) in relation to the qualitative method, data can be gathered in many forms (i.e. qualitative observation, qualitative interviews, qualitative documents, and qualitative audio and visual materials). In this research, as the focus is

on analysing the linguistic landscape around one school and the perception of English language teachers toward the use of LL for language learning, the data will be collected in two forms: (1) by observing the qualitative visual materials; and (2) by conducting semi-structured interviews.

A. Qualitative Visual Materials

Different terminologies have been proposed by experts on how to analyse visual data in a real societal context. Cohen et al. (2011) simply put the context under the term of observation of visual data, while Bryman (2016) and Ary et al. (2009) categorised it as personal documents or artefacts. As the focus of this research is on LL photographs, thus, the term 'observation of qualitative visual materials' is seen as the best way to address it (Creswell, 2014, p190). He outlines that this type of data can be gathered in the form of 'photographs, art objects, videotapes, website main pages, e-mails, text messages, social media text, or any forms of sound' (Creswell, 2014, p190). It is believed that in educational research, photographs have a central role in carrying meanings, delivering messages and being interpreted by the viewer in different ways (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, it is important for the researcher to examine, categorise, and compare them based on their specific characteristics (Ary et al., 2009).

B. Semi-structured Interview

In general, an interview is a means of data collection that is mostly used to explore the way people see particular topics of interest (Cohen et al., 2011). Creswell (2014) further describes that qualitative interviews intend 'to elicit views and opinions from the participants' (p190). To date, various types of interviews have been proposed. For example, Bryman (2016) mentions two types of qualitative interviews, namely unstructured and semi-structured interview, while Ary et al. (2009) add stuctured interview as a third option. As the typical type of interview, structured interview is 'scheduled for the specific purpose of getting certain information from the subjects' (Ary et al., 2009, p438), and it's questions are brief and demand open answers. Unstructured interview, on the other hand, is almost like a conversation, in which the interviewer usually only has one basic question and the interviewee may respond freely. Conversely, semi-structured interview has a list of guiding questions specific to the topic being discussed. Ary further states that these questions 'may not be asked exactly in the way outlined on the schedule. Questions that are not included in the guide may be

asked as the interviewer picks up on interviewees' replies' (2009, p468). However, both interview types afford the interviewee great opportunity on how to answer the questions. Bryman (2016) also contends that this type of interview allows the researcher to ask some deeper crucial issues from the interviewees' replies. Therefore, in this research I will use semi-structured interview as it may facilitate participants to provide richer answers, allow for exploration, and raise some unpredicted issues.

In this study, I also try to combine interview with photographs. As previously elaborated, the first data that will be collected is the photographs of LL, followed by showing the pictures to the English language teachers and asking about their perception of the sample pictures. Harper (2002) describes the use of photographs in interviews as *photo-elicitation*, in which the researcher uses them as stimulus or reference for questioning. He also argues that the use of this method can stimulate the interviewee to refer back to events or situations that could have been forgotten. In this sense, I will use LL photographs to elicit spoken data from the teachers regarding their perceptions of LL for language learning.

It is also worth bearing in mind that such an interview approach could be problematic if not addressed properly. Cicourel (1964) suggests that mutual trust, social distance, and the interviewer's control can affect the interviewee's response. In this matter, as some of the English language teachers may know me, their response could vary from feeling reluctance to considering it unnecessarily to answer the questions, if they perceive them as interfering with their personal businesses. They may also feel comfortable and relaxed in answering once assured they will have mutual trust with and the same background as the researcher. Similarly, Harper (2002) also cautions that photo-elicitation does not necessarily result in rich interviews. He suggests that the interviewee might be too familiar with the photographs and unable to relate it to the questions that follow. Further to this, the researcher needs to carefully design and sequence the interview questions, as they also affect the responses given (Cohen et al., 2011). For example, by ensuring that informal and light questions are given at the beginning of the interview, participants are put at ease.

3.3.3. Research Process

Initially, one particular school located in the centre of the Ketapang regency has been chosen as the target area. Approximately one month prior to the research being conducted, I informed one of the teachers in that school of the research via phone, and asked her to inform the school principal and ask for his approval. As the approval to conduct the research in this school has been obtained and this research passed by the QUB ethics committee, on the 4th of June 2017 I began to conduct the research, which is divided as follows:

A. Qualitative visual materials collection:

The collection of LL photographs began with mapping the five main roads that will be investigated and dividing them into ten sides, as shown in Figure 3. This selection was based on the fact that these are the roads students regularly use as the most frequent route to the school. I used both a digital and action camera as the tools for data collection. This research was carried out between the 4th and 9th of June 2017, i.e. three intensive days to collect the data at the most suitable and convenient time. Nonetheless, 202 photographs were successfully gathered.
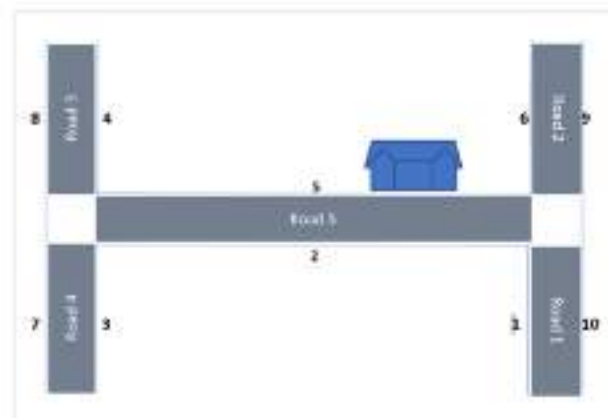

Figure 3. Division of roads

B. Interviews:

Since this part of data collection requires careful attention as it is related to people, on the 5th of June 2017 I asked consent from the school principal before conducting interviews with the English language teachers (appendix 3a). During the interview

period, the school was having a second-semester examination for the first and second grades. In agreement with the school principal, the time for the interview with teachers was to be set outside of their exam supervision duty. The teachers were given the consent form a few days before the interview (appendix 4b), and the whole interview process took three days: the 6th, 7th and 8th of June 2017. According to teachers' requirements and availability, the interviews were also conducted in three separate places. The first and the second participants were interviewed on the first day in the classroom, the third participant in the school library the following day, while the last participant opted to be interviewed in a hospital on the 8th of June. I used an audio-recorder which allowed me to further make the transcription. Each recording lasts between 20 to 25 minutes.

3.4.   Ethical Considerations

Wellington (2000, p54) asserts that every research in educational settings should be 'ETHICAL', emphasising the importance by using capitalised letters. He further argues that ethical considerations should be prominent in any research, particularly in educational research since it involves human participants (Wellington, 2015). To address this crucial issue, in this research I asked for voluntary participation, and consent from the school principal and English language teachers was obtained prior to the data collection process. I also ensured that the participants understood the nature of the research, including: 1) what they would be asked, 2) what would happen to the data that they provided, and 3) full awareness that they could withdraw from the research with no need to provide a reason. It has also been established that they were aware of the risks and benefits of involvement in the research before the interviewing process began, and were asked whether they had any questions before the interview commenced.

As the teachers were required to share their thoughts on English learning resources, learning strategies, and how do they deal with teaching-learning situations in a rural area, I strived to ensure of the confidentiality of their remarks so they cannot be easily identified. There are, however, some constraints in this regard. There are possibilities that this situation may cause issues for their working practice, and cause the teachers to be recognisable to their colleagues. However, I will address the issue carefully by replacing all names with pseudonyms, including the participants' names and the school

where they are working. Due to the small number of interviewees, there is a slight possibility that they may be identified by their comments. To counter this, I raised this issue with the interviewees prior to the interviews. Given that the issues being discussed are not overly controversial, I do not envisage that this should be a major problem.

3.5. Conclusion

This chapter has provided the methodological basis for the proposed research project. The concept of the qualitative method using the case study as its approach is considered to be the finest way to answer all of the research questions. The decision to combine interview and qualitative visual materials data should provide a rich explanation of the issue being investigated. As one of the significant aspects of educational qualitative research, the ethical considerations have been elaborated, including the conduct of collecting the consent from the participants. The data gathered will be analysed, and the findings discussed in-depth in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4 – Analysis of Data and Results

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data collected for the research project. Two types of data that will be elaborated upon: 1) qualitative visual materials, which serve as the primary data, and 2) interviews which will be investigated as the secondary data. In the next section, the primary data will be divided into two categories that reflect the significance of LL for the analysis of English relating to social aspects, and its use in English language learning for secondary students (see figure 4 below). The secondary data – collected from the teachers' interviews – will be divided into four main themes, and individuals teachers' responses randomly labelled P1 to P4, with no indication of gender, seniority, or the grade which they teach. It has also been predetermined that for a better analysis, the data is presented by looking at the broad issues which have arisen during the interviews, and then amalgamating each teacher's perception through direct quotation (Cohen et al., 2011).

4.2. Data Analysis

4.2.1. Interpretation of Primary Data

This section explicates the categorisation derived from the primary source of data which is the LL photographs. As mentioned in the previous chapter, there are 202 English signage photographs that have been collected. Using qualitative content analysis (Silverman, 2006) – the process of 'counting the frequency of certain visual elements in a clearly defined population of images, and then analysing those frequencies' (Rose, 2016, p88) – I have developed several divisions by adapting themes from existing research (Reh, 2004; Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Vaish, 2008; Sayer, 2010; Rose, 2016). In short, figure 4 below will summarise the LL categories that I have developed specifically for this study. It is also worth bearing in mind that the data and definitions presented here are not closed to other interpretations. In fact, images are 'never innocent' (Rose, 2007, p26); they carry multi-layers of meaning and, therefore, can be interpreted in many ways.
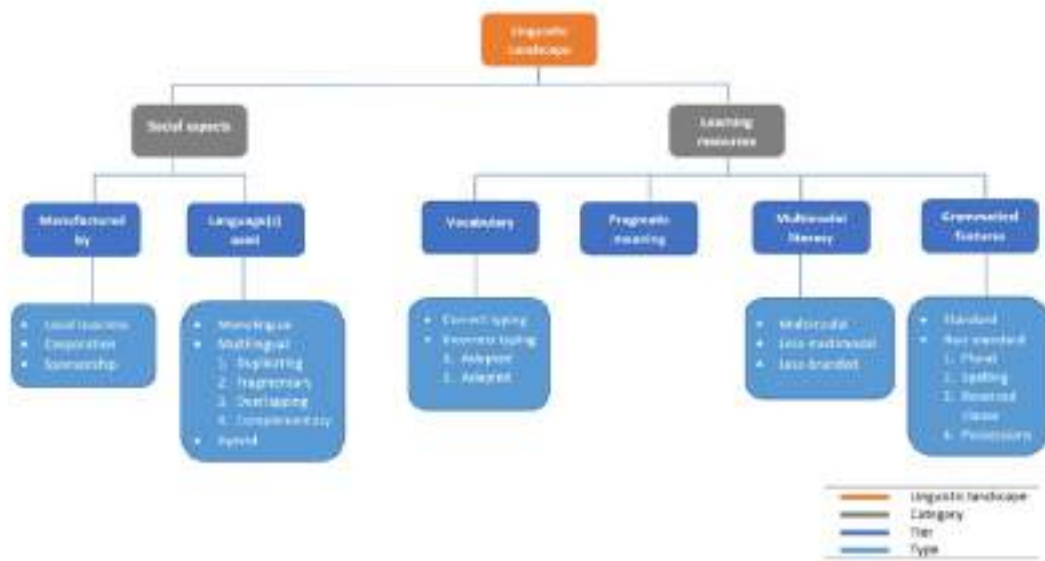
Figure 4. Categorisation of LL

A.   Category 1: Social aspects

This theme is derived from Rose's theory of the Four Sites of a Critical Visual Imagery (Rose, 2016). One of the sites – which is the site of production – discusses how an image was made, what kind of genre that it displays, and who and why they made it. Unlike other pure visual imagery studies – whose main focus is to analyse in-depth an image based on its compositionality, spatial design, or symbolic construction (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006) – this study rather analyses LL signs that could benefit English language learning. Nevertheless, I believe that the origin and the language displayed in the LL signs which constitute the social aspects need to be established first (table 2) as the basis for understanding the LL situation in Ketapang, before the language learning impact

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Tier	Type	Description	Amount
Manufactured by	Local business	Personal/group business by local people	168
	Corporation	National/multi-national company	29
	Sponsorship	Local business sponsored by national/multi-national company	5

further explained.

Language(s) used	Monolingual	Use only English or failure to use English	52
	Multilingual		
	- Duplicating	All texts are written in more than one language	2
	- Fragmentary	Selected parts of information are given in other languages	7
	- Overlapping	Selected parts of information are given in other language but without literal translation	20
	- Complementary	Different information is given in different languages	119
	Hybrid	When the English words are customised and combined with Bahasa	2

Table 2. Social aspects

ured by

In this category, the LL is divided into the tiers 1) manufactured by, and 2) language(s) used. In the first tier, I listed three types of manufacturer that produce LL signs in Ketapang: local businesses, corporations, and sponsorship. Over 80% of the signs were made by local businesses, which I

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define as a business being managed by a local individual or group of people. The types of trading were varied, from food, beauty, and clothing, to electronics. On the other hand, there were 29 signs along the roads that showed some national/multi-national companies. These are mostly advertisement signs from cigarette companies, mobile phone companies, motorcycle distributors, and mobile service providers. One of the examples is the advert from *OPPO*, a Chinese mobile phone company saying 'New Selfie Expert' in promoting their new type of mobile phone. There were also 5 signs that combined both local business and national/multi-national companies. This type of sign was created by big companies as a part of a promotional programme demonstrate a presence in a similar type of local business. Figure 5 shows this type of LL, where the national mobile service provider *Telkomsel* painted a small top-up outlet with their iconic brand.

Figure 5. Sponsorship sign

Interestingly, local businesses in Ketapang (such as hair salons, canteens, top-up outlets, and home-laundry) try to incorporate English within their advertisement signs. Even though Ketapang is not a famous tourist destination, it has other natural resources that attract both English and non-English speaking foreigners, for example, a national park that has become a primary site for studying the Orang-Utan (a species native to Borneo), and bauxite mines. In this case, incorporation of English in signs could serve a 'cross-cultural' purpose (Sayer, 2010, p146) by becoming a direct tool of communication for those English-speaking foreigners, or as a lingua franca

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(figure 6) which serves as a medium to exchange meanings between people from different language backgrounds (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008).

Figure 6. Cross-cultural sign

However, as will be analysed in the next section, almost 30% of examples of English do not fit the cross-cultural criteria. Rather, these local businesses include English within their signs for 'intracultural' purposes (Sayer, 2010, p146), in which English is used by Ketapang people to communicate with other Ketapang people. However, there are numerous studies (see Gerritsen et al., 2000) that indicate the use of English in a certain area 'does not necessarily imply that citizens understand English texts' (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p270). In this regard, I assume that the use of English texts by local businesses relates to the value and effect that they have on other locals. As Androutsopoulos (2007) indicates, the use of English in advertising is strategically and carefully planned, and centres mostly on its aesthetic value so it can have maximum impact on the target audience.

ii.   Language(s) used

Nash (2016, p380) contends that 'language and landscape are obliged to each other. Language demands landscape, landscape expects language'. Therefore, in this category, language is considered an important aspect to discuss. This second area is divided into monolingual, multilingual (itself

subdivided into duplicating, fragmentary, overlapping, and complementary) and hybrid.

1. Monolingual

Specific to this case, I define monolingual signs as those which only use English text to convey their meaning, or which try to combine Bahasa and English but fail to use English (i.e. incorrect use of English).

Figure 7. Monolingual signs (top: English, bottom: failure using English)

2. Multilingual

The second type is multilingual. Surprisingly, along with the data analysis, I found that LL signs in Ketapang were not only using English and Bahasa to

deliver their messages. They are also incorporated five other languages, namely Portuguese, Latin, Arabic, Javanese, and Malay. However, the appearance of languages other than Bahasa and English as above are in the minority, with only one or two signs that include each language.

Theoretically, multilingual, as mentioned before, consists of four branches (adapted from Reh, 2004), which are: 1) duplicating, 2) fragmentary, 3) overlapping, and 4) complementary. The first is duplicating, which is when all texts are written equally in both Bahasa and English. There are only 2 signs that match this criterion, and one of them is the advert for *Digital Printing* whose exact translation is *Percetakan* (figure 8). The second division is fragmentary: when the texts are written in one language and only some parts of the text are literally translated into another language. This type has 7 signs that also match these criteria. One of the examples of this is an advert by a local medical clinic promoting their services in Bahasa and English (figure 9), which stated *WOUND CARE* with the exact translation *PERAWATAN LUKA* below.

Figure 8. Multilingual-duplicating sign

Figure 9. Multilingual-fragmentary sign

The third type is overlapping: when the texts are written in one language and only some parts are translated into another language, but not as a literal translation. This type is quite similar to the second type, with the only difference being in translating the text without literal translation, instead, using idiomatic translation – which refers to 'being in the common language of average speakers, using the natural phrasings and idioms of the language' (Shapa, 2009, p17). 20 signs were noticed to share this similar meaning, with the most noticeable one a sign from a cigarette company stating *L.A. BOLD* (figure 10), with the semantic translation of the word *bold* given as *LEBIH BESAR – LEBIH MANTAP (bigger – better)*. Such translation might indicate that the company suggests the consumer be brave and try a bigger type of cigarette. Finally, the last type of multilingual signage is complementary, which is a direct opposite of duplicating, occuring where LL signs use different texts in different languages. This type earns the biggest proportion of the signs, with 119 signs – over 50% – falling into this category. For example, the *WARKOP WILLY* sign (stands for *Warung Kopi* Willy or Willy coffee shop) includes information different from the *FREE Wi-Fi* text, which is not the same information and is not literally translated (figure 11).

Figure 10. Multilingual-overlapping sign

Figure 11. Multilingual-complementary sign

3. Hybrid

According to Vaish (2008), a text can be divided into biliterate and hybrid text. Biliterate is when the text combines two or more languages, whereas hybrid text is still a part of a biliterate text that has aesthetic value and is frequently used in advertising. In this context, I define hybrid text as a text that seems to use English words, but these have been aesthetically customised and combined with Bahasa. In Ketapang, this type of text appeared only in 2 signs, for example, a local restaurant sign (figure 12) with the text *WR. LAMONGAN NYUSOUL* (*WR* stands for *WARUNG* or

restaurant/canteen, and *LAMONGAN* is a type of food). The separation in typing word *NYUSOUL* could be to emphasise the different meanings it possesses. It could be interpreted as 1) new-soul, 2) the soul of NYU, or 3) *nyusol*, which in the Malay language means to catch up later. However, as it is placed in Ketapang, I believe the third interpretation to be the most appropriate given local people's mutual social understanding of such hybrid words. This is in line with Landry and Bourhis (1997), who suggest that the decision to use the readers' native language can indeed please them and make the advertisement closer to the speakers of that language.

Figure 12. Hybrid sign

B. Category 2: Learning resources

This second category was adapted from Cenoz and Gorter (2008) and Sayer (2010). The division of this category into vocabulary, pragmatic meaning, multimodal, and grammatical features supports the assumption that it is the most applicable process of categorising for students or of teacher analysis of LL signs in Ketapang. Moreover, these sub-skills generally receive more attention from

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Tier	Type	Description	Amount
Vocabulary	Correct typing	No English words are mistyped	149
	Incorrect typing		
	- Adopted	Contain words that are adopted from English with little or no modification	62
	- Adapted	Contain English words that are rewritten which suit local pronunciation or just simply mistyped	53
Pragmatic meaning		Contain hidden message(s) that differ from what is actually written	48
Multimodal literacy	Multimodal	Using more than 3 elements/modals in one sign	145
	Less-multimodal	Using only 3 elements/modals	43
	Less-branded	Using only 3 elements/modals but well-known by people	14
Grammatical features	Standard	Using correct grammatical forms	104
	Non-standard	Using incorrect grammatical forms, in:	
	- Plural		13
	- Spelling		53
	- Reversed clause		6
	- Possessions		26

Table 3. Learning resources

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LL as learning materials.

i. Vocabulary

In terms of the English vocabulary that I found in LL signs in Ketapang, I placed them under two types of writing, which are correct and incorrect typing. Correct typing simply means that the sign contains English words that have no mistakes. I also applied this specification to all signs, whether in full English, or only containing two or three English words. There are 149 out of 202 signs which meet this criterion, i.e. more than 70% have correct English vocabulary. For example, the use of word *Fashion* in *Cinta Fashion* (figure 13), with the English word *Fashion* and the rest of the text in Bahasa.

Figure 13. Correct typing sign

The second type is incorrect typing, which I divided into two more sub-themes: adopted and adapted. Both of these themes could share the same signs, as LL signs in Ketapang were typically descriptive, containing a lot of informative text. Therefore, one sign could be categorised as adapted and adopted at the same time. The first theme, adopted, is much the same as loanwords, or words that are borrowed from English with little or no modification. 62 signs were found that have similarities to this criterion. Offered as an example is the sign from a local electronics store (figure 14) that tried to use English words combined with Bahasa, but actually the word in Bahasa is derived from English (*KREDIT* – CREDIT, or a method of deferred payment). The second theme is adapted, meaning the use of English words that are rewritten to suit local pronunciation, or simply mistyped. 53

signs can be categorised as having adapted language. For example, the sign from a mobile top-up outlet that included English within the sign, but mistypes the words (figure 15). The sign states *PULSA ALL OPRATOR-ACCECORRIS* (*PULSA* means credit or balance), where it should read *PULSA ALL OPERATORS-ACCESSORIES*. Such a mistake indicates that the owner might consider the form *OPRATOR* as the most convenient to type, based on its phonetic translation rather than the correct spelling.

Figure 14. Incorrect-adopted sign

Figure 15. Incorrect-adapted sign

ii.   Pragmatic meaning

The second tier is pragmatic meaning. Specific to the study of signs, a different meaning of pragmatic can be drawn. Within this new meaning, it

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becomes the study of language that includes indirectness in conveying messages, which is common in advertisements (Simpson, 2001). In this study, pragmatic refers to any LL signs that contain a hint or hidden message that needs other modalities or background knowledge to interpret its meaning. Cenoz and Gorter (2008, p274) mention that '[t]exts written in the public space tend to include different speech acts and often use indirect language and metaphors'. In this regard, like other scholars, I believe that the pragmatic meaning contained in signs could provide input for English language learners. As Dagenais et al. (2008) mention, pragmatic LL could become learning resources when teachers bring the signs into the classroom and, together with the students, decipher and interpret the meaning. There are 48 signs that contain this pragmatic meaning, such as *my HOMEBASE* (figure 16). This sign is very simple in design and did not include other extra information of what messages this sign wanted to convey. However, the inclusion of the signal reception symbol could imply to the reader that this sign is trying to inform them that the location where it is placed provides wi-fi access, as often found in a café.

Figure 16. Pragmatic sign

iii. Multimodal literacy

Additionally, interpreting LL signs cannot be separated from the way in which passers-by read the sign (i.e. literacy) (see section 2.2.4. – Chapter 2).

Kelly-Holmes (2005) introduces another term for the multimodal in advertising, called paralanguage, which is a combination of visual aspects including the choice of font, italicised words, and the location of the sign. Therefore, in this study, I define multimodal as the integration of visual elements, i.e. texts, fonts, colours, images, logos, shape, materials, and space of the sign. Based on these elements, I separated this tier into multimodal, less-multimodal and less-branded types.

The first type is multimodal, which (as elaborated above) incorporated more than three basic elements (texts, fonts and colours) in one sign, while the elements of shape, material and space are already considered to be possessed by every sign. This type receives the highest proportion compared to other types, totalling 145 signs. For example, the sign of a local laundrette (figure 17) combines five elements, including a picture of clothes that have been washed along with fabric softeners, and an icon of a washing machine giving a thumbs-up. The second type is less-multimodal, which I define as signs that only use the basic elements of modalities. There are 43 signs in the area of investigation that could be categorised as less-multimodal. For example, the sign of a small retailer that sells credit for mobile phone providers (figure 18). This sign consisted of text with the same font choice, coloured in black and red.

The last type is what I call as less-branded, in which the signs only use the basic elements but are still easily recognised by people due to the iconic meaning that they show. This may be related to the theory proposed by Kelly-Holmes (2005) regarding the connotation meaning – the implied or indirect meaning – in an advertisement which 'require[s] a certain level of cultural knowledge' (p9), as well as the knowledge of the consumption of the services or products that the signs offered. The majority of this type of signs came from well-known branded products, such as mobile phones, fast food, or motorcycle distributors. There are 14 signs that match this criterion, for example, the sign of a *KFC drive-thru* (figure 19) that only consists of text, fonts, and colours. However, the typical choice of fonts and colours could

transfer the meaning easily to the passers-by, as most will understand that the sign to belongs to a worldwide fast food brand.

Figure 17. Multimodal sign

Figure 18. Less-multimodal sign

Figure 19. Less-branded sign

iv.   Grammatical features

The last tier that could be useful for learning materials is that of grammatical features. Sayer (2010) suggests that this tier could be adapted to a classroom learning situation where the students are asked undertake an analysis of the English around them in the form of signs. He further explores their potential use in analysing the grammatical features (both standard and non-standard), which include the spelling, possessions, and compound words. This tier is divided into standard and non-standard grammatical forms, where the latter could be specified as examples of incorrect plurals, spelling, reversed clauses, and possessions.

The first type is standard grammatical features, where the signs used correct grammatical forms. 104 signs were considered to be standard. In most signs, the use of correct grammar predominantly stemmed from national/multi-national companies, presumably as they may have more carefully considered and chosen which English words they were going to include in their advertisements. In some others, the standard grammar came from local businesses which only used one or two simple English words and thus did not require too much grammatical attention. One of the standard grammatical

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forms is the sign from the *ISUZU* car distributor (figure 20) that is being used by a local motor workshop with the English text, GENUINE PARTS.

Figure 20. Standard grammatical sign

The second type is non-standard grammatical features. The ubiquity of incorrect English grammar is evident throughout the analysis, as nearly 50% of the LL signs are non-standard. The first classification is the incorrect use of plurals. There are 13 signs that suit this criterion, with all of the signs missing the suffix *-s* in indicating the plural form. The most salient examples are in the phrases *ALL OPERATOR* and *SPARE PART*. Take, for instance, the sign from a top-up retailer encouraging passers-by to join their business and become an agent in selling mobile credit for its users (figure 21). The second non-standard grammatical feature is spelling. Although this feature – proposed by Sayer (2010) – has the biggest number compared with other non-standard features, it is quite similar to the tier Vocabulary – adapted (discussed earlier), which contains mistyped English words.

The third classification is the reversed clause, for example, an adjective-noun phrase that is not in the correct order (figure 22). This mistake can also happen when the signs' producer uses typically Indonesian grammar, in

which the word order is commonly noun-adjective. The last classification is possessions, mistakenly used in 26 signs. These mostly failed to show the belonging of one's property, especially when the signs incorporated the owner's name in the name of the place, for example, *Mirra salon* (figure 23) where s/he did not use *'s* to indicate possession, i.e. that the salon that belongs to *Mirra*. Another example is the sign of clothing store for babies (figure 24), reading ZEA – BABY AND KID'S. This mistake can be referred to as failure in using plurals or possessions, depending on the perspective and the intention of the owner. In this regard, a further study analysing the reasons behind the use of a certain feature of English in signs could be helpful to shed some light on the social phenomena that may improve our understanding of LL signs.

Figure 21. Non-standard plural sign

Figure 22. Non-standard reversed clause sign

Figure 23. Non-standard possessions sign

Figure 24. Non-standard possessions sign

4.2.2. Interpretation of Secondary Data

This second analysis explores the teachers' perspectives toward the use of LL in the classroom to facilitate English language learning. The data presented in this section were derived from teachers' interviews – based on the interview schedule in appendix 5 – which have been fully transcribed (Cohen et al., 2011). In total, there were four participants, with each participant speaking for about twenty minutes, which was recorded. However, as the interviews were addressed to Indonesian English teachers, unnecessary speech (fillers, unfinished sentences, long pauses, incorrect grammar, etc.) were inevitable. In this regard, I adopted an alternate solution for the interviews, which is to paraphrase the speech transcription to make it clearer and arrange the speech into 'manageable proportions' of data (Bassey, 1999, p82). A descriptive-narrative method was used in this analysis as it explores critical issues, including 'description, analysis, interpretation and explanation' of what is being investigated (Cohen et al., 2011, p539).

The analysis will begin with exploration around the themes that have been developed, followed by direct quotations from participants, where relevant. Four themes regarding the teachers' perspectives will be discussed: teaching strategies; challenges for teaching in Ketapang; insights regarding LL; and LL in connection with K-13. The classification of the number of the teachers involved when expressing certain opinions can be regarded as, 1 teacher = One; 2 teachers = some; 3 teachers = most; and 4 teachers = all.

A. Teaching strategies

To begin the analysis on teachers' perception of LL, the exploration of how they choose teaching strategies in the classroom is considered to be the first topic to discuss. Most of the teachers believed that before they apply any methods or strategies to teach English, they need to establish a good psychological relationship with the students. They mentioned that gaining the students' interest and trust is their paramount priority. As Brown (2006) contends, affective factors such as 'extroversion, inhibition, anxiety and attitudes' could have major impacts on learners' language learning (p68).

PI: *The first strategy I use in class is to catch my students' attention. You know, like student based learning? So, the students do what they want to do but are still connected with the material.*

Another teacher similarly commented:

P2: *I tried to take their hearts, I tried to build an emotional foundation with the students, [which] I believe, if I give them some space or a little freedom, and then they trust me, it will be okay for me to push them further in their learning.*

The typical strategy they use is to do brainstorming before the lesson begins, which attempts to stimulate the students' prior knowledge and coax them into engaging with the related materials of the day. There are, however, some variations among these teachers when it comes to the specific way they brainstorm. Some said that movies, short videos and games are the best way to gain their students' interests, while the rest prefer to explore the materials by talking, reading a text, or roleplay.

For the main learning activity, most of the teachers prefer to use what they believe are engaging and fun activities, such as guessing some English expressions by a gesture, roleplaying to express love, or trying to connect the materials with other subjects. One teacher remarked:

P3: *Well, when the material is about expressing love, they feel that it's a fun activity, because I wasn't asking them to simply read and pronounce the expression, but to actually act how to express love. Then, when they do the expression, the rest of the class will feel embarrassed and then they will laugh together.*

This choice is probably caused by the classroom situation, where the teachers assert that the students' motivation to learn English is very low. Lightbown and Spada (1999) argue that this situation can be due to a lack of internal awareness of language and too much external pressure (from parents or teachers), which could cause students to have negative attitudes toward learning. Therefore, all of the teachers have to creatively maximise the learning strategies in order to keep engagement as high as possible. However, the same teacher also reported that

when using this type of activity, there is an imminent drawback, which is that of time constraints, adding:

P3:   *No, there's not enough time for that. In a week, the time allocation for the English subject is two hours of lessons. The one-hour lesson consists of 45 minutes. So, the total is only 90 minutes for me to teach English.*

As I further investigated, I found an appalling fact regarding the teaching situation in this school. The reality is, the newest government-designed curriculum is not evenly applied across all grades in the school. During the time of interview, only the first grade was using the K-13 curriculum, while the second and the third grades were still using the KTSP curriculum. This is quite interesting, considering that the government regulation to use K-13 has been in place since 2013, and it has still not been fully applied by this school. Hence, the time allocation for teaching English is different between the K-13 class and the KTSP class, with the former only receiving 2 hour-long lessons per week, and the latter 4 hour-long lessons in a week.

B.   Challenges for teaching in Ketapang

There seemed to be an overall agreement among teachers that students' low motivation to learn English is the biggest obstacle they face in teaching them. Most remarked that such a situation might relate to the fact that: firstly, English is not their mother tongue; secondly, the students have an insufficient English vocabulary; and finally, they simply learn the English subject because it is compulsory, and only to get a mark and pass their exams.

P1:   *Sometimes it is hard for me to teach them, once they said: 'Miss, I don't understand, I don't know', or even sometimes they said 'Miss, I'm lazy'. So, it makes me difficult to lift them up from their.... what is it, their misery? [CHUCKLE].*

One teacher emphasised:

P3:   *Well, the challenge is they got confused about how to pronounce a letter, not to mention how to pronounce a word, how to listen when I speak in English, and then how to write a word in English [...] all of the skills.*

Most of the teachers agreed that there are at least four major factors that contribute to the low engagement of the students, namely: the society or environment, family, the students themselves, and the resources to support their learning. There was a feeling, however, that the salient factor is the students' attitude toward English in Ketapang particularly, which regards English as something that is almost outlandish to learn, or even as something absurd if they try to imitate spoken English. Lightbown and Spada (1999) describe this problem as a 'social dynamic or power relationship between the languages' (p57), where a member of a minority group could have a unique attitude when learning the language of majority group such as English.

They also feel that students in a rural area such as Ketapang did not get enough exposure to or opportunities to express themselves in English. One teacher underlined the differences between Ketapang and big cities, arguing that in big cities, there are many events that provide the opportunity for students to use English, not only related to the academic but also to other fields. Another factor is the guidance from their family or society on the importance of English:

P1:   *And in the society here, they just think that 'English is a foreign language and if you can speak it, that is good, but if you don't, well, it's okay'.*

There was also a mixture of responses when the teachers were asked how they overcome those problems. One recommended giving the students a direct talk to motivate them to learn English, while another teacher asked them to join an English club organised by the school, or even used a 40:60 ratio of English and Bahasa in the classroom, but none of these seems to have had a meaningful impact.

Finally, the inadequate facilities to support learning are also a significant problematic factor for those teaching students in rural areas. These facilities are not only limited to technological resources, but also to more standard learning resources, such as textbooks and student worksheets. One teacher commented:

P2: *As we can see here, not all classrooms have a projector and audio speaker. So, sometimes when I've prepared the videos and the materials, sometimes I have to keep it and use it upon the next lesson. [However,] I still feel lucky to be in here, because even some areas in this region still haven't gotten electricity at all.*

Another teacher explained:

P4: *At my school, we don't have any student handbook. Actually, we have one, and the name is _____. It was published a long time ago. The last time I used that book was about four years ago.*

This fact gives further evidence similar to the situation described in point A above, where the distribution of K-13 (which also includes the government textbooks) has not reached all levels of education in rural areas. It also proves Seran's (2014) claim (see section 2.5. – Chapter 2) regarding the centralisation of K-13 distribution as only fully-realised in Java island (as it is the capital city of Indonesia), resulting in the unequal distribution across other regions, and, particularly, rural areas like Ketapang.

C.   Insights regarding LL

When the teachers were shown some sample pictures of LL around the school, their opinions were varied. Some of them were even quite surprised that there were actually English signs around them which they had never actually paid attention to before. One teacher commented that it is common that people incorporated English into signs, however, the sign-makers don't fully understand how to use English. This situation showed that even teachers are not fully aware of the existence of English in other forms (signs) around them, which could also imply the students' lack of awareness of the same issue.

At first, when they were asked their opinions about whether or not LL could be used as additional learning resources, they responded differently. Some of them were pretty sure that such a potential source of learning could help them in the teaching process, while others were quite sceptical.

P1:   *Actually, No. Because this kind of word is a mess. If [these pictures] are used just to make the students familiar with English, it probably works, but not in an academic way, just informally.*

Another teacher added:

P2:   *Well, it depends on the students. If they are quite good at English, I will give it to them. If they are not so good at it, it will distract them a lot. For example, I already told you about some loan words from English to Bahasa. For some students, they cannot differentiate which one is the right one. It's easier for them to remember the wrong one.*

These perspectives are probably driven by the fact that there are mistakes in the use of English within the sample pictures, a matter which concerns the teachers if the students see it as the correct form of English. However, some other teachers believe that constant exposure to such English (LL) will benefit them in many ways.

P3:   *I can make use of it. I can teach them how to make it correct, for example, which will also increase their curiosity toward English. They can also become more aware, for example, of the wrongly written words.*

D.   LL in connection with K-13

As previously discussed, not all teachers in this school teach under the guidance of the K-13 curriculum. Therefore, questions regarding this topic were not asked to every teacher. The first question for analysis is whether or not this LL method can be useful to support the aim of K-13. Some teachers seemed to agree with this notion, especially those who work under the K-13 curriculum, and who

commented that this approach could provide students with analytical skills that connect the materials they have studied in the classroom with the English that actually exists in the environment around them.

Another teacher similarly admitted:

P2:   *I think it will support the curriculum itself, because it will make the students try to analyse what happens around them and then try to decide by themselves. So, they will not only depend on the teacher. I think it will make them quite critical as well.*

Interestingly, although they agreed that LL could help support the K-13, this teacher also does not wholeheartedly approve of the implementation of this current curriculum. P2 argued that this is mainly because of the heavy burden that it placed on students, while concurrently requiring them to master all of its aspects within a limited time. P2 showed their strong remarking:

P2:   *I believe that actually our curriculum totally sucks. To be honest, it really sucks, because when I tried to compare it with the curriculum during my time in secondary school in 2007, I began to wonder, how can they survive?*

Another commentary from a different teacher disputes the notion that LL can support K-13 curriculum.

P1:   *I don't think so, because English is not their second language, and they still regard it as a foreign language. The curriculum needs English to be academic and formal, where the goal is to teach them so they can speak English correctly and fluently, but in here* [pointing at LL pictures] *there is some incorrectly written English.*

Despite the negative views on the use of LL (or even on the curriculum itself), the potential benefits of using the surrounding signs to promote English language learning have largely been acknowledged by the teachers. Such perceptions could also be affected by the minimal comprehension of most of the

teachers as to the purpose of the K-13 curriculum – which Ahmad (2014) refers as a discrepancy in perceiving curriculum goals among teachers – since only one teacher out of those interviewed has been trained by the government to implement the curriculum. There are, however, some limitations of LL if it is to be applied to the current situation in Ketapang. One teacher said that LL could only be used as a brainstorming activity to begin the class, or as a hook for the core materials. However, another teacher admitted that the limitations came from the teacher themselves:

P3:   *Even though I teach English, I'm not very sensitive to this sort of thing, and that would be my homework to figure this out. Even me as a teacher, I don't have the sensitivity of this, let alone my students.*

It is interesting to note that among the debates surrounding the implementation of the K-13 curriculum, the teacher could see the benefit of LL. They only have differing interpretations and methods of how best to use it within their own teaching practice. In summary, although the LL signs are pervasive around this specific area in Ketapang, the analysis shows that English teachers in this school are not aware of it, and have never used such methods to teach English in the classroom, or adapted it as additional learning resources.

4.3.   Conclusion

In general, this research shows abundant evidence of the existence of LL signs around a particular area in Ketapang. The analysis found that out of 202, the LL signs can be categorised into social aspects and learning resources. Despite the common mistakes in their typing and grammar, these signs incorporated various modalities and vocabularies which could be useful for the students once they are fully aware of their existence. The teachers' responses also indicate reasonably positive feedback regarding the use of LL as additional learning resources. They have also mentioned some limitations of the use of LL in their current teaching situations. The next chapter will outline the conclusion in detail, based on the findings above.

CHAPTER 5 - Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1.   Introduction

This chapter will summarise the research findings explored in the previous chapter. The summary will be presented by answering the research questions proposed in chapter 1. Some limitations regarding the research process and findings are mentioned, and followed by recommendations for further study.

5.2.   Findings

At the beginning of this research, I formulated some research questions, namely:

1. What are the Linguistic Landscapes that exist around a school in Ketapang?
2. In what ways do these Linguistic Landscapes benefit English language learning?
3. How do the English language teachers perceive the Linguistic Landscapes for teaching-learning purposes?

This section will answer the questions above by elaborating on some key features from data analysis.

1.   What are the Linguistic Landscapes that exist around a school in Ketapang?

This study sought to explore the existence of signs that incorporated English into their basic elements in one of the rural areas in West Borneo, Indonesia, which can be considered as an EFL country. These signs make up what I call the Linguistic Landscape (LL). Most LL studies have focused on the study of signs around urban areas that they claim can 'provide more interesting and significant sources for the reading and interpretation of linguistic dynamics' (Barni & Bagna, 2010, p4). However, as English has penetrated every corner of this world, becoming what Crystal (2012) asserts as a global language, I intended to provide more insightful data on the LL present in a rural area of an EFL country.

Initially, one particular school has been chosen around Delta Pawan district in Ketapang. Five main roads were then selected, as these roads are regularly used by the students to gain access to the school. After the research process, it was found that there are 202 signs that can be categorised as Linguistic Landscape. The analysis shows that

English signs around one school in Ketapang are produced both by local people to promote their small businesses, such as top-up outlets, cafés, home laundries, etc., and also by national/multi-national companies, for example, motorcycle distributors, mobile phone companies, etc. Some of the signs use full English to inform their readers, while the rest combine both Bahasa and English to attract their readers' attention. As they are placed in Ketapang, some were found to include the local Malay language to promote their services or products. Further analysis showed that LL signs in Ketapang also included four other languages, i.e. Portuguese, Latin, Arabic, and Javanese.

2. In what ways do these Linguistic Landscapes benefit English language learning?

Once the evidence of the LL presence in Ketapang has been established, the next step is to prove that LL can indeed be used as additional learning resources for English classes. The pervasive existence of LL in a rural area of this EFL country indicates that even though it is still considered as a foreign language, English has successfully permeated local people's lives and has been used for both cross-cultural and intracultural purposes (see section 4.2.1, Part A – Chapter 4). In this regard, as these signs were gathered around the school area, the local students can use them to acquire some insights into English that exists in a real context.

Specifically, these signs can be categorised as Social Aspects and Learning Resources. The first category is divided into the manufacturer of the signs, and the language(s) that the signs used. Although not directly correlated with English learning materials in the classroom, teachers can still use this tier to enhance their learners' sensitivity to the social aspects of language. Kelly-Holmes (2005) remarks that English in the advertisement could possess connotational (indirect or implied) meaning that 'would require a certain level of cultural knowledge in its interpretation' (p9). As stated in the data analysis, this first tier shows the differences between the signs' producers as to how they use English within their signage. Thus, it requires students to undertake a deeper analysis of their surrounding signs and how they interpret them. As stated in the syllabus for the English subject for secondary students, after they learn English in school, they are expected to:

[have] factual, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge about social functions, meaning structures (sequences of meaning or commonly known as text structures), and linguistic elements of various English texts (Kemendikbud, 2016, p3).

The second tier (which is the language(s) used) could also prove beneficial for students' learning through the English that exists around them. For instance, they can make some notes of how companies or local businesses use English – whether they only use English, combine English and Bahasa, or even customise the language to catch the readers' attention.

However, this type of learning activity will only benefit the students if it is instructed by the teacher under certain conditions, such as during learning activities in the classroom. Once they become accustomed to the existence of these signs, this can develop their self-awareness to notice every sign that contains English, whilst concurrently improving their independent learning. Unfortunately, in this research I could not attest the theory I proposed in chapter 2 which claims that LL could promote the potential of incidental learning. This theory asserts that through LL, one may acquire new knowledge of English without any previous attention. However, I maintain that this is possible once the teachers adapt this method of using LL as additional learning resources, and raise their students' awareness of exposure to the English around them. Once they are fully aware of it, the process of incidental learning could occur, and through continual exposure to the learning target, the results could be tangible. I also believe that the use of LL could be one of the solutions to overcoming the lack of available learning resources, such as textbooks, that have been mentioned by the teachers during the interviews.

The second category of LL that I have developed is that of Learning Resources. In this category, I intentionally designed a specific branch of LL that could be adapted by English teachers to explore the potential of using LL as additional materials. It has been mentioned in the English subject syllabus within the K-13 curriculum that learning activities in the syllabus can be customised and enriched with regional or school context, as well as the global context to achieve optimal quality of learners' learning outcomes (Kemendikbud, 2016).

In short, I conclude that the use of LL can indeed promote English language learning in Ketapang for several reasons, which are as follows:

1. 'Exposure and practice are two essential elements for learning English' (Sayer, 2010, p143), and using LL could increase the students' exposure outside the classroom context.

2. It can serve the English teachers with an alternative and also innovative way to engage students in investigating the actual language used in their society, and provide them with an authentic learning source.

3. In correlation with teaching materials in the classroom (which is regulated within the curriculum), LL provides a meaningful way to learn vocabulary, grammar, multimodal literacy and pragmatic meaning.

4. It also offers the students an opportunity to think critically and analytically about the social meaning constructed by language use in the form of signs.

I have also developed some possible techniques for English language teachers in Ketapang if they would like to adopt the use of LL as additional learning resources in their class.

1. At first, the teacher could collect the sample of LL signs around the school by themselves (i.e. 20 photographs). In class, the teacher can divide students into several groups and give each group these sample pictures. The teacher then assigns the students to place those pictures into several categories, such as four tiers of learning resources (see chapter 4). They might organise some under a different category, and then the teacher could facilitate a discussion forum between groups to explain the reason why they put the images into certain categories.

2. At the end of a lesson, the teacher could ask the students to act as individual investigators. In this role, the teacher requests students to collect five to ten pictures (or, optionally, write down details) of any signs using English they encounter on the way from their houses to the school. All findings will then be discussed in the next lesson.

3. The teacher could also ask the students to write down five new pieces of English vocabulary from signs they see on their way home, and find the meaning of

these. These new words could be stored within their task-book or portfolios, and labelled as their Word Bank.

3. *How do the English language teachers perceive the Linguistic Landscapes for teaching-learning purposes?*

The final focus of this research is to relate the findings of LL signs that exist in a particular area in Ketapang with the teaching activity in one school. Therefore, this research tries to connect the LL signs with classroom teaching activities by interviewing some English language teachers. Some teachers seemed to agree with the notion of using LL signs as additional learning materials. They believe that learning resources could come from many origins, even those outside of the classroom. On the other hand, another teacher commented that these signs are not appropriate to be used as learning materials in the classroom. This teacher further added that the signs contain incorrect English, which will affect the students' understanding of English itself. Such a fact would probably cause the students to easily accept that what is written on the signs is the correct form of English, even though it is actually wrong. However, as discussed above, even containing the incorrect form of English, this method could still be applicable to the teaching-learning process in the classroom. It is worth noting that in all cases, the teacher should always guide their students to critically analyse those signs and make corrections if necessary. I believe that this method is also in line with the K-13 curriculum that requires the students to understand multiple types of text that suit the local context.

Overall, all of the teachers seemed to acknowledge at least some advantages of using LL as a learning material. Different interpretations on the actual use of this method could be caused by a diverse understanding of the K-13 goals. This situation was also due to the different curriculum implementations within the school, which incorporates KTSP for the second and third grades, and K-13 for the first grade.

5.3. Limitations

In this section, I would like to mention some limitations encountered during the research process.

1. During the process of collecting the LL photographs, I faced some obstacles which might have affected the quality and quantity of the data:
   a. The targeted signs were partly or entirely covered with other objects.
   b. There was not enough lighting to collect good quality photographs as the weather was cloudy or rainy.
   c. The signs' colour was faded.
   d. The signs were too small.
   e. There were too many people during the data collection around the targeted signs, which impeded the process.
2. During the interview process, the teachers' availability and the school's situation also affected the research process. Some of the teachers had personal commitments and requested the interview be rescheduled in the following days. Furthermore, the school was running the final exam for the first and second grades. Thus, some teachers were quite busy and had very limited time to be interviewed.
3. The enormous amount of LL data (which numbers 202 signs) also affected the categorisation process. A thorough analysis of each text and modality in every sign needed to be conducted, which consumed more time.

Aside from the process, this research also possesses several limitations in relation to its content.

1. The aim of this research is to investigate the presence of LL signs and relate it to the teaching-learning process in Ketapang. There are two variables in this research: the first is the LL signs, and the second is the English language teachers. I believe that by including the students as a third variable, this could enrich the data and add an additional perspective on the issue in question.
2. This research only chose one particular school as its sample, which might affect the representativeness of the data.
3. This research also did not focus on answering the current problems of curriculum implementation nor its distribution to schools in rural areas that might affect the teaching-learning process.

5.4. Recommendations

Based on the limitation presented above, I also devise some suggestions to further develop the findings of this research.

1. Further research that investigating the similar issue should make a detailed plan in relation to unpredictable situation in the field. This includes: 1) preparing a considerable time for conducting the interview as participants might have personal matters and need extra time to prepare; 2) selecting the appropriate time to collect the LL data, such as during the daylight, look at the weather forecast; and also 3) equipped with proper camera to collect high-quality images.

2. As the finding of this research shows that in Ketapang there are abundance data of LL signs, further research could explore the potential of using LL signs in the learning process which involve the students as the participant. Therefore, the advantages of using LL for learning can actually be investigated.

3. Further research could expand the area of investigation of the same issue to other rural areas – whether in the same province or different countries – to seek a pattern and gain a better perspective of English appearance in the form of signs in other rural areas of an EFL country.

4. As mentioned before, the teachers could also adapt the method of using LL in the classroom to promote English language learning.

5.5. Conclusion

This chapter summarises the research findings by answering each research question in detail. These research findings show that in a rural area such as Ketapang – although a sample area – there were numerous signs that incorporated English. These signs were then analysed and categorised into several classifications which I believe could be useful for English language learning. Even though the signs were evident, there were some sceptical perceptions from the teachers as to how this LL method could be applied as additional learning material in the classroom. Despite this negative view, all of the teachers seemed to acknowledge that LL could benefit the language learners. Finally, I believe that this method would be in line with the current curriculum in Indonesia (K-13) and therefore, I have developed some techniques of this LL method to be adapted by

teachers in the classroom. Further research that incorporates students as participants is also suggested, alongside the expansion of research to other rural areas.

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APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1 – ETHICAL APPROVAL

Queen's University Belfast

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Memorandum

To	Agus Riadi
From	Dirk Schubotz, SREC Chair
Date	19 May 2017
Distribution	Cathal McManus, Supervisor
	File
Subject	Ethics Review – 'Linguistic Landscape as Additional Learning Resources for English Language Teaching in Rural Area of an EFL Country'

The School of Social Sciences, Education and Social Work Ethics Committee has reviewed your proposed study and has granted approval for you to proceed.

- It is important to ensure that you follow the procedures outlined in your submission. Any departure from these may require additional ethical approval.

Note for the principal investigator: it is the responsibility of the investigator to add any research projects involving human participants, their material or data, to the University's Human Subjects Database for insurance purposes. (The Human Subjects Database is accessible through QOL under 'My Research').

The Committee wishes you every success with your research.

Dirk Schubotz
Chair, SSESW SREC

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