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**Invitation to Review for Manuscript EU-JER ID#1912060654**

6 messages

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European Journal of Educational Research <editor@eu-jer.com>  
Reply-To: European Journal of Educational Research <editor@eu-jer.com>  
To: European Journal of Educational Research <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>

Wed, Dec 11, 2019 at 2:29 PM

Dear Dr. Rohmani Nur Indah, ([indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id](mailto:indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id))

I am the editor of "European Journal of Educational Research" (EU-JER) (<https://www.eu-jer.com/>). EU-JER has been indexed by SCOPUS, ERIC, ErihPlus, IndexCopernicus et al. This mail is a special invitation to review an article for one-time. We're sorry if we've made a disturbance.

We have read your paper entitled "Logical Flaws in Indonesian Students' Argumentative Essays" in "LSCAC Conference Proceedings, The 4th International Conference on Language, Society and Culture in Asian Contexts (2016), Volume 2017", from which we know that you have explored deeply in your area, and we think that you were expert to review for our manuscript. It is an honor if we could have you with us as a reviewer.

The manuscript, entitled "Reasoning in Argumentative Writing by Students with Different Ethnicities in Indonesia" (Manuscript ID#1912060654) has been submitted to EU-JER.

We realise that our expert reviewers greatly contribute to the high standards of the Journal, and we thank you for your present and/or future participation.

If you accept our invitation to review, the deadline for reviewing is December 29, 2019. Please let us know as soon as possible if you will be able to accept our invitation to review.

We would be grateful if you would kindly agree to act as a reviewer for this paper. If you agree to review, we will send the empty reviewer form and the manuscript.

Here is the abstract of the manuscript:

Reasoning in Argumentative Writing by Students with Different Ethnicities in Indonesia

This study was intended to describe the effect of Indonesian culture on the argumentative writing of undergraduate students with English major. Variations shared by Bataknesse and Javanese ethnicities were also investigated to find out variations of argumentative pattern within the shared pattern of argumentation among the various ethnicities in Indonesia were also investigated. The two objectives were achieved by applying descriptive qualitative design in which 10 students of Javanese ethnicities and 10 students of Bataknesse where involved in the study. The argumentative writing of the 20 students were analyzed by applying qualitative data analysis model. The result of the study showed that the undergraduate students of both Javanese and Bataknesse shared common patterns of arguments in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal. Meanwhile, variations in ethnic value between Bataknesse writers and Javanese writers causes variations in text structure of argumentative writing in two aspects namely in developing thesis statement and in drawing conclusion.

We are looking forward to hearing you.

PS: We will send the certificate of appreciation to you after review.

Best regards,

Ahmet Savas, Ph.D.  
Editor, European Journal of Educational Research  
[editor@eu-jer.com](mailto:editor@eu-jer.com)  
[www.eu-jer.com](http://www.eu-jer.com)

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Rohmani Nur Indah <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>  
To: European Journal of Educational Research <editor@eu-jer.com>

Fri, Dec 20, 2019 at 6:24 AM

I accept the invitation.

As I read the abstract, the article is potential for publication since it has a special focus on the role of ethnicity in argumentation.

Thank you for the offer, I'm glad that I get the opportunity to join European Journal of Educational Research as one of invited reviewers

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**Editor - European Journal of Educational Research** <editor@eu-jer.com>  
To: Rohmani Nur Indah <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>

Fri, Dec 20, 2019 at 1:01 PM

Dear Dr. Indah,

Thank you so much for agreeing to review the manuscript "Reasoning in Argumentative Writing by Students with Different Ethnicities in Indonesia" (Manuscript ID#1912060654) for European Journal of Educational Research, although you are very busy.

The blinded manuscript and the empty reviewer form appear at the addition of this email. We kindly ask you to fill out this form. If it is necessary, you can make corrections at the word file of the manuscript as explanations.

We kindly remind the deadline for review due December 29, 2019.

All communications regarding this manuscript are privileged. Any conflict of interest, suspicion of duplicate publication, fabrication of data or plagiarism must immediately be reported to me.

We are looking forward to getting your valuable report.


Best regards,

Ahmet Savas, Ph.D.  
Editor, European Journal of Educational Research  
[www.eu-jer.com](http://www.eu-jer.com)  
[editor@eu-jer.com](mailto:editor@eu-jer.com)

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## 2 attachments

 **EUJER\_ID\_1912060654.docx**  
3358K

 **EU-JER\_REVIEWER\_FORM\_R2613.docx**  
329K

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**Rohmani Nur Indah** <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>  
To: Editor - European Journal of Educational Research <editor@eu-jer.com>

Sun, Dec 22, 2019 at 7:13 AM

Dear Ahmet Savas, Ph.D

Please find the attached commented manuscript and reviewer form.

This article is free from the issues of conflict of interest, suspicion of duplicate publication, fabrication of data or plagiarism

Thank you for the valuable opportunity to review the manuscript for European Journal of Educational Research

Dr. Rohmani Nur Indah  
Faculty of Humanities UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang Indonesia  
Editor in chief El Harakah Journal of Islamic Culture  
<http://ejournal.uin-malang.ac.id/index.php/infopub>


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## 3 attachments

 **EU-JER\_REVIEWER\_FORM\_R2613.docx**  
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 **EU-JER\_REVIEWER\_FORM\_R2613.pdf**  
269K

 **EUJER\_ID\_1912060654\_reviewed.docx**  
3348K

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**Editor, European Journal of Educational Research** <editor@eu-jer.com>  
To: Rohmani Nur Indah <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>

Sun, Dec 22, 2019 at 2:56 PM

Dear Dr. Rohmani Nur Indah,

We thank you very much for making your efforts to the journal of "European Journal of Educational Research". We have honored to see you as the reviewer of EU-JER. We welcome your contributions in future. Please see the attached certificate of appreciation.

After the author does the corrections which you gave, we may resend the revised paper in order to check whether all corrections have been done.

Best regards,

Ahmet Savas, Ph.D.

Editor, European Journal of Educational Research  
[editor@eu-jer.com](mailto:editor@eu-jer.com)  
[www.eu-jer.com](http://www.eu-jer.com)

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 **certificate-of-appreciation-Rohmani Nur Indah.pdf**  
314K

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**Rohmani Nur Indah** <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>  
To: reviews@webofscience.com

Mon, Jan 16, 2023 at 1:11 PM

WOS\_REVIEW\_ID:8384553

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 **certificate-of-appreciation-Rohmani Nur Indah.pdf**  
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## Reasoning in Argumentative Writing by Students with Different Ethnicities in Indonesia

**Abstract:** This study was intended to describe the effect of Indonesian culture on the argumentative writing of undergraduate students with English major. Variations shared by Batakese and Javanese ethnicities were also investigated to find out variations of argumentative pattern within the shared pattern of argumentation among the various ethnicities in Indonesia were also investigated. The two objectives were achieved by applying descriptive qualitative design in which 10 students of Javanese ethnicities and 10 students of Batakese were involved in the study. The argumentative writing of the 20 students were analyzed by applying qualitative data analysis model. The result of the study showed that the undergraduate students of both Javanese and Batakese shared common patterns of arguments in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal. Meanwhile, variations in ethnic value between Batakese writers and Javanese writers causes variations in text structure of argumentative writing in two aspects namely in developing thesis statement and in drawing conclusion.

**Keywords:** *culture, patterns of arguments, variations, ethnicities*

### Introduction

Indonesia, geographically, is one of Asian countries. Asian culture is said to have different culture from Western's. Western's value is individualism in which individuals should have sufficient freedom. In contrast, Asians' values is collectivism who see themselves as parts of one or more groups (family, co-workers, tribes, nations) and emphasize their connectedness to members of these collectives. This difference is formed in their L1 and affects their L2 writing rhetoric pattern (Connor, 2008). Western rhetoric is characterized by practical and scientific orientation, and factual concrete evidence; they are more direct in their argumentation. Meanwhile, Asian's is typically humanistic aesthetic orientation and subjective in providing evidence. Therefore, they tend to use indirect approach in their argumentation (Kaplan in Uysal, 2012). However, culture cannot be regarded as national entity; within a culture, there are variations of

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(Connor et al, 2008)

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rhetoric (Comfort, 2001). It implicitly states that within Asian and Western culture, there are variations in their rhetoric patterns.

Indonesia consists of various ethnics group such as *Batak Toba* who reside in North Sumatera, Indonesia around Toba Lake, Javanese who live in Java, Manado whose residence in North Sulawesi, etc. Their rhetorical pattern will be varied although they belong to Asian culture which will be in line with Comfort's statement (Comfort, 2001).

This study was intended to find out the variations of reasoning in argumentative writing written by undergraduate students of English Department with two different ethnics groups in Indonesia namely *Batak Toba* and Javanese. The two ethnics have different values. *Batak Toba* lives' purpose is to achieve three main ideals namely to be wealthy, to have many sons and daughters, and family honor which is reflected by their motto: *Hamoraon* (wealth), *Hagabeon* (hoping to have many sons and daughters), *Hasangapon* (family honor) (Sari, B.T, 2018). They are very ambitious to achieve this purpose and they work hard. In daily life, they speak to the point, frankly and give less consideration on others' feelings. This is an implementation of other motto of theirs: *Tedak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan).

Javanese live with different value; they value more on harmony which they call as live in *rukun* (Hawkins, 1996). In daily life, this value is represented in a principle: *tanggap ing sasmita*. It means a Javanese should be keen on inferring implicit and symbolic meaning (Pudentia, 2015:426). To achieve harmonious life, one with Javanese ethnic should not say something directly; they have to say something implicitly and they believe that their interlocutors have the ability to infer the implicit and symbolic meaning as the principle of their communication requires everyone to be *tanggap ing sasmita*.

In argumentative writing, the writer is intended to convince his readers by applying argumentative text structure, reasoning, and persuasive appeal to accept his claim or thesis

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You need to elaborate further on the relationship between culture and reasoning. There are two views on this issue, whether reasoning is shaped by culture, or culture shapes reasoning. How does this paper respond to these views?

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(Sari et al., 2018)

statement. Ways of convincing readers, according to Ramage *et.al* (2016) are realized in three aspects, they are: (1) text structure; (2) reasoning; and (3) affective appeals. Toulmin *et.al* (2003:11) further explains that reasoning is developed by providing: (1) claim (writer's stance which he tries to prove); (2) reason itself (motive for the claim); (3) ground (data which supports the claim); (4) warrant (underlying assumption that completes the relationship between claim and reason); and (5) backing (the basis on which we believe that the warrant is believable). This theory is resulted from the research conducted to the argumentative writing written by Western writers. From the perspective of culture, Asian writers may have different ways of convincing his readers to accept his claim. It can be seen from Western argumentative writing which is more direct in expressing claim, and scientific by providing more ground and warrant; while Asian writers are indirect, less scientific, less ground and warrant (Schwarz & Asterhan, 2008).

Indonesian argumentative writing is characterized with indirect, less ground and less warrant. Argumentative writing written by Batak writers may be different from that of written by Javanese writers in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeals although in general they show indirectness, less ground, and less warrant. This is caused by different values they have within the same national cultural entities. There may be variations in their argumentative writing in the attributes that characterize the Asian writers argumentative writing.

### **Methodology**

In this study, three classes of undergraduate students majoring in English education which consists of twenty five students in each class were assigned to write argumentative writing with the topic of *Should social media be banned?* All of the students were in the 8<sup>th</sup> semester and based on their curriculum as well as the result of the interview, the students had

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studied how to write argumentative writing. All of the 75 writings were examined to find out the writing which fulfill the criteria of argumentative writing. Based on the result of the examination, there were 10 Javanese ethnics students' argumentative writing and 10 Batak ethnics writing were found to fulfill most of the argumentative writing text structure. The 20 writings were used as the data of this study.

This study was designed with qualitative descriptive design. The data were analysed by applying Bogdan & Biklen; data analysis model in which data analysis is firstly begun by data identification and classification by taking the theory or argumentative writing as temporary predetermined of data identification and classification. This was intended to find out descriptions of the argumentative writing of the two ethnics writers. Patterns of convincing the readers applied by the two ethnic writers was found out by observing the interrelatedness between the two ethnics values and the way of convincing their readers. Recurrent pattern was identified as the underlying causes of the two ways of convincing their readers.

### Findings / Result

The result of the data analysis showed that there were Variations of argumentative writing obeying Asian culture in specific pattern reflecting variations within the national cultural entities were applied by the two ethnics writers.

#### 1. General Pattern Reflecting National Cultural Entities

In general, the two ethnic writers argumentative writing were characterized by the characteristics reflecting Asian culture as their national cultural entities. This characteristics were found in the text structure and reasoning of the argumentative writing.

##### a. Text Structure

The text structure consists of: (a) introductory paragraph; (b) writer's position paragraph; and (c) conclusion.

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Year of publication?  
Mention it in references

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Representation of ethnicity should be elaborated first before coming to the justification that the writing characterized the cultural entities. I think this paragraph is put later, not earlier. You need to describe the general pattern in the finding, and later connect to the research assumption that it is affected by culture later in the discussion

## By Applying Definition, Personal Opinion, Issue, and Implicit Thesis Statement in Introductory Paragraph

### a) Definition

In developing the *Introduction* of the argumentative writing, the subjects count on definition (1a) and personal opinion (1b) to introduce the issue (1c) in order to catch readers' attention, as shown in the data below.

#### Data 1a

Social media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, and/or exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks.

In data 1a, the introduction was begun with *Social media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, anexchange information and ideas in virtual communities...*; and it belongs to definition. Definition refers to detailed description of something in attempt to avoid readers' misunderstanding and to gain more precise image of what is being defined (Ary *et.al* 2010 : 36).

The term *refers* used in the data is intended to describe social media as the means of communication. To gain more precise image of what social media is, the subject also presented the function of social media as seen in the clause *in which they create, share, and exchange information and ideas*. Besides, the subject also put an emphasis that the communication could happen among several people by stating *in virtual communities and networks*. Therefore, it was true to say that the sentence was called definition. The subjects developed the introduction by giving the definition.

It seemed that the subject thought the readers' attention could be tapped if only the readers understand the topic being discussed in the writing. For this reason, the subject believed that giving definition could catch readers' attention.

It was different from what the experts (Ramage *et.al*, 2016) stated about the introduction in argumentative writing. The introduction should be begun with the presentation of current

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Check the sequence and explain earlier, is it the first strategy applied in the introductory paragraph?

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event, memorable scene, illustrative story related to the topic being discussed in order to catch readers' attention.

The use of definition in the introduction to begin the argument by the subject might be meant to catch readers' attention in different way from that of stated in the theory. It might be true to say that the subjects assumed readers would not be interested in the topic being discussed if the readers did not know what the topic was. Therefore, giving a definition to readers became one way for the subjects to catch their readers' attention.

### **b. Personal Opinion**

In addition to the presentation of definition, the subjects also provide their personal opinion to catch readers' attention in the introduction, as seen in data 1b.

#### **Data 1b**

Nowadays, most teens has been influenced by social media. They usually used social media to post and upload status, picture.

In data 1b, the sentence *Nowadays, most teens has been influenced by social media* is classified as personal opinion because it contains the subject's beliefs in the social media. This is in line with the definition of *personal opinion* put forwarded by Sims (2016) in which he states that *personal opinion* is what someone believes about an idea, question, or topic while Ramage *et.al* (2016) claim that introduction should be developed by providing facts of current event, memorable scene, and illustrative story. By comparing the sentence (*Nowadays, most teens has been influenced by social media*) to Sims (2016) and to Ramage *et.al* (2016), it is logical to conclude that the sentence is personal opinion.

In relation to the personal opinion provided above, the subject might think that the readers would accept the writer's statement even if it was only personal opinion. This might be caused by certain feature of mode of communication. Qingxue (2003) mentioned that Western people expected messages to be detailed, clear-cut, and definite. It meant that if there are not enough data or not apparent, they will ask blunt questions because they feel uncomfortable with

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vagueness and ambiguity which is often associated with limited data. In contrast, Eastern people are comfortable with ambiguity and nurture interpersonal harmony. This theory may be the reason for the absence of empirical data in subjects' writing. The subjects and the readers of this writing are Asians, so the subject may think that personal opinion is enough to get the readers accept his argument.

### c. Issue

After presenting personal opinion, the subjects present the issue as it can be seen in data 1c below:

#### Data 1c

**Social media itself has many positive effects to get and share information and also we can get many friends. But, besides of the positive effect, social media also has many negative effects especially for Junior High School students. They are to make them lazy or disturb their focus and to waste their money. That's why social media should be banned for Junior High School students.**

Data 1c was called issue. Issue refers to debatable topic requiring different opinion which indicates one's position towards the topic that needs to be discussed (Knapp & Watskins, 2005:201). The word *debatable* means that it emerges positive and negative side of something.

The issue in data 1c was started from L.4-L.6 *Social media itself has many positive effects to get and share information and also we can get many friends*. The phrase *positive effects* referred to the benefit of using social media. The issue completely existed in data 1c as in L.7-L.11 *Besides the positive effect, social media also has negative effects...* By saying that social media also has the negative effect, it means that the data in 1c was said as an issue.

In these lines, the subjects stated the positive sides of using social media such as getting and sharing information; and getting many friends. Following this idea, in L.7-L.10, the subject mentions the negative sides of social media such as making them lazy or disturbing their focus, and wasting their money.

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The lines are not identifiable to readers

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The way the subject introduces an issue in *Introduction* differs from the theory as seen in these following Figures:

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Describe whether all the data showed difference to the theory or only some of them

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Figure 4.2 or figure 2?

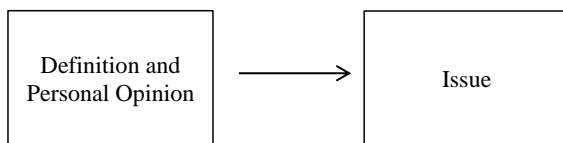


Figure 1. Introducing Issue written by the Subjects

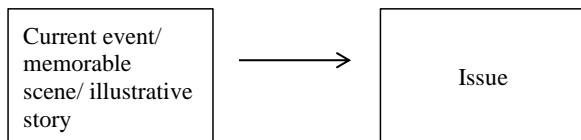


Figure 4.2. Introducing Issue according to the Theory (Ramage, 2016)

#### d. Implicit Thesis Statement

Besides introducing the issue, the subjects present their thesis statement by using thesis statement as seen in data 2

Data 2

They depend on social media to get more followers and to become outstanding. This habit that is using social media obviously lead the teens to some bad effects.

In data 2, thesis statement is stated implicitly. Thesis statement is defined as the sentence that represents writer's position on an issue (Ramage *et.al*, 2018:314). By taking the definition of thesis statement, data 2, in L.6-L.7, was categorized as thesis statement. It was proven by the subject's judgment as well as her position on social media in which she stated social media could cause bad effects on teenagers. Besides, the thesis statement was implicitly stated as the

writer's position implied in the phrase of *bad effects* on social media which indicates the writer's agreement on banning social media.

The implicit thesis statement might be affected by the subjects' culture as being Asians.

Chen & Starosta (2003) asserted that Asian people had reserved communication style. It leads Asians to express themselves in a subtle or indirect way in verbal or non-verbal expression communication especially for the purpose of understanding and avoiding confrontation. It can be seen when Asians feel a need to reject their counterparts' request or action which potentially brings damage to harmony. Based on this theory, it is assumed that the implicit thesis statement made by the subjects was also due to their wanting to be polite by implicitly showing their position about an issue. They may think about readers' prospective disagreement with their point of view, and they also want to maintain harmony with the readers.

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Mention it in references

Table 1. Portion of Introductory Paragraph Components in the Theory and in the Subjects' Paragraph Writing

Component of Argumentative Text Structure	According to Theory (Ramage, et al, 2016)	In Subject's Writing	Degree of match
Introductory paragraph	It should contain:	It contains:	40 %
	1. Current events	1. -	
	2. Illustrative Story	2. -	
	3. Memorable events	3. -	
	4. Issues	4. Issue	
	5. Thesis Statement	5. Thesis Statement	

In table 1, the subject developed his introductory paragraph by providing *issue* and *thesis statement*. The *thesis statement* is directly written as the *issue* is introduced. For the subject of this research, statement of *issue* is sufficient requirement to write *thesis statement*. This fact made the subject felt that writing two components was enough in developing the introductory paragraph of argument. This was fewer than it should be; it is just only 40% of the number of the components that the introductory paragraph should have according to the theory. Ramage *et al*, (2016), claims that the introductory paragraph should contain five components as shown in table 4.16. Such number was needed because *thesis statement* could be written

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Table 4.26 or table 1?

only after the *issues* to be argued had been reminded by the writer. The reminding was done by providing *current event*, *illustrative story* and *memorable events* and it was intended to ensure that the readers of the introductory paragraph have remembered the topic to be developed and made the readers realize that the topic is in controversy. Only after this, the *issue* was written and the *thesis statement* was written.

The difference between the two ways of developing the introductory paragraph may lie in two factors: culture and language mastery. The way how an introductory paragraph of argumentative writing is developed as required in the theory (Ramage, et al, 2016) is true in western culture of thinking and for native speakers of English. They believe that not all of his argumentative reader candidates remember the *issue* and realize that there is controversy in the topic. The controversy leads to *pros* and *cons*. Upon the completion of this requirement, the writing of his *thesis statement* shows clearly his attitude towards the controversy. While the one developed by the subject of the study is resulted from his culture which allows him to write *thesis statement* soon after writing the *issue*. He assumes that his reader candidates have known well about the controversy. The reader candidates are also assumed to understand why the topic is controversial. This may be the reason why the components of the introductory paragraph in the argumentative writing developed by the subjects of the study are fewer than those suggested by the theory.

#### **d. Implicit Thesis Statement**

Besides introducing the issue, the subjects present their thesis statement by using thesis statement as seen in data 2

##### **Data 2**

**They depend on social media to get more followers and to become outstanding. This habit that is using social media obviously lead the teens to some bad effects.**

In data 2, thesis statement is stated implicitly. Thesis statement is defined as the sentence that represents writer's position on an issue (Ramage *et.al*, 2018:314). By taking the definition of thesis statement, data 2, in L.6-L.7, was categorized as thesis statement. It was proven by the subject's judgment as well as her position on social media in which she stated social media could cause bad effects on teenagers. Besides, the thesis statement was implicitly stated as the writer's position implied in the phrase of *bad effects* on social media which indicates the writer's agreement on banning social media.

The implicit thesis statement might be affected by the subjects' culture as being Asians. Chen & Starosta (2003) asserted that Asian people had reserved communication style. It leads Asians to express themselves in a subtle or indirect way in verbal or non-verbal expression communication especially for the purpose of understanding and avoiding confrontation. It can be seen when Asians feel a need to reject their counterparts' request or action which potentially brings damage to harmony. Based on this theory, it is assumed that the implicit thesis statement made by the subjects was also due to their wanting to be polite by implicitly showing their position about an issue. They may think about readers' prospective disagreement with their point of view, and they also want to maintain harmony with the readers.

Table 2. Portion of Introductory Paragraph Components in the Theory and in the Subjects' Paragraph Writing

Component of Argumentative Text Structure	According to Theory (Ramage, et al, 2016)	In Subject's Writing	Degree of match
Introductory paragraph	It should contain:	It contains:	
	6. Current events	6. —	
	7. Illustrative Story	7. —	
	8. Memorable events	8. —	40 %
	9. Issues	9. Issue	
	10. Thesis Statement	10. Thesis Statement	

In table 2, the subject developed his introductory paragraph by providing *issue* and *thesis statement*. The *thesis statement* is directly written as the *issue* is introduced. For the subject of this research, statement of *issue* is sufficient requirement to write *thesis statement*. This fact made the subject felt that writing two components was enough in developing the

introductory paragraph of argument. This was fewer than it should be; it is just only 40% of the number of the components that the introductory paragraph should have according to the theory. Ramage *et al.*, (2016), claims that the introductory paragraph should contain five components as shown in table 4.16. Such number was needed because *thesis statement* could be written only after the *issues* to be argued had been reminded by the writer. The reminding was done by providing *current event*, *illustrative story* and *memorable events* and it was intended to ensure that the readers of the introductory paragraph have remembered the topic to be developed and made the readers realize that the topic is in controversy. Only after this, the *issue* was written and the *thesis statement* was written.

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## 2) By Applying Writer-Based Reasons in Writer's Position Paragraph

After presenting the introduction, the subjects presented their *writer's position* paragraph which was different from that of mentioned in the theory (Ramage *et.al.*, 2016). In

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developing the paragraph of *Writer's position*, the subjects used writer-based reasons in order to make their arguments persuasive to the intended readers as shown in data 3.

**Data 3**

Secondly, the social media can make someone become lazy. They will not be able to manage their time because they have been enjoy to play their social media. Their time will pass useless.

In data 3, writer's position was presented by using writer-based reasons. Writer-based reasons is defined as expressing arguments which is simply based on the writer's perspective and written for himself (Flower, 1979). It reflects the associative, narrative path of the writer's line of thoughts. With reference to this definition, writer-based reason can be seen through subject's statements as seen in L.17-L.19. Within these lines, the subject mentioned the effect of social media on someone's activity. The subject mentioned that users would enjoy using social media much so that they could not manage their time well. The underlying assumption here was that it was wrong to use social media. But, this assumption might not resonate with readers, as students, who thought that social media was needed to support their studying. Thus, it was seen that the subjects merely expressed her argument without considering the points that effectively anchored within the audience beliefs and values.

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Mention it in references

**Commented [ 23]:**  
Do you mean the definition as the strategy used in the introductory paragraph or another?  
Use specific term to avoid ambiguity

**Commented [ 24]:**  
What do you mean?  
Readers cannot identify the lines you mean

**Commented [ 25]:**  
This line should appear before Table 3

Writer's Position based on Theory (X)	Writer's Position written by the Subjects (Y)	Percentage of match of X and Y
Audience-based reasons (Ramage, et.al, 2016)	Writer-based reasons	0 %

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Complete the table with the sample of the writer's statement/position to clarify the percentage of match 0%

Ways of the subjects' stating *writer's position* as compared to the theoretical truth is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Degree of Match between Writer's Position in Theory and in Subjects' Writing



In table 3 the subject provided argument for his position, of being pros or cons, by giving reason which is based on his own thinking or based on his own opinion, which is called as *writer's-based reason*. This is very much different from what it should be, as stated in a theory of writing argument, as claimed by Ramage, *et.al* (2016). According to this theory, one's position in argumentative writing should be based on the reasons that the audience believed to be true or simply stated as *audience-based reason*. This theory is rooted in the western culture and the writers referred to in the theory are native speaker of English who have mastered the language very well. The two factors, culture and mastery of English, may be the causes why the subject's writing of his position in the argumentative writing does not match with what is expected in the theory.

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Describe whether this tendency occurs in all of the data of only some of them

### 3) By Repeating Previous Sentences and Writing Irrelevant Suggestion in Concluding Paragraph

#### a. By Repeating Previous Sentences

To end the argumentative writing, the subject wrote *Conclusion* paragraph which was different from that of stated by experts (Ramage*et.al*, 2016). The subjects tended to repeat previous sentences from the *Introduction* and *Writer's position* paragraph. The repetition is described in data 4.

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Do you mean rephrasing the thesis statement?  
The writer does not copy paste or repeat the sentence.

#### Data 4

**In conclusion, social media should be banned for students at Junior High School because it gives more negative effects for them.**

In data 4, the subject provided a paragraph which belonged to conclusion. A conclusion is defined as the end result of an argument. It is the main points that a writer makes in her paper (Sims, 2012:17). Data 4 shows that it is a conclusion as it is begun with the conjunction *In conclusion...*; and placed in the last paragraphs which indicates the final decision of the subject on her arguments (L.41-L.42). However, the conclusion as in data 4 did not consist of her main

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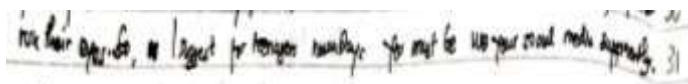
points. In L.41, the subject stated her position towards the topic which was the repetition of thesis statement previously mentioned in introductory paragraph. This was to say that the subject did not reword her points on writer's position paragraph to the concluding paragraph. However, it was mentioned in the theory of Ramage *et.al* (2016) that concluding paragraph should consist of the summary of the writer's points of argument. As the data differed from the theory, it might be due to the subjects' lack of knowledge about writing a concluding paragraph. The subjects might think that restating their thesis statement was enough to give a sense of closure and emphasis of ideas to the readers.

#### **b. By Writing Irrelevant Suggestion to the Topic**

In addition to the conclusion that sums up overall ideas of subjects' argument, concluding paragraph also consists of suggestion. Suggestion is supposed to evoke readers to take actions (Ramage *et.al*, 2016).

The way the subjects presented the suggestion is shown in data 5 below.

#### **Data 5**



#### **Rewritten Version**

**I suggest for teenagers nowadays you must be use your social media sufficiently.**

Data 5 is called suggestion. Suggestion is defined as a proposal offered which is used to shape one's decision (Spears, 2013:451). In data 5, conclusion was explicitly shown through the word *suggest*. Based on the data above, it could be seen that it was a statement of offering readers to use social media sufficiently. So, data 5, L.31 belonged to suggestion. It was placed within the concluding paragraph, specifically in the last layer of text structure.

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Mention it in references

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However, based on data 5 above, it is shown that the suggestion is irrelevant to the topic which required the subjects to decide to ban or not to ban social media. In other words, it was said as being irrelevant because the subject did not stand on any position toward the topic. The subject seemed to let the readers choose whether they could use social media or not. Meanwhile, a suggestion should have about the actions offered to the readers, but it was not found in subjects' statement of suggestion.

The irrelevant suggestion in the subjects' writing might be due to the subjects' difficulty on focusing the topic and on linking it to the suggestion logically.

The way of writing conclusion in argumentative writing is different from the theory proposed by the expert (Ramage *et al.*, 2016). The difference is shown in Table 4.8

Table 4. The Comparison of Concluding Paragraph according to the Theory and the Application by the Subjects

Conclusion Based on Theory (X)	Conclusion Written by Subjects (Y)	Percentage of match of X and Y
Sum up writer's argument without repeating previous sentences	Repeating previous sentences without summing up arguments	0 %
Provide suggestion that calls for actions (Ramage <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	Irrelevant suggestion to the topic	0 %

Table 4 showed that the concluding paragraph written by the non-native speakers of English was completely different from those written by the native speakers as mentioned in the theory. None of the theory of concluding paragraph was drawn on subjects' concluding paragraph. It may be due to the cultural thought pattern of the subjects as being Asian whose thinking tends to be circular. This is in line with Kumaravadivelu (2007:53) who states that Asians use a lot of repetitions in writing. In addition to the repetition, the subjects might find it difficult to state a suggestion which might be caused by their culture as Asians; and they tend

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This sentence is not a new paragraph

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Describe whether it occurs in the whole data or not

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Mention it in references

to avoid stating their opinion directly. Their attempt to avoid giving direct opinions might also be the reason of why suggestions in their argumentative writing became less obvious which was led to the irrelevant suggestion to the topic.

b. Reasoning

The subjects persuaded their readers by utilizing their reasoning in writing argumentative text. The subjects' reasoning was laid on using simple sequence of cause and effects; and using pseudo-evidence which is shown below in detail.

**1) By Using Pseudo-Evidence**

Pseudo-evidence is the example which is not factual; it does not have any data and tend to be more like the writer's opinion. This concept was not found in theory, but it was created to accommodate the facts in the data. With reference to this, it was found that the subjects use pseudo-evidence in writing their argumentative text as seen in data 6.

**Data 6**

Firstly, social media make people do the crime easily. For example: "Audrey case" We can see that the case happened because of bullying in social media. Audrey was almost die because of bullying and mistreating by some people. It is surely make Audrey get mental pressure. To avoid the crime in social media, it is better to avoid the social media.

In data 6, subjects' reasoning was accompanied by pseudo evidence. Evidence refers to the all the verifiable data and information that a writer might use as support for an argument (Ramage*et.al*, 2016:88). Verifiable in this definition means that the data and information should be objective in which the source and the content of the information itself refer to factual evidence.

By using the definition of evidence as the criteria to determine whether something is called as evidence or not, in data 6, specifically in *For example: Audrey case. We can see that the case happened because of bullying in social media. Audrey was almost die*

*because of bullying and mistreating by some people.* The subject tried to provide evidence in order to clarify what she means by *do the crime easily* (L.17). It was realized by providing “Audrey”, as a bullying case. However, the example in which the writer tried to provide as evidence was not accompanied by verified information since the subject did not show any source and details of the information to support her own statement in L.16-L.17. Though it did not belong to factual evidence, the example in data 6 could be called as pseudo-evidence since it was intended to support the subject’s argument stating that social media facilitates people to do criminality.

The use of pseudo-evidence in data 6 might be due to the subjects’ lack of knowledge about the case which was supposed to present how criminality could be spread through social media.

The way of presenting evidence in subjects’ argumentative writing was different from the theory proposed by Ramageet.al (2016:88) as seen in the table below:

Table 5. The Presentation of Evidence in Argumentative Writing Based on the Theory and the Subject’s Writing

Evidence based on Theory	Evidence on Subject’s Writing	Degree of Match
Facts including interviews, questionnaire, surveys, and statistical data	Pseudo-evidence	0 %

(Ramageet.al, 2016:88)

In table 5, it can be concluded that the evidence that the native speakers’ culture provide should be about facts which are credible. Meanwhile, in non-native speakers’ culture like Asians, evidence should not be a fact. It can be taken simply from the writer’s experience and understanding which are less credible compared to the facts as stated in the theory.

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Describe whether all data presents evidence similar to this pattern or not

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Elaborate more explanation whether the students do not mention the credible source to clarify the fact/evidence used because they do not know how to cite well or because citation is not taught

This finding was based on the different cultural thoughts pattern of Western and Asians. Western people avoid ambiguity so that they tend to ask for credible facts, while Asians are likely open to ambiguity. It makes the Asians care less the credibility of the supporting ideas to their claim. It might be the reason why the evidence written by the subjects were completely different from the one stated in the theory. This was represented as 0% as mentioned in the table above.

## 2) By Organizing Cause and Effect

The data analysis showed that the causes and effects are: (a) succeeding; and (b) successively or sequentially presented in the data as it was stated by Martin and Rose (2008).

Each logical relations of this type of sequence is presented as follow.

### a. Succeeding

#### Data 7a

Firstly, the social media can make someone do the crime easily. For instance, someone can bully someone else by their social media, like Facebook, Instagram, etc. Someone also can spread the hoax to others in order to make someone else can not live comfortable. Then, someone can do the plagiarism.

Secondly, the social media can make someone become lazy. They will not be able to manage their time because they have been enjoy to play their social media. Their time will pass useless.

Data 7a is categorized as succeeding cause and effect explanation. It is indicated through the effect that immediately comes after the cause. It can be seen in L.10 and L.17 which represent the subject's agreement on banning social media. In L.10, it was mentioned that social media made someone to do criminality easily. By using the word *make*, it meant that social media was the cause, while the effect was about the easiness of doing criminality. The succeeding cause and effect explanation is also seen in L.17. In this line, it was mentioned that social media could make someone lazy. Similar to the word used in L.10, the word *make* indicates that social media is the cause, and the effect is *lazy*.

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From the two points above, it is shown that both of the points are not sequentially related; they are separated ideas that have their own cause-effect relationship.

b. Sequentially

Data 7b

First, most teens stay connected to the internet, accessing social media the whole time. They always check their social media account on the smartphone from the time they wake up in the morning till they back to sleep at night. They usually stayed up at the whole night. This habit could ruin their sleep pattern and it would lead to a higher risk of exhaustion and depression. It can affect their performance at school.

Data 7b is categorized as sequential explanation of cause and effect. [Martin and Rose \(2008:150\)](#) states that sequential explanation is constructed by a series of events that is chained one to another. By using this definition to categorize the logical relations between events, it is relevant to say that it belongs to sequential explanation of cause and effect. Data 7b presents that it is social media that causes one bad effect that is disturbing one's sleep pattern as seen in L.12. The word *sleep pattern* as the impact of using social media becomes the cause of *exhaustion* as stated in L.13. Then, the *exhaustion* affects the students' performance at school seen in L.14. The flow from sleep pattern, exhaustion, and also students' performance at school shows how one problem that is social media can emerge one bad effect and causes one to another.

Despite of the category as sequential cause and effect, the subjects did not provide detail explanation of how sleep pattern could cause exhaustion and affect students' performance at school. The subjects let the readers to link cause-effect relationship to their own understanding. This might be the reason of assuming writers' not caring about their intended readers.

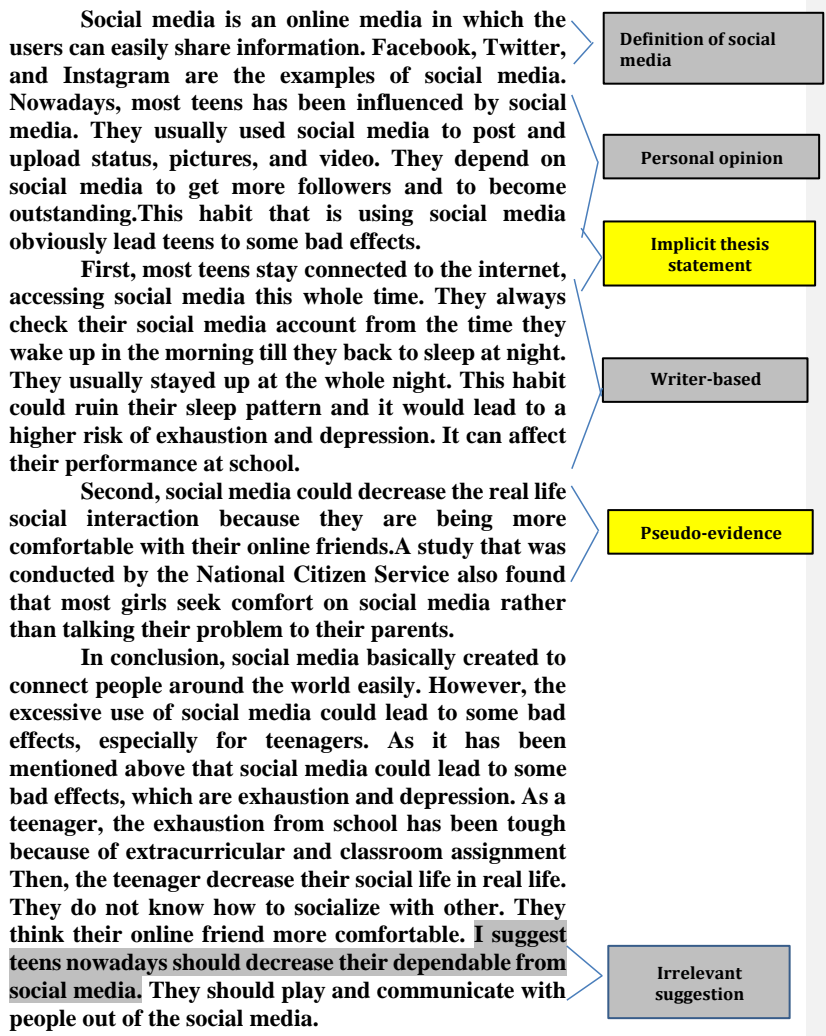
### 3) Affective Appeal

Affective appeal is expressed by using pathos which consists of the application of affective factors through the use of concrete language, narrative, metaphor, images, and

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anecdotes. It can also be expressed by ethos which is the application of writer's credibility through the application of statistics and refutation of the opposing argument (Ramage, 2016).

The data showed that this appeal was not used by the subjects. To prove it, data 8 below is shown to show that none of the appeals is used in subjects' argumentative writing.



2. Variations Reflecting Ethnic Cultural Values

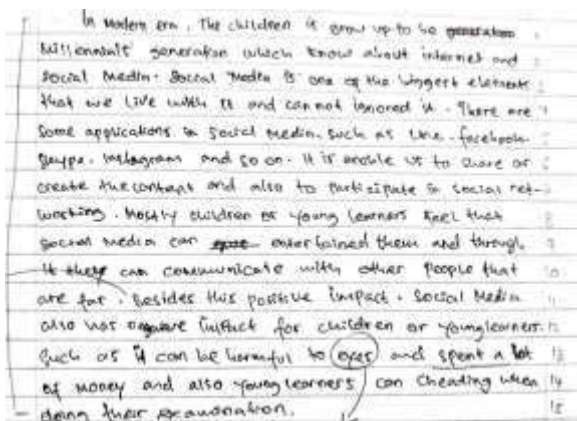


The data analysis showed that variations in patterns of argumentative writing were found in the ethnics writers' argumentative writing in two aspects namely: (1) in developing thesis statement; and (2) in drawing conclusion.

a) Stating thesis statement

Javanese ethnics formulate his thesis statement very implicitly as shown in data 9.

**Data 9**



In data 9, he implicitly said that social media should not be banned. This is indicated by the sentence *we cannot ignore the social media* in L.4 due to the fact that: (1) social media has a lot of types and (2) the children were born in the social media era. He did not say explicit word to show his position. He might hope the readers to be able to infer the implicit meaning as expected by Javanese community principle namely *Tanggap Ing Sasmita*. This behavior may be affected by the value of harmony to the readers as required by the value of *rukun*.

The Batakese writers used explicit words in formulating his thesis statement as shown in data 10.

**Data 10**

Social media is a tool of interaction among people to share or exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks. There are many kinds of social media, such as Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, etc. People often use these social media to communicate with other people. However, people sometimes ignore the negative effects of social media. There are many negative effects of using social media. Therefore, I agree that social media should be banned.

In data 10, the Batakese writers explicitly stated that social media should be banned. This is indicated by the explicit statement *Therefore, I agree that social media should be banned*. Even though the relationship between the introduction and the statements of banning the social media is not rationally explained. The explicitness might due to the fact that the Batakese writers are direct and open as required by the motto *Tedak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan).

b) In Drawing Conclusion

The Javanese writers draw conclusions by repeating the negative or the positive effects of social media depending on his position or thesis statement towards the social media as seen in data 11.

**Data 11**

It can be concluded that social media which has many benefits such as especially for the undergraduate students such as

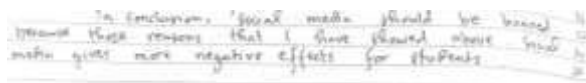
They can share and get information through social media, so it can be their supporting means to learn and they can share their business to support their income. It can make them more independent to get their income. It is suggested for undergraduate students to use social media because of the benefits of the social media themselves.

In data 11, the negative effect of the social media were not repeated since his statement was social media should not be banned that was implicitly stated in introduction. This might be intended to keep harmony between the writers and the readers as required by the ethnic value

namely *rukun*. If the Javanese writer drew explicit conclusion then his social status might be considered higher than the readers which are not in line with their ethnics values because such conclusion may result in inharmony or not *rukun* between the writers and the readers.

The Batak writers draw the conclusions by repeating the thesis statement which was formulated explicitly in conclusion as seen in data 12.

#### Data 12



In conclusion, social media should be banned. Because these reasons that I have showed above that social media gives more negative effects for students.

In data 12, the Batakese writer drew explicit conclusion by stating explicitly that social media should be banned. This might be the reflection of *Tedak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan) which require the Batak ethnics to be open and explicit.

#### Discussion and Conclusion

The research findings were national cultural entities of various ethnics in Indonesia affect rhetorical pattern of argumentative writing in terms of text structure and reasoning. The two aspects were characterized by indirect, less ground, and less warrant. In text structure, the introduction, writer's position paragraph, and conclusion reflect the national cultural entities which make them different from the patterns of Western's argumentative writing. In introductory paragraph, the researcher used definition, personal opinion, and introduced the issue to catch readers' attention. Western writers relate argument to the current event, memorable scene, and illustrative story to catch readers' attention (Ramage *et.al*, 2016:45). In reasoning, the national cultural entities of various ethnics in Indonesia are characterized by indirectness, subjective ground, and absence of warrant. Pseudo-evidence were used to organize cause-effect relationship in their argumentation.

Variations in patterns of argumentative writing as resulted from different ethnics cultural values are limited to the development of thesis statement and drawing conclusions. For Batak writers who values more on explicitness, direct, and to the point develop thesis statement and draw conclusion in line with the value. They explicitly express thesis statement and draw explicit conclusion. Meanwhile, Japanese writers who value harmony (*rukun*) and *tanggap ing sasmita* develop thesis statement and draw conclusions implicitly.

Connor (2008) found that there is shared argument patterns among individuals coming from the same culture meaning that culture of individuals affect the patterns of their arguments. This findings support the current study both of them agree that shared culture will cause individuals to have the same patterns of arguments. In the current study, it is stated that national cultural entities causes various ethnics in Indonesia to have general patterns (shared patterns) of argumentative writing among various ethnics in Indonesia.

Xinghua (2015) found out that English speaking participants used analytical strategy in their arguments while Chinese speaking participants used hortatory strategy. This difference was influenced by both English and Chinese. Connor (1996) states that culture is realized in one's L1. In relation to the study of Xinghua (2015), Chinese participants use Chinese as their L1 meaning that their culture which is represented in L1 causes them to apply hortatory strategy in their writing, while English speaking participants, whose L1 is English, choose to apply analytical strategy because of the influence of their culture which is realized in their L1. The two evidences showed that culture affects their strategy of arguing in argumentative writing. This is also in support of the current study saying that ways of convincing the readers in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal is affected by the culture.

Comfort (2001) found that there were variations within shared pattern of argumentative writing due to culture variations within the national entities. The current study saying that there were variations in thesis statement development and drawing conclusion between Batak ethnics

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Xinghua and Clare (2015)

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Xinghua and Clare (2015)

writer and Javanese writer in their argumentative writing confirmed the finding of Comfort's. In the context of Indonesian culture, the shared-pattern of argumentative writing among various ethnics are mostly influenced by national cultural entities while variations cause by cultural variations within the national cultural entity occurs in small aspects of argumentative pattern.

### **Conclusion**

Based on the findings and discussion, it is concluded that culture affects rhetorical patterns of argumentative writing. Different culture causes different patterns of argumentative writing. Different ethnics have different values within the shared-culture, and this difference causes variations in patterns of argumentative writing.

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## Review Form

**Manuscript ID:** EU-JER\_ID# **Date:** 22 December 2019

**Manuscript Title:** Reasoning in Argumentative Writing by Students with Different Ethnicities in Indonesia

<b>ABOUT MANUSCRIPT</b> (Mark with "X" one of the options)	<b>Accept</b>	<b>Weak</b>	<b>Refuse</b>	<b>Not Available</b>
Language is clear and correct	X			
Literature is well written	X			
References are cited as directed by APA	X			
The research topic is significant to the field	X			
The article is complete, well organized and clearly written		X		
Research design and method is appropriate	X			
Analyses are appropriate to the research question	X			
Results are clearly presented		X		
A reasonable discussion of the results is presented	X			
Conclusions are clearly stated	X			
Recommendations are clearly stated				X

### GENERAL REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE AUTHOR

- The issue presented in this article is significant to support the idea that ethnic culture shapes rhetorical pattern. However, the analysis should clearly identify whether the tendency occurs merely because of the cultural background of the students and not because of their writing proficiency. You may suggest to further studies to dig more on the relationship among reasoning, culture and proficiency
- The reasoning reflected in student's writing is supported by their knowledge on academic writing. Elaborate the description on the student's current competence i.e. the skill to cite from credible resources. Otherwise, the inference that the reasoning is influenced by the culture is inadequate as it is also affected by their writing proficiency
- Revise the organization of the data analysis to facilitate reader's understanding
- This article is potential for publication in this journal with some revisions

### THE DECISION (Mark with "X" one of the options)

<b>Accepted:</b> Correction not required	
<b>Accepted:</b> Minor correction required	
<b>Conditionally Accepted:</b> Major Correction Required	X
<b>Refused</b>	

**Reviewer Code: R2613 (The name of referee is hidden because of blind review)**

# Certificate of Appreciation

Presented to

**Rohmani Nur Indah, Ph.D.**

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## Research Article


# Variations in Reasoning in Javanese and Bataknese Students' Argumentative Writing: A Study on the Relation between Ethnicity and Reasoning

Berlin Sibarani  , Betharia Pandia



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 456 (core.php?ajax=count&link=EU-JER\_9\_1\_385.pdf)

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## Abstract

This study was intended to describe the relation between students' reasoning and their ethnicities. Comparison between the argumentative writings written by Javanese and Bataknese students - two of the ethnics found in Indonesia- was conducted to seek shared and variation of reasoning between the two ethnics. Interpretation on the results of such comparison was made in order to find out the relation between reasoning and ethnicity. To achieve the objective, a descriptive qualitative research design was applied. Twenty students consisting of 10 Javanese and 10 Bataknese were involved in the study. They were assigned to write 20 argumentative writing. Qualitative data analysis was applied to analyze the 20 argumentative writing. The result of the study showed that both Javanese and Bataknese students shared common patterns of arguments in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal. Meanwhile, difference in cultural value between Bataknese and Javanese students caused minor variation (differences) in text structure of argumentative writing in two aspects namely in developing thesis statement and drawing conclusion. Ethnicity's relation to variation in argumentative writing is limited to the two aspects: to the writing of thesis statement and drawing conclusion.


**Keywords:** *Culture, patterns of arguments, variations, ethnics.*

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## Variations in Reasoning in Javanese and Bataknese Students' Argumentative Writing: A Study on the Relation between Ethnicity and Reasoning

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**Abstract:** This study was intended to describe the relation between students' reasoning and their ethnicities. Comparison between the argumentative writings written by Javanese and Bataknese students - two of the ethnics found in Indonesia- was conducted to seek shared and variation of reasoning between the two ethnics. Interpretation on the results of such comparison was made in order to find out the relation between reasoning and ethnicity. To achieve the objective, a descriptive qualitative research design was applied. Twenty students consisting of 10 Javanese and 10 Bataknese were involved in the study. They were assigned to write 20 argumentative writing. Qualitative data analysis was applied to analyze the 20 argumentative writing. The result of the study showed that both Javanese and Bataknese students shared common patterns of arguments in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal. Meanwhile, difference in cultural value between Bataknese and Javanese students caused minor variation (differences) in text structure of argumentative writing in two aspects namely in developing thesis statement and drawing conclusion. Ethnicity's relation to variation in argumentative writing is limited to the two aspects: to the writing of thesis statement and drawing conclusion.

**Keywords:** *Culture, patterns of arguments, variations, ethnics.*

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### Introduction

Indonesia, geographically, is one of Asian countries. Asian culture is said to have different culture from Western's. Western value is individualism in which individuals should have sufficient freedom. In contrast, Asians' values is collectivism who see themselves as parts of one or more groups (family, co-workers, tribes, nations) and emphasize their connectedness to members of these collectives (Connor, 2008). This difference is formed in their L1 and affects their L2 writing rhetoric pattern. Western rhetoric is characterized by practical and scientific orientation, and factual concrete evidence; they are more direct in their argumentation. Meanwhile, Asian's is typically humanistic aesthetic orientation and subjective in providing evidence. Therefore, they tend to use indirect approach in their argumentation (Kaplan as cited in Uysal, 2012). However, culture cannot be regarded as national entity; within a culture, there are variations of rhetoric (Comfort, 2001). It implicitly states that within Asian and Western culture, there are variations in their rhetoric patterns.

Indonesia consists of various ethnic groups such as *Batak Toba* who reside in North Sumatera, Indonesia around Toba Lake, Javanese who live in Java, Manado whose residence in North Sulawesi. Their rhetorical pattern will be varied although they belong to Asian culture which will be in line with Comfort's statement as mentioned previously.

This study was intended to find out the relation between reasoning and ethnicity in argumentative writing written by undergraduate students of English Department from different ethnic groups in Indonesia namely *Batak Toba* and Javanese. The two ethnics have different values. *Batak Toba* life purpose is to achieve three main ideals namely to be wealthy, to have many sons and daughters, and family honor which is reflected by their motto: *Hamoraon* (wealth), *Hagabeon* (hoping to have many sons and daughters), *Hasangapon* (family honor). They are very ambitious to achieve

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this purpose and they work hard. In daily life, they speak to the point, frankly and give less consideration on others' feelings. This is an implementation of other motto of theirs: *Tidak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan) (Sari, 2018)

Javanese live with different value; they value more on harmony which they call as live in *rukun* (Hawkins, 1996). In daily life, this value is represented in a principle: *tanggap ing sasmita*. It means a Javanese should be keen on inferring implicit and symbolic meaning (Pudentia, 2015). To achieve harmonious life, one with Javanese ethnic should not say something directly; they have to say something implicitly and they believe that their interlocutors have the ability to infer the implicit and symbolic meaning as the principle of their communication requires everyone to be *tanggap ing sasmita*.

In argumentative writing, the writer is intended to convince his/her readers by applying argumentative text structure, reasoning, and persuasive appeal to accept his/her claim or thesis statement. Ways of convincing readers, according to Ramage *et.al* (2016) are realized in three aspects, they are: (1) text structure; (2) reasoning; and (3) affective appeals. Toulmin (2003:11) further explains that reasoning is developed by providing: (1) claim (writer's stance which he tries to prove); (2) reason itself (motive for the claim); (3) ground (data which supports the claim); (4) warrant (underlying assumption that completes the relationship between claim and reason); and (5) backing (the basis on which we believe that the warrant is believable). This theory is resulted from the research conducted to the argumentative writing written by Western writers. From the perspective of culture, Asian writers may have different ways of convincing his readers to accept their claim. It can be seen from Western argumentative writing which is more direct in expressing claim, and scientific by providing more ground and warrant; while Asian writers are indirect, less scientific, less ground and warrant (Schwarz & Asterhan, 2008).

Indonesian argumentative writing is characterized with indirect, less ground and less warrant. Argumentative writing written by Batakese writers may be different from that written by Javanese writers in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeals although in general they show indirectness, less ground, and less warrant. This is caused by different values they have within the same national cultural entities. There may be variations in their argumentative writing in the attributes that characterize the Asian writers' argumentative writing.

### Methodology

In this study, three classes of undergraduate students majoring in English Education which consisted of twenty five students in each class were assigned to write argumentative writing with the topic of *Should social media be banned?* All of the students were in the eighth semester and based on their curriculum as well as the result of the interview, the students had studied how to write argumentative writing. All of the 75 argumentative writing were examined to find out the writing which fulfilled the criteria of argumentative writing. Based on the result of the examination, there were 10 Javanese students' argumentative essays and 10 Batakese essays were found to fulfill most of the argumentative writing text structure. The 20 essays were used as the data of this study.

This study was designed with qualitative descriptive design. The data were analysed by applying Bogdan & Biklen's model (2014) in which data analysis is firstly begun by data identification and classification. The identification and classification was conducted by taking the theory of argumentative writing as temporary predetermined category. The data analysis was intended to find out descriptions of the Javanese and Batakese students' argumentative writing. Patterns of convincing the readers applied by the two ethnic students were found out by observing the interrelatedness between the two ethnic groups' values and their ways of convincing their readers. Recurrent pattern was identified as the underlying causes of the two ways of convincing their readers.

### Findings /Results

Based on the results of the data analysis, it was found out that the reasoning between the Javanese and Batakese students were varied in two aspects: in the writing of thesis statement and drawing conclusion. This indicated that ethnic cultural value is related only to the two aspects, while to the other aspects of reasoning in argumentative writing the two ethnics shared common patterns. Both Javanese and Batakese students wrote text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal in the same ways. These findings were presented here in details.

#### 1. Common Patterns of Reasoning in Javanese and Batakese Writing.

In writing arguments, the two ethnics shared features of reasoning. This commonality was found in two aspects of arguments: in the text structure, and reasoning.

##### A. Text Structure

##### 1) The Development of Introductory Paragraph

In writing the arguments, the two ethnics wrote paragraphs that were classified into three parts: introduction, writer's position and conclusion. This structure is different from the structure developed by European people as asserted in Ramage (2016). According to Ramage (2016), the structure the two ethnics wrote missed one aspect,

namely *opposing view*. Introductory paragraph of the argument was developed by providing definition of the topic (motion) as in data 1a, by giving personal opinion as in data 1b, and by presenting issues as seen in data 1c and thesis statement as seen in data 1d.

Data 1a showed that the students of the two ethnics developed the introductory paragraph by giving definition:

Data 1a

*Social media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, and/or exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks.*

Data 1a was classified as definition because it fulfilled the characteristics of a definition proposed by Ary (2010: 36). Data 1a contained description of *social media* in order to avoid readers' misunderstanding and to gain more precise image of what *social media* was. It described the function of social media: namely as a means of communication and how the social media worked. It seemed that the subject thought the readers' attention could be tapped if only the readers understood what *social media* was; the readers would not be interested in *social media* if the readers did not know what *social media* was. Unlike what Ramage (2016) proposed that the introduction should be begun with the presentation of current event, memorable scene, illustrative story related to the topic being discussed in order to catch readers' attention.

The introductory paragraph of the argument developed by the two ethnics was also characterized with the provision of *personal opinion* as shown in data 1b.

Data 1b

*Nowadays, most teens has been influenced by social media. They usually used social media to post and upload status, picture.*

Data 1b contained *personal opinion* because it conveyed their beliefs in the social media; it did not have any facts about it. Statement like this was called *personal opinion* by Sims (2016). This introduction is different from what it should be. Ramage (2016) claimed that introduction should be developed by providing facts of current event, memorable scene, and illustrative story. The Javanese and Batakese writers might think that the readers would accept the writer's introduction even if it was only a personal opinion. Eastern people are comfortable with ambiguity and nurture interpersonal harmony (Hawkins, 1996). The Javanese and the Batakese writers and the readers are Asians, so the subject may think that personal opinion was enough to get the readers accept their arguments. It might be the reason for the absence of empirical data in the introduction. On the contrary, Qingxue (2003) said that Western people expected messages to be detailed, clear-cut, and definite; if there are not enough data or not apparent, they will ask blunt questions because they feel uncomfortable with vagueness and ambiguity which are often associated with limited data.

The introduction developed by the Javanese and the Batakese was also characterized with the provision of *issues* as seen in data 1c.

Data 1c

*Social media itself has many positive effects to get and share information and also we can get many friends. But, besides of the positive effect, social media also has many negative effects especially for Junior High School students. They are to make them lazy or disturb their focus and to waste their money. That's why social media should be banned for Junior High School students.*

Knapp & Watkins, (2005: 2001) defined issue as debatable topic which requires different opinion, one's position towards the topic and needs to be discussed. Data 1c showed that the introduction was developed by presenting the negative and positive effects of the social media. Such negative and positive effects were debatable; different people might have different opinions and different positions toward the effects. Based on this description, the Javanese and Batakese students developed the issue in the introductory paragraph of arguments by presenting the *definition of social media*, wrote their *personal opinion* and put forward the *issue* to be discussed. The way they developed the issue of the introductory paragraph was visually presented figure 1.

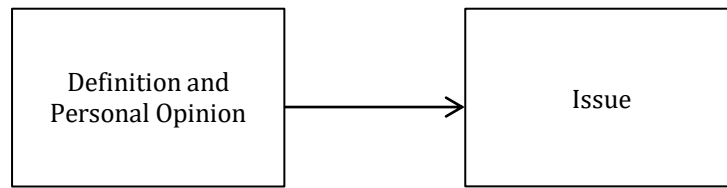


Figure 1. Development of Issue in the Introductory Paragraph of Argument by Javanese and Batakese Students

The issue development as shown in Figure 1 is different from the development of issue done by the European writer as shown in Figure 2.

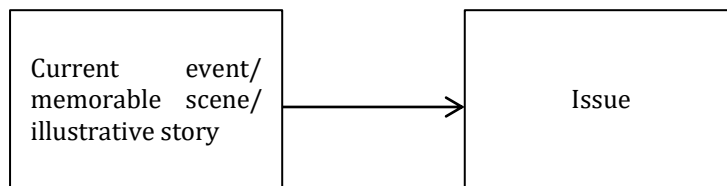


Figure 2. Introducing Issue according to the Theory (Ramage, 2016)

The difference between the two figures indicated that Javanese and Batakese students developed introductory paragraph in different way from the way the European people did (see Ramage, 2016).

The last character of the introductory paragraph of argument developed by the Javanese and Batakese students was the way how they wrote *implicit thesis statement*, as shown in data 1d.

Data 1d

They depend on social media to get more followers and to become outstanding. This habit that is using social media obviously lead the teens to some bad effects.

In data 1d, the students stated that *social media* may cause *bad effects* on teenagers, without stating that the *social media* should be banned. However, this statement indicated their argumentative position that social media could cause *bad effects* on teenagers. Data 1d was in line with the assertion that Asian people had reserved communication style which leads Asians express themselves in an indirect way in verbal or non-verbal expression communication especially for the purpose avoiding confrontation which potentially brings damage to harmony (Chen & Starosta, 2003).

Comparison of the introductory paragraph development made by Javanese and Batakese, which classified as Asian, to those developed by European as asserted in Ramage (2016) is presented in table 1.

Table 1. The Differences in Introductory Paragraph of Arguments Developed by Asian students (Javanese and Batakese) and European People as Asserted in Ramage (2016)

Component of Argumentative Text Structure	According to Theory (Ramage, et al, 2016)	In Subject's Writing	% Match
Introductory paragraph	It should contain:	It contains:	40 %
	1. Current events 2. Illustrative Story 3. Memorable events 4. Issues 5. Thesis Statement	1. Definition of motion (topic) 2. Personal opinion 3. - 4. Issue 5. Thesis Statement	

Table 1 showed that Javanese and Batakese, classified as Asian, developed introductory paragraph of arguments in different ways from European. This may be caused by the difference in their culture as asserted by Chen & Starosta (2003).

2) The Development of Writer's Position Paragraph

In order to get the readers agree with their thesis statement, the two ethnics students developed the writer's position by providing *common based reason*, as seen in data 2.

## Data 2

*Secondly, the social media can make someone become lazy. They will not be able to manage their time because they have been enjoy to play their social media. Their time will pass useless.*

In data 2, the two ethnics provided reasons which are very general, like making the social media users *lazy* and *unable to manage their time*; unlike European writer who used reasons anchored within the audience belief and value to persuade the readers to agree with the writer as asserted by Ramage, (2016). In addition, in data 2, the two ethnic students used third personal pronoun, like *someone, they, etc.*; instead of using second personal pronoun, like *you*, as European people usually do, as exemplified in Ramage (2016). Kumaravadivelu (2007) stated that Indonesia students used indirectness to show politeness and this was assumed to be reason why the two ethnics students used third personal pronoun in their argument rather than the second personal pronoun. The difference between the two types of writers in were presented in table 3.

*Table 3. The Difference between Writer's Position Developed by Javanese and Batakese (Asian) students and European People Asserted in Ramage (2016)*

<b>Writer's Position based on Theory (X)</b>	<b>Writer's Position written by the Javanese and Batakese (Y)</b>	<b>% match of X and Y</b>
Audience-based reasons Reasons anchored within the audience belief and value Ramage, ( 2016)	Common-based Reasons Reasons within general truth	0 %

### 3) The Development of Concluding Paragraph

The concluding paragraph was developed by the Javanese and Batakese students by repeating the thesis statement conveyed in the introduction as shown in data 3 and providing suggestion as shown in data 4. The concluding paragraph was begun by providing repetition of thesis statement as seen in data 3.

## Data 3

*In conclusion, social media should be banned for students at Junior High School because it gives more negative effects for them.*

In data 3, the two ethnic students did not mention their points of argument. This way was different from the way European people do. In developing their concluding paragraph, according to Ramageet.al (2016), European summarize their points of argument. The difference might due to the fact the two ethnics might think that restating their thesis statement was enough to give a sense of closure and emphasis of ideas to the readers. Following the restatement of the thesis statement, suggestion was written as in 4.

## Data 4

*I suggest for teenagers nowadays, you must be used your social media sufficiently.*

The suggestion in data 4, seemed to make the conclusion stronger. With such suggestion, the writer emphasized the writer's conclusion that the social media had negative effects to its users. This way of developing concluding paragraph was different from that of applied by European (Ramageet.al, 2016). The difference is shown in Table 4

*Table 4. The Comparison of Concluding Paragraph Developed by Javanese and Batakese with Those Developed by European as Stated in Ramage (2016).*

<b>Conclusion Based on Theory (X)</b>	<b>Conclusion Written by Subjects (Y)</b>	<b>Percentage of match of X and Y</b>
Sum up writer's argument without repeating previous sentences	Repeating previous sentences without summing up arguments	0 %
Provide suggestion that calls for actions (Ramageet.al, 2016)	Suggestion related to the topic	0 %

This is in line with Kumaravadivelu (2007, p. 3) who stated that Asians used a lot of repetitions in writing and tend to avoid stating their opinion directly. Writing suggestions allowed them to avoid direct statement of opinion.

### B. Reasoning

The subjects persuaded their readers by utilizing their reasoning in writing argumentative text. It was in line with one of the ways of persuading readers stated by Connor (1991). However, the Asian's reasoning as the way of persuading readers were different from the one stated by Connor (1991). The subjects' reasoning was laid on using simple sequence of cause and effects; and using pseudo-evidence which is shown below in detail.

#### 1) By Using Non - Factual-Evidence

The *non-factual evidence* is evidence which does not have any data and tends to be more like opinion. With reference to this definition, it was found that the subjects use *non-factual evidence* in writing their argumentative text as seen in data 5.

#### Data 5

*Firstly, social media make people do the crime easily. For example: "Audrey case" We can see that the case happened because of bullying in social media. Audrey was almost die because of bullying and mistreating by some people. It is surely make Audrey get mental pressure. To avoid the crime in social media, it is better to avoid the social media.*

In data 5, the reasoning was accompanied by *non-factual evidence*. Evidence refers to the all the verifiable data and information that a writer might use to support the argument (Ramageet.al, 2016, p. 88). Verifiable in this definition means that the data and information should be objective in which the source and the content of the information itself refer to factual evidence.

By referring to the definition of evidence, the examples provided in data 5 were not evidences because the writer did not show any source and details of the information; therefore examples were not factual evidence. However, the provision of these examples was intended to support the writer's argument that social media triggered people to do criminality. This way of providing reasons was different from the theory proposed by Ramageet.al (2016, p. 88) as seen in the table 5.

Table 5. The differences in Presentation of Evidence by the Javanese and Bataknese and by Europeans Asserted in Ramage 2016.

Evidence based on Theory	Evidence on Subject's Writing	Degree of Match
Facts including interviews, questionnaire, surveys, and statistical data (Ramageet.al, 2016:88)	Non- Factual evidences	0 %

The difference shown in table 5 was related to the difference between European and Asian culture. Americans prefer a practical and scientific orientation, absolutism, and factual concrete evidences, while Japanese prefer a more humanistic, aesthetic orientation and with more subjective evidences (Wisal, 2012).

#### 2) By Organizing Cause and Effect

The cause and effect reasoning provided by the Javanese and Bataknese were organized in two ways, namely in succession and in sequence. The organization of cause and effect in succession was seen in data 5a.

#### Data 5a

*Firstly, the social media can make someone do the crime easily. For instance, someone can bully someone else by their social media, like Facebook, Instagram, etc. Someone also can spread the hoax to others in order to make someone else can not live comfortable. Then, someone can do the plagiarism.*

*Secondly, the social media can make someone become lazy. They will not be able to manage their time because they have been enjoy to play their social media. Their time will pass useless.*

In data 5a, the effect immediately follows the cause. It was mentioned in data 5a that social media made someone to do criminality easily. It meant that social media was the cause, and doing criminality was the effect. The succession of the cause and effect was mentioned that social media could make someone lazy. Social media was the cause, and *lazy* was the effect. The two ethnics students also organized the cause and effect sequentially as seen in data 5b.

#### Data 5b

*First, most teens stay connected to the internet, accessing social media the whole time. They always check their social media account on the smartphone from the time they wake up in the morning till*



*they back to sleep at night. They usually stayed up at the whole night. This habit could ruin their sleep pattern and it would lead to a higher risk of exhaustion and depression. It can affect their performance at school.*

Data 5b is categorized as sequential explanation of cause and effect, which matched the definition put forwarded by Martin and Rose (2008:150). In data 5b, it is the social media that causes one bad effect that is disturbing one's *sleep pattern* and the *sleep pattern* as the impact of using social media becomes the cause of *exhaustion*. Then, the *exhaustion* affects the students' performance at school. The flow from *sleep pattern*, *exhaustion*, and also *students' performance at school* shows how one problem, in this case: *social media*, arise and resulted in one bad effect which causes one to another. The argument developed by the Javanese and Bataknese and its structure as well as its reasoning was presented in figure 3.

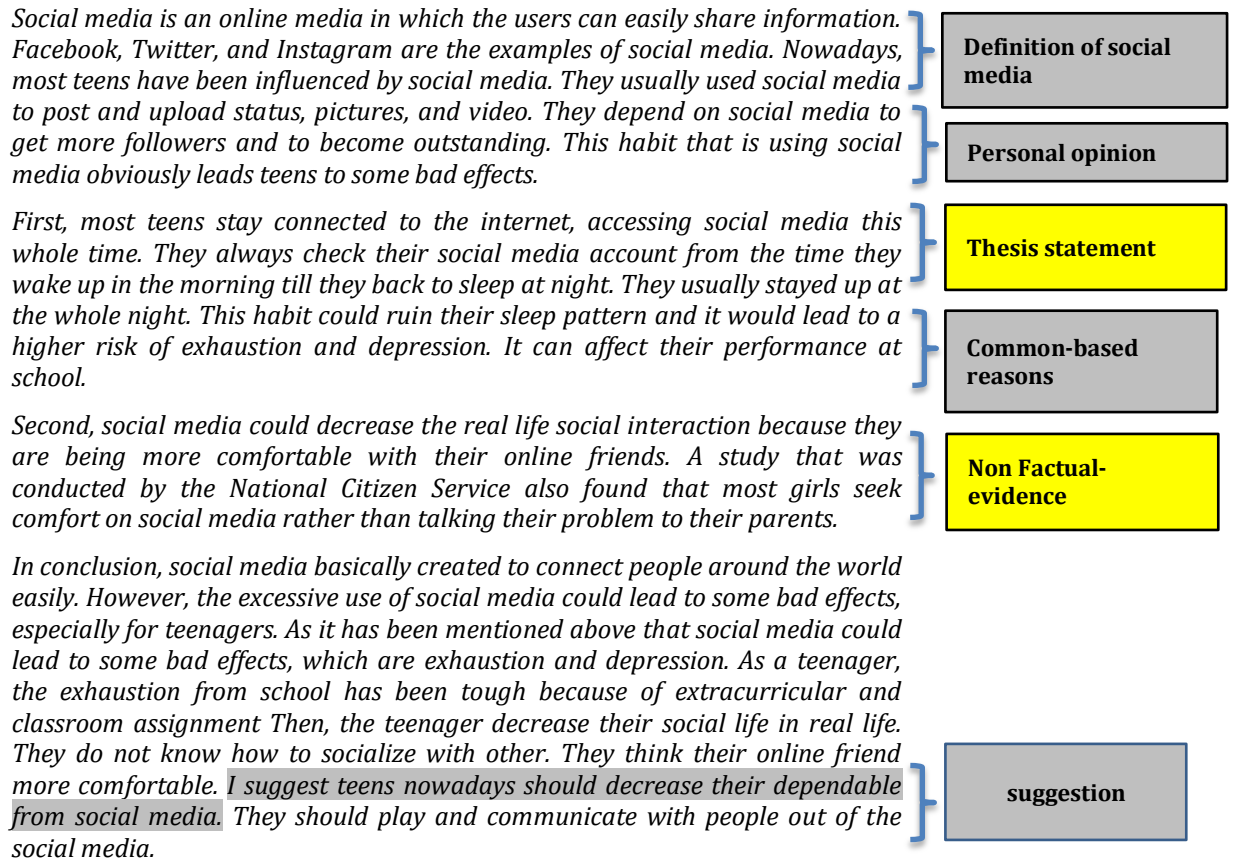


Figure 3: Example of Students' Argument with Its Text Structure and Reasoning

2. Variations Reflecting Ethnic Cultural Values

The data analysis showed that variations in patterns of argumentative writing were found in the ethnics writers' argumentative writing in two aspects namely: (a) in developing thesis statement; and (b) in drawing conclusion.

a) Stating thesis statement

Javanese ethnics formulate his thesis statement very implicitly as shown in data 9.

## Data 6

In Modern era. The children is grow up to be generation  
 Millennials' generation which know about internet and  
 social media. Social Media is one of the biggest elements  
 that we live with it and cannot ignored it. There are  
 some applications in social media, such as line, facebook,  
 skype, Instagram and so on. It is enable us to share or  
 create the content and also to participate in social net-  
 working. Mostly children or young learners feel that  
 social media can ~~are~~ entertained them and through  
 it they can communicate with other people that  
 are far. Besides this positive impact, social media  
 also has negative impact for children or young learners.  
 Such as it can be harmful to eyes and spent a lot  
 of money and also young learners can cheating when  
 doing their examination.

In data 6, the Javanese student implicitly said that social media should not be banned. This is indicated by the sentence *we cannot ignore the social media* in L.4 due to the fact that: (1) social media has a lot of types and (2) the children were born in the social media era. He did not say explicit word to show his position. He might hope the readers to be able to infer the implicit meaning as expected by Javanese community principle namely *Tanggap Ing Sasmita*. This behavior may be affected by the value of harmony to the readers as required by the value of *rukun*.

The Batakese writers used explicit words in formulating his thesis statement as shown in data 7.

## Data 7

Social media is a tool of interactions  
 among people to share or exchange infor-  
 mation and ideas in virtual communities  
 and networks. There are many kinds of  
 social media, such as: Facebook, WhatsApp,  
 Instagram, Twitter, etc. People often use  
 those social media to communicate with  
 other people. [However, people sometimes  
 ignore the negative effects of social  
 media.] There are many negative effects of  
 using social media. Therefore, social  
 - I agree that social media should be banned.  
 It can be concluded that social media  
 which has many benefits such as especially  
 for the undergraduate students such as

In data 7, the Batakese writers explicitly stated that social media should be banned. This is indicated by the explicit statement *Therefore, I agree that social media should be banned*. Even though the relationship between the introduction and the statements of banning the social media is not rationally explained. The explicitness might due to the fact that the Batakese writers are direct and open as required by the motto *Tedak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan).

## b) In Drawing Conclusion

The Javanese writers draw conclusions by repeating the negative or the positive effects of social media depending on his position or thesis statement towards the social media as seen in data 8.

## Data 8

They can share and get information through social media. So,	31
It can <del>be</del> be their supporting media to learn <del>or</del> and they can	32
start their business to support their income. It can make them	33
more independent to get their income. It is suggested for	34
undergraduate students to use social media because of the	35
benefits of the social media themselves.	36

In data 8, the negative effect of the social media were not repeated since his statement was social media should not be banned that was implicitly stated in introduction. This might be intended to keep harmony between the writers and the readers as required by the ethnic value namely *rukun*. If the Javanese writer drew explicit conclusion then his social status might be considered higher than the readers which are not in line with their ethnic group's values because such conclusion may result in disharmony or not *rukun* between the writers and the readers (Pudentia, 2015).

The Batak writers draw the conclusions by repeating the thesis statement which was formulated explicitly in conclusion as seen in data 9.

## Data 9

In conclusion, 'social media should be banned	32
because those reasons that I have showed above. Social	33
media gives more negative effects for students.	34
	35

In data 9, the Batakese writer drew explicit conclusion by stating explicitly that social media should be banned. This might be the reflection of *Tedak songon indahan di balanga* (Something which is transparent, objective, and open; just exactly like rice in the pan) which require the Batak ethnics to be open and explicit.

### Discussion and Recommendation

Reasoning developed by Javanese and Batakese students varied in two parts of the argument: in writing thesis statement and drawing conclusion. This indicated that ethnic cultural value is related only to the two aspects, while to the other aspects of reasoning in argumentative writing the two ethnics shared common patterns.

The common patterns shared by the two ethnics were in applying the text structure of the argument which include the development of introductory paragraph, writer's position paragraph, and conclusion. The shared patterns reflect the national cultural entities which make them different from the patterns of Western's argumentative writing. In introductory paragraph, the two ethnic students used definition, personal opinion, and introduced the issue to catch readers' attention. In reasoning, the paragraphs developed by the two ethnic students are characterized by indirectness, subjective ground, and absence of warrant.

Variations in patterns of argumentative writing as resulted from different ethnic groups' cultural values are limited to the development of thesis statement and drawing conclusions. Batakese writers who value more on explicitness, and directness develop thesis statement strongly and draw conclusion firmly. Meanwhile, Javanese writers who value harmony (*rukun*) and *tanggap ing sasmita* develop thesis statement weakly and draw conclusions indecisively.

Connor (2008) found that there is shared argument patterns among individuals coming from the same culture meaning that culture of individuals affect the patterns of their arguments. These findings support the current study both of them agree that shared culture cause individuals to have the same patterns of arguments. In the current study, it is stated that national cultural entities causes various ethnics in Indonesia to have general patterns (shared patterns) of argumentative writing among various ethnics in Indonesia.

Connor (1996) states that culture is realized in one's L1. Xinghua and Clare (2015), found out that Chinese participants applied hortatory strategy in their writing because of their L1 (Chinese) influence, while English speaking participants applied analytical strategy because of their L1 (English) influence. The two evidences showed that the L1, in which one's culture was preserved, affected their strategy of arguing in argumentative writing. This is also in support of the current study saying that ways of convincing the readers in terms of text structure, reasoning, and affective appeal is affected by the culture.

Comfort (2001) found that there were variations within shared pattern of argumentative writing due to culture variations within the national entities. The current study showed that there were variations in thesis statement development and drawing conclusion between Batakese and Javanese writers in their argumentative writing confirmed the finding of Comfort's. In the context of Indonesian culture, the shared-pattern of argumentative writing among various ethnic groups are mostly influenced by national cultural entities while variations cause by cultural variations within the national cultural entity occurs in small aspects of argumentative pattern. However, further research on the effect of language mastery to reasoning in the argumentative writing is recommended since this study did not pay sufficient attention to this phenomena. Addition of ethnic number involved in a further study is also recommended for a more firm conclusion on the argumentative pattern variations within national cultural entity.

### Conclusion

National cultural entities mostly affect different ethnics which constitute the nation on their developing the reasons in their argumentative writing. The effects cause various ethnics of the nation to share common patterns in applying the text structure of the argument which include the development of introductory paragraph, writer's position paragraph, and conclusion. The national cultural entities also cause the various ethnics to share common patterns in reasoning. Their reasons are commonly developed with indirectness, subjective ground, and absence of warrant. Specific cultural value that distincts an ethnic from the other in the nation cause them to have variations in patterns of argumentative writing. The effect of the ethnic groups' cultural values is limited to the development of thesis statement and drawing conclusions. Batakese writers who value more on explicitness, and directness develop thesis statement strongly and draw conclusion firmly. Meanwhile, Javanese writers who value harmony (*rukun*) and *tanggap ing sasmita* develop thesis statement weakly and draw conclusions indecisively.

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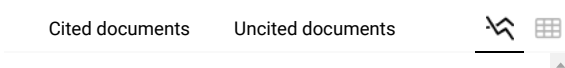
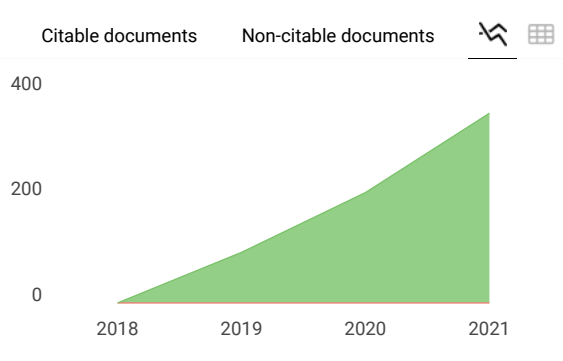
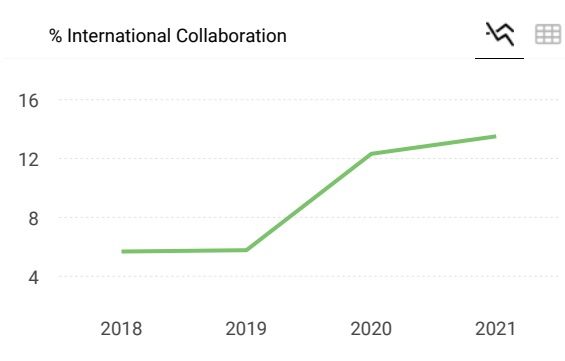
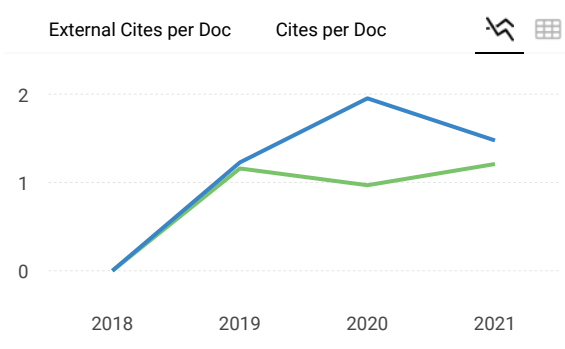
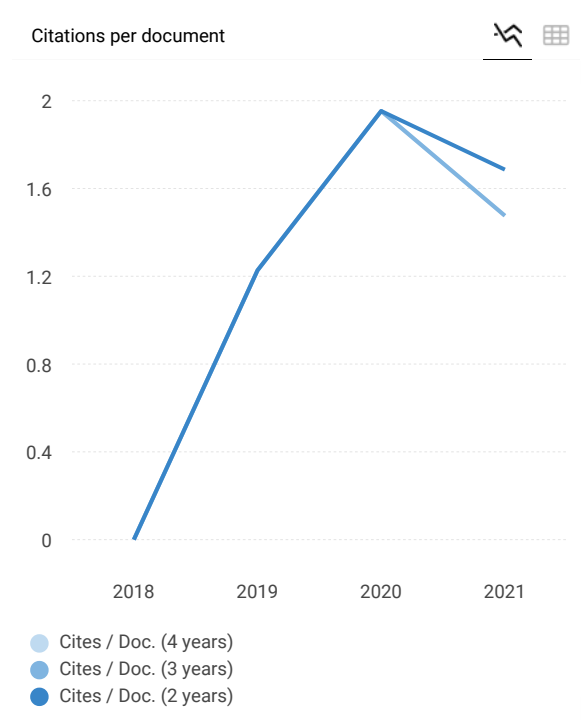
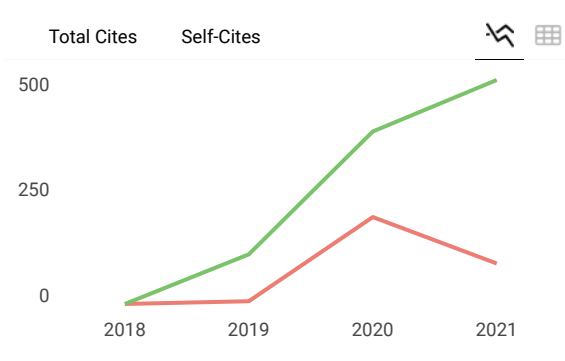
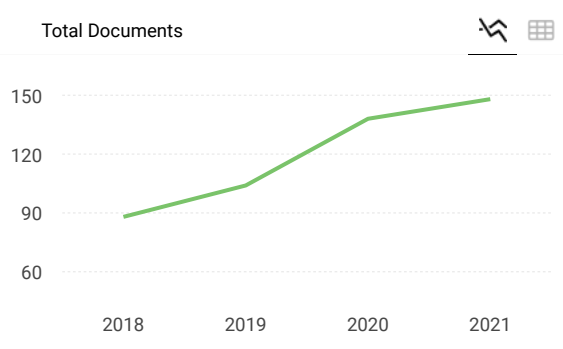
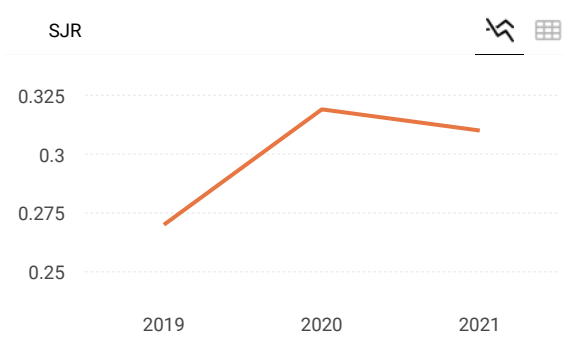
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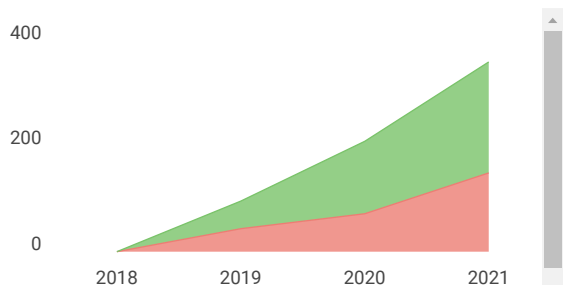
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Manuscript title: Addressing Study Skills, Learning Theory and Critical Thinking Skills in Principles of Economics Courses

Manuscript ID: 770464

Authors: Jeff Sarbaum and Eric Howard

Journal: Frontiers in Education, section Higher Education

Article type: Methods

Submitted on: 03 Sep 2021

Edited by: Ana Teresa Ferreira Oliveira

Research Topic: Pedagogic Innovation and Student Learning in Higher Education: Perceptions, Practices and Challenges

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EVALUATION

Please describe the new method or protocol reported in this manuscript, and its purpose

This study reminds that there is still much to do to improve critical thinking of university students. Moreover, current findings also state that in higher education there is a trend of deteriorating critical thinking that needs to be anticipated. Therefore, the authors address the issue of critical thinking by relating it to study skills and learning theories

Please highlight the limitations and advantages.

The limitation of this study is on the context of the economic course, but unfortunately the rationale regarding the specificity of the context has not been exposed in the background. Authors have not addressed the issue of critical thinking with the current status of the students' study skills and knowledge of learning theory. It was stated that many students were still poor in these variables, but not supported with exact information. However, the advantage of the finding is on its transferability to several other contexts at the higher education level

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Is the English language of sufficient quality?

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Are the data underlying the study available in either the article, supplement, or deposited in a repository?

(Sequence/expression data, protein/molecule characterizations, annotations, and taxonomy data are required to be deposited in public repositories prior to publication)

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Have standard biosecurity and institutional safety procedures been adhered to?

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The data on assessment after the students complete the video and the results of student reflection after following the instruction on critical thinking need to be included.

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3

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Authors: Jeff Sarbaum and Eric Howard

Journal: Frontiers in Education, section Higher Education

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Article type: Methods

Authors: Jeff Sarbaum, Eric Howard

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# Addressing Study Skills, Learning Theory and Critical Thinking Skills in Principles of Economics Courses

Jeff Sarbaum<sup>1\*</sup>, Eric Howard<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Economics, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, United States

*Submitted to Journal:*  
Frontiers in Education

*Specialty Section:*  
Higher Education

*Article type:*  
Methods Article

*Manuscript ID:*  
770464

*Received on:*  
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### *Author contribution statement*

JS - Survey design, analysis, writing (50%)

EH - Literature review, writing (50%)

### *Keywords*

Study Skills, Critical Thinking, pedagogy, teaching economics, Learning Theory

### *Abstract*

Word count: 103

The Wall Street Journal recently noted that U.S. “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). This paper (1) motives the need for economics and other college educators to (A) address study habits in the classroom, (B) explain the importance of critical thinking skills, and (C) define what critical thinking is to introductory students; and (2) provides an overview of how the authors accomplish this in their classrooms. The authors encourage readers to borrow this information to create a study skills and critical thinking module for their own students when teaching principles courses.

### *Contribution to the field*

Many students enter college with poor study habits and critical thinking skills. Furthermore, many students do not understand learning theory and how to study effectively and efficiently. We propose a first week of class module and set of resources that teaches best practice study habits, defines critical thinking.

### *Ethics statements*

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### *Data availability statement*

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## **Addressing Study Skills, Learning Theory and Critical Thinking Skills in Principles of Economics Courses**

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Mr. Howard is a lecturer in the Department of Economics with research focuses on economics of education, intellectual history, and the philosophy and methodology of economics and has been teaching undergraduate economics for seven years. Prior to teaching he spent 12 years in education research and program evaluation with emphasis on teacher effectiveness and research design.

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Dr. Sarbaum is a senior lecturer in the department of economics with research focuses on the economics of education, teaching pedagogy, and experimental design. He has been teaching for economics for 25 years and is a recipient of numerous teaching awards.

## **Abstract**

The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that U.S. “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). This paper (1) motivates the need for economics and other college educators to (A) address study habits in the classroom, (B) explain the importance of critical thinking skills, and (C) define what critical thinking is to introductory students; and (2) provides an overview of how the authors accomplish this in their classrooms. The authors encourage readers to borrow this information to create a study skills and critical thinking module for their own students when teaching principles courses.

JEL Codes: A2

Keywords: study skills, critical thinking, pedagogy, teaching economics

In review

## INTRODUCTION

The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that U.S. “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). While a recent meta-analysis found “that students make substantial gains in critical thinking during college”, the study’s authors went on to note that “observed gains in critical thinking appear to have deteriorated over time...” (Huber & Kuncel, 2016, p. 456). A survey of 202 departments of economics ranked “the ability to use critical thinking skills” first in a list of the ten most important student learning outcomes (Allgood, Walstad, & Siegfried, 2015, p. 290). In a recent survey of the literature on 21<sup>st</sup> century skill frameworks, sixteen articles were identified with “problem solving” or “critical thinking” skills being prioritized ten or nine times respectively out of the 16 frameworks reviewed (Rios et al., 2020). The study’s authors went on to analyze 142,000 job advertisements and found “problem solving” to be the fourth most requested skill, behind oral communication, written communication, and collaboration (Rios et al., 2020). If “critical economic thinking” is defined as “effective, high-quality problem solving” (Leyden, 2012, p. 2), how can economics educators promote this skill development?

The goal of this paper is twofold: First, to motivate the need for a study habits and critical thinking skills intervention by economics educators; second, to provide set of resources and research to present to students the first week of class to aid in the development of study habit and critical thinking skills.

The paper is divided into four additional sections. Section 2 provides broader motivation by reviewing the larger literature on the need, in fact, the demand among employers for graduates better equipped in critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Section 3 discuss the results of a survey on study habits conducted by the authors. Section 4 outlines the materials presented to students to promoted better studying and critical thinking skills. Finally, Section 5 provides concluding remarks.

## STUDY SKILLS, LEARNING, AND THE DEMAND FOR CRITICAL THINKING

A meta-analysis of studies (N = 72,431, k = 344) examining the relationship between study habits, skills, and attitude inventories and constructs and college outcomes, found that “study habits and attitude inventories are the most predictive of performance,” even when compared to a student’s high school grades or standardized test scores (Credé & Kuncel, 2008). A more recent comprehensive review of the literature on study skills and their efficacy revealed that distributed practice, self-explanation, and interleaved practice, techniques often used by instructors when developing critical thinking skills, demonstrated either “high” or “moderate utility” in improving student learning across a wide range of class and student factors (Dunlosky et al., 2013). On the other hand, “summarization, highlighting, the keyword mnemonic, imagery use for text learning, and rereading” exhibited the lowest utility and were found to not consistently promote student learning (Dunlosky et al., 2013, p. 5). In other words, study habits and the type of skills students utilize are significant for promoting or inhibiting learning.

What types of study skills do students actually employ while in college? Course Hero, an online learning platform, has recently provided some informal data on their users’ study habits. More than half of Course Hero users do most of their studying Monday through Wednesday and approximately 25-28 percent of their users studying takes place between 9 PM and 5 AM (Course Hero, 2019). Research has consistently shown that sleep deprivation leads to poorer learning outcomes (Doyle & Zakrajsek, 2018; Ro, 2018). Several recent studies have found that students are likely to use ineffective study habits (Hora & Oleson, 2017; Miyatsu et al., 2017; Nonis & Hudson, 2010). The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), based at the Indiana University Bloomington School of Education, provides one of the most comprehensive surveys, including 531 colleges and university in the U.S. The NSSE survey finds that while students in 2019 are spending more time in academic preparation compared to students in 2004, there has been a decline in this preparation the last few years.

Elaborating on Huber and Kuncel’s previously mentioned work, which found that students make substantial gains in critical thinking during college, but that “the observed gains in critical thinking appear to have deteriorated over time despite increased interest in fostering critical thinking skills” (2016, p. 456), Huber and Kuncel offer three potential explanations for the deterioration in the observed gains among students: (1), if “students have increasingly learned more critical thinking skills before entering college...(then)...overall gain scores should be reduced”; (2), with college enrollment increasing over time “many new students (who were previously not in the college cohort) may not be sufficiently prepared to learn more complex reasoning skills (pulling gain scores down)”; and (3), “students have become less willing or able to learn critical thinking skills over time” (2016, p. 457). Even if (1) or (2), the most encouraging potential explanations, is the reason for the college gains decline, neither resolves the fact the employers consistently report a lack of critical thinking skills in college graduates.

A recent study by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) identified what they have described as a “paradox” among Millennials, those born between 1981-1996 (Dimock, 2019), regarding their educational attainment and their corresponding achievement on several international assessments. While the Millennials are “on track to be our most educated generation ever... they consistently score below many of their international peers in literacy, numeracy, and problem solving in technology- rich environments” (Goodman, Sands, & Coley, 2015, p. 4). Using data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and their Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) survey “of nationally representative samples of adults age 16 to 65”, the ETS study reported “[i]n literacy, U.S. millennials scored lower than 15 of the 22 participating countries” (Goodman, Sands, & Coley, 2015, p. 4, 5, Fig. 1). The ETS report closes their executive summary by noting “despite investments and reforms in K-12 education over the past decades, America continues to lose ground in terms of the developed skills of its adult population and workforce” (Goodman, Sands, & Coley, 2015, p. 5).

Evidence of the issues highlighted in the ETS report are already making themselves felt among some sectors of the American labor market. A recent *Wall Street Journal* article found that while ever increasing numbers of students are entering and completing four-year degrees, incentivized by federal education policy and assisted with student loan subsidization, however, “technology is changing faster than colleges can keep up and employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). This has led to an increasing demand among U.S. employers for specific skills over four-year degrees and to heavier investments by employers, such as AT&T which spent over \$1 billion dollars to retrain approximately 100,000 employees, to meet the increasing demands of the labor market, especially in the manufacturing, technology and health-care industries (Belkin, 2018). And even more recently *Inside Higher Ed* reported that “75 percent of employers claim the students they hire after 12, 16 or more years of formal education lack the ability to think critically and solve problems” (Haber, 2020).

Acknowledging the importance of critical thinking skills to the labor market and the larger economy is one thing but defining exactly what is meant by “critical thinking” is quite another. As one group of economists have noted, critical thinking is often “not well defined” and in economics there has been “relatively little” published on this topic, despite the fact that we often strive to emphasize “the economic way of thinking” in many of our principles courses (Greenlaw & DeLoach, 2003, p. 36). Leyden (2012), in his book dedicated to developing critical thinking in economics, describes it as “all about effective, high quality problem solving” (Leyden, 2012, p. 2). Mulnix (2012) provides a review of several definitions of critical thinking and then arrives at the following for what she feels is the preferred description of the “critical thinker”:

This suggests that the fundamental skill to be acquired by a critical thinker is the ability to recognize inferential connections holding between statements, where this would include the ability to understand the possibility that what we believe might be false and the ability to identify the sorts of evidence that would undermine our beliefs (Mulnix, 2012, p. 474).

Students that have an adequate understanding of critical thinking and can successfully employ those skills can improve their learning outcomes (Abrami, et al., 2015; Huber & Kuncel, 2016). However, as just reviewed, the larger literature indicates that students are not always ready and/or prepared to develop those skills at the post-secondary level (Huber & Kuncel, 2016; Pithers & Soden, 2000). Further, while economists recognize the importance of critical thinking skills for student learning (Allgood, Walstad, & Siegfried, 2015, p. 290), there is relatively little literature on the topic among economists. A recent review of the literature only identified 13 citations (see Allgood, Walstad, & Siegfried, 2015) dealing with “active learning” in economics (Boyle & Goffe, 2018).

While many students believe to overcome poor performance they just need to study more, research suggests that study time alone will not necessarily lead to improved learning (Chew, 2011; Doyle & Zakrajsek, 2018; Nonis & Hudson, 2010). Furthermore, many students leave exams believing they did well when this is not the case. Ambrose et al. (2010, pp. 4-6) identifies seven research-based principles to improve learning in their book *How Learning Works*:

1. Prior knowledge
2. How students organize knowledge
3. Motivation
4. Skill acquisition, interpretive practice, and appropriate application
5. Goal-directed practice
6. Level of student development and climate of the course
7. Self-directed learning, including an emphasis on meta-cognition

Without students, or educators, understanding how learning works, what critical thinking is, and what study skills are most effective, it is rather fanciful to believe students will successfully develop the critical thinking skills economics educators rank as the most important learning outcome, and that employers demand. As some recent research has demonstrated, “elements of critical thinking need to be taught *explicitly*, rather than assumed to come along for the ride when thoughtful teachers run through complex material with students” (emphasis original; Haber, 2020). The next sections of this paper provide results from study habits questions posed to students in the authors classes; followed by an example of a set of resources the authors go over in class and assign to students in an attempt to help prepare them to be able to learn more effectively and think more critically.

## STUDENT STUDY HABITS QUESTIONNAIRE

At the beginning of the Spring 2020 semester, the authors administered a survey to students (n=275) enrolled in their principles of micro and macroeconomics courses asking about their study habits. Some good news bad news patterns emerged. While 62% of the students reported taking notes when reading the textbook half of the time or more, only 8% reported that they always read the textbook. While 95% of the students reported taking notes in class half of the time or more, only 5% reported that they always rewrite their notes at some point after class.

Lastly, when asked what the most important factor in successful learning is, 87% of the students reported “learning in a way that matches your learning style” or “the intention and desire to learn”, while only 13% reported “Paying close attention to the material as you study” or “the time you spend studying”, and less than 0.5% reported “What you think about while you study”. The responses to this question are of particular note because a wide body of literature has shown that matching learning style does not correlate with gains in learning (Pashler et al., 2008; Willingham et al., 2015). And while having an intention and desire to learn is a commendable goal, it is of limited value unless time is spent studying and paying attention while doing so. In fact, of the answer choices, the single most important determinant of learning is “what you think about while studying” (Hyde & Jenkins, 1969; see also Chew, 2011).

The conclusion from the survey is that a majority of students in the authors classes may be unaware of, or discount, behaviors that translate into successful learning and the development of critical thinking skills.

## A CLASSROOM STUDY SKILLS AND LEARNING MODULE

The authors propose educators of introductory economics classes address the topic of study skills, learning theory, and critical thinking head on inside their own classrooms. What follow is a description of the resources, content, and approach the authors take.

The first week of classes, a class meeting is devoted to the topics of studying, learning, and the value of critical thinking. This not only brings awareness of the issue to students, but helps the instructor create a framework for understanding and allows students to organize the information into new learning habits to draw from (Ambrose et al., 2010). During the class a presentation of the following materials is given:

- **What does it mean to study and how should you study?** A casual conversation with the class to see what they think and to give students an opportunity to hear from and discuss with their peers.
- **Some myths and facts about studying and learning**
  - If you want deeper comprehension of materials print might be better than digital (Alexander & Singer, 2017).
  - If you take longhand notes, review them, and focus on core concepts, you learn more and perform better on exams (Carter et al., 2017; Morehead et al., 2019).
  - If you cram and don't get an adequate amount of sleep you impede your ability learn, manipulate, and even recall information (Doyle & Zakrajsek, 2018; Ro, 2018).
  - If you incorporate effective study skills you can spend less time studying and get better results, while matching your learning style doesn't help but what you think about while studying certainly does (Chew, 2011; Willingham et al., 2015).
  - If you use critical thinking skills in college you will learn more and have better grades (Huber & Kuncel, 2016).
- **How learning works** –A quick walk through and explanation of Ambrose's seven points on how learning works is provided, with a particular focus on how the elements of the course relate to these principles of learning (Ambrose et al. 2010; Chew, 2011).

- **What is critical thinking?** – The meaning of the definitions from Leyden and Mulnix are explored, followed by a conversation that asks students why they think critical thinking is important (Leyden, 2012; Mulnix, 2012).
- **What are cognitive and non-cognitive skills?** The authors explain to students that “30-40 percent of the explained variance in achievement test scores across students is due to personality traits and not IQ” (Heckman, Pinto, & Savelyev, 2013, p. 2056). Soft skills matter (Jackson, 2014, 2018).
- **Why does all of this matter?** The students are engaged in a discussion of The *WSJ* quote (Belkin, 2018), the ETS study on skill development (Goodman et al., 2015), and that employers want critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Chanler, et al., 2019; Heckman et al., 2019; Johanns, 2019; Rios, et al., 2020).

Prior to the next class meeting, students are directed to watch a series of six videos on “How to Study” (~36 minutes in total) developed by Samford University cognitive psychologist Stephen Chew (see Chew, 2011) the titles for which are:

- Beliefs That Make You Fail...Or Succeed
- What Students Should Understand About How People Learn
- Cognitive Principles for Optimizing Learning
- Putting the Principles for Optimizing Learning into Practice
- I Blew the Exam, Now What?

Chew’s videos review much of the material introduced in the classroom discussion and further expand the material by practically demonstrating how students can apply the findings from cognitive science to their class through best practices regarding note take, reading, studying for exams and how to move forward when not performing poorly on tests. Upon completing the video series, students are assigned a multiple-choice assessment to ensure they were completed and paid attention to. The next class, a brief conversation about the videos occurs and students are asked to contemplate what they have learned and how they plan to integrate the information into the how they will prepare and study for the class.

While the authors do not formally assess the impact of their module, research has consistently demonstrated that targeted instruction can be effective in changing student study skills as long as the material is in context, within the content domain, and promotes active learning and metacognitive awareness (Dunlosky et al., 2013; Hattie et al., 1996; Miyatsu et al., 2017).

## CONCLUSION

There is a growing body of literature in economics where scholars are attempting to incorporate the findings from the cognitive and learning sciences to improve learning outcomes. This paper attempted to identify the issues involved, provide an overview of the broader literature, and describe how the authors have attempted to develop a classroom response. While it recognized that the introduction of a study skill module takes up valuable classroom time, how can a student become a better critical thinker if he or she does not have a basic understanding of effective study skills, how learning works, and what critical thinking is? On these grounds, the introduction of such a module is a most valuable use of classroom time. The authors encourage other educators to develop their own study skills and learning theory module based in part, or in whole, on the information and resources discussed in this paper.



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# Addressing Study Skills, Learning Theory and Critical Thinking Skills in Principles of Economics Courses

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The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that United States “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking”. This paper 1) motives the need for economics and other college educators to i) address study habits in the classroom, (ii) explain the importance of critical thinking skills, and (iii) define what critical thinking is to introductory students; and 2) provides an overview of how the authors accomplish this in their classrooms. The authors encourage readers to borrow this information to create a study skills and critical thinking module for their own students when teaching principles courses.

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## INTRODUCTION

The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that United States “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). While a recent meta-analysis found “that students make substantial gains in critical thinking during college,” the study’s authors went on to note that “observed gains in critical thinking appear to have deteriorated over time. . .” (Huber and Kuncel, 2016, p. 456). A survey of 202 departments of economics ranked “the ability to use critical thinking skills” first in a list of the ten most important student learning outcomes (Allgood et al., 2015, p. 290). In a recent survey of the literature on 21st century skill frameworks, sixteen articles were identified with “problem solving” or “critical thinking” skills being prioritized ten or nine times respectively out of the 16 frameworks reviewed (Rios et al., 2020). The study’s authors went on to analyze 142,000 job advertisements and found “problem solving” to be the fourth most requested skill, behind oral communication, written communication, and collaboration (Rios et al., 2020). If “critical economic thinking” is defined as “effective, high-quality problem solving” (Leyden, 2012, p. 2), how can economics educators promote this skill development?

The goal of this paper is twofold: First, to motive the need for a study habits and critical thinking skills intervention by economics educators; second, to provide set of resources and research to present to students the first week of class to aid in the development of study habit and critical thinking skills.

The paper is divided into four additional sections. Section 2 provides broader motivation by reviewing the larger literature on the need, in fact, the demand among employers for graduates better equipped in critical thinking and problem-solving skills. Section 3 discuss the results of a survey on study habits conducted by the authors. Section 4 outlines the materials presented to students to promoted better studying and critical thinking skills. Finally, Section 5 provides concluding remarks.

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A recent study by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) identified what they have described as a “paradox” among Millennials, those born between 1981–1996 (Dimock, 2019), regarding their educational attainment and their corresponding achievement on several international assessments. While the Millennials are “on track to be our most educated generation ever... they consistently score below many of their international peers in literacy, numeracy, and problem solving in technology- rich environments” (Goodman et al., 2015, p. 4). Using data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and their Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) survey “of nationally representative samples of adults age 16 to 65”, the ETS study reported “[i]n literacy, United States millennials scored lower than 15 of the 22 participating countries” (Goodman et al., 2015, p. 4, 5, Figure 1). The ETS report closes their executive summary by noting “despite investments and reforms in K-12 education over the past decades, America continues to lose ground in terms of the developed skills of its adult population and workforce” (Goodman et al., 2015, p. 5).

Evidence of the issues highlighted in the ETS report are already making themselves felt among some sectors of the American labor market. A recent *Wall Street Journal* article found that while ever increasing numbers of students are entering and completing four-year degrees, incentivized by federal education policy and assisted with student loan subsidization, however, “technology is changing faster than colleges can keep up and employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). This has led to an increasing demand among United States employers for specific skills over four-year degrees and to heavier investments by employers, such as AT&T which spent over \$1 billion dollars to retrain approximately 100,000 employees, to meet the increasing demands of the labor market, especially in the manufacturing, technology and health-care industries (Belkin, 2018). And even more recently *Inside Higher Ed* reported that “75 percent of employers claim the students they hire after 12, 16 or more years of formal education lack the ability to think critically and solve problems” (Haber, 2020).

Acknowledging the importance of critical thinking skills to the labor market and the larger economy is one thing but defining exactly what is meant by “critical thinking” is quite another. As one group of economists have noted, critical thinking is often “not well defined” and in economics there has been “relatively little” published on this topic, despite the fact that we often strive to emphasize “the economic way of thinking” in many of our principles courses (Greenlaw and DeLoach, 2003, p. 36). Leyden (2012), in his book dedicated to developing critical thinking in economics, describes it as “all about effective, high-quality problem solving” (Leyden, 2012, p. 2). Mulnix (2012) provides a review of several definitions of critical thinking and then arrives at the following for what she feels is the preferred description of the “critical thinker”:

This suggests that the fundamental skill to be acquired by a critical thinker is the ability to recognize inferential connections

holding between statements, where this would include the ability to understand the possibility that what we believe might be false and the ability to identify the sorts of evidence that would undermine our beliefs (Mulnix, 2012, p. 474).

Students that have an adequate understanding of critical thinking and can successfully employ those skills can improve their learning outcomes (Abrami, et al., 2015; Huber and Kuncel, 2016). However, as just reviewed, the larger literature indicates that students are not always ready and/or prepared to develop those skills at the post-secondary level (Pithers and Soden, 2000; Huber and Kuncel, 2016). Further, while economists recognize the importance of critical thinking skills for student learning (Allgood et al., 2015, p. 290), there is relatively little literature on the topic among economists. A recent review of the literature only identified 13 citations (see Allgood et al., 2015) dealing with “active learning” in economics (Boyle and Goffe, 2018).

While many students believe to overcome poor performance they just need to study more, research suggests that study time alone will not necessarily lead to improved learning (Nonis and Hudson, 2010; Chew, 2011; Doyle and Zakrajsek, 2018). Furthermore, many students leave exams believing they did well when this is not the case. Ambrose et al. (2010, pp. 4–6) identifies seven research-based principles to improve learning in their book *How Learning Works*:

1. Prior knowledge
2. How students organize knowledge
3. Motivation
4. Skill acquisition, interpretive practice, and appropriate application
5. Goal-directed practice
6. Level of student development and climate of the course
7. Self-directed learning, including an emphasis on meta-cognition

Without students, or educators, understanding how learning works, what critical thinking is, and what study skills are most effective, it is rather fanciful to believe students will successfully develop the critical thinking skills economics educators rank as the most important learning outcome, and that employers demand. As some recent research has demonstrated, “elements of critical thinking need to be taught *explicitly*, rather than assumed to come along for the ride when thoughtful teachers run through complex material with students” (emphasis original; Haber, 2020). The next sections of this paper provide results from study habits questions posed to students in the authors classes; followed by an example of a set of resources the authors go over in class and assign to students to help prepare them to be able to learn more effectively and think more critically.

## STUDENT STUDY HABITS QUESTIONNAIRE

At the beginning of the Spring 2020 semester, the authors administered a survey to students (n~285) enrolled in their principles of micro and macroeconomics courses asking about

their study habits. Some good news bad news patterns emerged. While 62% of the students reported taking notes when reading the textbook half of the time or more, only 8% reported that they always read the textbook. While 95% of the students reported taking notes in class half of the time or more, only 5% reported that they always rewrite their notes at some point after class. While 76% of the students reported studying “really hard” the night before an exam always or most of the time, only 19% reported always studying at least three days prior to an exam.

Lastly, when asked what the most important factor in successful learning is, 87% of the students reported “learning in a way that matches your learning style” or “the intention and desire to learn”, while only 13% reported “Paying close attention to the material as you study” or “the time you spend studying”, and less than 0.5% reported “What you think about while you study”. The response to this question is of particular importance because a wide body of literature has shown that matching learning style does not correlate with gains in learning (Pashler et al., 2008; Willingham et al., 2015). And while having an intention and desire to learn is a commendable goal, it is of limited value unless time is spent studying and paying attention while doing so. In fact, of the answer choices, the single most important determinant of learning is “what you think about while studying” (Hyde and Jenkins, 1969; see also; Chew, 2011). **Table 1** provides further details of the survey results.

The conclusion from the survey is that a majority of students in the authors classes may be unaware of, or discount, behaviors that translate into successful learning and the development of critical thinking skills.

## A CLASSROOM STUDY SKILLS AND LEARNING MODULE

The authors propose educators of introductory economics classes address the topic of study skills, learning theory, and critical thinking head on inside their own classrooms. What follows is a description of the resources, content, and approach the authors take.

The first week of classes, a class meeting is devoted to the topics of studying, learning, and the value of critical thinking. This not only brings awareness of the issue to students, but helps the instructor create a framework for understanding and allows students to organize the information into new learning habits to draw from (Ambrose et al., 2010). During the class a presentation of the following materials is given:

- What does it mean to study and how should you study? A casual conversation with the class to see what they think and to give students an opportunity to hear from and discuss with their peers.
- Some facts about studying and learning
  - o If you want deeper comprehension of materials print might be better than digital (Alexander and Singer, 2017).
  - o If you take longhand notes, review them, and focus on core concepts, you learn more and perform better on exams (Carter et al., 2017; Morehead et al., 2019).

**TABLE 1** | Student survey results.

<b>I Read the textbook (n = 309)</b>		<b>I Take notes from the textbook while I read it (n = 296)</b>	
Always	8.41%	Always	20.95%
Most of the time	31.39%	Most of the time	27.70%
About half the time	24.27%	About half the time	13.51%
Sometimes	25.89%	Sometimes	27.70%
Never	10.03%	Never	10.14%
<b>I take notes during class lectures (n = 289)</b>		<b>I rewrite my class notes so that they make sense to me at some point after class (n = 290)</b>	
Always	60.55%	Always	4.83%
Most of the time	27.34%	Most of the time	15.52%
About half the time	7.27%	About half the time	13.10%
Sometimes	3.81%	Sometimes	27.24%
Never	1.04%	Never	39.31%
<b>The night before an exam I study really hard (n = 287)</b>		<b>I begin studying for an exam at least three days before (n = 283)</b>	
Always	47.39%	Always	18.73%
Most of the time	28.92%	Most of the time	31.10%
About half the time	11.15%	About half the time	22.26%
Sometimes	11.15%	Sometimes	21.55%
Never	1.39%	Never	6.36%
<b>What is the most important factor in successful learning? (n = 278)</b>			
The intention and desire to learn	47.84%		
Paying close attention to the material as you study	9.35%		
Learning in a way that matches your learning style	39.21%		
The time you spend studying	3.24%		
What you think about while you study	0.36%		

- o If you cram and don't get an adequate amount of sleep you impede your ability learn, manipulate, and even recall information (Doyle and Zakrajsek, 2018; Ro, 2018).
- o If you incorporate effect study skills you can spend less time studying and get better results, while matching your learning style doesn't help but what you think about while studying certainly does (Chew, 2011; Willingham et al., 2015).
- o If you use critical thinking skills in college you will learn more and have better grades (Huber and Kuncel, 2016).
- How learning works –A quick walk through and explanation of Ambrose's seven points on how learning works is provided, with a particular focus on how the elements of the course relate to these principles of learning (Ambrose et al., 2010; Chew, 2011).
- What is critical thinking?—The meaning of the definitions from Leyden and Mulnix are explored, followed by a conversation that asks students why they think critical thinking is important (Leyden, 2012; Mulnix, 2012).
- What are cognitive and non-cognitive skills? The authors explain to students that “30–40 percent of the explained variance in achievement test scores across students is due to personality traits and not IQ”

(Heckman et al., 2013, p. 2056). Soft skills matter (Jackson, 2014; Jackson, 2018).

- Why does all of this matter? The students are engaged in a discussion of The *WSJ* quote (Belkin, 2018), the ETS study on skill development (Goodman et al., 2015), and that employers want critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Chanler, et al., 2019; Heckman et al., 2019; Johanns, 2019; Rios, et al., 2020).

Prior to the next class meeting, students are directed to watch a series of six videos on “How to Study” (~36 min in total) developed by Samford University cognitive psychologist Stephen Chew (see Chew, 2011) the titles for which are:

- Beliefs That Make You Fail. . .Or Succeed
- What Students Should Understand About How People Learn
- Cognitive Principles for Optimizing Learning
- Putting the Principles for Optimizing Learning into Practice
- I Blew the Exam, Now What?

Chew's videos review much of the material introduced in the classroom discussion and further expand the material by

practically demonstrating how students can apply the findings from cognitive science to their class through best practices regarding note take, reading, studying for exams and how to move forward when not performing poorly on tests. Upon completing the video series, students are assigned an unlimited attempts multiple-choice assessment to enable them to correctly uncover the key point(s) of each video. The scores on the assessment were close to 100%, suggesting nearly every student took the attempts necessary to identify the main points. **Table 2** lists the questions that were asked. The next

class, a brief review of the videos occurs and students are encouraged to integrate what they have learned into their own study plans.

While the authors do not formally assess the impact of their module, research has consistently demonstrated that targeted instruction can be effective in changing student study skills as long as the material is in context, within the content domain, and promotes active learning and metacognitive awareness (Hattie et al., 1996; Dunlosky et al., 2013; Miyatsu et al., 2017).

**TABLE 2** | How to study videos follow-up questions.

**Video 1: Beliefs That Make You Fail...Or Succeed (6:53)**

1. All students base their study behavior on \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. the best available research
  - b. their beliefs about how they learn best \*
  - c. their peers' study habits
  - d. All the above are correct
2. To truly comprehend course material, you should \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. Highlight and memorize
  - b. Quickly read and highlight
  - c. Skim and memorize
  - d. Carefully read and review
3. The problem with focusing on isolated facts, such as definitions of key terms, is that:
  - a. You may not cover all of the course material
  - b. You may get the definition incorrect
  - c. You may not be able to apply the concept<sup>3\*</sup>
  - d. You may neglect reading all the course material
4. Academic success is much more a matter of \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. Hard work and time \*
  - b. Inborn talent
  - c. Natural gifting
  - d. Identifying your learning style
5. The research evidence is overwhelming that:
  - a. Learning styles improve learning
  - b. Most students can multitask to improve learning if they utilize technology to study
  - c. The amount of time you spend studying depends on the subject
  - d. We are bad at multitasking, especially for tasks requiring concentration and effort \*
6. One of the key differences between successful and struggling students is:
  - a. Learning styles, how you receive the content you are trying to learn
  - b. Metacognition, your awareness of your level of understanding of the content \*
  - c. Velocity, the speed with which you can process and memorize the content
  - d. None of the answers are correct

**Video 2, Video 2: What Students Should Understand About How People Learn (7:15)**

1. What is the most important factor in successful learning?
  - a. The intention and desire to learn
  - b. Paying close attention to the material as you study
  - c. Learning in a way that matches your own learning style
  - d. The time you spend studying
  - e. What you think about while you study \*
2. In the video Professor Stephen Chew discussed the research by psychologists Thomas S. Hyde and James J. Jenkins (1923-2012) which examined learning through testing subjects' ability to recall a series of 24 words. What was the main finding of the study according to Professor Chew?
  - a. The group looking for the letter "e" had the best word recall rates
  - b. The group evaluating how pleasant a word was to them had the best word recall rates \*
  - c. The control group, which tried to learn the words as best they could, had the best word recall rates
  - d. The subjects that were intentional, regardless of their group, had the best word recall rates
3. All of the following do not help learning except:
  - a. Motivation to learn
  - b. Amount of time studied with shallow processing
  - c. Amount of time studied with deep processing \*
  - d. Memorization of isolated facts
  - e. Learning styles
  - f. Multi-tasking

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**TABLE 2 |** (Continued) How to study videos follow-up questions.

4. All of the following do help learning except:
  - a. Minimizing distractions; maximizing focus
  - b. Developing accurate metacognition
  - c. Deep, appropriate processing of critical concepts
  - d. Practicing retrieval and application
  - e. All of the answers are correct \*

**Video 3: Cognitive Principles for Optimizing Learning (5:45)**

1. If you are highly motivated to learn and utilize memorization you will learn more than if you used another strategy to learn.
  - a. False \*
  - b. True
2. Principles for achieving deep processing include all of the following except:
  - a. Elaboration
  - b. Distinctiveness
  - c. Personal experience
  - d. Appropriate retrieval and application
  - e. Intentionality \*
3. An example of elaboration would be:
  - a. How does this concept relate to other concepts? \*
  - b. How is this concept different from other concepts?
  - c. How can I relate this concept to my personal experience?
  - d. How am I expected to use or apply this concept?
4. An example of automaticity would be:
  - a. Driving a familiar route where you arrive at your destination without thinking about it \*
  - b. Your ability to learn in a specific way, such as being a verbal or visual learner
  - c. Your awareness of your level of understanding of the course content
  - d. None of these are examples of automaticity
5. Adopting some or all of these cognitive principles for optimizing your learning \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. is relatively easy for most students and takes little time
  - b. is impossible for most students to achieve
  - c. is a process of ongoing improvement over time \*
  - d. is a function of your dominant learning style
6. The advantages of overlearning information include:
  - a. Prevent forgetting and making recall fast and easy \*
  - b. Aiding memorization and intentionality
  - c. Prevent studying material in a learning style that is not your dominant one
  - d. Aiding multi-tasking and your ability to skim texts better

**Video 4: Putting the Principles for Optimizing Learning into Practice (9:16)**

1. Good study strategies focus on \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. Comprehension and implications \*
  - b. Memorization and intentionality
  - c. Specific information and memorization
  - d. Highlighting and definitions
2. Professor Chew outlined three research-based study strategies that include all of the following except:
  - a. Question generation
  - b. Creating a concept map
  - c. Practice retrieving the information in the way the teacher expects
  - d. Memorization of definitions and key concepts \*
3. Taking notes in class \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. provides a key summary of concepts, creates a set of memory cues, and engages you in the class \*
  - b. should be done via laptop or tablet device so you can capture all of the information, minimizes distractions, and maximizes student engagement
  - c. only engages the student in shallow processing so students should use laptops and tablet devices
  - d. provides a comprehensive summary of concepts, increases intentionality, and engages you in the class only if the student takes notes electronically
4. Keys to effectively taking notes include all of the following except:
  - a. Get missed information right away
  - b. Consider recording the lecture
  - c. Borrowing notes in place of attending class \*
  - d. Actively organize and review notes
5. The key to deep processing while reading a textbook includes \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. Highlighting portions of the text for definitions and specific information
  - b. Highlighting portions of the text for connections, distinctions and applications \*
  - c. Highlighting portions of the text as completely as possible so you can review it later
  - d. Highlighting portions of the text using multiple colors to differentiate key concepts making sure you have most of the text covered in at least one color
6. Good highlighting requires \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a. rereading and reviewing, which can be slow and effortful \*
  - b. extensive highlighting to minimize review time and effort
  - c. selective highlighting of key terms and definitions to reduce effort and time

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**TABLE 2 |** (Continued) How to study videos follow-up questions.

- d. including as much text as possible and if done correctly will not require reviewing
7. Rules of effective group study include all of the following except:
- Set a goal and agenda
  - Set conditions for participation
  - Keep ultimate goal of learning in mind
  - Everyone can ask/answer questions
  - The group facilitator can express the group's understanding \*

**Video 5: "I Blew the Exam, Now What?" (7:28)**

- According to Professor Chew if students do poorly on an exam, they should first panic and then go into denial.
  - True
  - False \*
- Professor Chew identified five things that students should do if they "blew the exam". These include all the following except:
  - Reviewing your preparation
  - Comparing your errors on the exam with your note taking
  - Recopying notes without considering connections \*
  - Discuss your performance with your professor
  - Develop a plan for improving your performance
- Helpful strategies to raise your grade include all the following except:
  - Commit time and effort
  - Minimize distractions
  - Attend class
  - Space out study time, avoid cramming, and maximize review time
  - Don't give away points by failing to follow directions or skipping assignments
  - Develop a program of memorization of key definitions \*

\*Denotes the correct answer choice

## CONCLUSION

There is a growing body of literature in economics where scholars are attempting to incorporate the findings from the cognitive and learning sciences to improve learning outcomes. This paper attempted to identify the issues involved, provide an overview of the broader literature, and describe how the authors have attempted to develop a classroom response. While it recognized that the introduction of a study skill module takes up valuable classroom time, how can a student become a better critical thinker if he or she does not have a basic understanding of effective study skills, how learning works, and what critical thinking is? On these grounds, the introduction of such a module is a most valuable use of classroom time. The authors encourage other educators to

develop their own study skills and learning theory module based in part, or in whole, on the information and resources discussed in this paper.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JS—Survey design, analysis, writing (50%) EH—Literature review, writing (50%)

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# Addressing Study Skills, Learning Theory and Critical Thinking Skills in Principles of Economics Courses

Eric Howard and Jeffrey Sarbaum\*

Department of Economics, Joseph M. Bryan School of Business and Economics, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, NC, United States

The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that United States “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking”. This paper 1) motives the need for economics and other college educators to i) address study habits in the classroom, (ii) explain the importance of critical thinking skills, and (iii) define what critical thinking is to introductory students; and 2) provides an overview of how the authors accomplish this in their classrooms. The authors encourage readers to borrow this information to create a study skills and critical thinking module for their own students when teaching principles courses.

## Introduction

The *Wall Street Journal* recently noted that United States “employers say too many schools aren’t teaching students the skills they need—or even basic critical thinking” (Belkin, 2018). While a recent meta-analysis

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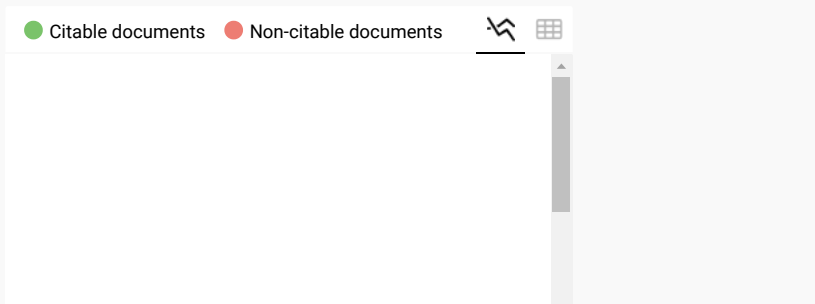
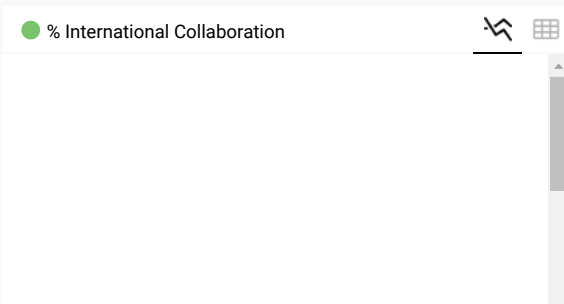
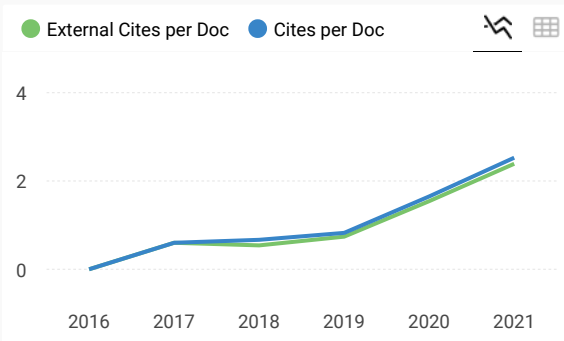
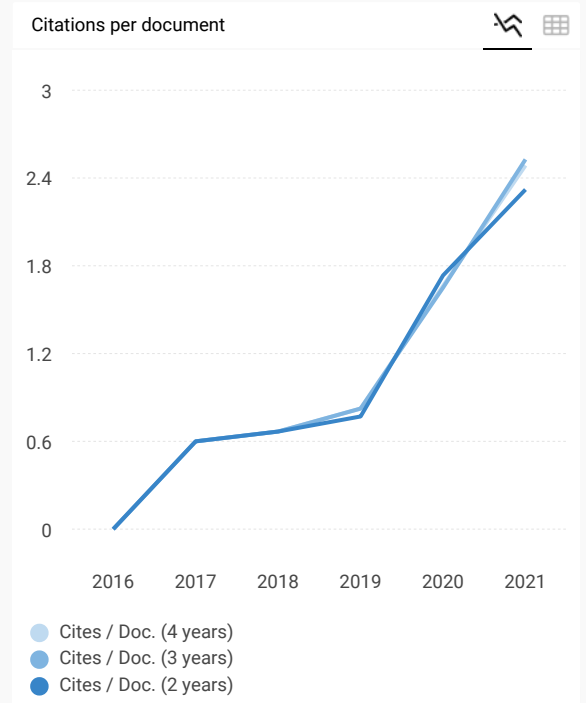
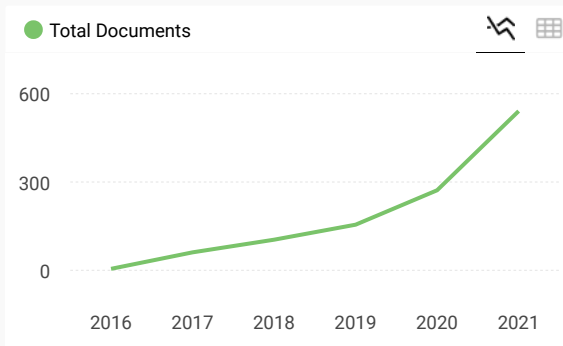
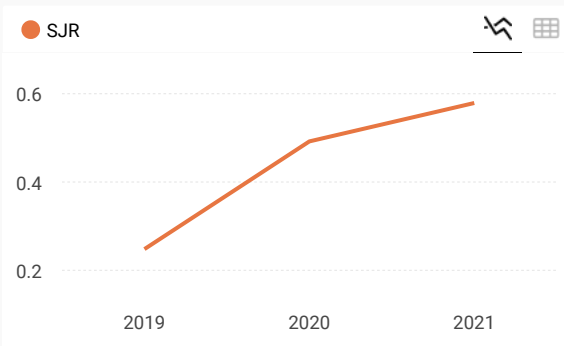
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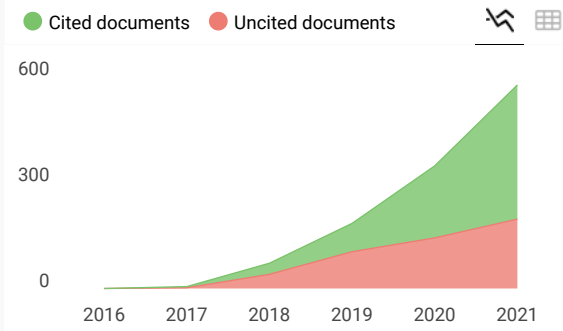


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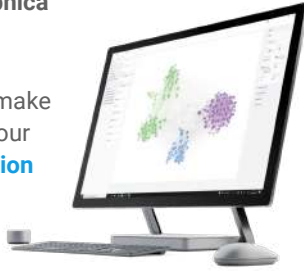
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**ABSTRACT:**

The present study was an investigation of the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing. Few studies have been conducted to investigate these issues. To this end, 356-second grade female senior state high school students in Zanjan/ from 4 senior high schools of Zanjan were selected through multistage cluster random sampling (MCRS) method and based on Cambridge placement test (2010), 130 students proved to be upper-intermediate and participated in this correlational study. The main data collection stage took place for 1 month. Then, the informal fallacies based on Johnson's definitions and four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinx were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings. The evaluation of the arguments was also conducted based on Walton, Reed, and Macagno Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant negative correlation was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written



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### Critical Thinking, Frequency , Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing

Journal:	<i>Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies</i>
Manuscript ID	RALL-2020-0024
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Argumentative, Writing, Critical, Evidence, Fallacy, thinking
Abstract:	<p>The present study was an investigation of the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing. Few studies have been conducted to investigate these issues. To this end, 356-second grade female senior state high school students in Zanjan/ from 4 senior high schools of Zanjan were selected through multistage cluster random sampling (MCRS) method and based on Cambridge placement test (2010), 130 students proved to be upper-intermediate and participated in this correlational study. The main data collection stage took place for 1 month. Then, the informal fallacies based on Johnson's definitions and four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinkx were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings. The evaluation of the arguments was also conducted based on Walton, Reed, and Macagno Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant negative correlation was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation. Based on the results achieved from the second research question, there was a potential and significant correlation between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies.</p>

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## Critical Thinking, Frequency, Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing



### Abstract

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The present study was an investigation of the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing. Few studies have been conducted to investigate these issues. To this end, 356-second grade female senior state high school students in Zanzibar/ from 4 senior high schools of Zanzibar were selected through multistage cluster random sampling (MCRS) method and based on Cambridge placement test (2010), 130 students proved to be upper-intermediate and participated in this correlational study. The main data collection stage took place for 1 month. Then, the informal fallacies based on Johnson's definitions and four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinx were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings. The evaluation of the arguments was also conducted based on Walton, Reed, and Macagno. Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant negative correlation was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation. Based on the results achieved from the second research question, there was a potential and significant correlation between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies.

**Keywords:** Argumentative Writing, Critical Thinking, Evidence, Informal Fallacy.

### Introduction

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3 One of the most significant current discussions in the era of English language teaching and  
4 learning is writing instruction that has always been considered as a challenge for language  
5 teachers and plays a key role in learning the second or foreign language (Nagpal, 2019). Writing  
6 instruction is a reaction to the inner and outside world and development or revelation of several  
7 distinct human abilities (Hawkins, 2019). Writing is one of the most important skills that should  
8 be taught to the students from the beginning till the end of high school by teachers carefully and  
9 the main aim of teaching this skill to the students is to enable them to write many types of  
10 writings in English such as report, descriptive, narrative and argumentative, etc. Learning writing  
11 skill is very essential for students because an important part of communication is a good writing  
12 skill and the students will be able to communicate in English through writing and transfer  
13 information, knowledge and their ideas to others (Peterson, 2019).  
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Page | 2

23 It is clear that despite personal, social, and cultural differences between people, achieving  
24 proficiency in the writing of a foreign language is not an impossible target, but the individual  
25 variables will affect the extent of achievement in a different manner (Fishman, Graham, Harris,  
26 Houston, Lei, Ray & Wijekumar, 2019). Among these distinguishing variables, one of them  
27 which has received less attention especially in EFL contexts is learners' critical thinking (Torff,  
28 2019).  
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34 Like the other elements of this study, critical thinking is one of the broad categories of  
35 thinking skill and it was considered to be the most important writing skill in argumentative  
36 (Yusuf, 2019). Also, students' ability to write argumentatively mainly depends on their critical  
37 thinking skills (Aziz, 2019).  
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41 Another element of this study was a fallacy. The absence or presence of fallacies and  
42 especially informal fallacies is one of the criteria in determining the quality of argumentative  
43 writings (de Swart, 2018). The fallacy was characterized by Walton (1991) as a preplanned  
44 strategy of misleading argumentation used by one person in a dialogue to 'slip up' another party.  
45 Some researches argued that the existence of high-quality argumentations and fallacy-free  
46 reasoning are among the major concerns in written discourse (Dufour, 2018; Walton, 2012;  
47 Žagar, 2018) and in students' written argumentations (Graham & Seiter, 2018; Butler, Barch &  
48 Nicker, 2019; Tindale, 2007) and considered them as very important issues. Previous  
49 research demonstrated that students' problems may stem from lack of sound and logical  
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3 reasoning and persuasion along with traps such as fallacies of argumentation which at the first  
4 sight they may appear logical and convincing but at the second sight they contain mistakes in  
5 reasoning (Dufour, 2019). These issues for EFL students become even much more terrible in  
6 international proficiency examinations such as GRE and IELTS, as pointed out by the  
7 Educational Testing Service center (2009), when students are supposed to utilize essays and  
8 employ precise argumentations as an entrenched criterion of evaluation (Ben-Porath, 2019).  
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14 And finally, evidence was the last element of this research. Structure-based argumentation  
15 enables students to build up their thoughts in a reasonable organization, but this should include  
16 analyzing the relevance of the considerable number of components, whether the case is  
17 supported soundly by the evidence, to guarantee the general quality of argumentative writing  
18 (Malpique & Veiga Simão, 2019; Shi, 2018). Recognizing the significance of utilizing evidence  
19 to support one's claim in a satisfactory, applicable and sufficient manner is a fundamental part of  
20 judging argumentation (Stucki, 2018; Schlaufer, Stucki & Sager, 2018). Without well-organized  
21 evidence, the argumentative writing is circular of different repetitions of the claim without  
22 explicit purposes (Zhang, 2018). Good arguments should comprise of true, reliable, and multiple  
23 justifications (Duffield & Lau, 2018). In other words, it is the soundness and validity of the  
24 evidence that account for the logic of argumentation (Millward & Sandoval, 2005). However,  
25 studies examining L2 learners' actual use of evidence in writing argumentation are few.  
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36 The issue of EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and  
37 evidence in argumentative writing have received some interest in research over 20 years ago.  
38 However, in the last 5 years, in particular, the topic has rekindled both theoretical and empirical  
39 research interest and yet there is no general agreement about the relationship between the EFL  
40 learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and evidence in  
41 argumentative writing and a major problem with all of the past studies is that they have not  
42 investigated the positive or negative relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the  
43 frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writings, while this  
44 current research has comprehensively focused on these issues on 130-second grade senior state  
45 high school female students in Zanjan/Iran. So far, no one has investigated the relationship  
46 between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and  
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evidence in argumentative writing on upper-intermediate female students, so these issues brought novelty to the present study.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing and the participants of this study were 130-second grade female senior high school students in Zanjan. The goal of this investigation was to answer the following research questions:

Page | 4

1. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?

2. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?

## Literature review

### The Role of Thinking in Writing

Composing writing not only needs good language proficiency but also needs to be critical as the writer examines viewpoints, facts, and arguments and synthesize them. Langan (1983), pointed out that writing is more than a medium of communication. It is a way of remembering and a way of thinking as well. Writing makes words permanent, thus expands the collective memory of human beings from the relatively small store that we can remember. It means that when we write we use our thinking to find the idea while remembering patterns and language.

Ruggiero (1991), stated that writing is not confined to one stage of the composing process. At one stage you will think creatively, producing imaginative ideas or ways of expressing those ideas. At another stage you will think critically, evaluating the results of your creative thinking. In every stage of writing, we use our thinking to create, to investigate and to revise the idea.

Furthermore, writing can improve critical thinking skills. Writing makes you a stronger thinker. Writing reasoned paragraphs requires mental discipline and close attention to the set of logical rules. It will train your mind to think clearly and prove to be a value in every phase of your life. While writing can improve critical thinking, critical thinking is important to produce good writing (Kent 1999).



To sum up, writing is important to improve thinking skills such as critical and creative thinking. In similarity, critical thinking skill is also crucial in composing writing. It is because each process of writing requires some thinking skills. Therefore, without being able to think and also write critically, the writers cannot result in a piece of good writing.

## Fallacy

The fallacy is "an error in reasoning" (Johnson, 1998, p. 251). As Johnson states, some fallacies which can be detected "by the examination of the form of the argument" are called formal fallacies while all other fallacies are called informal ones which can be detected "by the examination of the content rather than the form of the argument" (p. 251). Tindale (2007) defined a fallacy as "a particular kind of egregious error" (p. 1). He believes that it undermines the strength of an argument. Here major informal fallacies along with their relevant argumentation schemes and their matching critical questions are presented.



### *Iranian and international Studies on Critical Thinking, the Frequency, and Types of Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing*

Rahmah, Munir and Anam (2010), in their study about the role of rational application on studying critical thinking skills in argumentative writing, aimed to evaluate innovative ways to teach argumentative writing using electronic learning. This paper will focus on writing skills because through writing students can express their ideas in written form. However, critical thinking skills in the learning process sometimes make it difficult for students to express and produce their ideas in writing, as a result, they are trapped in the process of writing without being critical. Therefore, researchers promote "rational" applications as e-learning media to help students learn concepts, understand the structure of arguments, and develop reasoning skills. This paper uses a qualitative descriptive method to describe how teachers apply rational applications and how students think critically in their argumentative writing assignments. The results showed that rational application provides students not only with greater motivation to write and to involve their creativity in writing argumentative on structural elements in the Toulmin model (1953, 2008). It also explores the overall use of evidence in supporting claims.

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It was found that claim and data were the basic structural elements used by Chinese EFL learners in constructing argumentative writing. The respective use of counterargument data and rebuttal was significantly correlated with the quality of argumentation. In argumentative reasoning, the types of evidence and the number of evidence used by participants were very limited. The logical analysis was found to be the most frequently used data to support claims. Less proficient learners' use of evidence was not effective or persuasive to produce valid arguments. The findings provide useful insights into the instruction of argumentative writing for EFL teachers.

Khoiri and Widiati (2017), in their study about Logical Fallacies in Indonesian EFL Learners' Argumentative Writing: Students' Perspectives, identified and discuss logical fallacies in the argumentative writing of Indonesian EFL learners. For this purpose, 40 argumentative essays written by the students of the English Department of the State University of Malang were analyzed. An FGD discussion involving students who participated in the essay writing process was organized following the identification of logical fallacies in their writing. The results of the study showed that students still produced a number of logical fallacies in their work, some of which were very basic they can actually be avoided through simple, explicit instruction.



## Methodology

### *Design of study*

This study was a quantitative one as the research analysis used categorical and nonparametric data to test the hypotheses. The participants of this study were 130-second grade senior high school female students in Zanjan which were selected through a multistage cluster random sampling method and correlational design was used in this research.

### ***Participants***

The participants of this study were 130-second grade senior high school students in Zanjan. Zanjan province has 8 cities, among the cities, Zanjan city was chosen. Zanjan city consists of two districts that the district one was randomly chosen. In 2019 in district one, there were 420 schools that among them senior high schools were randomly chosen. There were 42 senior high schools in district one that 22 of them were for girls and 20 schools were for boys. Among them state senior high schools were randomly chosen, and 12 senior high schools were for girls. The second level students of 4 senior high schools for girls included: Shahed, Farhikhtegan, Nesa and Hejab senior high schools were randomly chosen. There were 3-second grade classes in each of them and two classes of each were randomly chosen for this study.

The statistical populations of this study were 3492-second grade senior high school students in the first district of Zanjan. According to the Cochran formula, 346 participants were selected and in order to increase the accuracy and to have homogeneous groups, 10 more participants were added and totally of 356 female students participated in this study. Based on the rules of CPT (2010), out of 356 students, 130 students were proved to be upper-intermediate.

### **Instruments**

The following instruments were employed in order to collect the required data for the present study:

Cambridge Placement Test (2010) by Cambridge University Press

California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST)

The Persian Version of California Critical Thinking Skills Test

Writing Task

### *Pilot Study*

California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) was piloted on 30 upper-intermediate students with similar educational background, in order to obtain the reliability for the tests. To be statistically acceptable, the internal consistency and reliability co-efficient were measured using Cronbach Alpha. The test-retest reliability of these tests with the one-week interval was ( $\alpha = .82$ ) which showed an acceptable reliability value. For the writing task, five topics were selected from IELTS writing tasks, in order to select the target topic of the study, all of the five topics were piloted by five experienced language instructors and then, based on their comments one topic was adopted. In topic selection, content validity was evaluated using Lawsh CVR (Content Validity Ratio) and CVI (Content Validity Index). Lawsh formula is as follows:

$$\text{CVR} = ((N_e - N \div 2)) / (N \div 2)$$

According to the Lawsh CVR, an item should gain CVR of higher than 0.42 in order to be validated. The results of the reviewed and validated topics were included in Table 1.

Then CVI of the topics was calculated using Waltz and Bausell (1981). CVI formula is as follows:

$$\text{CVI} = (\text{Number of experts who scored item 3 or 4}) / (\text{Total number of experts})$$

It should be mentioned that the acceptable index of CVI equals 0.79 and if there is a topic with CVI lower than 0.79, the topic should be removed. In other words, a panel of experts determined whether the selected topics are “necessary” to be included in the study based on a 4-point Likert scale. Experts indicated their opinions on each word using 1 (It is not necessary), 2 (It is rather necessary), 3 (It is necessary), and 4 (It is completely necessary). The results related to CVI calculations were presented in Table 2.

## Procedure

The main data collection stage took place for 1 month, based on the works of previous researchers in the field of critical thinking and argumentative writing. The Cambridge Placement Test was administered to assure the homogeneity regarding the participants' level of proficiency.

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In the second stage, the students provided their answers to the excepted items from the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Firstly, the participants were not asked to fill out their real names, but they were asked to choose a nickname and write it on the paper. After that, they were asked to read the direction of the test. The researcher explained the direction of the test and how to answer the test. After the participants were ready, the test was started and the researcher supervised the test took place. The participants had to finish 34 questions of critical thinking test in 50 minutes.

Finally, the writing test was conducted on the same day directly after the participants finished the Critical Thinking Test. they were asked to write their nickname and read the direction. Then, the participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with the length of at least 250 words. A word limit was set for the length of their essays and those essays of less than 100-word length were omitted from the sample of the study (20 out of 130 essays). The researchers by the help of the teachers were administered the test in a natural setting as possible to prevent the sensitization of students to the research objectives.

Three main paradigms were used in order to evaluate the argumentation and to identify the informal fallacies and evidence. The techniques of exposing the arguments and methods of identifying the informal fallacies were employed based on Johnson (1998), the techniques of identifying the evidence were employed based on Hoeke and Hustinkx (2003) and finally, evaluation of the arguments was done based on Walton et al. (2010) in which several critical questions accompanying a host of argumentation schemes were presented.

Then, the informal fallacies were identified based on Johnson's (1998) definitions and presented clues. Having identified the informal fallacies, each argument was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by Walton et al. (2010). Nine categories of informal fallacies that were investigated and counted within language learners' argumentative writings in

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3 this study were: Ad hominem, Appeal to tradition, Begging the question, Faulty analogy, False  
4 dichotomy, Hasty generalization, Post hoc, Red herring, and RSA.  
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7 Additionally, four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinkx (2003) were  
8 identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings including a) Statistical,  
9 b) Anecdotal, c) Causal, d) Expert evidence. Anecdotal (or narrative) evidence consists of one  
10 case, whereas statistical evidence consists of numerical information about a large number of  
11 cases. Causal evidence consists of an explanation, and expert evidence consists of confirmation  
12 by an expert.  
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18 The argumentation schemes suggested by Walton et al. (2002), however, are more detailed  
19 and embrace a compendium of ninety-six schemes. While in Johnson, R.M.' model (1998), one  
20 should rely on the evaluation direction justifications to pick up an informal fallacy in the  
21 argument, Walton et al.'s model, by providing critical questions, helps the analyst to proceed  
22 step by step through answering the questions that include all possible ways the given argument  
23 could be considered as a valid argument and fallacy-free, or include a potential fallacy. Besides,  
24 in Walton et al.'s (ibid) model, each argument may have different forms; hence, to pick up the  
25 related fallacy, one should go through all different related schemes. To ensure the reliability of  
26 the data coding, a third analyst worked on half of the samples selected randomly and analyzed  
27 the arguments based on the steps provided above. If there was any disagreement in the  
28 mentioned steps between the three analysts, the data would be reconsidered until an agreement  
29 was achieved.  
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39 Moreover, to improve the reliability of the evaluation and identification procedure, another  
40 rater (an ELT professor) was asked to check the identified informal fallacies and evidence types.  
41 In this regard, whenever the disagreement occurred, both the researcher and the other rater  
42 discussed the issue until they came to an agreement upon the identified fallacy or evidence.  
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47 To clarify the evaluation procedure, one example of an argument from analogy is illustrated  
48 here based on its argumentation schemes and the matching critical questions.  
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51 Walton et al. (2010) presented the following argumentation schemes for an argument from  
52 analogy (p. 315):  
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55 Similarity Premise: Generally, case C1 is similar to case C2.  
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3 Base Premise: A is true (false) in case C1.  
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5 Conclusion: A is true (false) in case of C2.  
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8 They also put forth the following critical questions on the same page to evaluate this  
9 argument: Page | 11  
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12 1. Are there differences between C1 and C2 that would tend to undermine the force of the  
13 similarity cited?  
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16 2. Is A true (false) in C1?  
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19 3. Is there some other case C3 that is also similar to C1, but in which A is false (true)?  
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21 Results  
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23 the distribution method of research variables based on the most important central indexes of  
24 mean, dispersion, and standard deviation were investigated. In Table 3, the descriptive statistics  
25 of the participants' critical thinking and frequency and types of informal fallacies and evidence  
26 were demonstrated.  
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### 30 31 **Data Analysis of the First Research Question** 32

33 First research question was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical  
34 thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?  
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37 For data analysis of the null hypothesis, which was: "There is no significant relationship  
38 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their  
39 argumentative writing", and the alternative hypothesis, which was: "There is a significant  
40 relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies  
41 in their argumentative writing", a Spearman correlation was applied using SPSS software. A  
42 statistically significant negative relationship was observed between the participants' critical  
43 thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation was ( $r = -$   
44  $0.366$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (See Table 4).  
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51 As Table 5 depicts, there is also a significant correlation between Iranian upper-intermediate  
52 EFL learners' critical thinking and some of the categories of informal fallacies. The obtained  
53 results are as follows: critical thinking and (1) begging the question ( $r = -0.254$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), (2)  
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3 Fallacy of either/or dichotomy ( $r = -0.463$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), (3) Faulty analogy ( $r = -0.418$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ),  
4 and (4) Red herring ( $r = -0.281$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Though, no significant relations were observed  
5 between critical thinking and (1) Ad hominem ( $r=0.026$ ), (2) appeal to tradition ( $r=-0.091$ ), (3)  
6 Hasty generalization ( $r = 0.064$ ), (4) Post hoc ( $r = -0.006$ ), and (5) RSA ( $-0.073$ ).  
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11 The second research question was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL  
12 learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?  
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15 For data analysis of the null hypothesis, which was: “There is no significant relationship  
16 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative  
17 writing”, and the alternative hypothesis, which was: “There is a significant relationship between  
18 EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative  
19 writing”, a Spearman correlation was conducted. The findings of the study suggest that there is a  
20 significant relationship between Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' critical thinking and  
21 the frequency of use of evidence types in their argumentative essays ( $r = 0.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table  
22 6).  
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## 29 Discussion

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32 The primary research question for this investigation was: Is there any significant relationship  
33 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their  
34 argumentative writing?  
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38 The present investigation involved 130-second grade female senior high school students in  
39 Zanjan/Iran. The students were provided their answers to the excepted items from the California  
40 Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Also, the  
41 participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with  
42 the length of at least 250 words. Then, the informal fallacies were identified based on Johnson's  
43 (1998) definitions and presented clues. Having identified the informal fallacies, each argument  
44 was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by Walton et al. (2010). Nine  
45 categories of informal fallacies that were investigated and counted within language learners'  
46 argumentative writings in this study were: Ad hominem, Appeal to tradition, Begging the  
47 question, Faulty analogy, False dichotomy, Hasty generalization, Post hoc, Red herring, and  
48 RSA. The overall Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test to assess progress in critical thinking after  
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3 a year of intensive academic English instruction for 50 Japanese students enrolled in a private  
4 two-year women's junior college in Osaka, Japan. A control group received only content-based  
5 intensive English instruction, while the treatment group received additional training in critical  
6 thinking. The treatment group scored significantly higher on the test ("p" =0.000). The results  
7 imply that critical thinking skills can indeed be taught as part of academic EFL/ESL instruction.  
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12 Finally, Kealey, Holland & Watson (2005), in their study about Preliminary evidence on the  
13 association between critical thinking and performance in principles of accounting, tested whether  
14 critical-thinking skills can help explain the cross-sectional variation in student performance in  
15 principles of accounting. Prior research has used such measures as academic aptitude and  
16 demographic factors to explain performance in the principles of accounting class. We argue that  
17 success in principles of accounting also requires critical-thinking skills. We measured  
18 critical-thinking skills by using a holistic scoring process to evaluate student essays. Our results  
19 show that even after controlling for academic aptitude, our measure of critical-thinking skills  
20 contributes significantly to explaining the cross-sectional variation in student performance in an  
21 accounting principles class. Understanding the relationship between critical thinking and success  
22 in accounting may contribute not only to reducing the failure rate in principles of accounting but  
23 also to encouraging an emphasis on critical thinking in the preparation of accounting  
24 professionals.  
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35 The practical significance of this research question was to consider the effective relationship  
36 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and their use and types of informal fallacies  
37 in their argumentative writing the students in the second level of high school and also it can be  
38 used for different levels in different academic places.  
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43 The second research question for this investigation was: Is there any significant relationship  
44 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative  
45 writing?  
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49 The present investigation involved 130-second grade female senior high school students in  
50 Zanjan/Iran. The students were provided their answers to the excepted items from the California  
51 Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Also, the  
52 participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with  
53 the length of at least 250 words. Then, four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinkx  
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3 (2003) were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings including a)  
4 Statistical, b) Anecdotal, c) Causal, d) Expert evidence. Having identified the evidence, each  
5 argument was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by Walton et al. (2010).  
6 The overall findings determined that there were potential and significant relationships between  
7 the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies within language  
8 learners' argumentative writings.  
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14 The current investigation was in line with some details with previous and similar research  
15 about the relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence  
16 in their argumentative writing.  
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20 Firstly, Iordanou and Constantinou (2015) in their study about Supporting the use of  
21 evidence in argumentation through practice in argumentation and reflection in the context of  
22 SOCRATES learning environment, examined how students used evidence in argumentation  
23 while they engaged in argumentative and reflective activities in the context of a designed  
24 learning environment. A Web-based learning environment, SOCRATES, was developed, which  
25 included a rich database on the topic of climate change. Sixteen 11th graders, working with a  
26 partner, engaged in electronic argumentative dialogs with classmates who held an opposing view  
27 on the topic and in some evidence-focused reflective activities, based on transcriptions of their  
28 dialogs. Another sixteen 11th graders, who studied the database in the learning environment for  
29 the same amount of time as experimental-condition students but did not engage in an  
30 argumentative discourse activity, served as a comparison condition. Students who engaged in an  
31 evidence-focused dialogic intervention increased the use of evidence in their dialogs, used more  
32 evidence that functioned to weaken opponents' claims and used more accurate evidence.  
33 Significant gains in evidence use and in meta-level communication about evidence were  
34 observed after students engaged in reflective activities. We frame our discussion of these  
35 findings in terms of their implications for promoting the use of evidence in argumentation and in  
36 relation to the development of epistemological understanding in science.  
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50 Also, Monteiro and Alexandre (2016) in their study about the practice of using evidence in  
51 kindergarten: The role of purposeful observation, examined kindergarten children's (5–6 years  
52 old) engagement in scientific practices, with a focus on generating and using evidence to support  
53 claims, during a 5-month project about snails. The research questions are as follows: (1) what  
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3 meanings do kindergarteners construct for what constitutes evidence? How are those meanings  
4 reflected in the development of data into evidence? (2) Which ways of gathering empirical  
5 evidence are jointly constructed by children and teachers during the project? (3) How do children  
6 use evidence to revise their understandings? The participants are one class of Early Childhood  
7 Education children (N = 25) and their teacher. They were engaged in a project about snails,  
8 involving pursuing their own questions, carrying out experiments and purposeful observations,  
9 collecting data and drawing conclusions, under the guidance of the teacher. The results show that  
10 children developed meanings of a certain level of sophistication about evidence, that they  
11 distinguished between empirical evidence from planned experiments and from prolonged  
12 observation, which we call purposeful, and that they combined different types of evidence in the  
13 revision of their ideas about snails. We identified two levels in the development of data into  
14 evidence—closer to descriptive statements and evaluative judgments. We suggest that purposeful  
15 observation, which has a clear focus, is guided by the teacher and explicitly discussed, has  
16 affordances in early childhood science. For instance, 30 out of 57 evidence statements relate to  
17 purposeful observation. Promoting purposeful observation as a source of evidence at this age  
18 may allow studying processes both for children (biology processes) and for researchers (learning  
19 processes). The results would support Metzler (2011) contention about the relevance of  
20 instructional opportunities over developmental constraints.  
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35 Besides, Kennison (2006), In her study about the evaluation of students' reflective writing  
36 for evidence of critical thinking, established interrater reliability of the Critical Thinking Scale  
37 (CTS), a teacher-accessible tool designed to measure the critical thinking of baccalaureate  
38 nursing students as evidenced in their reflective writing about their practice experiences. Her  
39 study was an extension of an earlier pilot test of the CTS. Graduating students from a nursing  
40 program at a small liberal arts college were asked to write about a significant practice experience  
41 encountered during their last clinical course. Three teachers used the CTS to independently  
42 evaluate the students' writing Likewise, Kelly and Takao (2002), in their study about Epistemic  
43 levels in argument: An analysis of university oceanography students' use of evidence in writing,  
44 examined university oceanography students' use of evidence in writing. Drawing from rhetorical  
45 studies of science writing and studies of argumentation in science education, a model for  
46 assessing students' arguments is proposed that considers the relative epistemic status of  
47 propositions comprising students' written texts. The study was conducted in an introductory  
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3 university oceanography course . in a large public university that utilized an interactive  
4 CD-ROM that provided geological data sets for student exploration of scientific questions.  
5 Student arguments were analyzed through a process of sorting propositions by epistemic level  
6 and identifying the explicit links within and across levels. These epistemic levels were defined  
7 by discipline-specific geological constructs from descriptions of data, to the identification of  
8 features, to relational aspects of features, to theoretically formulated assertions. This form of  
9 argumentation analysis allowed for assessment of each student's writing on normative grounds  
10 and for comparisons across students' papers. Results show promise for the argumentation model  
11 as a methodological tool. The examination of the epistemic status of knowledge claims provided  
12 ways of distinguishing the extent to which students adhered to the genre conventions specified  
13 by the task, i.e., providing evidentiary support for their argument concerning the theory of plate  
14 tectonics with real earth data.  
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24 In addition, Liaw (2007) in her study about Content-Based Reading and Writing for Critical  
25 Thinking Skills in an EFL Context reported the findings of a study examining the effectiveness  
26 of promoting learners' critical thinking skills and EFL skills with a content-based approach.  
27 Despite little argument among theorists and educators regarding the interrelatedness between  
28 thinking and language development, in the tradition and transition of L2 teaching methodology,  
29 the integration of language and thinking has been peripheral. Language as a way of thinking and  
30 learning has been more of a pedagogical catchphrase than instructional practice. The researcher  
31 also attempted to bridge the gap between theories and instructional practices through the design  
32 and implementation of a content-based junior high school EFL syllabus. Two groups of junior  
33 high school students participated in the study. A five-unit syllabus, including the subject areas of  
34 language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies, was designed and implemented. Data  
35 were collected via class assignments, a critical thinking assessment instrument, a questionnaire,  
36 and a teacher-constructed language proficiency test. The findings revealed significant gains in  
37 the students' English language proficiency test scores. Critical thinking skills and content area  
38 knowledge mastery were also found. The questionnaire results show positive responses toward  
39 the content-based EFL learning and teaching from the participating students. Based on these  
40 findings, instructional suggestions and caveats are provided.  
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3 Furthermore, Yousefi and Mohammadi (2016) in their study about Critical Thinking and  
4 Reading Comprehension among Postgraduate Students: The Case of Gender and Language  
5 Proficiency Level, aimed at probing the role of critical thinking skills in EFL learners' reading  
6 comprehension. In so doing, four hundred and forty-three male and female Iranian EFL  
7 postgraduate students in the fields of translation studies and English language teaching at Islamic  
8 Azad University, South Tehran and Science and Research branches participated in this study  
9 were selected. These students were selected based on their general English proficiency score in  
10 the MA entrance examination in Iran. Considering the normal distribution of the subjects' scores,  
11 we chose those scores one standard deviation above and below the mean to be in the sample of  
12 the study. Consequently, four hundred and forty-three of them were patterned as homogenous  
13 and selected for the purpose of this research. Watson-Glaser critical thinking questionnaire and  
14 Longman's TOEFL were used to collect data. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was run to  
15 analyze the data. The findings of the present study demonstrated that there was a significant  
16 relationship between critical thinking and reading comprehension. Also, gender and level of  
17 proficiency could not make a statistically significant difference in this respect.  
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30 Additionally, Nikou, Bonyadi and Amirikar (2015) in their study about Investigating the  
31 relationship between critical thinking skills and the quality of Iranian intermediate TEFL  
32 students' writing intended to find out the relationship between critical thinking skills and the  
33 quality of Iranian TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) students' writing. One-  
34 hundred forty students who were homogeneous in their language proficiency were selected non-  
35 randomly. The researcher asked students to take part in a proficiency test named Nelson test  
36 (intermediate 200B) and she chose students whose level was intermediate as participants of the  
37 study. This study was an associational (correlational) study. To achieve the goal of the study  
38 California Critical Thinking Test (form B) was administered among intermediate students to  
39 measure students' critical thinking skills (analysis, evaluation, inference). Then the researcher  
40 asked the participants to write on a given topic and their writings were rated by two language  
41 teachers by following the rules of scoring in Quellmaz's scale. The inter-rater correlation across  
42 all papers calculated in order to be sure about the objectivity and reliability of scores. The  
43 Pearson-Product Moment was used to examine the relationship between variables, furthermore,  
44 multiple regressions were applied to predict the degree of their relationship. The results of the  
45 study revealed that there is a positive relationship between critical thing skills and writing  
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3 quality. Furthermore, it was proved that evaluation has the strongest degree of relationship with  
4 the quality of writing.  
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7 Also, this study was not in line with some previous studies.  
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10 For example, Stapleton (2001) in his study about Assessing Critical Thinking in the Writing  
11 of Japanese University Students: Insights about Assumptions and Content Familiarity proposed a  
12 model for assessing critical thinking in the writing of L2 learners to determine whether content  
13 familiarity plays a role in critical thinking. Findings of a study of 45 Japanese undergraduate  
14 students indicate that the quality of critical thought depended on the topic content, with a familiar  
15 topic generating better critical thinking. Results also suggested that different assumptions  
16 between the L1 and L2 culture may lead to misinterpretations of the critical thinking ability of  
17 L2 learners.  
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24 Furthermore, Zarei and Haghgoo (2012) In his study about The Relationship between  
25 Critical Thinking and L2 Grammatical and Lexical Knowledge study was conducted to  
26 investigate the relationship between critical thinking and L2 grammatical knowledge on the one  
27 hand, and the relationship between critical thinking and lexical knowledge on the other. To fulfill  
28 this objective, a 60-item vocabulary and grammar subtest of the TOEFL test and an 80-item  
29 Watson Glaser Critical Thinking questionnaire were distributed among 150 male and female  
30 Iranians studying English as a foreign language at Azad University in Takestan, Iran. Data were  
31 analyzed using the Pearson correlation procedure. The result of the data analysis indicated that  
32 the correlation between vocabulary and critical thinking was not statistically significant. The  
33 correlation between grammar and critical thinking was not statistically significant.  
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42 The practical significance of this research question was to consider the effective relationship  
43 between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and their use and types of evidence in their  
44 argumentative writing the students in the second level of high school and also it can be used for  
45 different levels in different academic places.  
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## Conclusion

Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant correlation between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies. A statistically significant negative relationship was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation.

Based on the results achieved from the second research question, there was a potential and significant relationship between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies.



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**Table 1***Content Validity Ratio of Selected Topics measured by Lawsh Formula*

<b>Vocabularies</b>	<b>Number of experts agreed with topic</b>	<b>CVR</b>	<b>Valid</b>
<b>Topic 1</b>	5	0.6	Valid
<b>Topic 2</b>	1	0.4	Invalid
<b>Topic 3</b>	5	0.6	Valid
<b>Topic 4</b>	4	0.4	Valid
<b>Topic 5</b>	1	0.1	Invalid

**Table 2**

Content Validity Index of Selected Topics

<b>Vocabularies</b>	<b>Number of experts considered the topic completely necessary</b>	<b>Number of experts considered the topic necessary</b>	<b>CVI</b>	<b>Accepted or Not accepted</b>
<b>Topic 1</b>	2	1	0.6	Not accepted
<b>Topic 2</b>	2	1	0.6	Not accepted
<b>Topic 3</b>	1	0	0.2	Not accepted
<b>Topic 4</b>	4	1	1	Accepted
<b>Topic 5</b>	2	0	0.6	Not Accepted

**Table 3**

*Descriptive Statistics of Critical Thinking, Type and Frequency of Informal Fallacies and Evidence Types*

	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimu m</b>	<b>Maximu m</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
<b>Critical thinking</b>	130	1.00	4.00	1.9231	.92858
<b>Frequency of fallacies</b>	130	.00	9.00	4.9692	1.94872
<b>Ad Hominem</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6846	.46647
<b>Appeal to tradition</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4077	.49331
<b>Begging the question</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4385	.49812
<b>Fallacy of either/or dichotomy</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5769	.49596
<b>Faulty analogy</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6077	.49015
<b>Hasty generalization</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5769	.49596
<b>Post hoc</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5692	.49710
<b>Red herring</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5385	.50045
<b>RSA</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5692	.49710
<b>Frequency of evidences</b>	130	.00	4.00	2.2308	1.27309
<b>Evidence type 1 (Statistical)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5615	.49812
<b>Evidence type 2 (Anecdotal)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5846	.49469
<b>Evidence type 3 (Causal)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4769	.50140
<b>Evidence type 4 (Expert evidence)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6077	.49015

**Table 4**

*The Results of Correlation between Learners' Critical Thinking and the Frequency of Fallacies*

	Frequency of evidences	
<b>Critical thinking</b>	Correlation Coefficient	-.366**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	130

Table 5 also demonstrates the results of the correlations between critical thinking and types of fallacies in students' writings.

**Table 5**

*The Results of Correlation between Learners' Use of Nine Categories of Informal Fallacies and their Critical Thinking*

	Critical thinking
<b>Ad hominem</b>	.026
<b>Appeal to tradition</b>	-.091
<b>Begging the question</b>	-.254**
<b>Fallacy of either/or dichotomy</b>	-.463**
<b>Faulty analogy</b>	-.418**
<b>Hasty generalization</b>	.064
<b>Post hoc</b>	-.006
<b>Red herring</b>	-.281**
<b>RSA</b>	-.073

**Table 6**

*The Results of Correlation between Learners' Critical Thinking and the Frequency of Evidences*

	Frequency of evidences	
<b>Critical thinking</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.64**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	130

Table 7 shows the findings related to the potential relationships between critical thinking and categories of evidences.

**Table 7**

*The Results of Correlation between Learners' Use of Four Categories of Evidence Types and Critical Thinking*

	Critical thinking
<b>Evidence type 1 (Statistical)</b>	.516**
<b>Evidence type 2 (Anecdotal)</b>	.210*
<b>Evidence type 3 (Causal)</b>	.689**
<b>Evidence type 4 (Expert evidence)</b>	.197*

As Table 7 indicates, significant correlations were observed between the language learners' critical thinking and their use of four categories of evidence, including Statistical ( $r = 0.516$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), Anecdotal ( $r = 0.210$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), Causal ( $r = 0.689$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and Expert evidence ( $r = 0.197$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).





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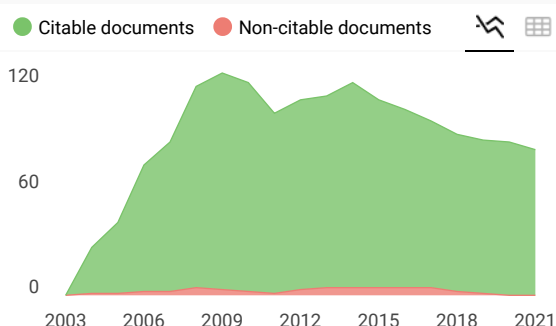
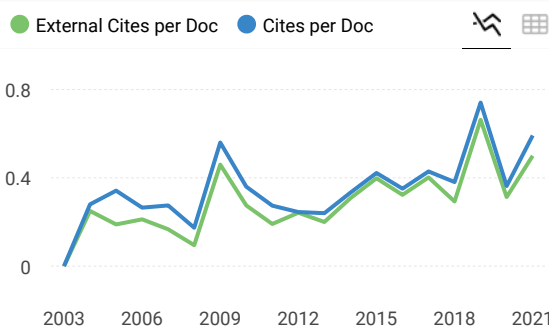
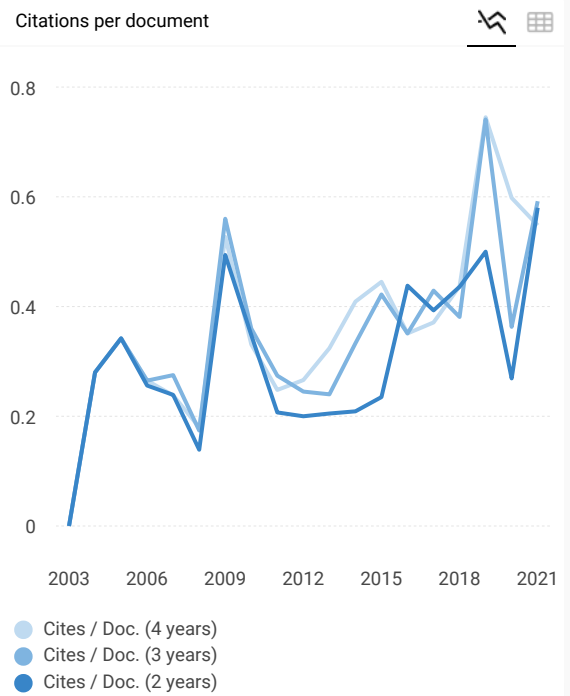
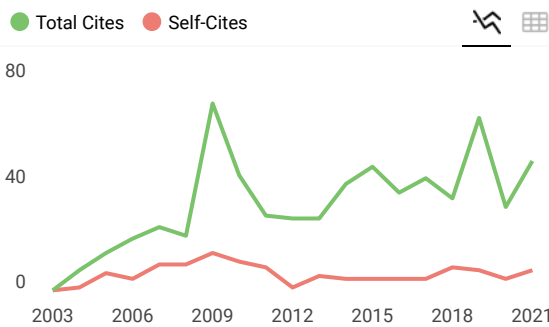
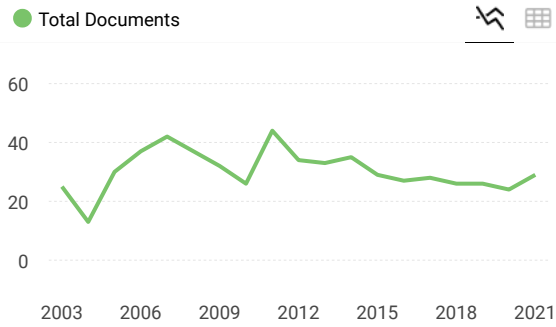
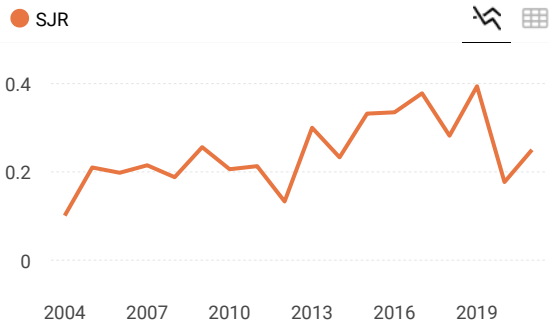
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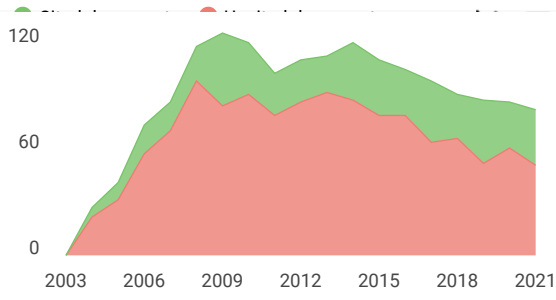
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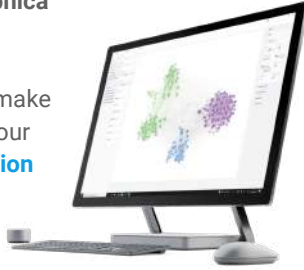
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## **The Relationship between Critical Thinking, Frequency, Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing**

**Nikoo Davarpanah , Siros Izadpanah\* , Parima Fasih**

Department of English Language Teaching, Islamic Azad University, Zanzan Branch, Iran

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### **Abstract**

The present study was an investigation of the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, their frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing. Few studies have been conducted to investigate these issues. To this end, 356-second grade female senior state high school students from four schools in Zanzan were selected through multistage cluster random sampling (MCRS) method and based on Cambridge placement test (2010); 130 students proved to be upper-intermediate and participated in this correlational study. The main data collection stage took place for one month. Then, the informal fallacies based on Johnson's definitions and four types of evidence categorized in Hoeke and Hustinx were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings. The evaluation of the arguments was also conducted based on Walton, Reed, and Macagno. Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant negative correlation observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation. Based on the results achieved from the second research question, there was a potential and significant correlation between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies.

**Keywords:** Argumentative Writing, Critical Thinking, Evidence, Informal Fallacy.

### **Introduction**

One of the most significant current discussions in the era of English language teaching and learning is writing instruction. It has always been considered as a challenge for language teachers and plays a key role in learning the second or foreign language (Abdelrahim and Abdelrahim 2020). Writing instruction is a reaction to the inner and outside world and development or revelation of several distinct human abilities (Hawkins, Martin, and Cooper 2019). Writing is one of the most important skills that should be taught to the students from the beginning till the end of high school by teachers carefully. As the main aim of teaching this skill is to enable students to write many types of writings in English such as report, descriptive, narrative and argumentative, etc. Learning writing skill is very important for students because a significant part of communication has a good writing skill and the students will be able to communicate in English language through writing and transfer information, knowledge and their ideas to others (Peterson 2019)

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It is clear that despite personal, social, and cultural differences between people, achieving proficiency, writing in a foreign language is not an impossible target, but the individual variables may affect the extent of achievement (Graham et al. 2019). Among these distinguishing variables, one variable that has received minimal attention in EFL contexts is learners' critical thinking (Torff 2019).

Like the other elements of this study, critical thinking is one of the broad categories of thinking skill and it was considered to be the most important writing skill in argumentation (Yousefi and Mohammadi 2016). Also, students' ability to write argumentatively mainly depends on their critical thinking skills (Abdelrahim and Abdelrahim 2020).

Another element of this study was fallacy. The absence or presence of fallacies and especially informal fallacies is one of the criteria in determining the quality of argumentative writings (de Swart 2018). The fallacy was characterized by (D.N. Walton 1991) as a pre-planned strategy of misleading argumentation used by one person in a dialogue to 'slip up' another party. Some research argued that the existence of high-quality argumentations and fallacy-free reasoning are among the major concerns in written discourse (Dufour 2019); (D Walton 2006); (Žagar 2018) and in students' argumentative writing (Gass and Seiter 2018); (Nickerson, Butler, and Barch 2019); (Tindale 2007). Previous research demonstrated that students' problems may stem from lack of sound and logical reasoning and persuasion along with traps such as fallacies of argumentation which at the first sight they may appear logical and convincing but at the second sight they contain mistakes in reasoning (Dufour 2019). These issues for EFL students become even much more terrible in international proficiency examinations such as GRE and IELTS, as pointed out by the Educational Testing Service centre (2009), when students are supposed to utilize essays and employ precise argumentations as an entrenched criterion of evaluation (Ben-Porath 2019).

Evidence was the last element of this research. Structure-based argumentation enables students to build up their thoughts in a reasonable organization, but this should include analysing the relevance of the considerable number of components, whether the case is supported soundly by the evidence, to guarantee the general quality of argumentative writing (Malpique and Veiga Simão 2019). Recognizing the significance of utilizing evidence to support one's claim in a satisfactory, applicable and sufficient manner is a fundamental part of judging argumentation (Stucki 2018); (Schlauffer, Stucki, and Sager 2018). Without well-organized evidence, the argumentative writing is circular of different repetitions of the claim without explicit purposes (Zhang 2018). Good arguments should comprise of true, reliable, and multiple justifications (Laurent and Duffield 2018). In other words, it is the soundness and validity of the evidence that account for the logic of argumentation. However, studies examining L2 learners' actual use of evidence in writing argumentation are few.

Hence, what has recently attracted the scholars' attention was mainly the learners' argumentative writing since the recent trends put high emphasis on critical thinking and power of argumentation (Alagozlu 2007). Nevertheless, what actually counts is no longer the argumentation itself but the power of convincing the audience. This is why enabling the learners to judge the coming ideas in terms of their rationality (Alagozlu 2007) as well as the three standards of relevance sufficiency, and acceptability (RSA) have come to the fore (Johnson 1999) due to their determining role in proving innovative ideas and findings. To this

end, avoiding any fallacy, i.e. "error in reasoning" in (Johnson 1999, 251), to strengthen the convincing power of arguing one's claims, seems vital.

The vitality of this issue becomes much more evident when it comes to the international exams, e.g. TOEFL, IELTS, in which language learners are engaged in serious writing tasks that should be convincing enough to bring about desirable scores. Additionally, the growing changes in the criteria for publishing articles in international journals has doubled the significance of presenting fallacy-free reasoning in order to justify the findings as rationally as possible. These all have added to the significance of argumentation text type especially in academic contexts (Németh and Kormos 2001). As a result, scholars have been involved in probing the structure of argumentation and identifying argumentation schemes for years (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008) in order to examine the quality of language learners' argumentative essays (Helms-Park and Stapleton 2003); (Liu and Braine 2005); (Qin and Karabacak 2010). However, as its development seems to be a prerequisite to success for those wishing to pursue their studies in a new language, writing is not often prioritized in modern communicative language classrooms, (Griffiths 2008). This might be why the available literature suggests the non-native speaking students' difficulty in their studies at the college or university level in English-speaking countries (Hinkel 2003).

The issue of EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing has received some interest in research over 20 years ago. However, in the last 5 years, in particular, the topic has rekindled both theoretical and empirical research interest and yet there is no general agreement about the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing and a major problem with all of the past studies is that they have not investigated the positive or negative relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency, and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writings, while this current research has comprehensively focused on these issues on 130-second grade senior state high school female students in Zanjan /Iran. So far, no one has investigated the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing on upper-intermediate female students, so these issues brought novelty to the present study.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the EFL learners' critical thinking, the frequency and types of informal fallacy and evidence in argumentative writing and the participants of this study were 130-second grade female senior high school students in Zanjan. The goal of this investigation was to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking, their frequency, and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?
2. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking, their frequency and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?

Null hypotheses

1. There is not any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their frequency and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?



2. There is not any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their frequency and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?

## **2. Literature review**

### *2.1 The Role of Thinking in Writing*

Composing writing not only needs good language proficiency but also needs to be critical as the writer examines viewpoints, facts, and arguments and synthesizes them. (Prihastuti, Padmadewi, and Ramendra 2020) pointed out that writing is more than a medium of communication. It is a way of remembering and a way of thinking as well. Writing makes words permanent, thus expands the collective memory of human beings from the relatively small store that we can remember. It means that when we write we use our thinking to find the idea while remembering patterns and language.

(Long, Tuzi, and Ziebart 2020) stated that writing is not confined to one stage of the composing process. At one stage you will think creatively, producing imaginative ideas or ways of expressing those ideas. At another stage you will think critically, evaluating the results of your creative thinking. In every stage of writing, we use our thinking to create, to investigate and to revise the idea.

Furthermore, writing can improve critical thinking skills. Writing makes you a stronger thinker. Writing reasoned paragraphs requires mental discipline and close attention to the set of logical rules. It will train your mind to think clearly and prove to be a value in every phase of your life. While writing can improve critical thinking, critical thinking is important to produce good writing (Greenberg 2015).

To sum up, writing is important to improve thinking skills such as critical and creative thinking. In similarity, critical thinking skill is also crucial in composing writing. It is because each process of writing requires some thinking skills. Therefore, without being able to think and also write critically, the writers cannot result in a piece of good writing.

### *2.2 Fallacy*

Fallacy is "an error in reasoning" (Johnson 1999, 251). As Johnson states, some fallacies which can be detected "by the examination of the form of the argument" are called formal fallacies while all other fallacies are called informal ones which can be detected "by the examination of the content rather than the form of the argument" (p. 251). (Tindale 2007) defined a fallacy as "a particular kind of egregious error" (p. 1). He believes that it undermines the strength of an argument. Here major informal fallacies along with their relevant argumentation schemes and their matching critical questions are presented.

### *2.3 Iranian and international Studies on Critical Thinking, the Frequency, and Types of Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing*

(Rahmah and Saminan 2020), in their study about the role of rational application on studying critical thinking skills in argumentative writing, aimed to evaluate innovative ways to teach argumentative writing using electronic learning. This paper will focus on writing skills because through writing students can express their ideas in written form. However, critical thinking skills in the learning process sometimes make it difficult for students to express and produce their ideas in writing, as a result, they are trapped in the

process of writing without being critical. Therefore, researchers promote "rational" applications as e-learning media to help students learn concepts, understand the structure of arguments, and develop reasoning skills. This paper uses a qualitative descriptive method to describe how teachers apply rational applications and how students think critically in their argumentative writing assignments. The results showed that rational application provides students not only with greater motivation to write and to involve their creativity in writing argumentative on structural elements in the (Kneupper 1978). It also explores the overall use of evidence in supporting claims. It was found that claim and data were the basic structural elements used by Chinese EFL learners in constructing argumentative writing. The respective use of counterargument data and rebuttal was significantly correlated with the quality of argumentation. In argumentative reasoning, the types of evidence and the number of evidences used by participants were very limited. The logical analysis was found to be the most frequently used data to support claims. Less proficient learners' use of evidence was not effective or persuasive to produce valid arguments. The findings provide useful insights into the instruction of argumentative writing for EFL teachers.

(Oaksford and Chater 2020) in their study about Logical Fallacies in EFL Learners' Argumentative Writing: Students' Perspectives, identified and discuss logical fallacies in the argumentative writing of EFL learners. For this purpose, 40 argumentative essays written by the students of the English Department of the State University of Malang were analysed. An FGD discussion involving students who participated in the essay writing process was organized following the identification of logical fallacies in their writing. The results of the study showed that students still produced a number of logical fallacies in their work, some of which were very basic they can be avoided through simple, explicit instruction.

### **3. Method**

#### *3.1 Design of study*

This study was a quantitative one as the research analysis used categorical and nonparametric data to test the hypotheses. The participants of this study were 130-second grade senior high school female students in Zanjan Province, who were selected through a multistage cluster random sampling method and correlational design was used in this research.

#### *3.2 Participants*

The participants of this study were 130-second grade senior high school students in Zanjan. Zanjan province has 8 cities, among these cities, Zanjan city was chosen. Zanjan city consists of two districts that the district one was randomly chosen. In 2019 in district one, there were 420 schools that among them senior high schools were randomly chosen. There were 42 senior high schools in district one that 22 of them were for girls and 20 schools were for boys. Among them state senior high schools were randomly chosen, and 12 senior high schools were for girls. The second level students of 4 senior high schools for girls included: Shahed, Farhikhtegan, Nesa and Hejab senior high schools were randomly chosen. There were 3-second grade classes in each of them and two classes of each were randomly chosen for this study.

The statistical populations of this study were 3492-second grade senior high school students in the first district of Zanjan. According to the Cochran formula, 346 participants were selected and in order to increase the accuracy and to have homogeneous groups, 10 more participants were added and totally of 356 female students participated in this study. Based on the rules of CPT (2010), out of 356 students, 130 students were proved to be upper-intermediate.

### 3.3 Instruments

The following instruments were employed in order to collect the required data for the present study:

Cambridge Placement Test (2010) by Cambridge University Press

California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST)

The Persian Version of California Critical Thinking Skills Test

Writing Task

#### 3.3.1 Pilot Study

California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) was piloted on 30 upper-intermediate students with similar educational background, in order to obtain the reliability for the tests. To be statistically acceptable, the internal consistency and reliability co-efficient were measured using Cronbach Alpha. The test-retest reliability of these tests with the one-week interval was ( $\alpha = .82$ ) which showed an acceptable reliability value. For the writing task, five topics were selected from IELTS writing tasks, in order to select the target topic of the study, all of the five topics were piloted by five experienced language instructors and then, based on their comments one topic was adopted. In topic selection, content validity was evaluated using Lawsh CVR (Content Validity Ratio) and CVI (Content Validity Index). Lawsh formula is as follows:

$$CVR = \frac{(N_e - N \div 2)}{(N \div 2)}$$

According to the Lawsh CVR, an item should gain CVR of higher than 0.42 in order to be validated. The results of the reviewed and validated topics were included in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Content Validity Ratio of Selected Topics measured by Lawsh Formula.

Vocabulary items	Number of experts agreed with topic	CVR	Valid
Topic 1	5	0.6	Valid
Topic 2	1	0.4	Invalid
Topic 3	5	0.6	Valid
Topic 4	4	0.4	Valid
Topic 5	1	0.1	Invalid

Then CVI of the topics was calculated using (Waltz and Bausell 1981) CVI formula is as follows:

$$CVI = \frac{\text{Number of experts who scored item 3 or 4}}{\text{Total number of experts}}$$

It should be mentioned that the acceptable index of CVI equals 0.79 and if there is a topic with CVI lower than 0.79, the topic should be removed. In other words, a panel of experts determined whether the selected topics are “necessary” to be included in the study based on a 4-point Likert scale. Experts indicated their opinions on each word using 1 (It is not necessary), 2 (It is rather necessary), 3 (It is necessary), and 4 (It is completely necessary). The results related to CVI calculations were presented in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Content Validity Index of Selected Topics.

<b>Vocabulary items</b>	<b>Number of experts considered the topic completely necessary</b>	<b>Number of experts considered the topic necessary</b>	<b>CVI</b>	<b>Accepted or Not accepted</b>
<b>Topic 1</b>	2	1	0.6	Not accepted
<b>Topic 2</b>	2	1	0.6	Not accepted
<b>Topic 3</b>	1	0	0.2	Not accepted
<b>Topic 4</b>	4	1	1	Accepted
<b>Topic 5</b>	2	0	0.6	Not Accepted

### 3.4 Procedure

The main data collection stage took place for one month (eight sessions), based on the works of previous researchers in the field of critical thinking and argumentative writing. The Cambridge Placement Test was administered to assure the homogeneity regarding the participants' level of proficiency.

In the second stage, the students provided their answers to the excepted items from the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Firstly, the participants were not asked to fill out their real names, but they were asked to choose a nickname and write it on the paper. After that, they were asked to read the direction of the test. The researcher explained the direction of the test and how to answer the test. After the participants were ready, the test was started and the researcher supervised the test took place. The participants had to finish 34 questions of critical thinking test in 50 minutes.

Finally, the writing test was conducted on the same day directly after the participants finished the Critical Thinking Test., they were asked to write their nickname and read the direction. Then, the participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with the length of at least 250 words. A word limit was set for the length of their essays and those essays of less than 100-word length were omitted from the sample of the study (20 out of 130 essays). The researchers by the help of the teachers were administered the test in a natural setting as possible to prevent the sensitization of students to the research objectives.

Three main paradigms were used in order to evaluate the argumentation and to identify the informal fallacies and evidence. The techniques of exposing the arguments and methods of identifying the informal fallacies were employed based on (Johnson 1999) the techniques of identifying the evidence were employed based on (Hoeken and Hustinx 2009) and finally, evaluation of the arguments was done based on (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008) in which several critical questions accompanying a host of argumentation schemes were presented.

Then, the informal fallacies were identified based on (Johnson 1999) definitions and presented clues. Having identified the informal fallacies, each argument was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008). Nine categories of informal fallacies that were investigated and counted within language learners' argumentative writings in this study were: Ad hominem, Appeal to tradition, Begging the question, Faulty analogy, False dichotomy, Hasty generalization, Post hoc, Red herring, and RSA.

Additionally, four types of evidence categorized in (Hoeken and Hustinx 2009) were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings including a) Statistical, b) Anecdotal, c) Causal, d) Expert evidence. Anecdotal (or narrative) evidence consists of one case, whereas statistical evidence consists of numerical information about a large number of cases. Causal evidence consists of an explanation, and expert evidence consists of confirmation by an expert.

The argumentation schemes suggested by (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008), however, are more detailed and embrace a compendium of ninety-six schemes. While in Johnson, R.M.' model (1998), one should rely on the evaluation direction justifications to pick up an informal fallacy in the argument, Walton et al.'s model, by providing critical questions, helps the analyst to proceed step by step through answering the questions that include all possible ways the given argument could be considered as a valid argument and fallacy-free, or include a potential fallacy. Besides, in Walton et., al's (ibid) model, each argument may have different forms; hence, to pick up the related fallacy, one should go through all different related schemes. To ensure the reliability of the data coding, a third analyst worked on half of the samples selected randomly and analysed the arguments based on the steps provided above. If there was any disagreement in the mentioned steps between the three analysts, the data would be reconsidered until an agreement was achieved.

Moreover, to improve the reliability of the evaluation and identification procedure, another rater (an ELT professor) was asked to check the identified informal fallacies and evidence types. In this regard, whenever the disagreement occurred, both the researcher and the other rater discussed the issue until they came to an agreement upon the identified fallacy or evidence.

To clarify the evaluation procedure, one example of an argument from analogy is illustrated here based on its argumentation schemes and the matching critical questions.

(Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008) presented the following argumentation schemes for an argument from analogy (p. 315):

Similarity Premise: Generally, case C1 is similar to case C2.

Base Premise: A is true (false) in case C1.

Conclusion: A is true (false) in case of C2.

They also put forth the following critical questions on the same page to evaluate this argument:

1. Are there differences between C1 and C2 that would tend to undermine the force of the similarity cited?
2. Is A true (false) in C1?
3. Is there some other case C3 that is also similar to C1, but in which A is false (true)?

## Results

The distribution method of research variables based on the most important central indexes of mean, dispersion, and standard deviation were investigated. In Table 3, the descriptive statistics of the participants' critical thinking and frequency and types of informal fallacies and evidence were demonstrated.

The Relationship between Critical Thinking, Frequency, Informal Fallacy and Evidence in Argumentative Writing

**Table 3:** Descriptive Statistics of Critical Thinking, Type and Frequency of Informal Fallacies and Evidence Types

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>Critical thinking</b>	130	1.00	4.00	1.9231	.92858
<b>Frequency of fallacies</b>	130	.00	9.00	4.9692	1.94872
<b>Ad Hominem</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6846	.46647
<b>Appeal to tradition</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4077	.49331
<b>Begging the question</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4385	.49812
<b>Fallacy of either/or dichotomy</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5769	.49596
<b>Faulty analogy</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6077	.49015
<b>Hasty generalization</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5769	.49596
<b>Post hoc</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5692	.49710
<b>Red herring</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5385	.50045
<b>RSA</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5692	.49710
<b>Frequency of evidences</b>	130	.00	4.00	2.2308	1.27309
<b>Evidence type 1 (Statistical)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5615	.49812
<b>Evidence type 2 (Anecdotal)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.5846	.49469
<b>Evidence type 3 (Causal)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.4769	.50140
<b>Evidence type 4 (Expert evidence)</b>	130	.00	1.00	.6077	.49015

#### 4. Result

First research question was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?

For data analysis of the null hypothesis, which was: “There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing”, and the alternative hypothesis, which was: “There is a significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing”, a Spearman correlation was applied using SPSS software. A statistically significant negative relationship was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation was ( $r = -0.366$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (See Table 4).

**Table 4:** The Results of Correlation between Learners' Critical Thinking and the Frequency of Fallacies

	<b>Frequency of evidences</b>	
<b>Critical thinking</b>	Correlation Coefficient	-.366**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	130

Table 5 also demonstrates the results of the correlations between critical thinking and types of fallacies in students' writings.

**Table 5:** The Results of Correlation between Learners' Use of Nine Categories of Informal Fallacies and their Critical Thinking

	<b>Critical thinking</b>
<b>Ad hominem</b>	.026
<b>Appeal to tradition</b>	-.091
<b>Begging the question</b>	-.254**
<b>Fallacy of either/or dichotomy</b>	-.463**
<b>Faulty analogy</b>	-.418**
<b>Hasty generalization</b>	.064
<b>Post hoc</b>	-.006
<b>Red herring</b>	-.281**
<b>RSA</b>	-.073

As Table 5 depicts, there is also a significant correlation between Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' critical thinking and some of the categories of informal fallacies. The obtained results are as follows: critical thinking and (1) begging the question ( $r = -0.254$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), (2) Fallacy of either/or dichotomy ( $r = -0.463$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), (3) Faulty analogy ( $r = -0.418$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and (4) Red herring ( $r = -0.281$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Though, no significant relations were observed between critical thinking and (1) Ad hominem ( $r=0.026$ ), (2) appeal to tradition ( $r=-0.091$ ), (3) Hasty generalization ( $r = 0.064$ ), (4) Post hoc ( $r = -0.006$ ), and (5) RSA ( $-0.073$ ).

The second research question was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?

For data analysis of the null hypothesis, which was: "There is no significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing", and the alternative hypothesis, which was: "There is a significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing", a Spearman correlation was conducted. The findings of the study suggest that there is a significant relationship between Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' critical thinking and the frequency of use of evidence types in their argumentative essays ( $r = 0.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 6).

**Table 6:** The Results of Correlation between Learners' Critical Thinking and the Frequency of Evidences.

	<b>Frequency of evidences</b>	
<b>Critical thinking</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.64**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	130

Table 7 shows the findings related to the potential relationships between critical thinking and categories of evidences.

**Table 7:** The Results of Correlation between Learners' Use of Four Categories of Evidence Types and Critical Thinking.

	<b>Critical thinking</b>
<b>Evidence type 1 (Statistical)</b>	.516**
<b>Evidence type 2 (Anecdotal)</b>	.210*
<b>Evidence type 3 (Causal)</b>	.689**
<b>Evidence type 4 (Expert evidence)</b>	.197*

As Table 7 indicates, significant correlations were observed between the language learners' critical thinking and their use of four categories of evidence, including Statistical ( $r = 0.516$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), Anecdotal ( $r = 0.210$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), Causal ( $r = 0.689$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and Expert evidence ( $r = 0.197$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

## 5. Discussion

The primary research question for this investigation was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing?

The present investigation involved 130-second grade female senior high school students in Zanjan/Iran. The students were provided their answers to the excepted items from the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Also, the participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with the length of at least 250 words. Then, the informal fallacies were identified based on (Johnson 1999) definitions and presented clues. Having identified the informal fallacies, each argument was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008). Nine categories of informal fallacies that were investigated and counted within language learners' argumentative writings in this study were: Ad hominem, Appeal to tradition, Begging the question, Faulty analogy, False dichotomy, Hasty generalization, Post hoc, Red herring, and RSA. 'The overall Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test to assess progress in critical thinking after a year of intensive academic English instruction for 36 Japanese students enrolled in a private two-year women's junior college in Osaka, Japan (D.N. Walton 1991). A control group received only content-based intensive English instruction, while the treatment group received additional training in critical thinking. The treatment group scored significantly higher on the test (" $p$ " =0.000). The results imply that critical thinking skills can indeed be taught as part of academic EFL/ESL instruction.

Considering the previous findings with regard to the critical thinking, it could be concluded that this type of critical thinking would seemingly predict the learners' overall proficiency (Saidi 2020), strategy use (Akbari and Hosseini 2008), and their use of informal fallacies and evidence types according to the results of this study. Nevertheless, notwithstanding the results of (Marefat 2007) who came up with no predictive role of this critical thinking for the writing scores of EFL learners, the findings of this study demonstrate the existence of a significant relationship regarding the frequency of informal fallacies and evidence types as two indicators of the quality of argumentation (Saidi 2020) which is in line with the results of some other studies in which multiple intelligences proved to be of contributing effect on the learners' writing skills (Borek 2003); (Eng and Mustapha 2010).

Finally, (Kealey, Holland, and Watson 2005), in their study about Preliminary evidence on the association between critical thinking and performance in principles of accounting, tested whether critical-thinking skills can help explain the cross-sectional variation in student performance in principles of accounting. Prior research has used such measures as academic aptitude and demographic factors to explain performance in the principles of accounting class. We argue that success in principles of accounting also requires critical-thinking skills. We measured critical-thinking skills by using a holistic scoring process to



evaluate student essays. Our results show that even after controlling for academic aptitude, our measure of critical-thinking skills contributes significantly to explaining the cross-sectional variation in student performance in an accounting principles class. Understanding the relationship between critical thinking and success in accounting may contribute not only to reducing the failure rate in principles of accounting but also to encouraging an emphasis on critical thinking in the preparation of accounting professionals.

The practical significance of this research question was to consider the effective relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their frequency and types of informal fallacies in their argumentative writing the students in the second level of high school and also it can be used for different levels in different academic places.

The second research question for this investigation was: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their use and types of evidence in their argumentative writing?

The present investigation involved 130-second grade female senior high school students in Zanjan/Iran. The students were provided their answers to the excepted items from the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to determine their critical thinking scores. Also, the participants were asked to write an argumentative essay and to discuss their own reasons, with the length of at least 250 words. Then, four types of evidence categorized in (Hoeken and Hustinx 2009)) were identified and counted within language learners' argumentative writings including a) Statistical, b) Anecdotal, c) Causal, d) Expert evidence. Having identified the evidence, each argument was also evaluated by means of evaluation schemes presented by (Douglas Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008)The overall findings determined that there were potential and significant relationships between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies within language learners' argumentative writings.

With regard to the second research question, the results of the study suggest that critical thinking has relationship with and their frequency and types of evidence in their argumentative writing. The students who got high scores in critical thinking, had high scores in argumentative writing and the students who got low scores in critical thinking had low scores in argumentative writing. Therefore, the results of this study show there is a high relationship between critical thinking and students' argumentative writing. Rashid and (Abdul Rashid and Awang Hashim 2008) also present that critical thinking highly affects ESL learners' overall language proficiency.

The present findings also assert that writing skill, which is a part of general language proficiency, could be improved via making the learners aware of the principles of critical thinking. (Mujtaba, Parkash, and Nawaz 2020)also present that critical thinking strategies could be trained to the students so that they could be able to write more analytical pieces of writing. What is mostly emphasized in the literature is that critical thinking and the language skill desired to develop both should be practiced and energized through continual refreshing.

The current investigation was in line with some details with previous and similar research about the relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their frequency and types of evidence in their argumentative writing such as (Kennison 2006); (Monteira and Jiménez-Aleixandre 2016); (Nikou, Bonyadi, and Amirikar 2015); (Short, Van der Eb, and McKay 2020); (Yousefi and Mohammadi 2016).

Also, this study was not in line with some previous studies. For example, Stapleton (2001) in his study about *Assessing Critical Thinking in the Writing of Japanese University Students: Insights about Assumptions and Content Familiarity* proposed a model for assessing critical thinking in the writing of L2 learners to determine whether content familiarity plays a role in critical thinking. Findings of a study of 45 Japanese undergraduate students indicate that the quality of critical thought depended on the topic content, with a familiar topic generating better critical thinking. Results also suggested that different assumptions between the L1 and L2 culture may lead to misinterpretations of the critical thinking ability of L2 learners.

Furthermore, (Zarei and Haghgoo 2012) in their study about *The Relationship between Critical Thinking and L2 Grammatical and Lexical Knowledge* study investigated the relationship between critical thinking and L2 grammatical knowledge on the one hand, and the relationship between critical thinking and lexical knowledge on the other. To fulfil this objective, a 60-item vocabulary and grammar subtest of the TOEFL test and an 80-item Watson Glaser Critical Thinking questionnaire were distributed among 150 male and female Iranians studying English as a foreign language at Azad University in Takestan, Iran. Data were analysed using the Pearson correlation procedure. The result of the data analysis indicated that the correlation between vocabulary and critical thinking was not statistically significant. The correlation between grammar and critical thinking was not statistically significant.

The practical significance of this research question was to consider the effective relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their frequency and types of evidence in their argumentative writing the students in the second level of high school and also it can be used for different levels in different academic places.

## **6. Conclusion**

Based on the results achieved from the first research question, there was a significant correlation between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies. A statistically significant negative relationship was observed between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies in their written argumentation.

Based on the results achieved from the second research question, there was a potential and significant relationship between the participants' critical thinking and the frequency of use of informal fallacies.

## العلاقة بين التفكير النقدي والتكرار والمغالطة غير الرسمية والأدلة في الكتابة الجدلية

نيكو دافارباناه، سيروس إيزادباناه، بريما فاسيح

قسم تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية، جامعة آزاد الإسلامية، فرع زنجان، إيران

### الملخص

كانت الدراسة الحالية عبارة عن تحقيق في العلاقة بين التفكير النقدي لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية لغةً أجنبية . وتواتر المغالطة غير الرسمية وأنماطها، والأدلة في الكتابة الجدلية. وقد أجريت دراسات قليلة للتحقيق في هذه القضايا. وتحقيقاً لهذه الغاية ، تم اختيار 356 طالبة في الصف الثاني الثانوي في المدارس الثانوية الحكومية في زنجان / إيران من 4 مدارس ثانوية عليا من خلال طريقة أخذ العينات العشوائية العنقودية متعددة المراحل (MCRS) واستناداً إلى اختبار تحديد المستوى في كامبريدج (2010)، فقد أثبتت 130 طالبة منهن كُنَّ فوق المتوسط وشاركن في هذه الدراسة الارتباطية. جرت المرحلة الرئيسية لجمع البيانات لمدة شهر واحد. ثم ، تم تحديد المغالطات غير الرسمية التي تستند إلى تعريفات (جونسون) وأربعة أنواع من الأدلة المصنفة في Hoeke و Hustinkx وحُسبت في كتابات متعلمي اللغة الجدلية. وقِيَمَت الحجاج أيضاً استناداً إلى (والتون) و(ريد) و(ماكانيو) بناءً على النتائج التي تم تحقيقها من السؤال البحثي الأول ، وقد لوحظ وجود ارتباط سلبي كبير بين التفكير النقدي للمشاركين وتواتر استخدام المغالطات غير الرسمية في حججهم المكتوبة. وبناءً على النتائج التي تم تحقيقها من سؤال البحث الثاني ، كان هناك ارتباط محتمل وهام بين التفكير النقدي للمشاركين وتواتر استخدام المغالطات غير الرسمية. الكلمات المفتاحية: الكتابة الجدلية ، التفكير النقدي ، الإثبات ، المغالطة غير الرسمية.

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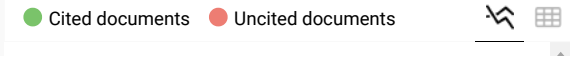
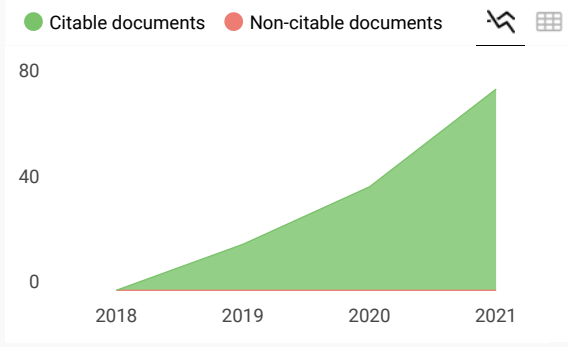
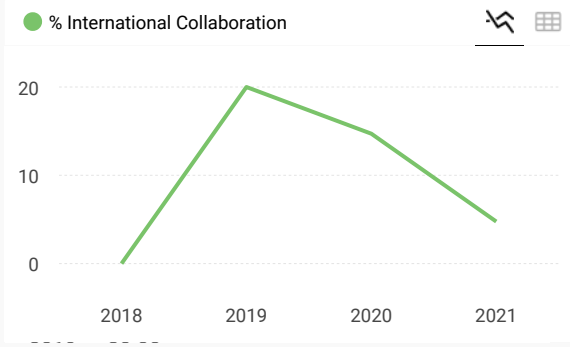
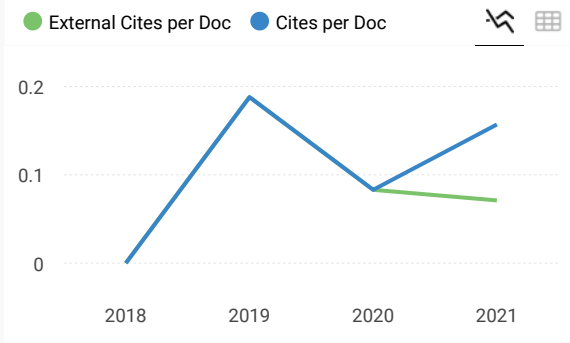
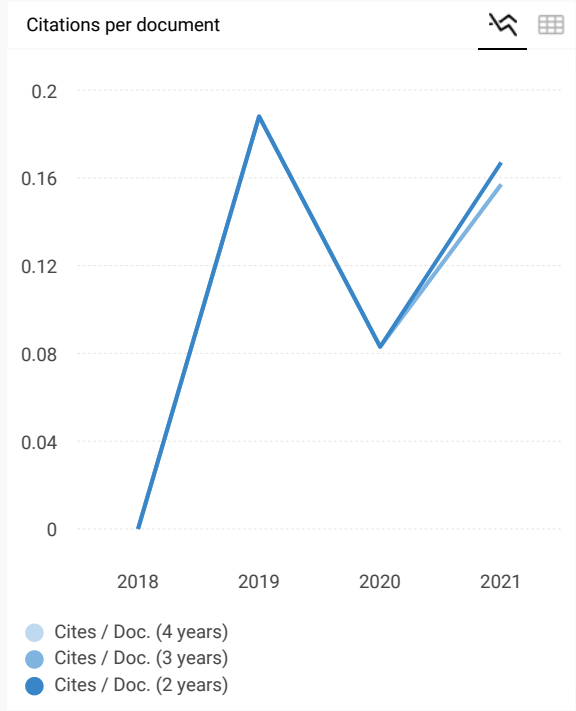
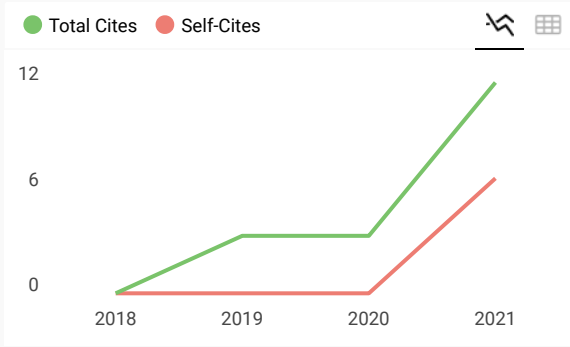
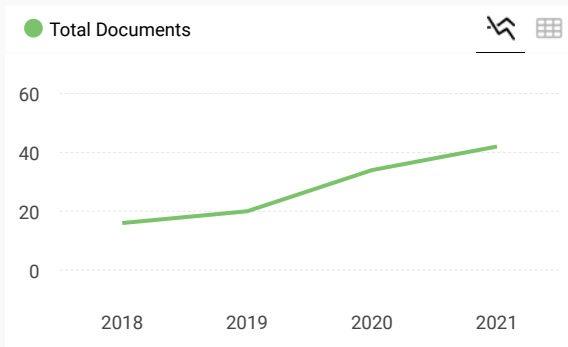
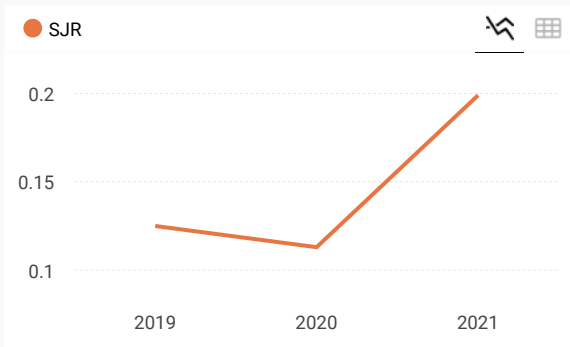
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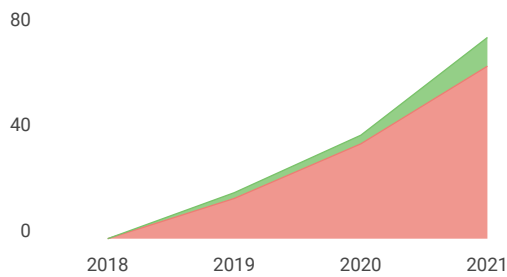
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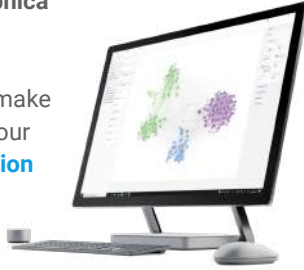
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← reply



**Abdulhadi** 10 months ago

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**Melanie Ortiz** 11 months ago

SCImago Team

Dear Amine, thank you very much for your comment. Unfortunately, we cannot help you with your request, we suggest you contact the journal's editorial staff so they could inform you more deeply. Best Regards, SCImago Team



Rohmani Nur Indah &lt;indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id&gt;

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**[jotse] Article Review Request 1253**

1 message

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**Journal of Technology and Science Education** <info@jotse.org>  
Reply-To: Dra María Martínez Martínez <rosario.martinez@upc.edu>  
To: Rohmani Nur Indah <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>

Tue, Mar 30, 2021 at 1:39 AM

Dear Rohmani Nur Indah:

I believe that you would serve as an excellent reviewer of the manuscript, "CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' THINKING PROCESS THROUGH ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION FRAMEWORK," which has been submitted to Journal of Technology and Science Education. The submission's abstract is inserted below, and I hope that you will consider undertaking this important task for us.

Please log into the journal website in 3 days (maximum) to indicate whether you will undertake the review or not, as well as to access the submission and to record your review and recommendation. We ask you to register as soon as possible your decision in order not to delay the review process too much. The web site is <http://www.jotse.org/index.php/jotse>.

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Submission URL:

<http://www.jotse.org/index.php/jotse/reviewer/submission/1935?key=p6j9wmxi>

Thank you for considering this request.

Dra María Martínez Martínez  
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya  
UPC BARCELONA TECH  
Phone 682383824  
[rosario.martinez@upc.edu](mailto:rosario.martinez@upc.edu)

"CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' THINKING PROCESS THROUGH ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION FRAMEWORK"

Abstract

This research aims to explore the college students' thinking process in constructing their knowledge based on the assimilation and accommodation scheme. This is due to the inability of a part of the students at the university level in constructing their thought to obtain a new knowledge through the thinking process. Piaget said that assimilation and accommodation were the adaptation process of individuals to their environment based on cognitive structures through stimulus and response. This research was conducted on 22 students of Mathematics Education at three different universities in East Java, Indonesia, then 3 students were selected to be the research subjects. The selection of research subjects was based on their oral and written communication skills related to the

thinking process carried out when completing a mathematical proving problem. The main instrument in this qualitative research was the researcher herself, assisted by mathematical proving test and interview instruments. The test instrument consisted of mathematical proving cases related to semigroups in abstract algebra. Data analysis in this research was conducted by observing the subjects' thinking process in constructing their knowledge based on assimilation and accommodation scheme. From the results of the research, it was found that the students did the thinking process to construct their knowledge based on the assimilation and accommodation scheme through 5 stages, namely the identification, determining the mathematical rules to be used, proving by means of symbol manipulation, reviewing, and justifying.

Dra María Martínez Martínez  
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya  
UPC BARCELONA TECH  
Phone 682383824  
[rosario.martinez@upc.edu](mailto:rosario.martinez@upc.edu)  
María Martínez Martínez

---

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Rohmani Nur Indah &lt;indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id&gt;

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**[jotse] Article Review Completed**

1 message

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**Journal of Technology and Science Education** <info@jotse.org>

Mon, Apr 12, 2021 at 3:52 PM

Reply-To: Rohmani Nur Indah &lt;indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id&gt;

Cc: María Martínez Martínez &lt;rosario.martinez@upc.edu&gt;

María Martínez Martínez:

I have now completed my review of "CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' THINKING PROCESS THROUGH ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION FRAMEWORK" for Journal of Technology and Science Education, and submitted my recommendation, "Revisions Required."

Rohmani Nur Indah

---

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Rohmani Nur Indah &lt;indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id&gt;

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**[jotse] Article Review Acknowledgement**

1 message

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**Journal of Technology and Science Education** <info@jotse.org>  
Reply-To: Dra María Martínez Martínez <rosario.martinez@upc.edu>  
To: Rohmani Nur Indah <indah@bsi.uin-malang.ac.id>

Mon, Apr 12, 2021 at 8:44 PM

Dear Rohmani Nur Indah:

Thank you for completing the review of the submission, "CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' THINKING PROCESS THROUGH ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION FRAMEWORK," for Journal of Technology and Science Education. We appreciate your contribution to the quality of the work that we publish.

Dra María Martínez Martínez  
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya  
UPC BARCELONA TECH  
Phone 682383824  
[rosario.martinez@upc.edu](mailto:rosario.martinez@upc.edu)  
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# CONSTRUCTING STUDENTS' THINKING PROCESS THROUGH ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION FRAMEWORK

## Abstract

This research aims to explore the college students' thinking process in constructing their knowledge based on the assimilation and accommodation scheme. This is due to the inability of a part of the students at the university level in constructing their thought to obtain a new knowledge through the thinking process. Piaget said that assimilation and accommodation were the adaptation process of individuals to their environment based on cognitive structures through stimulus and response. This research was conducted on 22 students of Mathematics Education at three different universities in East Java, Indonesia, then 3 students were selected to be the research subjects. The selection of research subjects was based on their oral and written communication skills related to the thinking process carried out when completing a mathematical proving problem. The main instrument in this qualitative research was the researcher herself, assisted by mathematical proving test and interview instruments. The test instrument consisted of mathematical proving cases related to semigroups in abstract algebra. Data analysis in this research was conducted by observing the subjects' thinking process in constructing their knowledge based on assimilation and accommodation scheme. From the results of the research, it was found that the students did the thinking process to construct their knowledge based on the assimilation and accommodation scheme through 5 stages, namely the identification, determining the mathematical rules to be used, proving by means of symbol manipulation, reviewing, and justifying.

**Keyword:** Thinking process, Students, Assimilation and Accommodation

## Introduction

The thinking process is an important component for knowing one's abilities and talents in learning mathematics (Polly et al., 2007; Uyangör, 2019). Thinking can be said as a tool for learning mathematics (As'ari et al., 2019). Students can learn facts, concepts, principles, and procedures of mathematical problem solving through the thinking process. The thinking process includes reasoning that occurs through a mental activity in the students' brain. This reasoning can occur when the students are performing algebraic operations, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, reflective thinking, or analytical thinking. This process is not only to produce abstract mathematical numbers and concepts but also as an important skill in thinking analytically and logically, and also in reasoning quantitatively (Onal et al., 2017). Thinking is an skill needed for communication, collaboration, global awarness, mastery technology, learning, and innovation require (Arifin et al., 2020). Asking questions to the students is a communication tool to know their thinking process (Zayyadi et al., 2019) The thinking process can also be said as a tool to construct one's knowledge (Fisher, 2005).

Piaget said that the thinking process could be done through a construction process that occurred based on the previous knowledge to gain a new one. This construction could have occurred through five components, namely activating previous knowledge, owning and understanding a new knowledge, using the knowledge, then reflecting (Aseeri, 2020). Construction was the process of student interaction related to previously owned ideas with new ideas to understand a concept being studied. Construction could be combined with interaction because of the existence of knowledge that were being used to perform a mental activity (Guler & Gurbuz, 2018).

The mental activity of the students at university in constructing their schemes can be done through solving mathematical problems. There are two mathematical problems namely the problem of finding and the problem of proving (Baroody, 1993). A problem in mathematics will be a problem for students if they need an effort to solve it. The effort made by students in solving mathematical problems is a thinking process that occurs in their brain based on the schemes they already have. The use of knowledge schemes to solve mathematical proving problems that have never been proven before can occur intuitively or analytically (Faizah et al., 2020b). Thinking intuitively is a thinking process that occurs quickly without any reasoning (Macchi & Bagassi, 2012). Solving problems of mathematical proof by thinking intuitively may be right or wrong. In some cases, students gave a correct answer but the reason

### Commented [In1]:

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If this fact is inferred from the result of a preliminary study, the details should be elaborated in the introduction section

### Commented [In2]:

This information belongs to general knowledge on the mechanism of qualitative research design. You need to describe the function of the test and interview instead.



50 related to the concept used was wrong, or the answer was incorrect but the concept was correct. The  
51 students can make mistakes in solving mathematical proving problems because they use their intuition.  
52 The students assume that the use of mathematical rules such as the Lagrange theorem and isomorphic  
53 are appropriate to complete the proof of subgroups in abstract algebra (Leron, 2014). The students  
54 make mistake because they use the concept of Lagrange's Theorem but they are not able to give a  
55 correct conclusion.

56 Students are able to combine intuitive and analytical thinking to make reasoning in solving  
57 mathematical problems (Macchi & Bagassi, 2012). Intuitive and analytical thinking are two different  
58 things. Intuitive thinking is a model of thinking that occurs quickly and the process is connected to each  
59 other starting from the feeling, holistic, and natural. While the analytical thinking is a model of thinking  
60 that is done through a slow process related to mathematical rules (Rusou et al., 2013). Analytical  
61 thinking is related to situations, practices, statements, ideas, theories, and arguments (Thaneeerananon  
62 et al., 2016). The process of analytical thinking starts from observation, determining the supporting  
63 rules, checking, or rejecting intuitive responses (Sternberg et al., 2008). The supporting rules act as a  
64 guarantor for the students in giving reason for each step of the mathematical proof (Faizah et al.,  
65 2020a).

66 The thinking process that involves reasoning can be said as thinking analytically, because analytical  
67 thinking has several categories namely modeling, reasoning, symbolizing, representing, proving,  
68 abstracting, and mathematizing (Lopez & Tancinco, 2016; Robbins, 2011). Therefore, the analytical  
69 thinking process can be interpreted as a mental activity that occurs in the brain in order to observe and  
70 determine the rules for outlining the resolution of mathematical problems. Whereas intuitive thinking is  
71 a thinking process to solve mathematical problems quickly, unconsciously, and based on the feelings  
72 that occurs naturally (Iannello & Antonietti, 2008; Leron & Hazzan, 2009; Lopez & Tancinco, 2016).

## 73 2. Assimilation and Accommodation Framework

74 Piaget's theory states that there are two kinds of adaptation process of each individual to their  
75 environment, namely assimilation and accommodation (Kaasila, et al., 2014). Piaget divided the  
76 intellectual growth that occurred through one's mental activity into the following six steps: reflexively,  
77 obtained through a fundamental adaptation, interest on a new situation, relation to new discoveries,  
78 then combining the discoveries in mental activities (Piaget, 1965). A new scheme obtained by the  
79 students could be included in the assimilation object by organizing a new definition. The scheme on  
80 Piaget's theory contained assimilation and accommodation as a process of knowledge translation. Both  
81 of these were influenced by the development of Piaget's theory in mathematics learning (Ernest, 2003).

82 Assimilation was a process carried out by students in inserting a new stimulus into the existing scheme.  
83 The assimilation was a positive influence of the environment that occurred on one's mental activity. At  
84 the time a new object was being assimilated into the existing scheme, then the existing scheme was  
85 getting an improvement. While the accommodation was a process of adjusting the schemes carried out  
86 by students to build a new scheme. Accommodation indicated that the process that was being done by  
87 the student was influenced by the object being transformed. In other words, assimilation and  
88 accommodation could be represented as an interaction between the subject and the object so that  
89 assimilation and accommodation were closely related (Zhiqing, 2015). At the time when assimilation is  
90 dominated by a new scheme, then the scheme is a part of the accommodation. Therefore, assimilation  
91 can occur even though there is no accommodation, but accommodation cannot occur if the assimilation  
92 has not occurred yet.

93 Students can construct their knowledge when doing the assimilation to form a new scheme.  
94 Assimilation and accommodation are the adaptation process to the environment based on cognitive  
95 structures. Assimilation is the process of interpreting an event by using the existing cognitive structures.  
96 While accommodation is the process of increasing knowledge by modifying the existing knowledge or  
97 cognitive structures to gain a new experience (Netti et al., 2016; Kaasila et al., 2014). Therefore, in the  
98 process of assimilation, a new stimulus is directly absorbed and integrated into the existing knowledge  
99 schemes. Meanwhile the process of accommodation on the existing knowledge structures cannot  
100 directly absorb the new stimulus; it needs a phase to integrate the stimulus. The process of assimilation

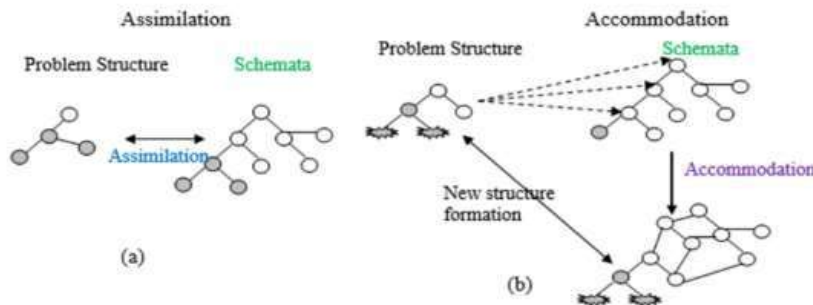
### Commented [In3]:

Starting from this point of view, you need to bridge it with the cases in Indonesia as the context of your study. Is it similar or is there any difference?

### Commented [In4]:

Review of related literature is blended in introduction so that it supports the theoretical bases of this study.

101 and accommodation can be illustrated into a diagram that was able to help us in understanding the  
 102 process or procedure of those two adaptation process (Subanji & Nusantara, 2016).



103 Figure 1. Assimilation and Accommodation Process

104 In figure 1 (a), it can be seen that assimilation occurs when the structure of the problem is in accordance with the existing scheme. It will be interpreted directly into the correct way in order to form new structures. In figure 1 (b), it can be seen that the structure of the thinking scheme does not match with the structure of the problem. When interpreting correctly, the students need to convert the new scheme with the existing schemes in order to create a new thinking structure related to the problem. Therefore, the thinking activity through the assimilation and accommodation framework in this research can be seen in Table 1.

**Commented [In5]:**  
 Missing detail information, in whose context is it? Is it from Netty et al. 2016 or Subanji & Nusantara, 2016?  
  
 Because your work is a case study, you need to elaborate the result of your preliminary analysis to strengthen the argument on the reason of choosing the research subject

Thinking Process	Mental Activity
Assimilation	Employing an existing scheme to solve a mathematical proof problema
Accommodation	Employing both the existing scheme and a new scheme in order to solve mathematical proof problems

111 Table 1. Thinking Activity

112  
 113 **3. Research Problem**

114 Thinking analytically is a highly necessary thinking process to solve mathematical proof problems. At the university level, these problems are formal so that an analytical thinking capability is needed. However, there are still students who complete the mathematical proving problems related to abstract algebra intuitively (Korolova & Zeidmane, 2016). Intuitive mathematical proving is not necessarily wrong but students may use the wrong concept to solve the problems. Some students solved subgroup problems in abstract algebra by using the Lagrange Theorem because they understand only the Lagrange Theorem concept and do not understand subgroups (Leron & Hazzan, 2009; Leron, 2014). Therefore, students who complete an abstract algebra proving by using only the existing knowledge need to construct their thinking process in order to accept a new knowledge scheme. The new knowledge scheme can be built by assimilation and accommodation. Thus, the question of this research is "how is the students' thinking process in solving the semigroup proving problem in abstract algebra based on the assimilation and accommodation framework?".

**Commented [In6]:**  
 The context of their study is in Latvia. It needs further explanation on similar aspect to your research focus, for instance the student's level, the targetted mathematical proof problems, etc.

126 **4. Method Framework**  
 127 **4.1. A Case Study Approach**

128 Data analysis in this qualitative research was conducted by attentively observing the results of the subjects' work in written form and the results of the interview. The constructing process carried out by the subjects can be discovered from the information they gave when solving the semigroup problems. The researchers were able to explore their thinking construction by asking questions "because". The thinking process that they performed in dealing with the problem can be seen from the information conveyed by the subjects. The structure of problem-solving can be described as a series of processes in

**Commented [In7]:**  
 Clarify the type of case study used, is it descriptive, analytical or explanatory?

134 constructing the proofs carried out by researchers (Subanji & Nusantara, 2016). Researchers can analyze  
 135 the students' thinking process to find out the constructing process based on assimilation and  
 136 accommodation frameworks. Students thinking process in constructing knowledge to solve  
 137 mathematical proving problem can occur intuitively and analitically. Thinking process that ocured  
 138 intuitively can be indicated by the students' ability in revealing the result of thinking process quickly,  
 139 lack of effort, and takes automatically. While thinking process that ocured analitically can be indicated  
 140 by the students' ability in revealing the result of thinking process slowly, mindful, and carefully.

**Commented [In8]:**  
 Clarify the agents. Better use "findings" or "previous studies", because readers may think that they are the researchers of the current study

141 The participant of this study was the students of Mathematics Education in fourth semester or those  
 142 who passed the abstract algebra course. From 78 students in three different universities in East Java,  
 143 Indonesia, it can be seen that 9 students could do assimilation without accomodation, and 13 students  
 144 could do assimilation and accomodation. The students that were choosen as the research samples were  
 145 those who could reveal their thinking process verbally. Table 2 shows the number of students who could  
 146 construct their idea through a thinking process.

University	Number of Students	Assimilation	Assimilation and Accomodation
A	27	2	4
B	31	4	5
C	20	3	4
Total	78	9	13

Table 2. The Construction of Students Thinking Process

147  
 148  
 149 From the table 2, we can see that 9 students were able to do the thinking process of assimilation and 13  
 150 students were able to do the thinking process of assimilation and accomodation. In general, one out of  
 151 nine students could express their mind verbally in solving problem in assimilation. Two out of 13  
 152 students could express their mind in assimilation and accomodation. In short, three students were  
 153 choosen as the research subjects. The table 3 below showed the number of research subjects in this  
 154 study.

Thinking Process	Number of Students	Research Subjects
Assimilation	9	1
Assimilation and Accomodation	13	2
Total number	22	3

Table 3. Selection of subjects

155  
 156  
 157 Table 3 shows that there were 3 students who can be the subject of this research. The 3 subjects are  
 158 Dwi as subject 1 (S1), Alex as subject 2 (S2), and Dita as subject 3 (S3). They were selected as research  
 159 subjects because they were able to do verbal and written communication related to the thinking process  
 160 carried out in completing the abstract algebra proving test. This is due to the fact that thinking process is  
 161 a form of communication between individuals and themselves based on cognitive activities they do  
 162 (Sfard & Kieren, 2001; Sfard, 2012).

**Commented [In9]:**  
 Use initial, for instance DW, AL, DT

163 **4.2. Research Instrument**

164 The main instrument in this qualitative research was the researcher herself assisted with research  
 165 instruments in the form of mathematical proving problem test related to abstract algebra and interview.  
 166 The validity and reliability of this qualitative research is carried out by triangulation (Utami, 2018).  
 167 Triangulation used in this research is the source triangulation that compares data obtained from written  
 168 test results and interviews on the subjects.

**Commented [In10]:**  
 How do you administer the test?  
 Is the test items validated?

169 The proving test of abstract algebra that were used as an instrument in this research consisted of  
 170 semigroup material in abstract algebra. Semigroup is non-empty set  $G$  together with a binary operation  
 171  $*$  on  $G$  that is associative  $a(bc) = (ab)c$  for all  $a, b, c \in G$  (Hungerford, 2000, p. 24).

**Commented [In11]:**  
 What is the fuction of the interview?  
 When do you conduct the interview, is it before or after the test?

172 The definition of semigroup:  
 173 a. A binary operation  $*$  on a non-empty set  $G$  is a function  $\mu: G \times G \rightarrow G$ .

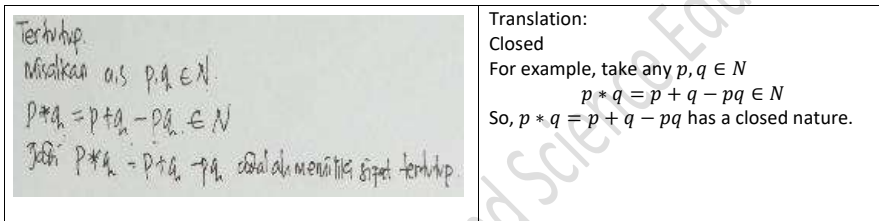
174 b. An operation  $*$  on a set  $G$  is associative if  $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$  for every  $a, b, c \in G$   
 175 (Rotman, 1991, p. 10)

176 The mathematical proving test instrument used in this research was adapted from Hungerford (2004) as  
 177 follows:

178 "Let  $p * q = p + q - pq$  with  $p, q$  elements of natural numbers in binary operations. Determine  
 179 whether  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is semigroup or not!"

180 **5. Results**

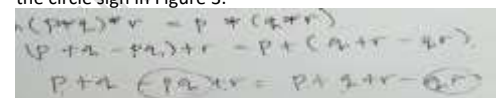
181 The research results showed that there were three students who could be made as the research  
 182 subjects. The selection of three subjects was based on their oral and written communication skills in  
 183 constructing knowledge to complete a mathematical proving test. The three subjects were able to  
 184 complete the test by integrating the previously owned knowledge scheme with a new scheme. From the  
 185 research results of Dwi as subject 1 (S1), it can be seen that initially she completed the test by the  
 186 assimilation because she only used the knowledge scheme she had without using accommodation. This  
 187 can be seen from Figure 2.



188 Figure 2. Answer of subject 1 on the first stage

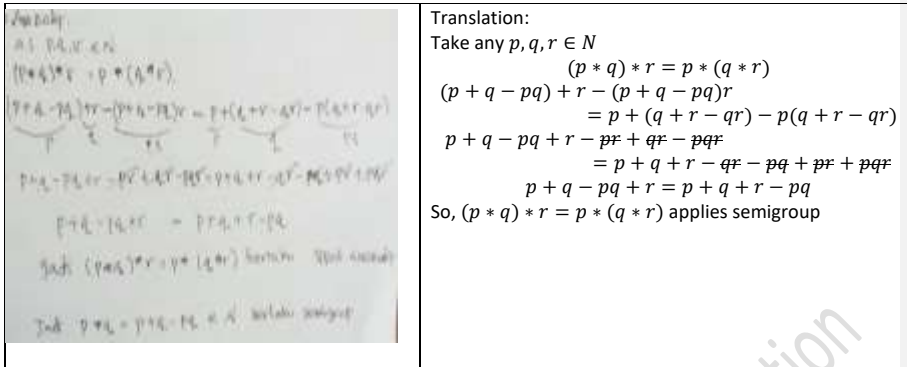
189 Based on Dwi's result, in the first stage, she identified the problem to be proven by reading the  
 190 information that would be proven and then she wrote that the natural numbers with binary operations  
 191 at  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is closed. The claim was given intuitively because she did not think of any  
 192 element of the natural numbers (N). Dwi used the knowledge scheme that she had about real numbers  
 193 to complete the test. She considered that natural numbers were real numbers that are closed to all  
 194 types of operations of numbers in the form of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division  
 195 operation. Then in the second stage she used the associative nature to prove the semigroup.

196 Proving the associative nature was done by Dwi by using the existing knowledge scheme about real  
 197 numbers to prove the semigroup of the natural numbers. She used the symbols  $p, q, r \in R$  to prove the  
 198 associative nature. Dwi performed algebraic operations by manipulating symbols. At first, Dwi assumed  
 199 that on  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  the associative nature was not applicable because the results of  
 200 algebraic operations between the left-hand and right-hand side of the equation were not the same as in  
 201 the circle sign in Figure 3.



202 Figure 3. The initial answer of the subject before the construction process  
 203  
 204

205 But then she constructed her knowledge to decompose the form  $(p + q - pq) + r - (p + q - pq)r =$   
 206  $p + (q + r - qr) - p(q + r - qr)$  then assume  $(p + q - pq)$  as  $p$ ;  $r$  as  $q$ ;  $(p + q - pq)r$  as  $pq$ ;  $p$  as  $p$ ;  
 207  $(q + r - qr)$  as  $q$ ; and  $p(q + r - qr)$  as  $pq$ . Then she used the property of cancellation by crossing out  
 208 the same elements between the right-hand and left-hand side, so that it is obtained  $(p * q) * r = p *$   
 209  $(q * r)$  as in Figure 4.



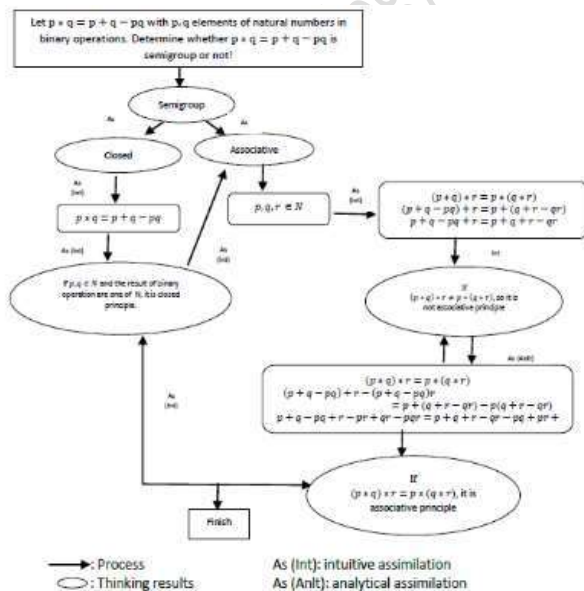
210 Figure 4. The answer of subject 1 on the second stage

211 Based on Dwi's answer in solving the problem of semigroup proving, the closed and associative nature  
 212 were applicable. At first, she assumed that  $(p * q) * r$  was not associative because she obtained  
 213  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ . Then she constructed the knowledge that she had in order to obtain  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$   
 214 as in Figure 4. From the proving result of the closed and associative nature, Dwi  
 215 concluded that  $(p * q) = p + q - pq$  is a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers. This is  
 216 indicated from the interview transcript as follows:

R : Why?

S1 : Because in the beginning I did an algebraic and the result was  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ .  
 However, after I carefully observed by decomposing it one-by-one the result showed that  
 $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$

217 We can find out the structure of the subject 1 thinking process in completing the mathematical proving  
 218 test through the following Figure 5.



219 Figure 5. Thinking construction of subject 1 in solving a mathematical proving problem

220 From Figure 5, it can be seen that Dwi as subject 1 completed the mathematical proving test related to  
 221 the semigroup by identifying the problem first. Identification of the problem is done intuitively by  
 222 mentioning the semigroup conditions in the form of closed and associative nature. Then she gave a  
 223 claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is closed on the binary operation of natural number (N). Then she proved  
 224 the associative nature by using the assimilation scheme to obtain  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . She proved  
 225 it through symbol manipulation in algebraic operations so that it was found that  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$   
 226 ( $q * r$ ). After that she claimed that  $p, q \in N$  with respect to binary operations on natural numbers is not  
 227 associative. However, Dwi conducted a review on her result by re-checking it again. From the review,  
 228 she found that the associative nature that she concluded before was wrong. Then she constructed her  
 229 knowledge to perform algebraic operations again and obtained  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Therefore, Dwi  
 230 justified that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is semigroup of binary operations. The justification was  
 231 done analytically based on the thinking construction, but the final conclusion that she gave was not right  
 232 yet.

233 Alex as subject 2 (S2) used his previously owned knowledge scheme about semigroups proving on real  
 234 numbers to prove the semigroups on natural numbers. It can be seen from the mental activity carried  
 235 out by Alex in identifying the problems. He mentioned that the semigroup requiring the closed and  
 236 associative nature. Then he proved and concluded that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is not  
 237 semigroup of binary operations because it did not fulfill the associative nature. The conclusion was  
 238 correct but the steps taken in reaching the conclusion were not correct. From his proving of the closed  
 239 nature, an error was seen. The right one should be like this:  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is not  
 240 closed on binary operations.

	<p>Translation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Closed</li> </ul> <p>For example, <math>p, q \in N</math></p> $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ <p>Then</p> $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ <p>Are closed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Associative</li> </ul> <p>For example, <math>p, q \in N</math></p> $p * q = p + q - pq$ $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ $(p + q - pq)r = p(q + r - qr)$ $pr + qr - pqr = pq + pr - pqr$ $(p + q - pq + r - pr + qr - pqr$ $= p + q + r - qr - pq + pr$ $- pqr$ <p>So, it is not a semigroup because it does not apply associative nature</p>
--	--

241 Figure 6. The result of subject 2

242 From Figure 6, it can be seen that Alex described his proving through the closed nature and the  
 243 associative nature intuitively because he only described his proving procedurally. The proving result  
 244 showed that the claim was correct that the problem was not a semigroup, but the steps taken by Alex to  
 245 prove it were not correct. Alex did not confidence on his conclusion because he was doubtful about the  
 246 result of the associative nature proving, so that he constructed the existing knowledge to re-prove by  
 247 taking any element of the set of natural numbers in the form of  $N = \{1,2,4,5\}$ .

<p>mislkan.</p> <p><math>p=1, q=2</math>      <math>p=4, q=5</math></p> <p><math>1+2-(1 \times 2)</math>      <math>4+5-(4 \times 5)</math></p> <p><math>3-2=1</math>              <math>9-20=-11</math></p> <p>Jadi, ditinjau dari pembuktian pada sifat tertutup, <math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> bukan termasuk semigrup karena definisi tersebut hanya berlaku pada angka tertentu saja. misal saja jika dimasukkan pada bilangan asli hasil operasinya bukan termasuk anggota himpunan bilangan asli.</p>	<p>Translation:</p> <p>For example,</p> <p><math>p = 1; q = 2</math></p> <p><math>p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - (1 \times 2) = 3 - 2 = 1</math></p> <p>For example,</p> <p><math>p = 4; q = 5</math></p> <p><math>p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - (4 \times 5) = 9 - 20 = -19</math></p> <p>So, it is not closed nature, then</p> <p><math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> is not a semigroup.</p>
--	--

248 Figure 7. The results of Alex's thinking construction

249 Alex did the proving twice by substituted elements of the set of natural numbers (N). First, Alex  
 250 considered  $p = 1$  and  $q = 2$  to obtain  $p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - 2.1 = 1$ , because 1 is an element of N as a  
 251 set of natural numbers, then he claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is closed. Second, he  
 252 did the proving by assuming  $p = 4$  and  $q = 5$  and then obtained  $p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - 4.5 = -11$ . Since  
 253 the result is negative 11, he changed his claim into  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  was not  
 254 semigrup because it is not closed on binary operations in natural number.

S2 : Means that for example something like this,  $p = 1$  and  $q = 2$ , then  $p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - 2.1 = 1$  is obtained. The result is the natural numbers, ma'am.  
 For example,  $p = 4$  and  $q = 5$  and then  $p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - 4.5 = -11$   
 Oh, right.... It's a no, ma'am.  
 So that the closed nature is not applicable, right?

255 The thinking process carried out by Alex in constructing the knowledge possessed to solve mathematical  
 256 proof can be seen in Figure 8.

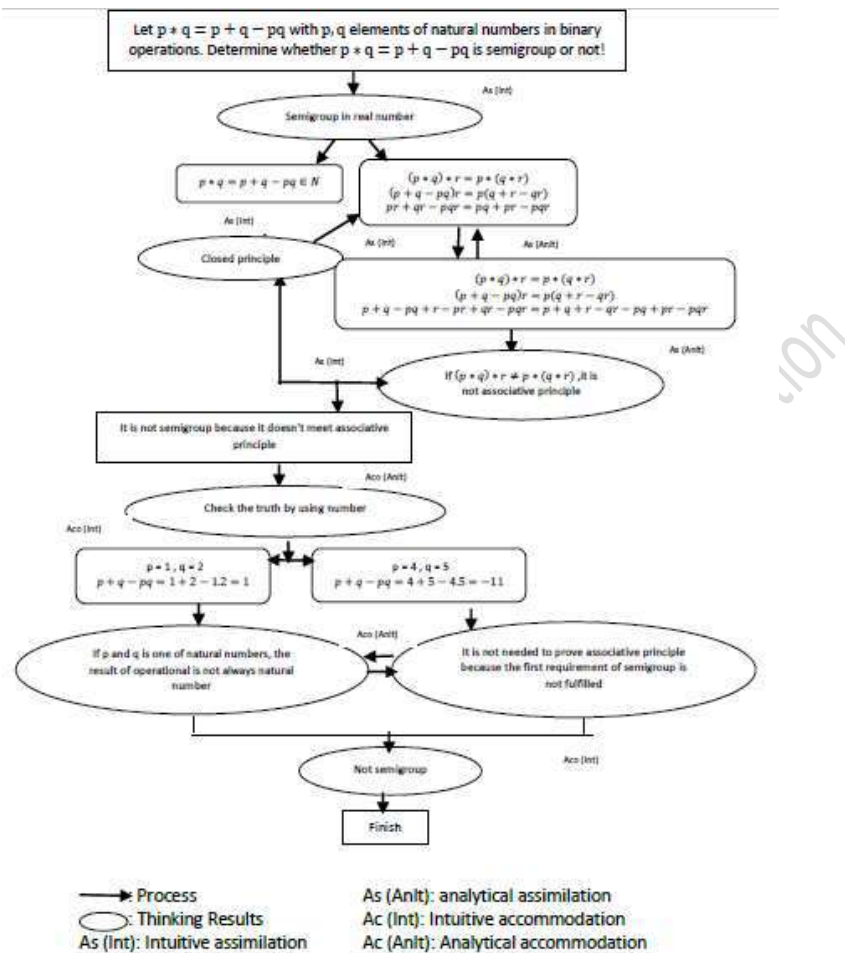


Figure 8. Thinking Construction Structure of Subject 2

257

258 From Figure 8, it can be seen that the thinking process carried out by Alex in completing the test was by  
 259 identifying the problem first. The information in the problem stated that  $N$  is a set of natural numbers,  
 260 but Alex used a real number scheme to prove it. This is because he only knew the semigroup proving in  
 261 real numbers so that it can be said that he did an assimilation process. The proving of closed nature was  
 262 done only by looking at the information in the problem then made a claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$   
 263 is closed on binary operations. After that he carried out algebraic operations by manipulating symbols to  
 264 prove the associative nature. Algebra operations on the proving of associative nature were performed  
 265 analytically based on assimilation and accommodation scheme. From the proving of associative nature,  
 266 it was obtained that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not associative on binary operations because  $(p * q) *$   
 267  $r \neq p * (q * r)$ . Then Alex made a new claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup on the  
 268 binary operations because it did not fulfill the associative nature.

269 Furthermore, Alex conducted a review on his own result. He checked the correctness of the claim  
 270 through assimilation and accommodation by proving the problem by using numbers that the elements  
 271 of natural numbers. Then he obtained the result in the form of a negative number -11 so that he  
 272 changed the claim in which  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not closed on binary operations because -11



273 was not an element of the natural numbers. From the claim, he said that proving associative nature was  
 274 not needed because the first condition of the semigroup was not fulfilled. After that, he made a  
 275 justification that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup on binary operations.

276 Furthermore, Dita as subject 3 (S3) identified the problem that would be proven in almost the same way  
 277 as what subject 2 did. First, Dita identified the problem by assimilation and accommodation by using  
 278 semigroup proving on real numbers and integers. Dita claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  with  $p, q \in$   
 279  $N$  was a semigroup on binary operations because it fulfilled the closed nature and the associative  
 280 nature.

	<p>Translation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>closed  <math>p * q \in \text{natural numbers}</math>  <math>p * q = p + q - pq \in \text{natural numbers}</math></li> <li>Associative  <math>p, q, r \in \text{real numbers}</math>  <math>(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)</math>  <math>(p + q - pq) * r = p * (q + r - qr)</math>  <math>p + q - pq + r - (p + q - pq)r</math>  <math>= p + q + r - qr</math>  <math>- p(q + r - qr)</math>  <math>p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr</math>  <math>= p + q + r - qr - pq</math>  <math>- pr + pqr</math>  <math>p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr</math>  <math>= p + q - pq + r - pr</math>  <math>- qr + pqr</math></li> </ul> <p>Because the natural number satisfies the associative and closed nature, so that natural number is a semigroup on the binary operations</p>
--	--

281 Figure 9. The result of subject 3

282 From Figure 9, it can be seen that Dita did the closed nature proving only by writing  $p * q = p + q -$   
 283  $pq \in N$ . She only paid attention to the shape of the symbol without paying attention to the element of  
 284 the set of natural numbers, so that the proving was done intuitively. Then the associative nature proving  
 285 was done through manipulation of symbols by assuming that in the left-hand side  $p + q - pq = p$ ;  $r =$   
 286  $q$  and on the right-hand side  $p = p$ ;  $q + r - qr = q$ . From this assumption, she performed algebraic  
 287 operations and obtained the result  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Her mistakes in deciphering the associative  
 288 nature proving resulted in errors in her claim. Dita claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is a semigroup on  
 289 binary operations of natural numbers. Then she constructed her knowledge by saying that the proving  
 290 of semigroup of natural numbers needed not only algebraic symbols but also needed to be proven by  
 291 using numbers which were elements of natural numbers. She said that it was based on the thinking  
 292 process so that it was not written on the answer paper. This was revealed in the interview transcript as  
 293 follows:

- R : From the claim you have obtained, are you sure that  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  included in semigroups on binary operations of natural numbers?
- S3 : Actually, I'm not sure about that ma'am ...  
 Because the proving of the semigroup on original numbers will be more valid if it is to be done by using the algebraic symbols and also the numbers
- R : What do you mean by that?
- S3 : So, it's like this ma'am ... suppose I take  $p = 10$  and  $q = 12$  so we get  $p * q = p + q - pq = 10 + 12 - 10.12 = 32 - 120 = -98$

294 Mental activities performed by Dita in constructing her knowledge to solve mathematical proof is  
 295 presented in the following Figure 10.

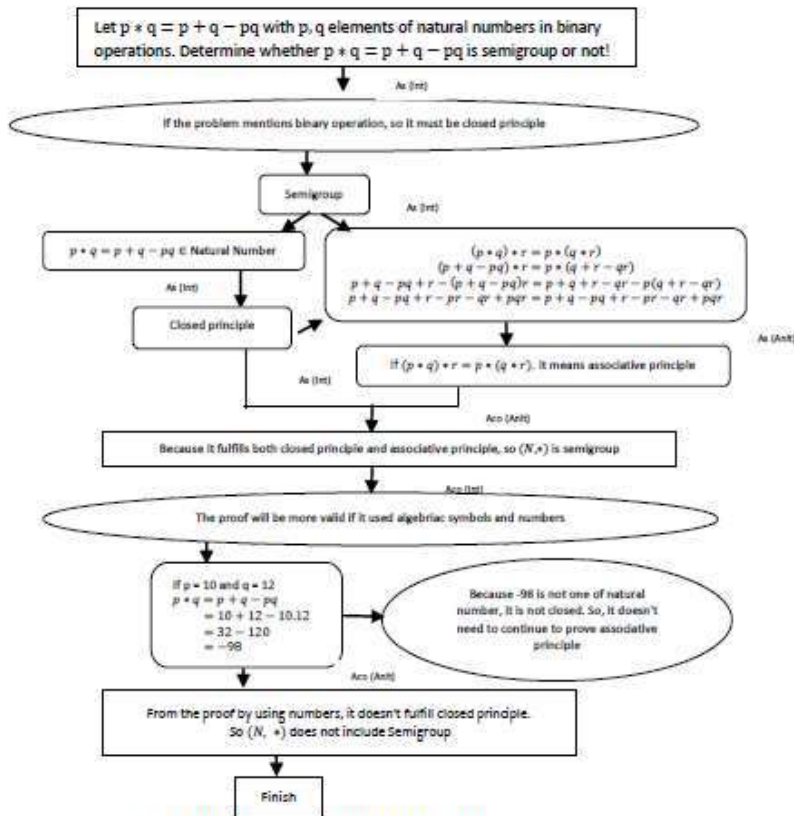


Figure 10. Thinking Construction of Dita

296  
 297 From Figure 10, it can be seen that Dita identified the semigroup problem by assimilation based on the  
 298 known semigroup definition. She said that the semigroup contained a closed and associative nature. She  
 299 did the proving of closed nature just by looking at  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ . Then she did the proving of  
 300 the associative nature by performing algebraic operations through symbol manipulation. Dita said that  
 301  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was associative because  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Then she claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$   
 302 was a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers because it satisfied the closed and associative nature.  
 303

304 Dita conducted a review of her proving that has been done. She conducted the review by constructing  
 305 the existing knowledge through assimilation and accommodation schemes. She assumed that  $p = 10$   
 306 and  $q = 12$  then substituted into  $p * q = p + q - pq$ . From the substitution result, she obtained a  
 307 negative number -98 so that she changed her claim by saying that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not  
 308 semigroup on binary operation of natural numbers.

309 The research result in this article is based on research findings about the construction of students'  
 310 thinking in completing mathematical proving tests related to abstract algebra. The following Table 4 will  
 311 explain the constructing activities carried out by students based on the assimilation and accommodation  
 312 framework.

Subject	Assimilation and Accommodation	Students' Thinking Construction
Dwi	Performed algebraic operations to get $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ so that $p * q = p + q - pq$ with binary operations in natural number was not associative but it is closed.	Reviewed the results of the associative nature proving then performed algebraic operations through symbol manipulation. The review was carried out to change the claims that stated $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ into $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Justified that $p * q = p + q - pq$ was semigroup to respect binary operations of natural numbers.
Alex	Identified the problem by using semigroup proving of real numbers based on his previously understood scheme. Then did the proving by manipulating the symbols.	Determined mathematical rules in the form of semigroup definitions in the set of real numbers. Then he did the proving by assuming $p = 4$ and $q = 5$ . Gave justification by changing the claim which initially was in the form of $p * q = p + q - pq$ was semigroup to respect with binary operations in natural numbers, and then the claim became $p * q = p + q - pq$ with binary operations in natural numbers was not semigroup because it was not fulfill the closed nature.
Dita	Identified the problem that would be proven by using previous knowledge related to the proving of semigroups of real numbers and integers.	Gave a statement that to prove the semigroup was need not only the mathematical symbols, but also the numbers that were elements of natural numbers. Then substituted the natural numbers element into $p * q = p + q - pq$ . Changed the claim with a new claim in the form of $p * q = p + q - pq$ with a binary operation in $N$ was not a semigroup because it didn't meet the requirement of closed nature of the natural numbers.

Table 4. Thinking Construction of the Subjects

313  
314

## 6. Discussion and Conclusion

315 The students performed a problem identification to solve the mathematical proving problem. The  
316 identification was done as a first step in understanding the problem to be proven (Öztürk & Kaplan,  
317 2019). Then separated the object with its context (Sternberg et al., 2008). In this research, the students  
318 tried to understand the problem to be proven by identifying the information presented in the problem.  
319 The students mentioned that in the proving of semigroup in a non-empty set  $G$  with binary operations,  
320 the semigroup requirements in the definition need to be understood first.

321 The semigroup definition includes the closed and associative nature (Hungerford, 2000). The students  
322 mentioned that non-empty set  $G$  could be real numbers or integers. Then the students used the scheme  
323 of knowledge about real numbers to prove the semigroup of natural numbers. The proving of closed  
324 nature happened quickly by looking at the symbols  $p, q \in N$  and  $p * q = p + q - pq$  without  
325 considering about the members of natural numbers set. The proving that has been done through  
326 thinking quickly and automatically is called thinking intuitively (Leron & Hazzan, 2009; Leron, 2014).  
327 After that, the students performed algebraic operations by manipulating symbols to prove the  
328 associative nature. Symbol manipulation is an activity carried out by students in solving mathematical  
329 problems related to algebra (Bleiler et al., 2014). The students performed algebraic operations to prove  
330 the associative nature of  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . From the results of the closed and associative nature  
331 proving, the students gave a claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was a semigroup on binary operations  
332 of natural numbers. Claims are statements that are often used in solving mathematical proving  
333 problems that need to be verified (Panza, 2014).

334 Furthermore, the students reviewed or re-checked the claims they made (Mason, 2010). The students  
335 constructed their knowledge to check the correctness of the claims (Quansah et al., 2018). The students  
336 did the thinking construction by re-considering the statements that would be proven by assimilation and

337 accommodation. The students said that the proving of semigroup of natural numbers was not only by  
 338 using algebraic symbols but also by using numbers that are elements of a set of natural numbers. Then  
 339 the students did the proving again by using numbers to get new claims:  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was  
 340 not semigroup because it didn't meet the requirement of closed nature on binary operations of natural  
 341 numbers. The students can make justification from the proving activity twice. Justification shows the  
 342 confidence level of the students on the conclusions made based on the assimilation and accommodation  
 343 scheme (Mason, 2010).  
 344 From the research results, it can be found that intuitive and analytical thinking are not two separate  
 345 things because students can construct intuitive and analytical thinking processes using assimilation and  
 346 accommodation schemes (Rusou et al., 2013; Iannello & Antonietti, 2008). Some of the students solved  
 347 the problems of semigroup intuitively because they only used the assimilation scheme to construct their  
 348 existing knowledge. Whereas the other students who were able to solve the problem intuitively and  
 349 analytically because they did the process of assimilation and accommodation. At the students accepted  
 350 the problems, they intuitively solved it based on their existing knowledge, even though the context of  
 351 the problem was different. Therefore, the students' thinking process in constructing their knowledge to  
 352 complete the proving of abstract algebra can be described as follows (see Table 5):

Steps	Thinking Process
Identifying	Mention information in the question or problem: a. $p * q = p + q - pq$ b. $p, q$ elements of natural numbers c. Semigroup d. Binary operation
Determining rules	The semigroup can be defined as the binary operations that are closed and associative in a non-empty set G
Proving with symbol manipulation	Perform algebraic operations to prove the associative nature of $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$
Reviewing	Re-check the claim that has been made. If they are not sure yet, then the proving activity needs to be done again
Justifying	Make a conclusive conclusion based on the result of the review

Table 5. Steps in the students' thinking process

353  
354

355 Based on the results of this research, it can be concluded that the students used the assimilation and  
 356 accommodation schemes to carry out the thinking process through a knowledge construction. The  
 357 students did the thinking process to complete the proving of abstract algebra through five stages as  
 358 follows: the identification; determining the mathematical rules to be used; carrying out the  
 359 mathematical proving by means of symbol manipulation, review, and justification. The students can do  
 360 the steps of the thinking process through the thinking construction by using their previous knowledge  
 361 schemes and their new knowledge schemes.

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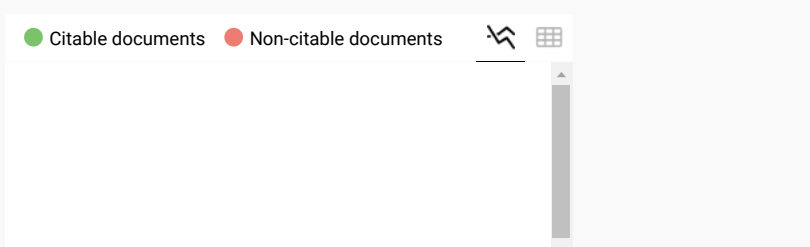
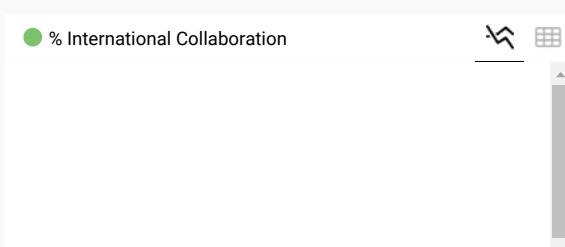
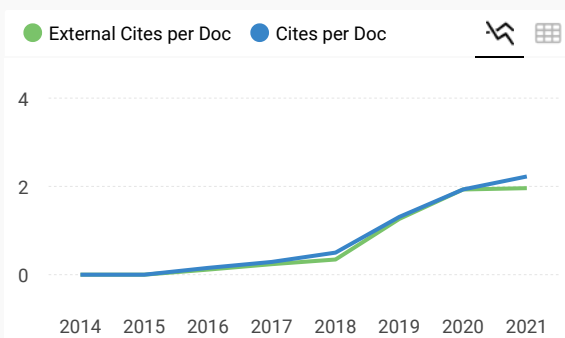
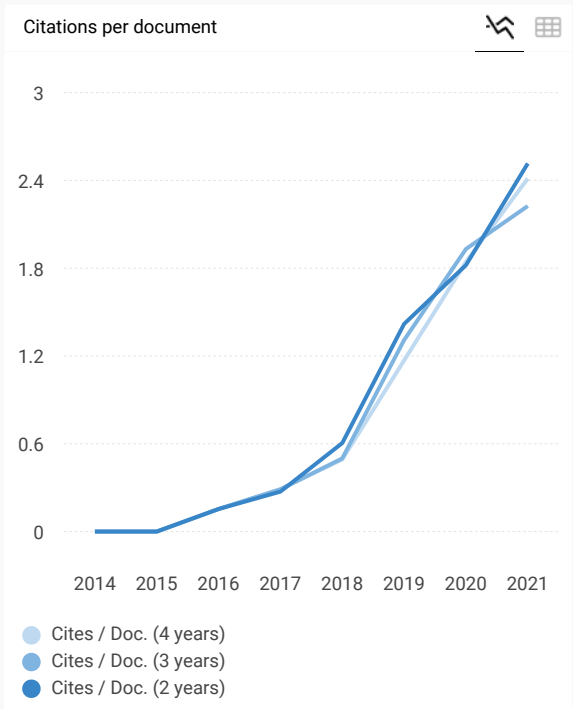
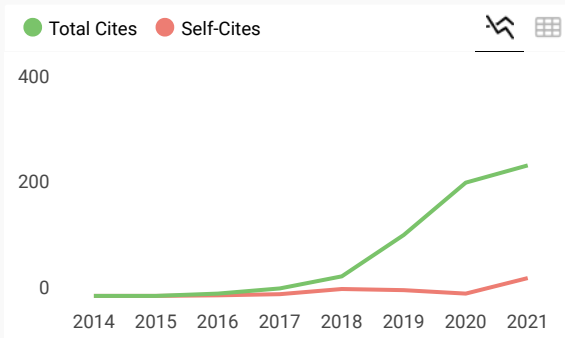
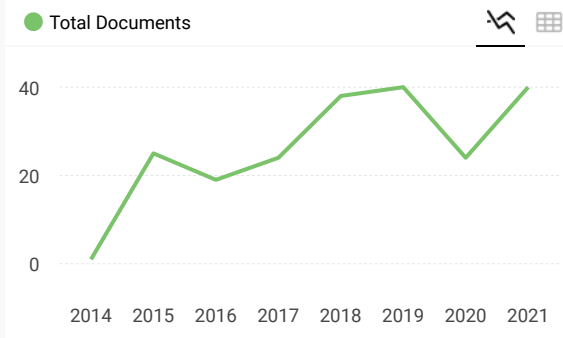
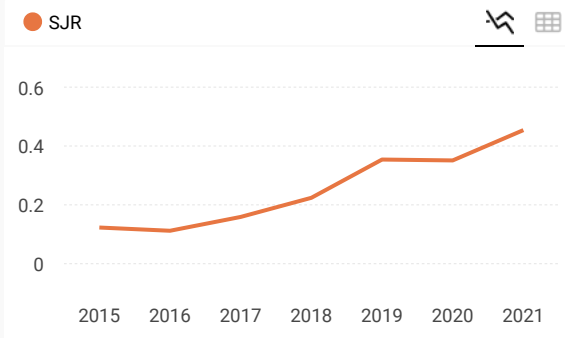
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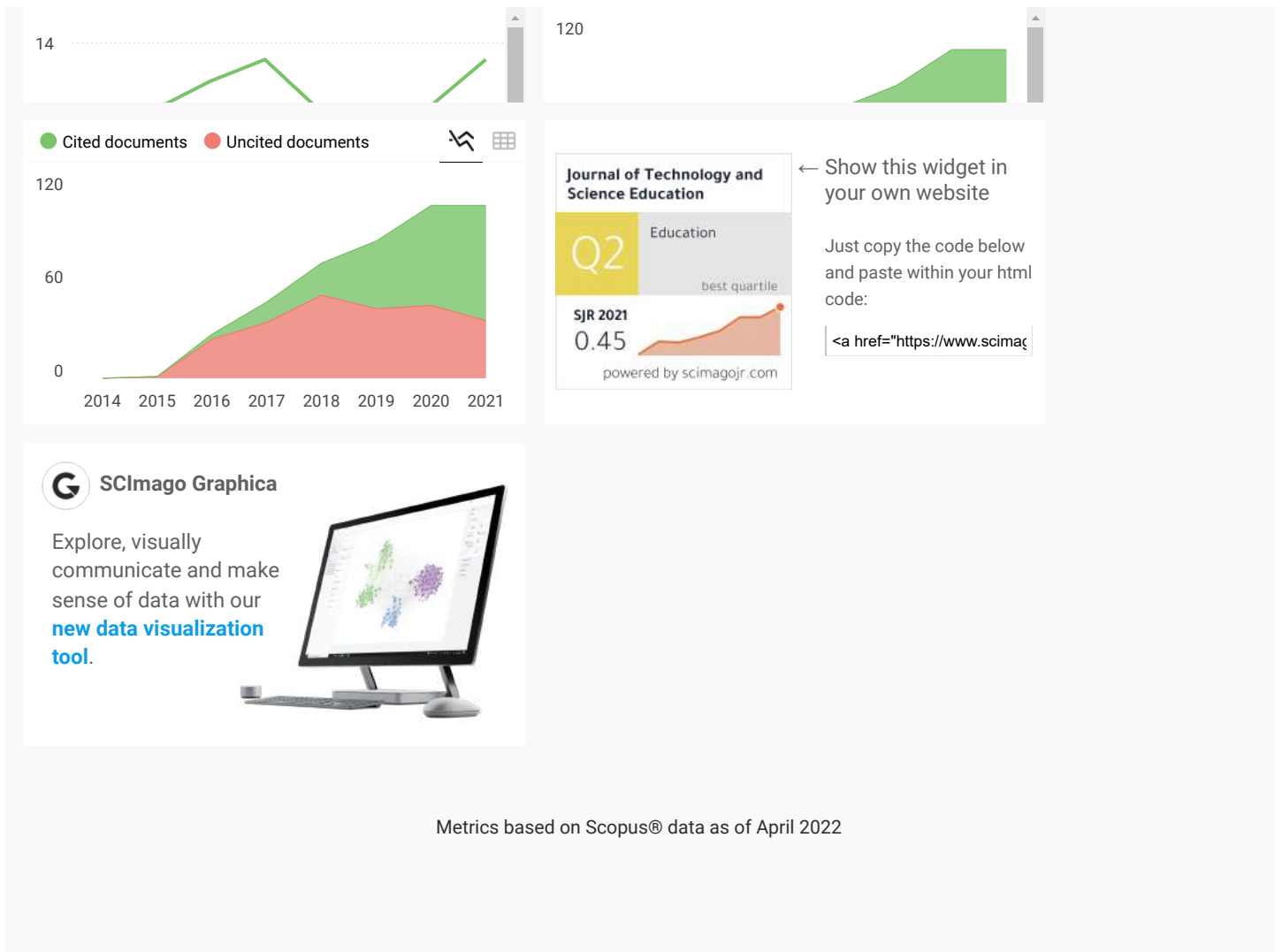
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## Constructing Students' Thinking Process through Assimilation and Accommodation Framework

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*Abstract: Thinking is a tool to construct knowledge in learning mathematics. However, some college students have not been fully aware of the importance of constructing their knowledge. Therefore, this study aims to explore students' thinking processes in completing mathematical proofs through assimilation and accommodation schemes. This research was conducted on students majoring in mathematics from three different universities in East Java as research subjects. The data was collected through a mathematical proof test instrument and interviews which is then qualitatively analyzed. The results of the study show that there were students who completed the test through the assimilation scheme only, and there were students who completed the test using both assimilation and accommodation schemes. Students construct their thinking processes through 5 stages, namely: identifying, determining rules to be used, proving with symbol manipulation, reviewing, and justifying. Students use the five stages of thinking to construct knowledge. However, students who use assimilation schemes made some errors in proving the mathematics problem due to their carelessness in doing the proving with symbol manipulation and reviewing stages.*

### INTRODUCTION

Thinking process is an important component to know someone's abilities and talents in learning mathematics (Polly et al., 2007; Uyangör, 2019). Thinking can be said as a tool for learning mathematics and a tool to construct one's knowledge (As'ari et al., 2019; Fisher, 2005). Thinking process includes reasoning that occurs through a mental activity in the students' brain. This reasoning can occur when the students are performing algebraic operations, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, reflective thinking, or analytical thinking. This process is not only to produce abstract mathematical numbers and concepts but also as an important skill in thinking analytically and logically, as well as reasoning quantitatively (Onal et al., 2017).

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Thinking analytically is a highly necessary thinking process used to solve mathematical proof problems. At the university level, these problems are formal which require analytical thinking capability. However, some students tend to complete the mathematical proving problems related to abstract algebra intuitively (Korolova & Zeidmane, 2016). Intuitive mathematical proving is not necessarily wrong but students could possibly use the wrong concept in solving the problems. Some students solved subgroup problems in abstract algebra by using the Lagrange Theorem because they understand only the Lagrange Theorem concept and unfortunately do not understand subgroups concept very well (Leron & Hazzan, 2009; Leron, 2014). Therefore, students who complete an abstract algebra proving by using only the existing knowledge, need to construct their thinking process in order to accept a new knowledge scheme. The new knowledge scheme can be built by assimilation and accommodation. Thus, the question of this research is "how does the students' thinking process in solving the algebra proving problem based on the assimilation and accommodation framework?"

This research focuses on how do the students build their knowledge in solving algebra proofing problems through constructive thinking. Piaget said that the thinking process could be done through a construction process that occurs based on the previous knowledge to gain a new one. This construction could have occurred through five components, namely activating previous knowledge, owning and understanding a new knowledge, using the knowledge, then reflecting (Aseeri, 2020). Construction was the process of student's interaction related to previously owned ideas with new ideas to understand a concept being studied. Construction could be combined with interaction due to the existence of knowledge that were being used to perform a mental activity (Guler & Gurbuz, 2018).

### **Assimilation and Accommodation Framework**

Piaget's theory states that there are two kinds of adaptation process of each individual to their environment; assimilation and accommodation (Kaasila, et al., 2014). Piaget divided the intellectual growth that occurs through one's mental activity into the following six steps: reflexively, obtained through a fundamental adaptation, interest on a new situation, relation to new discoveries, and combining the discoveries in mental activities (Piaget, 1965). A new scheme obtained by the students could be included in the assimilation object by organizing a new definition. The scheme on Piaget's theory contained assimilation and accommodation as a process of knowledge translation. Both were influenced by the development of Piaget's theory in mathematics learning (Ernest, 2003).

Assimilation is a process conducted by students in inserting a new stimulus into the existing scheme. The assimilation was a positive influence of the environment that occurs on one's mental activity. At the time a new object is being assimilated into the existing scheme. While the accommodation is a process of adjusting the schemes conducted by students to build a new scheme based on the existing scheme. Accommodation indicates that the process which is conducted by

the student is influenced by the object being transformed. In other words, assimilation and accommodation could be represented as an interaction between the subject and the object which makes assimilation and accommodation closely related (Zhiqing, 2015). At the time when assimilation is dominated by a new scheme, then the scheme is a part of the accommodation. Therefore, assimilation can occur even though there is no accommodation, but accommodation will not occur without the existence of assimilation. For instance: students who have learnt about addition operation of natural numbers but have never learnt about the addition operation of fractions will solve the mathematics problem as follow  $\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{5}$ . In this process, students only perform assimilation as they only use the previous knowledge without reconstructing to gain new knowledge about addition operation of fractions. If students are able to operate addition in the form of “ $\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{4+3}{6} = \frac{7}{6}$ ”, these students already performed accommodation as they equalized the denominators into 6 before adding the numerators into  $4 + 3 = 7$ .

Students can construct their knowledge when doing the assimilation to form a new scheme. Assimilation and accommodation are the adaptation process to the environment based on cognitive structures. While assimilation is the process of interpreting an event by using the existing cognitive structures, accommodation on the other hand is the process of increasing knowledge by modifying the existing knowledge or cognitive structures to gain a new experience (Kaasila et al., 2014; Netti et al., 2016). Therefore, in the process of assimilation, a new stimulus is directly absorbed and integrated into the existing knowledge schemes. Meanwhile the process of accommodation on the existing knowledge structures cannot directly absorb the new stimulus; it needs a phase to integrate the stimulus. The process of assimilation and accommodation can be illustrated into a diagram in order to help us understand the process or procedure of those two adaptation process (Subanji & Nusantara, 2016).

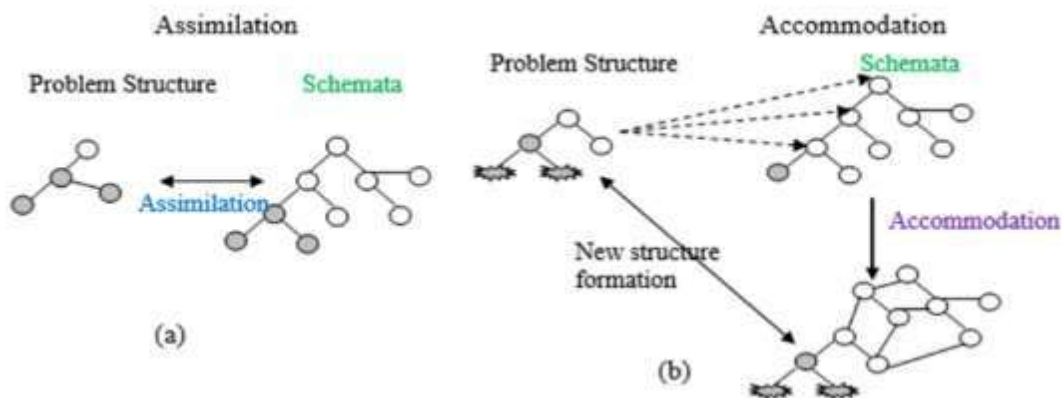


Figure 1: Assimilation and accommodation process

Figure 1 (a), shows that assimilation occurs when the structure of the problem is in accordance with the existing scheme. It will be interpreted directly into the correct way in order to form new

structures. Figure 1 (b), shows that the structure of the thinking scheme does not match with the structure of the problem. The students need to convert the new scheme with the existing schemes in order to create a new thinking structure related to the problem when they constructing correctly. Therefore, the thinking activity through the assimilation and accommodation framework in this research can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Thinking process based on assimilation and accomodation schemes.

Thinking Process	Mental Activity
Assimilation	Employing an existing scheme to solve the mathematical proof problem
Accommodation	Employing both the existing scheme and a new scheme in order to solve mathematical proof problems

## METHOD

This research is a qualitative research with descriptive explorative. Data for this research is collected through written test and interview. The researcher is the main instrument in collecting and analyzing the data obtained from written test results and interview. This research was conducted to college students in mathematics department from three different universities. The three universities are in Jombang, Mojokerto and Malang city. The subjects were chosen based on the students' abilities in constructing their knowledge through assimilation and accommodation scheme as shown in Table 1. The participant are those mathematics students who have passed the abstract algebra course. From 78 students in three different universities in East Java, Indonesia, 9 students were able to do assimilation without accommodation, and 13 students were able to do assimilation and accommodation. The students who were chosen as the research subjects were those who were able to reveal their thinking process verbally. Table 2 shows the number of students who could construct their idea through thinking process.

Table 2: The construction of students' thinking process

University	Number of Students	Assimilation	Assimilation and Accommodation
A	27	2	4
B	31	4	5
C	20	3	4
Total	78	9	13

From Table 2, we can see that 9 students were able to do the thinking process of assimilation and 13 students were able to do the thinking process of assimilation and accommodation. In general, one out of nine students could express their mind verbally in solving problem through assimilation. Two out of 13 students could express their mind in assimilation and accommodation. In short, three students were chosen as the research subjects. Table 3 showed the number of research subjects in this study.

Table 3: Selection of subjects

Thinking Process	Number of Students	Research Subjects
Assimilation	9	1
Assimilation and Accommodation	13	2
Total number	22	3

Table 3 shows that there were 3 students who were selected as research subjects. The 3 subjects are Dwi as subject 1, Alex as subject 2, and Dita as subject 3 (pseudonym). They were selected as research subjects as they were able to do verbal and written communication related to the thinking process that have been conducted in completing the abstract algebra proving test. This is due to the fact that thinking process is a form of communication between individuals and themselves based on cognitive activities they have conducted (Sfard & Kieren, 2001; Sfard, 2012).

The main instrument in this qualitative research is the researcher assisted with research instruments in the form of mathematical proving problem test and interview. The mathematical proving test instrument used in this research was adapted from Hungerford (2000). as follows:

*“Let  $p * q = p + q - pq$  with  $p, q$  elements of natural numbers in binary operations. Determine whether  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is semigroup or not!”*

The proving test consisted of semigroup material in abstract algebra. Semigroup is non-empty set  $G$  together with a binary operation  $*$  on  $G$  that is associative  $a(bc) = (ab)c$  for all  $a, b, c \in G$  (Hungerford, 2000).

The definition of semigroup:

- A binary operation  $*$  on a non-empty set  $G$  is a function  $\mu: G \times G \rightarrow G$ .
- An operation  $*$  on a set  $G$  is associative if  $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$  for every  $a, b, c \in G$

The data analysis used in this research is a qualitative with the following details:

Data analysis was conducted by observing the results of written tests and semi-structured interviews. In this research, interviews were used as a triangulation to obtain valid data. Creswell (2012) stated that the validity and reliability test of qualitative research can be done through triangulation. The researcher conducted task-based interviews on subjects with the help of a tape recorder and field notes containing important points from the subjects' expressions. The results of the interviews were transcribed exactly to the subjects' answers and expressions and then reduced based on assimilation and accommodation presented in Table 1. The data is presented in matrix form as one of the methods of qualitative research data analysis (Miles et al., 2014). This matrix is a table containing the relationship between variables obtained from the results of written tests and interviews. In this research, the researcher was actively involved in designing research, collecting data, and analyzing data.



## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The results of this research showed that there were three students selected as the research subjects. The selection of three subjects was based on their oral and written communication skills in constructing knowledge to complete a mathematical proving test. The three subjects were able to complete the test by integrating the previously owned knowledge scheme with a new scheme.

### Subject 1

Dwi completed the test by assimilation because she performed the procedural proving by using the existing knowledge scheme. She identified the problem by reading the information that would be proven and then she wrote that the natural numbers with binary operations at  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is closed. The claim was given spontaneously because she did not think of any element of the natural numbers by symbol of N. Dwi used the knowledge scheme about real numbers to complete the test. She considered that natural numbers were real numbers that are closed to all types of operations of numbers in the form of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division operation. This can be seen from Figure 2.

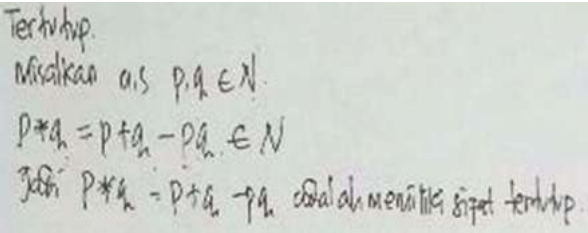
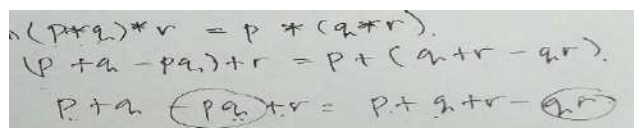
 <p>Teknik          Misalkan <math>a, b, p, q \in \mathbb{N}</math>  <math>p * q = p + q - pq \in \mathbb{N}</math>          Jadi <math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> adalah himpunan tertutup.</p>	<p>Translation:          Closed          For example, take any <math>p, q \in \mathbb{N}</math>  <math display="block">p * q = p + q - pq \in \mathbb{N}</math>         So, <math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> has a closed nature.</p>
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Figure 2: Answer of subject 1 on the first stage

On the second stage, subject 1 used the associative nature to prove the semigroup. She proved the associative nature by using the existing knowledge scheme about real numbers to prove the semigroup of the natural numbers. She used the symbols  $p, q, r \in \mathbb{R}$  to prove the associative nature. Dwi performed algebraic operations by manipulating symbols. Firstly, she assumed that on  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  the associative nature was not applicable because the results of algebraic operations between the left-hand and right-hand side of the equation were not the same as in the circle sign in Figure 3.



$$(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$$

$$(p + q - pq) + r = p + (q + r - qr)$$

$$p + q - (pq) + r = p + q + r - qr$$

Figure 3: The initial answer of the subject before the construction process

The subject then constructed the knowledge by re-proving to make sure that she got the right answer of associative proofing. She used cancellation characteristics by crossing out the same elements between the right-hand and left-hand side, so that it is obtained  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  as in Figure 4.

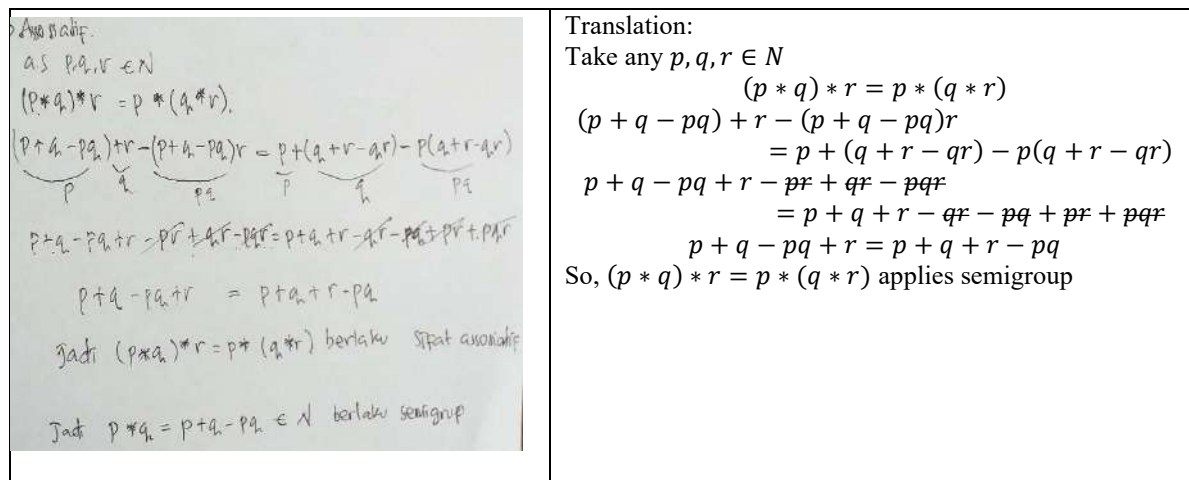


Figure 4: The answer of subject 1 on the second stage

The subject's proving process shows that the closed and associative nature were applicable. At first, she assumed that  $(p * q) * r$  was not associative because she obtained  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ . Furthermore, the subject constructed the knowledge that she had in order to obtain  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  as in Figure 4. From the proving result of the closed and associative nature, Dwi concluded that  $(p * q) = p + q - pq$  is a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers. This is indicated from the interview transcript as follows:

- R : Why?  
 D : Because in the beginning I did an algebraic and the result was  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ . However, after I carefully observed by decomposing it one-by-one, the result showed that  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$

Dwi as subject 1 completed the mathematical proving test related to the semigroup by first identifying the problem. Identification of the problem is done spontaneously by mentioning the semigroup conditions in the form of closed and associative nature. Then she gave a claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is closed on the binary operation of natural number (N). Then she proved the associative nature by using the assimilation scheme to obtain  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . She proved it through symbol manipulation in algebraic operations and obtained  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ . After that she claimed that  $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$  with respect to binary operations on natural numbers is not associative. However, Dwi conducted a review on her result by re-checking it again. From

the review, she found that the associative nature that she previously concluded was incorrect. Then she re-constructed her knowledge to perform algebraic operations again and obtained  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Therefore, Dwi justified that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is semigroup of binary operations. The justification was done analytically based on the thinking construction, but the final conclusion that she gave was incorrect. Dwi performed procedural proving as she only explained the proving of semigroup in natural number as in the proving procedure for real number. Although she had written  $N$  in her proving, she did not realise that  $N$  is a natural number. Thus, she only performed assimilation without accommodation as she did not reconstruct her previous knowledge to conduct the proving of  $N$  as natural number.

## Subject 2

Alex used his previous knowledge scheme about semigroups proving on real numbers to prove the semigroups on natural numbers. It can be seen from the mental activity performed by Alex in identifying the problems. He mentioned that the semigroup requiring the closed and associative nature. Then he proved and concluded that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is not semigroup of binary operations because it did not fulfill the associative nature. The conclusion was correct but the steps taken in reaching the conclusion were not correct. From his proving of the closed nature, an error was seen. The right answer should:  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is not closed on binary operations.

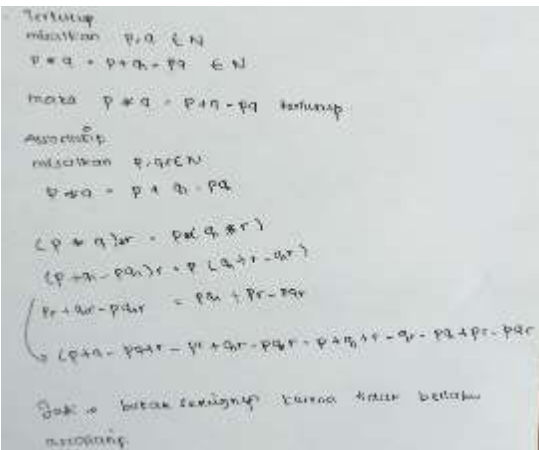
	<p>Translation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Closed</li> </ul> <p>For example, <math>p, q \in N</math></p> $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ <p>Then</p> $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ <p>Are closed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Associative</li> </ul> <p>For example, <math>p, q \in N</math></p> $p * q = p + q - pq$ $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ $(p + q - pq)r = p(q + r - qr)$ $pr + qr - pqr = pq + pr - pqr$ $(p + q - pq + r - pr + qr - pqr$ $= p + q + r - qr - pq + pr$ $- pqr$ <p>So, it is not a semigroup because it does not apply associative nature</p>
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Figure 5: The result of subject 2

Figure 5, shows that Alex described his proving through the closed nature and the associative nature was performed spontaneously as he only described it procedurally. The proving result showed that the claim was correct that the problem was not a semigroup, but the steps taken

by Alex to prove it were incorrect. Alex was doubtful about the result of the associative nature proving, so that he constructed the existing knowledge to be re-prove by taking any element of the set of natural numbers in the form of  $N = \{1,2,4,5\}$  as in Figure 6.

<p>misalkan.  <math>p=1</math> <math>q=2</math>      <math>p=4</math> <math>q=5</math>  <math>1+2-(1 \times 2)</math>      <math>4+5-(4 \times 5)</math>  <math>3-2=1</math>              <math>9-20=-11</math></p> <p>Jadi ditinjau dari pembuktian pada sifat tertutup, <math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> bukan termasuk semigrup karena definisi tersebut hanya berlaku pada angka tertentu saja. misalkan jika dimasukkan pada bilangan asli hasil operasinya bukan termasuk anggota himpunan bilangan asli.</p>	<p>Translation:              For example,  <math>p = 1; q = 2</math>  <math>p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - (1 \times 2) = 3 - 2 = 1</math>              For example,  <math>p = 4; q = 5</math>  <math>p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - (4 \times 5) = 9 - 20 = -19</math>              So, it is not closed nature, then  <math>p * q = p + q - pq</math> is not a semigroup.</p>
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Figure 6: The results of Alex's thinking construction

Alex did the proving twice by substituted elements of the set of Natural Numbers (N). First, Alex considered  $p = 1$  and  $q = 2$  to obtain  $p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - 2.1 = 1$ , because 1 is an element of N as a set of natural numbers, then he claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  is closed. Second, he did the proving by assuming that  $p = 4$  and  $q = 5$  and then obtained  $p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - 4.5 = -11$ . Since the result is -11, he changed his claim into  $p * q = p + q - pq$  for all  $p, q \in N$  was not semigroup because it is not closed on binary operations in natural number.

*A : Means that for example something like this,  $p = 1$  and  $q = 2$ , then  $p + q - pq = 1 + 2 - 2.1 = 1$  is obtained. The result is the natural numbers, ma'am.  
 For example,  $p = 4$  and  $q = 5$  and then  $p + q - pq = 4 + 5 - 4.5 = -11$   
 Oh, right.... It's not, ma'am.  
 So that the closed nature is not applicable, isn't it?*

The thinking process conducted by Alex in completing the test was by identifying the problem first. The information in the problem stated that N is a set of natural numbers, but Alex used a real number scheme to prove it. This is because he only knew the semigroup proving in real numbers in which it can be said that he did an assimilation process. The proving of closed nature was done only by looking at the information in the problem then made a claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  is closed on binary operations. After that he performed algebraic operations by manipulating symbols to prove the associative nature. From the proving of associative nature, it was obtained that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not associative on binary operations because  $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$



$(q * r)$ . Then Alex made a new claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup on the binary operations because it did not fulfill the associative nature.

Alex conducted a review on his own result. He checked the correctness of the claim by proving the problem using the elements of natural numbers. Then he obtained the result in the form of a negative number (-11) so that he changed the claim in which  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not closed on binary operations because -11 is not an element of the natural numbers. From the claim, he said that proving associative nature was not needed because the first condition of the semigroup was not fulfilled. After that, he made a justification that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup on binary operations.

Based on the result of exploration to subject Alex, it is known that he conducted procedural proving as he used real numbers to proof close property of natural numbers which resulted in incorrect conclusion. However, Alex tried to re-examine the statement in the test and presupposed the element of natural numbers in the form of  $N = \{1,2,4,5\}$  to perform the close property proving. Thus, Alex actually performed assimilation but obtained the incorrect conclusion. He then reconstructed his knowledge by presupposing any element of natural numbers so as to say that he performed accommodation.

### Subject 3

Dita identified the problem that would be proven in almost the same way as what subject 2 did. First, Dita identified the problem by using semigroup proving on real numbers and integers. Dita claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  with  $p, q \in N$  is a semigroup on binary operations because it fulfilled the closed nature and the associative nature.

<p>▷ Tertutup  <math>p * q \in \text{bil. asli}</math>  <math>p * q = p + q - pq \in \text{bil. asli}</math></p> <p>▷ Asosiatif  <math>p, q, r \in \text{bil. asli}</math>  <math>(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)</math>  <math>(p + q - pq) * r = p * (q + r - qr)</math></p> $\begin{aligned} p + q - pq + r - (p + q - pq)r &= p + q + r - qr - p(q + r - qr) \\ p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr &= p + q + r - qr - pr - qr + pqr \\ p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr &= p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr \end{aligned}$ <p>Karena <math>(N, *)</math> memenuhi sifat asosiatif &amp; tertutup          maka <math>(N, *)</math> merupakan semigrup</p>	<p>Translation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>closed  <math>p * q \in \text{natural numbers}</math>  <math>p * q = p + q - pq \in \text{natural numbers}</math></li> <li>Associative  <math>p, q, r \in \text{real numbers}</math>  <math>(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)</math>  <math>(p + q - pq) * r = p * (q + r - qr)</math>  <math>p + q - pq + r - (p + q - pq)r</math>  <math>= p + q + r - qr</math>  <math>- p(q + r - qr)</math>  <math>p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr</math>  <math>= p + q + r - qr - pq</math>  <math>- pr + pqr</math></li> </ul>
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	$  \begin{aligned}  & p + q - pq + r - pr - qr + pqr \\  &= p + q - pq + r - pr \\  &\quad - qr + pqr  \end{aligned}  $ <p>Because the natural number satisfies the associative and closed nature, so that natural number is a semigroup on the binary operations</p>
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Figure 7: The result of subject 3

From Figure 7, it can be seen that Dita did the closed nature proving only by writing  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ . She only paid attention to the shape of the symbol without paying attention to the element of the set of natural numbers, it is to say that the proving was done spontaneously. Then the associative nature proving was done through manipulation of symbols by assuming that on the left-hand side  $p + q - pq = p$ ;  $r = q$  and on the right-hand side  $p = p$ ;  $q + r - qr = q$ . From this assumption, she performed algebraic operations and obtained the result of  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Her mistakes in deciphering the associative nature proving resulted in errors in her claim. Dita claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq$  is a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers. Then she reconstructed her knowledge by saying that the proving of semigroup of natural numbers needed not only algebraic symbols but also needed to be proven by using numbers which were elements of natural numbers. She said that it was based on the thinking process so that it was not written on the answer paper. This was revealed in the interview transcript as follows:

- R : From the claim you have obtained, are you sure that  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$  included in semigroups on binary operations of natural numbers?
- Di : Actually, I'm not sure about that ma'am ...  
Because the proving of the semigroup on original numbers will be more valid if it is to be done by using the algebraic symbols and also the numbers
- R : What do you mean by that?
- Di : Let me explain this ma'am ... suppose I take  $p = 10$  and  $q = 12$  so we get  $p * q = p + q - pq = 10 + 12 - 10.12 = 32 - 120 = -98$

Dita identified the semigroup problem by assimilation based on the known semigroup definition. She said that the semigroup contained a closed and associative nature. She did the proving of closed nature just by looking at  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$ . Then she did the proving of the associative nature by performing algebraic operations through symbol manipulation. Dita said that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  is associative because  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Then she claimed that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  is a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers because it satisfied the closed and associative nature. This claim existed because she performed procedural proving without paying attention to the element of natural numbers.

However, Dita conducted a review of her proving that has been done. She conducted accommodation by reconstructing the existing knowledge schemes. She assumed that the natural numbers are  $p = 10$  and  $q = 12$  which are then substituted into  $p * q = p + q - pq$ . He obtained -98 as the result of the substitution while -98 is not a natural number. Therefore, she changed her claim by saying that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup on binary operation of natural numbers as it doesn't apply the close property.

Based on the exploration process done to all subjects, it is obtained that the construction of students' thinking in completing mathematical proving tests related to abstract algebra can be simplify as shown in Table 4. The following Table 4 will explain the constructing activities conducted by students based on the assimilation and accommodation framework.

Table 4: The thinking process of the subjects.

Subjects	Schemes	Mental Activities	Students' Construction
Dwi	Assimilation	Performed algebraic operations to get $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ so that $p * q = p + q - pq$ with binary operations in natural number is not associative but it is closed.	Reviewed the results of the associative nature proving then performed algebraic operations through symbol manipulation. The review was conducted to change the claims that stated $(p * q) * r \neq p * (q * r)$ into $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . Justified that $p * q = p + q - pq$ is semigroup to respect binary operations of natural numbers.
Alex	Assimilation and accommodation	Identified the problem by using semigroup proving of real numbers based on his previously understood scheme. Then did the proving by manipulating the symbols.	Determined mathematical rules in the form of semigroup definitions in the set of real numbers. He then performed the reconstruction by presupposing the element of natural number in the form of $p=4$ and $q=5$ . Gave justification by changing the claim which initially was in the form of $p * q = p + q - pq$ is semigroup to respect with binary operations in natural numbers, and then the claim became $p * q = p + q - pq$ with binary operations in natural numbers is not semigroup because it doesn't fulfill the closed nature.
Dita	Assimilation and accommodation	Identified the problem that would be proven by using previous knowledge related to the proving of semigroups of real numbers and integers.	Gave a statement that to prove the semigroup does not only need the mathematical symbols, but also the numbers which are elements of natural numbers. Then substituted the natural numbers element into $p * q = p + q - pq$ .

			Changed the claim with a new claim in the form of $p * q = p + q - pq$ with a binary operation in $N$ is not a semigroup because it didn't meet the requirement of closed nature of the natural numbers.
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Students first constructed their knowledge from assimilation and then performed accommodation. The students' thinking construction began by conducting problem identification to solve the mathematical proving problem. The identification was done as a first step in understanding the problem to be proven (Öztürk & Kaplan, 2019). Then separated the object with its context (Sternberg et al., 2008). In this research, the students tried to understand the problem to be proven by identifying the information presented in the problem. The students mentioned that in the proving of semigroup in a non-empty set  $G$  with binary operations, the semigroup requirements in the definition need to be understood first.

The semigroup definition includes the closed and associative nature (Hungerford, 2000). The students mentioned that non-empty set of  $G$  could be real numbers or integers. Then the students used the scheme of knowledge about real numbers to prove the semigroup of natural numbers. The proving of closed nature happened quickly by looking at the symbols  $p, q \in N$  and  $p * q = p + q - pq$  without considering about the members of natural numbers set. The proving that has been done through thinking quickly and automatically is called thinking intuitively (Leron & Hazzan, 2009; Leron, 2014). After that, the students performed algebraic operations by manipulating symbols to prove the associative nature. Symbol manipulation is an activity conducted by students to solve mathematical problems related to algebra (Bleiler et al., 2014). The students performed algebraic operations to prove the associative nature of  $(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$ . From the results of the closed and associative nature proving, the students gave a claim that  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was a semigroup on binary operations of natural numbers. Claims are statements that are often used in solving mathematical proving problems that need to be verified (Panza, 2014).

Furthermore, the students reviewed or re-checked the claims they made (Mason, 2010). The students constructed their knowledge to check the correctness of the claims (Quansah et al., 2018). The students did the thinking construction by re-considering the statements that would be proven by assimilation and accommodation. The students said that the proving of semigroup of natural numbers was not only by using algebraic symbols but also by using numbers that are elements of a set of natural numbers. Then the students did the proving again by using numbers to get new claims:  $p * q = p + q - pq \in N$  was not semigroup because it didn't meet the requirement of closed nature on binary operations of natural numbers. The students can make justification from the proving activity twice. Justification shows the confidence level of the students on the conclusions made based on scheme (Mason, 2010).



The result found that intuitive and analytical thinking are not two separate things because students can construct intuitive and analytical thinking processes using assimilation and then accommodation schemes (Rusou et al., 2013; Iannello & Antonietti, 2008). Some of the students solved the problems of semigroup intuitively because they only used the assimilation scheme to construct their existing knowledge. Whereas the other students who were able to solve the problem intuitively and analytically because they did the process of assimilation and accommodation. At the students accepted the problems, they intuitively solved it based on their existing knowledge, even though the context of the problem was different. Therefore, the students' thinking process in constructing their knowledge to complete the proving of abstract algebra can be described as follows (see Table 5):

Table 5: students' thinking process based on assimilation and accommodation schemes

Steps	Activity
Identifying	Mentioning information in the question or problem
Determining rules	Using definition concept.
Proving with symbol manipulation	Performing algebraic operations to prove
Reviewing	Re-checking the claim that has been made. If they are not sure yet, then the proving activity needs to be done again
Justifying	Make a conclusive conclusion based on the result of the review

Students are able to combine intuitive and analytical thinking to make reasoning in solving mathematical problems (Macchi & Bagassi, 2012). Intuitive and analytical thinking are two different things (Rusou et al., 2013). Intuitive thinking is a model of thinking that occurs quickly, spontaneously, automatically (Leron, 2014). Meanwhile, analytical thinking is a model of thinking which is conducted through a slow process related to mathematical rules. Analytical thinking is related to situations, practices, statements, ideas, theories, and arguments (Thaneerananon et al., 2016). The process of analytical thinking starts from observation, determining the supporting rules, and checking or rejecting intuitive responses (Sternberg et al., 2008). The supporting rules act as a guarantor for the students in giving reason for each step of the mathematical proof (Faizah et al., 2020a).

## CONCLUSION

Based on the result of this research, it can be concluded that accommodation happens when students re-construct their knowledge based on the assimilation scheme through 5 steps of thinking process. The five steps are the identification; determining the mathematical rules to be used; carrying out the mathematical proving by means of symbol manipulation, review, and justification.

Therefore, the finding of this research can be used as a tool to develop students' knowledge in solving the mathematical proving problems through assimilation scheme and accommodation scheme to ensure that the proving is not conducted spontaneously. Students should understand the

meaning of each symbol presents in the question to avoid misconception to the result of the proving that have been performed.

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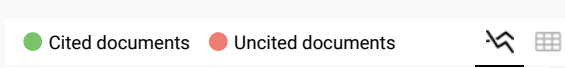
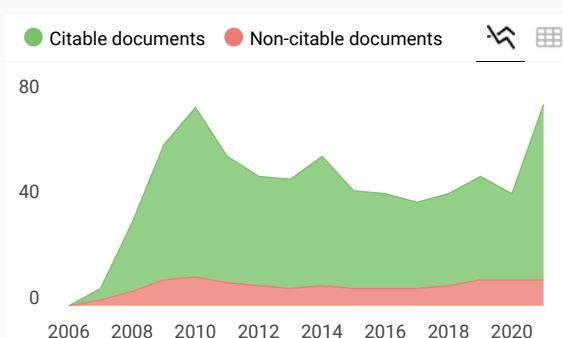
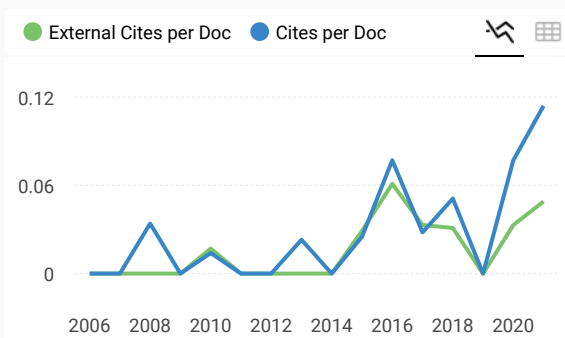
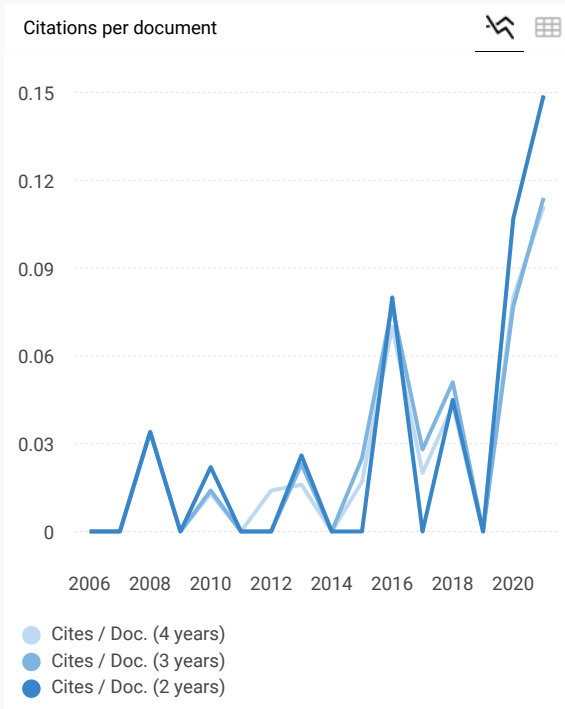
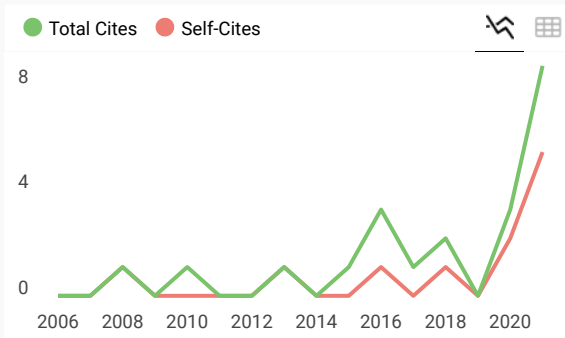
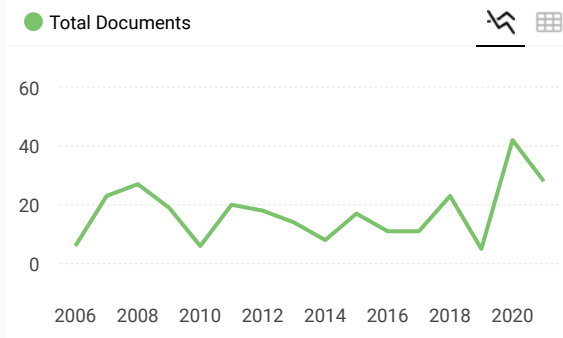
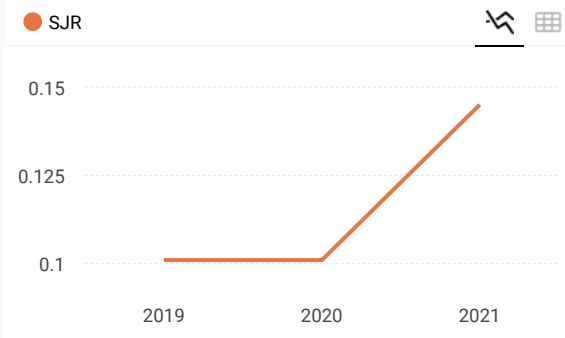
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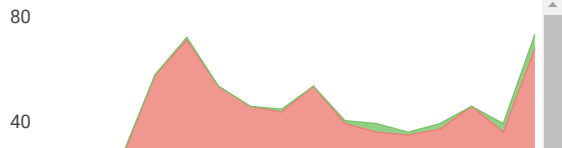
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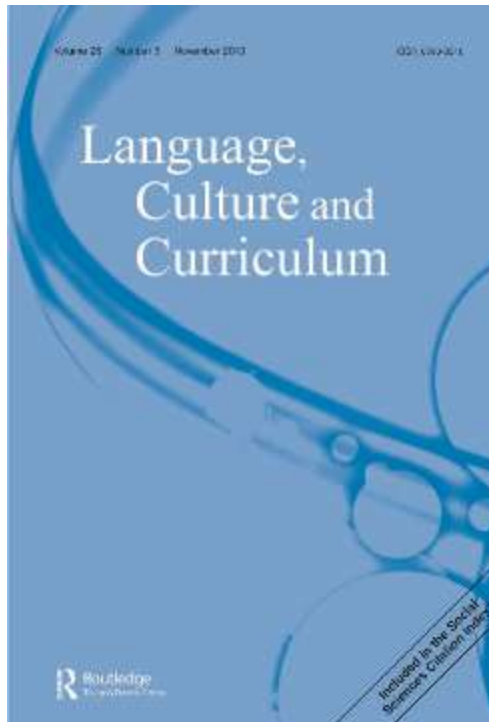
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## Linguistics study and critical thinking: two sides of the same coin?

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Keywords:	Vietnam, English, Tertiary education, Linguistics teaching, language and cognition, teaching methods
Abstract:	<p>From a linguistic perspective it seems intuitive that a strong link would exist between the study of linguistics and critical thinking (CT). After all, linguistics is about making sense of language analysis, and CT enables meaningful analysis. Yet this link has virtually never been clearly defined or made explicit, nor emphasized in introductory linguistics textbooks nor, consequently, in linguistics teaching and learning. This paper explores the influence of CT on students' learning of English Linguistics and the contribution of English Linguistics courses to students' CT development from the perspectives of undergraduate English Linguistics students and their lecturers, with a view to improving both students' linguistics study and their CT. Drawing on data collected in questionnaires and interviews at a public university in Vietnam, the findings of the study reveal a range of aspects of linguistics tasks and classroom activities where the link is significant as well as a range of specific CT skills and dispositions that are related to linguistics teaching and learning. The study also suggests the use of problem-solving tasks and open-ended questions for fostering this reciprocal relationship.</p>



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## **Linguistics study and critical thinking: two sides of the same coin?**

### **ABSTRACT**

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Keywords: Linguistics study; Critical thinking; Reciprocal relationship; Problem-solving tasks; Open-ended questions

### **Introduction**

The study of linguistics can play a key role in professionalising the communication of people working in a wide range of professions, not least the profession of language teaching (Another author & Co-author, 2012; Edge, 1988; Macaulay & Syrett, n.d.). However, many language students find studying linguistics very difficult, even daunting, and they argue that it is too abstract. Many lecturers, no matter how passionate they are about teaching linguistics, find it very challenging to teach it effectively, to show that the discipline is worthwhile, and to help students

enjoy learning it. The following passage vividly describes the type of feelings students and lecturers in linguistics courses might easily have:

In my experience, the waste involved in these courses can be prodigious: the wasted time and effort of the lecturers, who complain of the apathy or stupidity of their students; the wasted time and effort of the students, who complain of the irrelevance and jargonized complexity of the subject, as well as of the indifference to language teaching of their lecturers. Worst of all is the waste of potential – the continuing alienation of generations of language teachers from an area of knowledge which should be a source of constant support to them. (Edge, 1988, p. 9)

From a linguistic perspective, there is potentially a strong link between linguistics study and CT, in which CT underlies effective teaching and learning of linguistics and vice versa. This potential link basically lies in the development of linguistic thought – “Western thinking about language, meaning and communication” (Harris & Taylor, 1997, p. i), linguistic theories “as complex networks of more or less sophisticated arguments and counter-arguments” (Kertész & Rákosi, 2014, p. 4), and “the connection between logic and linguistics” (Gregory, 2015, p. 7).

The link between linguistics study and CT, however, remains under-researched in spite of its great importance to both fields. In the existing literature, although many studies have been conducted on either linguistics or CT in language teaching and learning, there are “very few on explicitly teaching linguistics through core research in the discipline” (Pappas, Taboada, & Alexander, 2019, p. e340) and clearly even fewer on the relationship between linguistics study and CT. Thus, this paper contributes to the literature on the teaching and learning of both linguistics and CT, seeking to understand how linguistics study and CT interact with each other with a view to improving both students’ linguistics study and their CT skills.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: The second section examines the relevant literature on the relationship between linguistics study and CT. The third section describes the study's research methodology. The findings of the study are reported and discussed in the fourth and fifth sections respectively, before concluding remarks are provided.

## **Literature review and research question**

### ***Linguistics study and the importance of critical thinking to linguistics study***

Linguistics is “the study of human language” (Fromkin et al., 2018, p. xvi). As a discipline, it provides “knowledge about language and languages” and “an important sense of humanity – what it actually means to be human, as opposed to some other form of animal life” (Co-author, 2007). In linguistics, students learn about many aspects of human language, including sounds, words, sentences, meaning, the origins of language, the nature of human language, the psychology of language (i.e. language acquisition and language processing), and language and society (i.e. language in society, language change, language and culture) among others (Fromkin et al., 2018; Yule, 2020).

According to Macaulay and Syrett (n.d.), linguistics programs are “organized around different aspects of the field”. Although undergraduate linguistics programs in different countries and different universities may vary in their emphases, structures and approaches, they often share broad common purposes, similar requirements and standard textbooks. In many undergraduate programs, linguistics courses often comprise an introductory course in linguistics, phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, systemic functional grammar and discourse analysis, among others (Macaulay & Syrett, n.d.). These linguistics courses provide students with knowledge of the core areas of linguistics, enhancing and enriching their



understanding of how language is used and developed over time.

In recent years, research in teaching linguistics has shed some light on the importance of CT to linguistics study. For example, Anderson (2016) conducted a think-aloud study of undergraduates in an introductory linguistics course to understand how they learned to reason scientifically about phonology. As Anderson (2016) explained, “A core element of scientific reasoning in linguistics is the ability to think about language as observable data and to draw conclusions from one’s empirical observations” (p. e274). The study provided insights into novice phonology students’ mental representations of key linguistic concepts and made recommendations for instructors of introductory linguistic courses to help students cross “the threshold to linguistic thinking” and develop the ability to reason scientifically about language (p. e274). In the Vietnamese context, Nguyen and Nguyen’s (2017) action research, although not focusing exclusively on CT, shows the positive influence of explicit higher-order thinking skills instruction and assessment on students’ learning of linguistics “in terms of the learning process, performance in assessment, creativity, and motivation to learn” (p. 113). As far as CT is concerned, the findings of the study indicated, “As their analytical and critical thinking skills were improved, students gradually constructed the strategies to make the best of themselves in learning tasks, even though those were the demanding tasks in such a theoretical subject as linguistics” (p. 126).

***Critical thinking, its linguistic factors and the contribution of linguistic courses to the development of critical thinking***

CT is a complex concept which can be traced back to “the teaching practice and vision of Socrates 2500 years ago” (Paul, Elder, & Bartell, 1997, p. 8). In the existing literature, the term “critical thinking” has been looked at from different perspectives and defined in different ways (Davies,

2015). In one of the most widely used definitions of CT, it is defined as “reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do” (Ennis, 1989, p. 4). This kind of thinking hints at the importance of CT skills and dispositions. Davies (2015) brings together the most important of these which have been identified by key scholars in the field. He notes that CT skills, though related, are quite varied: They include analysing arguments, claims or evidence; judging or evaluating arguments; making decisions or problem-solving; inference-making; predicting; reasoning verbally; interpreting and explaining; identifying assumptions; defining terms; asking questions for clarification; and thinking about thinking (Davies, 2015, p.53). As for CT dispositions, Davies notes that they include respect for alternative viewpoints; inquisitiveness; open-mindedness; fair-mindedness; the propensity or willingness to seek or be guided by reason; a desire to be well-informed; tentativeness, scepticism, tolerance of ambiguity, and appreciation of individual differences; seeing both sides of an issue; intellectual humility, intellectual courage, integrity, empathy, perseverance (Davies, 2015, p. 56).

The question of how CT can be taught has long been subject to debate between the ‘generalists’ and the ‘specificists’. Fostering students’ CT in linguistics courses seems to achieve a happy balance between these two views. The generalists find it helpful to “teach CT abilities and dispositions separately from the presentation of the content of existing subject-matter offerings” (Ennis, 1989, p. 4). It is interesting to note that language is an essential component of CT skills and an indispensable part of CT teaching according to the generalist view. In learning CT, students will be taught, for example, the language of reasoning, the patterns of reasoning, the difference between language in which arguments are presented and language in which explanations are offered, and ways of clarifying and interpreting expressions and ideas (Fisher, 2011). This is, in fact, what students can learn from linguistics courses, especially from courses in syntax, semantics,

and discourse analysis.

The specificists, by contrast, hold that CT is subject specific (see, for example, McPeck, 1981). The existing literature has looked into the incorporation of CT into subject-matter instruction in linguistics courses. For example, CT can be fostered through a problem-based learning approach (Filimonova, 2020) or a writing-intensive approach (Pappas et al., 2019) in linguistics courses. Welch and Shappeck (2020) have also identified how a signature assignment in linguistics aligns in both pedagogy and content with key competencies, among which CT “tends to be especially salient” (p. e66). These studies show evidence that linguistics courses provide a stimulating environment with different subject areas and a variety of activity types for students to think critically in. The findings of these studies support the position taken by McPeck (2016), who expresses the view that “thinking is always thinking about something” and that “critical thinking always manifests itself in connection with some identifiable activity or subject area and never in isolation” (p. 5).

### ***Research question***

Despite a growing body of research on CT in linguistics teaching and learning, scant attention has been paid to the two-way relationship between them. This study seeks to address this gap by answering one research question: What is the link between linguistics study and CT as perceived by undergraduate students and lecturers in English Linguistics?

### **Research methodology**

#### ***Data collection***

This research was conducted in an English Linguistics undergraduate programme of a large public university in Vietnam, where linguistics courses are offered in the curriculum and CT is encouraged in its professional and dynamic learning environment. At the beginning of the project, invitations were sent to five lecturers who were experienced in teaching English Linguistics and all senior full-time undergraduate students who were taking an English Linguistics course in the programme. Four lecturers and twelve students were able to arrange their time to take part in the study on a voluntary basis. The lecturers (named L1 to L4) were qualified with Master's and PhD degrees in TESOL, Linguistics or Applied Linguistics, or an EdD degree, all of which had been obtained in Australia or the United States of America (USA). Three of the lecturers were Vietnamese faculty staff, and the other<sup>1</sup> was an invited foreign lecturer from a Western university. All the students (named S1 to S12) had taken some or all of the English Linguistics courses. Research ethics approval was obtained from [name] before the study commenced.

This study forms part of a larger research project on CT in English language teaching (ELT). In the larger project, the participants were first invited to complete a questionnaire. There were two versions of the questionnaire, one for lecturers and the other for students. The students then did two CT tasks. Following the completion of the questionnaires and the responses to the CT tasks, the students were invited to take part in follow-up semi-structured interviews. The lecturers, for their part, evaluated the students' CT tasks responses for evidence of CT before being invited for semi-structured interviews. The purpose of the interviews was to gain a better understanding of the data previously obtained. Each interview, which lasted about 30-45 minutes, was audio

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<sup>1</sup> The invited foreign lecturer, for whom English was a second language, started teaching English at the age of 15. They are denoted as L4 (Lecturer 4) in this study.

recorded to enable an accurate transcription. As the participants' competence in English was adequate for the research activities, all the data were collected in English.

For the purposes of the current paper, responses to relevant items in the questionnaires and interviews, which seek information about the relationship between linguistics study and CT, were collated and analysed. The relevant questionnaire items solicited information about the perceptions of the definition and description of CT, examples when students' CT skills were nurtured in an English Linguistics classroom, the role of CT in the programme and in linguistics courses, experiences with CT being integrated in English Linguistics teaching and learning, and the importance of English Linguistics courses in developing students' CT skills. During the interview, the participants were asked to further share their perceptions and experiences of integrating CT in English linguistics teaching and learning. For example, the lecturers were asked questions about the need for CT in English Linguistics courses, the role of CT in their daily lesson plans and the challenges they face in implementing CT in the classroom. The students were asked questions about whether they need good CT skills, what role CT had and whether they were conscious of being a critical thinker in their linguistics study.

### ***Data analysis***

Inductive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was employed in this study. The audio recordings were transcribed and during the analysis, triangulated through data comparison to responses to relevant questionnaire items to ensure reliability. The data were subjected to a “recursive process, where movement is back and forth as needed”, throughout six phases, namely “familiarizing [ourselves] with [our] data”, “generating initial codes”, “searching for themes”, “reviewing themes”, “defining and naming themes”, and “producing the report” (Braun & Clarke,

2006, p. 87). Three overarching, and often overlapping, themes formed by the combination of either different codes or sub-themes became evident: (1) the importance of CT in English Linguistics study, (2) the usefulness of English Linguistics courses for developing students' CT, and (3) how best to foster the link between linguistics study and CT.

## **Findings**

This section reports on the main findings about the relationship between linguistics study and CT from the perspectives of both undergraduate students learning English Linguistics and their lecturers.

### ***The importance of CT in learning English Linguistics***

The majority of the participants (except S10) emphasized the importance of CT in the study of English Linguistics, as one typical quote reveals:

If you don't have CT skills, you cannot learn, you cannot be a good learner in linguistics. (S3)

To illustrate their responses, the participants discussed various reasons why CT, in terms of skills and dispositions, was desirable in English Linguistics courses.

First, many students perceived that CT was important in English Linguistics study because it helped them understand the lessons and perform different kinds of linguistics exercises, tasks and assignments, from analysing sentences, especially ambiguous sentences, and drawing tree diagrams in English Syntax to interpreting words and sentences in English Semantics, or from interpreting a certain utterance in light of situations where it is used in English Pragmatics to analysing conversations in Discourse Analysis. Many of them could not go further in explaining

why CT was needed for those exercises and assignments. Two of them, however, could explain it more clearly:

Such analysis is to give the learner a deep understanding of sentences and their uses; if they have knowledge from analysing those sentences, they can use the language more appropriately and correctly. (S2)

First, the teacher will give a lot of rules for me to study, but then, language has a lot of exceptions, and with those rules, we can apply to most of the cases, but to some cases, we cannot apply [them]. And with just the basic rules, we cannot analyse all of the language, so we have to think critically, and we have to do more research and discussion and then analyse the language better. (S3)

We have to analyse the structures so we can understand the meanings of sentences, and then we can know what lies behind the basic language elements, and what are the meanings and the content behind the language. (S3)

This sub-theme, i.e. the necessity of CT in enhancing the understanding of linguistics and in facilitating the doing of linguistics exercises, tasks and assignments, was brought into greater focus in the lecturers' discussions. The lecturers indicated that students needed to have CT or be trained in CT to have a good understanding of English Linguistics. The reason for this was that all the subjects were "very theoretical" for students (L3) or because linguistics (Semantics, for example) had a lot of theories, which could sometimes be "very subjective" (L2). The lecturers even emphasized that it would be "hard enough" for lecturers to "just make [students] understand the textbook" (L3), or that "basically the students have to be thinking critically about everything we teach" in order to apply the concepts that were taught by their lecturers (L4).

In addition, the student participants talked about other aspects of the influence of CT skills and dispositions on linguistics study, with much clearer expression of their views. For example, they discussed the following four main points:

First, the CT skills of making judgements, interpreting and explaining, and reasoning verbally are needed when performing correcting exercises. For example, S1 reported that in their English Syntax classes, the teacher usually invited several students to write their answers on the blackboard and asked other students to explain why they thought an answer was correct or incorrect. In this way, the students had to make judgements and think of supporting ideas to support their answers.

Second, the CT disposition of looking at an issue from different perspectives and the CT skill of making decisions offer an advantage for reading. One of the students (S5) said that thinking critically when reading could help students identify what was true and what was not true in articles. Another student (S6) explained that some linguistics books, such as the Morphology and Syntax coursebooks, were difficult to read because the authors did not get directly to the point from the beginning, but discussed different issues and different alternative viewpoints instead. Thus, students needed to “consider the problems in different ways” when reading rather than accepting “one truth”. Also, this skill and this disposition enable students to choose what to believe from multiple sources of knowledge. For example, S12 said, “The knowledge that we learn comes from a lot of books, a lot of sources, so we will have to choose that which is believable.”

Third, analysing, recognising and making arguments are also necessary in dealing with different sources of information. For example, one participant stated that “the teacher is also one of the sources of information, but sometimes he or she can be wrong, so we need to argue” (S12). Another participant pointed out that “in an article, the author says a, b, c, and then e and d”, and students had to “recognize that sequence to know what the author means” (S7).

In addition, the quest for linguistic knowledge requires students to have the CT disposition



of inquisitiveness or curiosity. As S4 put it, "Being critical will keep students curious and want to know more about the subjects. When they have an inquisitive mind, they can widen their knowledge."

Some of these key aspects were emphasised and carefully explained by the lecturer participants. For example,

I think [CT skills] help students to be more logical in their reasoning, and to avoid fallacies when arguing a point and to recognize the fallacies in other people's arguments. (L1)

The students may not agree with some of the points in the textbook or in the lecture, so they can raise their concern as well. [...] Also, because different books may talk about the same thing differently, the students may raise a lot of questions because they say "So, which one is correct?" That is when I think you should point out that it's very important to consider something in context, for example, and so they can look at that more critically, and not just believing in what the textbook says. (L2)

CT is there from level 1. Even when [students] start the Introduction to Linguistics, their learning comes from a lot of problems that they have to analyse [...]. They have to have good arguments. (L4)

In sum, the majority of participants acknowledged the crucial influence of CT on students' learning of English Linguistics. This contributes to the confirmation of the wide-ranging effects that CT can have on students' linguistics study.

### ***The usefulness of English Linguistics courses for developing CT***

The majority of the participants (except S10 and S12), through their examples and their ranking of the courses, put a lot of emphasis on the usefulness of English Linguistics courses for developing students' CT.

The participants first gave examples when CT was nurtured in an English linguistics

classroom. The student participants' examples could be classified into two categories. The first category consisted of examples that focused on exercises, tasks and assignments given, for instance the exercise of drawing tree diagrams in a Syntax class or that of analysing the transitivity of clauses in a Systemic Functional Grammar class. The second category included those examples that paid attention to classroom activities, for instance answer justification and peer feedback in exercise correction, recognition of errors in a coursebook, group discussion, and problem-solving activities. S11 gave an example:

In Semantics class, the teacher gave some questions or raised some problems, and then required my class to think and give our own opinions about those things. Since that, I learned how to think and link to my knowledge, experience, and information that I read, and told everyone about my ideas. (S11)

As for the lecturers, they wrote about classroom activities where students were asked to “agree or disagree with the suggested answers in the textbook” (L2), to compare between English and Vietnamese (L3), to “argue in favour of one structure versus another”, and to “provide arguments” (L4). Two of the lecturers were very explicit in stating that

In my Semantics class, when my students learn the politeness principle and the relationship between politeness and indirectness, I usually ask them whether “Would you like to come in?” or “Come on in” is more polite. I also ask them to think of directness in Vietnamese in comparison with English and whether Vietnamese is less polite than English. The comparison between English and Vietnamese can be culturally thought-provoking for my students. (L3)

Definitely, definitely, [...] the students will learn to be critical also in linguistics [...]. The students have to evaluate arguments, so you know, we give them linguistic arguments ... (L4)

The participants ranked English Linguistics courses offered in the programme in the order of importance for developing students' CT skills. According to the student participants' responses, *Introduction to English Linguistics* and *English Phonetics and Phonology* were generally ranked the lowest while *Semantics (which includes English Pragmatics)*, *Systemic Functional Grammar*

and *Discourse Analysis* were generally ranked the highest. The ranking of *English Morphology and Syntax* somewhat varied, from the most important to the least important, but was mostly positioned at the middle level.

*Introduction to English Linguistics* was ranked the lowest because it was the very first linguistic course introducing students to basic linguistic concepts, theories and practice. Notably, however, S7 ranked this course the highest, explaining that it was “the fundamental course for all [English major] students to explore more in Linguistics”. They added that promoting CT in this course would not only “help students in the learning process but also boost their CT skills and synthesising skills”. *English Phonetics and Phonology* was ranked the lowest for the following reasons: learning how to produce sounds and practising transcribing words do not contribute much to the development of an ability to judge, phonetic and phonological rules are quite clear and unchangeable, and the study of sounds is “less controversial”.

By contrast, *Semantics*, *Systemic Functional Grammar* and *Discourse Analysis* were generally the highest ranked courses for the following reasons:

English Semantics is the subject where I learn how to analyse the meanings. This depends on different situations, people, countries and cultures. (S11)

[For Systemic Functional Grammar], the teacher did not follow [...] the main course materials. He taught with his understandings and pointed out how they were different and more reasonable compared to those of the books. [...] It gave us a chance to compare between what he taught and what was written in the books. (S12)

As for Discourse Analysis, which is an inter-disciplinary area of research, there are various schools of thought. Learners need CT skills to understand, question and apply knowledge from this field. (S9)

The lecturers' opinions, which were mixed, shared several fundamental similarities with the students'. L1 ranked *English Morphology and Syntax*, which "require a great deal of analysis", the highest, and *English Phonetics and Phonology*, which "put more emphasis on description than analysis, the lowest. L2 ranked *Discourse Analysis* the highest because it was "an advanced course for senior students", and *Introduction to English Linguistics* the lowest because it was "a foundation course". The opinions of L3, who also took account of students' motivation in addition to the course content, stood in contrast to L2's. L3 believed that among the three linguistics courses that they taught, *Introduction to English Linguistics* was the most important for developing CT skills while *Discourse Analysis* was the least important. L3 commented:

[Introduction to English Linguistics] is covering a wide range of issues with comparison of different languages in the world. Also, this course is for juniors at my school, and they are still eager to learn. (L3)

[Discourse Analysis] is very theoretical, to cover what is in the course material is hard enough. It is possible if teachers can integrate CT skills in their lesson plans. This course is for seniors, so they have lost some of their zest for learning and most of the time they try to cope with the course while doing some part-time job. (L3)

However, according to L4, these courses could not be ranked and should equally develop CT because all of them dealt with data. They explained that linguistics was a "data-driven science", and CT in linguistics meant "data solving" and "data analysis". As L4 put it:

Linguistics is a science and should be taught as a "discovery" process for students. [...] All courses ought to develop CT as they apply the new concepts (as opposed to repeat concepts). (L4)

### *Strategies to foster the link between linguistics study and CT*

The participants suggested a few strategies to foster the link between linguistics study and CT, among which the two most notable types were problem-solving tasks and open-ended questions.

First, the development of CT is linked to an emphasis on problem-solving tasks. L1 noted that a problem-solving assignment “looks like a mathematics problem”, and recalled, “When I studied linguistics in Australia, obvious assignments are like problems which we have to solve”. Some student participants, for example S11, reported that the linguistic problems that their lecturers raised in class enabled students to think critically and connect linguistic knowledge in different areas of investigation to sources of data, their personal experiences, their beliefs and their prior knowledge, in order to come up with sensible answers.

The lecturers focused on the design and the use of problem-solving tasks in English Linguistics classes. One of the lecturers (L4), who was highly experienced in designing and giving students problem-solving tasks in their linguistics courses, shared helpful ways for dealing with these issues. According to this lecturer, there are two ways to teach linguistics: The first way is “to teach ABC, repeat ABC”, and the second way is that “you teach ABC, or even better, have [students] discover ABC, and then apply ABC to data where they need to pick, okay, it’s an A, it’s a B, it’s a C.” They stated that the responsibility of lecturers was to find and give students data to think about. For them, data came from books written in various languages, and what they did was “pick a book, look at some data, and then invent a problem from the data”. Sometimes they found data that could be adapted into good problems for their students when reading a journal article. They explained, “I don’t want [to use] that solution because it’s too advanced, but [my students] can play with the data, and see how [what] they can do.” They noted that the problems given to students should require answers that they should not be able to access on the Internet, and that as

students had to argue for and against possibilities to decide the best analysis, they should be taught the way of constructing an argument and the style of argumentation first.

In the Vietnamese tertiary context, when asked about the possibility that problem-solving tasks might lead to low scores among students, a lecturer commented,

At the beginning, yes, but we need to sacrifice something [i.e. high scores] in order to help students in the long term way. I think at the beginning, they will suffer something, but then they will get used to it and make progress and will be better in CT. (L1)

Another strategy for fostering the link between linguistics study and CT is an emphasis on open-ended questions. According to the participants, open-ended questions could exist in various forms. They could be either questions that students ask themselves when reading linguistics books or listening to others or questions that they ask their lecturers and their classmates in group or class discussions. They could also be questions that lecturers raised during their lectures or in the form of tasks for students' discussions and written assignments. For example, L3 encouraged students to ask questions regarding what they had read or what was going on in class. In a different way, L2 explained,

... normally, you should ask students not just, for example, true or false, but why true, why false. Or if they provide an answer, then "Why do you think this is the best answer?", for example. So I think if you keep asking why, then they have to think. (L2)

As seemingly different as open-ended questions may be from problem-solving tasks in terms of types of exercise or activity, these questions are, as demonstrated in the lecturers' and students' responses, actually a technique that can be used to scaffold students' CT learning and assist students to deal with their problem-solving tasks. Students in L2's English Linguistics classes did not have to agree with everything: L2 normally encouraged their students to "disagree

with something” as they thought that way of teaching was preferred by the students. They believed that the use of open-ended questions in exercises and activities would help students “raise their voice”. However, as lecturers encouraged students to ask a lot of questions, they had to be prepared to answer those questions as well, which could be “challenging for teachers sometimes” (L2):

... because you cannot prepare everything, because it depends on what the students say, and what the answers or the questions are. But I think if you know enough about the field and about the theory, then you will be able to answer the questions. (L2)

## **Discussion**

This paper has reported on an exploratory study about the perceptions of undergraduate students and lecturers in English Linguistics regarding the link between linguistics study and CT. If we put the first set of findings about the extent to which students in these courses need good CT skills side by side with the second set of findings about the extent to which English Linguistics courses develop students’ CT skills, it is interesting to note that frequent similarities, overlaps, and even combinations can be found between the examples, explanations, and comments provided as evidence to support the participants’ viewpoints on the two issues, which suggests an intimate link between linguistics study and CT. In other words, examining the importance of CT in learning English Linguistics is one way to look at the link, and investigating the usefulness of English Linguistics courses in developing CT is an alternative way to look at it. Such a strong link could be attributed to the nature of linguistics as a science as noted above by one of the lecturers. The following argument from Crystal (2005) provides further clarification on the inseparability of linguistics study and CT:

Linguistics shares with other sciences a concern to be objective, systematic, consistent, and explicit in its account of language. Like other sciences, it aims to collect data, test hypotheses, devise models, and construct theories. Its subject matter, however, is unique: at one extreme it

overlaps with such 'hard' sciences as physics and anatomy; at the other, it involves such traditional 'arts' subjects as philosophy and literary criticism. (Crystal, 2005, p. 481)

Extending the existing literature, the first set of findings shows multiple dimensions by which CT is important to linguistics study. To return to the CT skills and dispositions that Davies (2015) brought together in order to develop a model of CT in higher education, although not all of them were specifically mentioned in the participants' discussions, many of the skills and dispositions could be clearly identified. What is interesting to note is that these skills and dispositions took on additional dimensions, which were particularly emphasized in linguistics study, when being viewed in different contexts of linguistics teaching and learning, and seen through different 'prisms' of the discipline. For instance, the immersion in a topic area in linguistics requires a competent but questioning understanding of different theories; doing linguistics exercises and assignments involves taking a position on the topics and their related theories.

The second set of findings provides important insights into the usefulness of English Linguistics courses in developing CT. First, the participants' responses confirmed that these courses could provide a good environment for students to practice thinking critically, supporting McPeck's (1981) viewpoint on the manifestation of CT in a subject area. The responses also showed, though not as clearly as in the previous finding, that the courses enabled students to use language properly to express their thoughts, thus contributing to the development of CT. In addition, the findings about the participants' ranking of English Linguistics courses and the reasons that they gave for their highest and lowest ranking could serve as a reference point and a practical guideline for lecturers to integrate CT into their courses and for students to monitor and improve their own learning behaviours. Although there might be several explanations for the differences in



the rankings of the participants, four explanations that emerged most clearly from the findings were the course content, lecturers' instruction, students' motivation and the participants' subjective perceptions. The element of subjectivity, which is inevitable, should also be taken into proper account in the teaching and learning of linguistics. As noted by one linguist:

What happens in phonology, and why, seems to me less mysterious than what happens in syntax (a field that I know less about), and much less mysterious than what happens in morphology (a field that I know more about but still do not understand well). That is a subjective reaction. (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2011, p. 25)

The third significant set of findings relates to how problem-solving tasks and open-ended questions can be instrumental in moving lecturers towards productively integrating CT into English Linguistics courses and moving students towards thinking critically in their studies. These findings shed some light on what underlines the reflections on practice in Bauer (2011) and Chung (2011), among other teacher-scholars who contributed valuable ideas about teaching linguistics subjects in Kuiper (2011). Reflecting on his experience of teaching morphology, Bauer (2011) emphasized that English morphology “does present us with enough data to train students in many of the problems of morphological analysis” (p. 33). Chung (2011), in relation to teaching syntax, found it helpful to guide students “through a combination of structured problem sets and Socratic interaction in the classroom” (p. 36). As she described,

Instead, the instructor provides a problem set which students solve outside of class, either alone or – better – collaborating with one another. Students write up their solutions in essay-style format and submit them at the beginning of the next class. Class time is devoted to discussion of their solutions, with the instructors guiding students to assess the merits of each solution and settle on one solution as superior. (Chung, 2011, p. 36)

These findings also help us understand why in the latest edition of Fromkin et al. (2018, p. xvi) the authors note that they “have provided many new exercises and problem sets in this edition so that students can apply their knowledge of linguistic concepts to novel data” and added “more research-oriented exercises [...] for those instructors who wish their students to pursue certain topics more deeply”. As these exercises are very important for students learning linguistics, they should not be ignored, as may often be the case. On the contrary, they should receive careful attention in the teaching of this discipline.

## **Conclusion**

This paper set out to show how CT benefits and animates English Linguistics courses and, in return, how these courses can foster students’ CT. Addressing this aim, the study’s findings have made explicit the strong link between linguistics study and CT, which was perceived by English Linguistics students and their lecturers to be manifested in various linguistics exercises, assignments and teaching/learning activities. The evidence from this study suggests that if English Linguistics courses are to be taught and learned in an effective way, then the influence of CT on students’ learning and the contribution of these courses to students’ CT development appear to be two different ways of looking at the same issue or, in other words, “two sides of the same coin”. While it may be true that there is no one right way to integrate CT into English Linguistics courses, the use of problem-solving tasks and open-ended questions have been suggested to enable English Linguistics students to become better linguistics learners and more competent critical thinkers. It is hoped that this study will make a useful contribution to considerations of teaching and learning in the discipline of Linguistics in general and in English Linguistics in particular.

## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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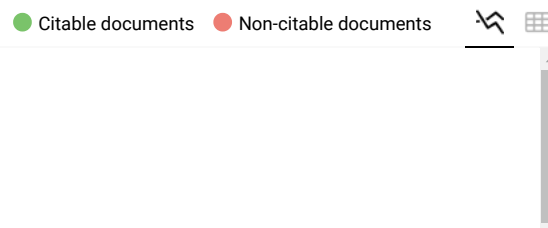
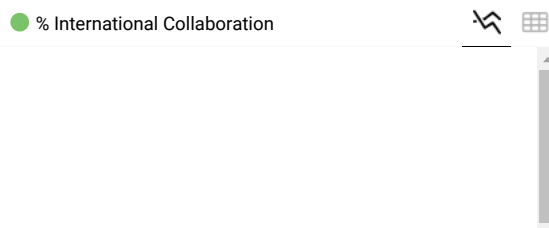
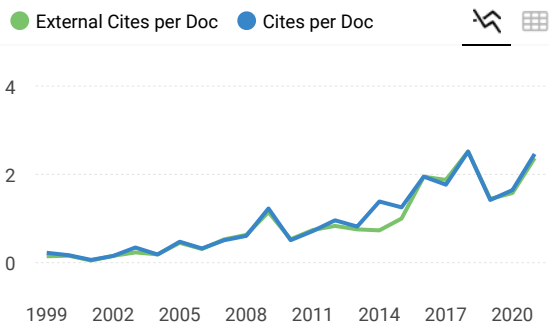
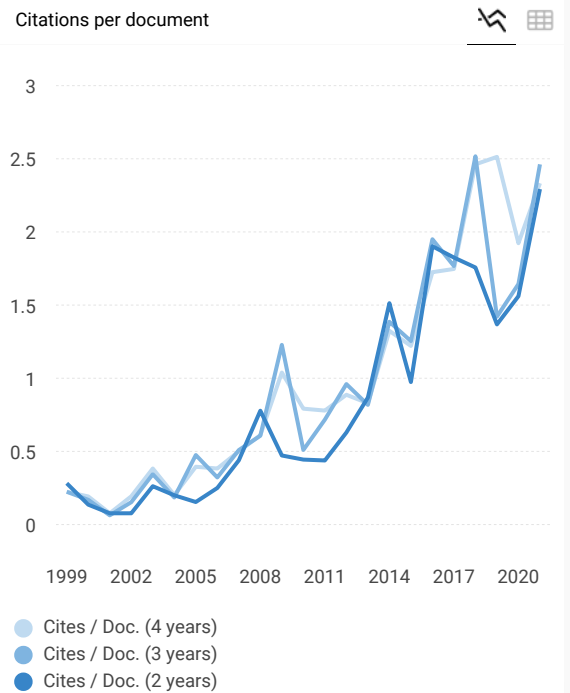
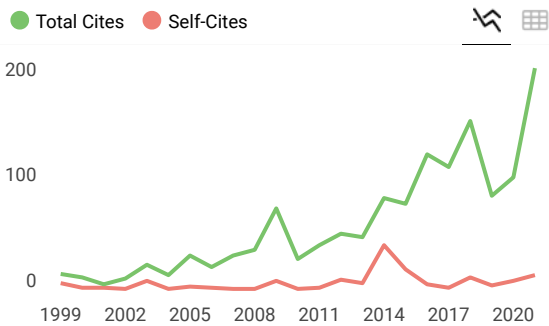
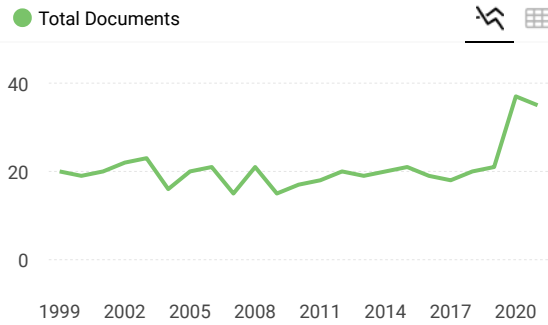
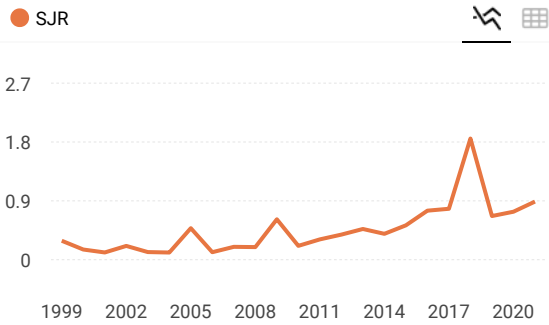
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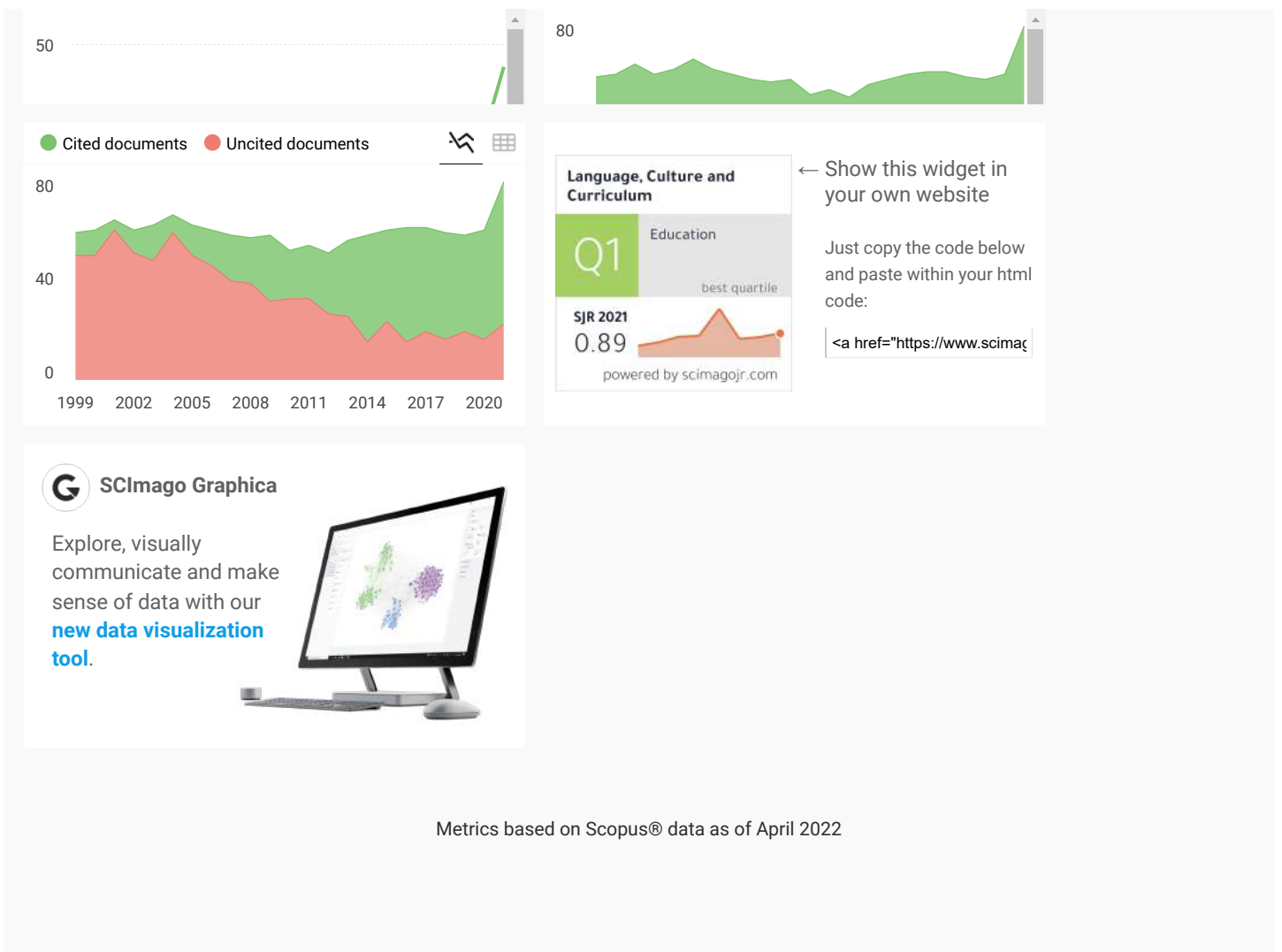
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