

DOES THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE HELP OR HINDER THE SPELLING IN THE
SECOND LANGUAGE?

A CASE OF INDONESIAN AND ACEHNESE LANGUAGE

A Thesis

by

ASTRI YULIA

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

May 2009

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	R. Malatesha Joshi
Committee Members,	Dennie Smith
	Robert J. Hall
Head of Department,	Dennie Smith

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ABSTRACT

Does the Spoken Language Help or Hinder the Spelling in the Second Language? A
Case of Indonesian and Acehnese Language. (May 2009)

Astri Yulia, B.A., Syiah Kuala University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. R. Malatesha Joshi

The general purpose of this study was to examine the spelling of five phonemes that are similar in Acehnese and Indonesian but represented by different graphemes in the two languages. This study aimed to see whether the exposure to the spoken Acehnese the participants' received helps or hinders their spelling in the Acehnese words. The Indonesian language is the national language of Indonesia while the Acehnese language is a regional language spoken by the people in a province named Aceh which is located in the northwestern tip of Sumatra Island, Indonesia. In Aceh, the majority of the population is bilingual in Indonesian and Acehnese. In the school system, Indonesian is taught as the first language. Acehnese is taught as a second language in elementary and junior high schools. Meanwhile, some children in Aceh speak Acehnese at home while other children speak Indonesian at home. Therefore, this study hypothesized that the children who speak Acehnese at home spell better in Acehnese compared to the children who do not speak Indonesian at home. To test the hypothesis, this study analyzed the 50 Acehnese words that include five targeted Acehnese graphemes. The participants of this study were students in grade 4 who were enrolled in four elementary schools in Aceh,

Indonesia. The results of this study indicate that the exposure to spoken Acehese interferes with the participants' spellings in Acehese words. On the other hand, exposure to the written Acehese the students received in school influenced the students to spell better in Acehese.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

There have been many studies investigating transfer of orthographic system from one language to another language (Luelsdorff, 1986; Morris, 2001; Wang & Geva, 2003). One type of transfer that has received attention is literacy skills transfer. Literacy is defined as the ability to use printed and written information to function in society, to achieve one's goals, and to develop one's knowledge and potential (UNESCO, 2008). Conventionally, literacy refers to the skills of reading, writing, and spelling. Literacy has become a serious issue in academic environment. Approximately 25% of all individuals in the U.S. have difficulty acquiring reading and spelling skills: Over 1.5 billion people in the world cannot read, one-third of fourth grade students are unable to read simple books, and an increasing number of adults are unable to read a newspaper or a bus schedule (Lyon, 2001; NCES, 1999). Failure to acquire literacy skills means facing serious consequences in the future. Lyon (2001) estimated that 15% of students who drop out of school have reading problems, over 75% students reported with difficulties in learning to read and only 2% of them proceed to complete a four-year college program. The fact shows that failing to acquire literacy skills causes consequences of an individual's future success.

This thesis follows the style of *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*.

Some children may acquire literacy skills easily, but other children may face difficulties in acquiring the skills. Failure in literacy has been considered as a public health issue, as reported by Lyon (2001) "...that failure to learn to read places children's futures and lives at risk for highly deleterious outcomes" (para. 5). Therefore, reading failure is categorized as a public health problem (McCardle & Chhabra, 2004). There are several reasons and elements that affect children facing difficulty in acquiring literacy skills. Several of the many reasons are the socio-economic status of the family; the child oral language development and hearing problem; instructions provided in schools; and the orthography of the language in which the child learn to read.

Moats (2001) claimed that socio-economic condition of the family affects children literacy acquisition. Other research said that parents' involvement increases children literacy, for example, parents reading to their children help them in their literacy skill development (Fietelson, 1964 cited in Joshi, 2007). McBride-Chang (2006 cited in Joshi, 2007) claimed that the number of books available at home predicts children's success in literacy acquisition. Having many books at home enables children to get access to print and the possibility of parents reading to their children is high. Besides the students' socio-economic status; home background; and reading materials at home, oral language and hearing problem of the child also cause failure in literacy skill acquisition (Hart & Risley, 1995)

The greatest factor responsible for the children's failure in literacy acquisition lies in teaching instructions provided in schools. Many teachers believe that reading is not a skill but it is an innate ability children inherit since they were born (McCardle &

Chhabra, 2004). On the other hand, Carroll (1963 as cited in Joshi, 2007) claimed that ineffective or insufficient instruction in classroom causes high percentage of school children fail to acquire literacy skills. Another study reported that majority of the children with reading disability are a result of an instructional dysfunction (Calfee, 1983 as cited in Joshi, 2007). In addition, Ehri (1989) stated that inadequate instruction spawning limited reading and spelling development and limited phonological awareness is the primary cause of reading disability.

The other factor that affects children's literacy development is the orthography nature of the language. Orthography plays a very important role in the acquisition of literacy. This is supported by a study by Seymour, Aro, and Erskine (2003) which claimed that the orthography of a language determines the reading success of its speakers. Furthermore, Rickard Liow and Lee (2004) claimed that the literacy level is projected by the orthography of the language. For example, the English-speaking-children need two years of instruction to decode in English while the children with European language backgrounds (Germany, Spanish, etc) only take one year to decode in their own languages (Seymour, Aro, & Erskine, 2003).

Because literacy is a very broad topic to analyze, this study will focus only in spelling. Spelling has been said to be a predictor for success in literacy acquisition as Joshi, Treiman, Carreker, and Moats (2008) suggested that good performance in spelling eases literacy acquisition. Further, the spelling performance of a child has been found to be a better predictor of an individual's knowledge of alphabetic principle because spelling is more demanding than reading, for it is a recall task than a recognition task

(Joshi, Hoiem, Feng, Chengappa, & Boulware-Gooden, 2006). In fact, research interest in spelling has received lack attention from researchers compare to other literacy skills (Joshi et al., 2008). This study specifically examined whether the exposure to the spoken Acehnese the participants' received helps or hinders their spelling in the Acehnese words by looking at the participants' spelling performance on five target graphemes in Acehnese.

Rationale

There are various factors that enable the transfer of one language to the other. In the transfer of spelling, phonological awareness, alphabetic knowledge, and orthographic system of both languages were found as important factors (Figueredo, 2006). This study considers the differences in orthography and writing system as one of the very significant factors to influence the spelling transfer from one language to the other. There are three basic branches of the orthography within the languages of the world. They are alphabetic, logographic or morphophonemic, and syllabic languages. The alphabetic orthography is the writing system that has been widely used in the world's writing system. The largely used alphabetic orthographies are Roman alphabet—also popular as Latin alphabet, Cyrillic alphabet, Arabic alphabet, etc. The alphabetic orthography is the writing system in which much research has been conducted. Most graphemes in the alphabetic writing system represent the phonemes of the language. Different with the alphabetic orthography, the logographic or morphophonemic languages generally have their graphemes represent the morphemes of the language. The example of the morphophonemic orthography is Chinese. Syllabic orthography lies

between the alphabetic and morphophonemic languages in terms of sound-symbol representation. The graphemes of this writing system represent syllables of the language. There are two types of syllabic orthography; one has the potential phonemic representation and the other is fully syllabic based sound-symbol correspondence. The Korean Hangul orthography is a syllabic based with potential phonemic representation while Japanese Kana does not have potential phonemic representation.

In terms of orthography, both Indonesian and Acehnese use Roman alphabet. Although both languages use a similar writing system, there are peculiarities exist between the two languages: Similar phonemes are represented by different graphemes in the two languages. Because orthography has been said as one of the significant factors to affect literacy transfer, this study speculated that there would be a difference in the spelling performance between the children who were exposed to the spoken Acehnese and those who were not.

The Indonesian Language

Indonesian is a standardized dialect of Malay called *Bahasa Indonesia*—it is named *Indonesian* in English. This language is part of the Western Malayo-Polynesian subgroup of the Malayo-Polynesian branch of the Austronesian languages. It was decreed as the national language of Indonesia in 1928. Indonesian is spoken by more than 200 million people and it makes the language ranks around sixth or seventh in size among the world's languages (Quinn, 2001).

Before 1928, Indonesian was called Malay. The Malay language had similar role to other languages spoken in the area which is now called the Republic of Indonesia. The

people in the area speak many different languages. Quinn (2001) claimed that there are hundreds of languages spoken in the area. Among the hundred languages, Acehese is one of them. In 1928, the Indonesian nationalist movement chose Malay for the national language. For this reason, many people in Indonesia became bilinguals because they still use their regional languages in their daily communication, and they have Indonesian as the national language.

The Linguistic Description of Indonesian

Phonology and Orthography. Indonesian is a transparent language. Transparent means the correspondences between the sounds and writing symbols are nearly one-to-one mappings. There is also a correspondence between the letter names and sounds in Indonesian vocabulary (Winskel & Widjaja, 2007). Indonesian uses the Roman alphabet and it has 25 letters with letter *x* is only used in borrowed words; the language has about 27 phonemes and 28 graphemes. All letters are represented by one phoneme and one grapheme except for letter *e*. Letter *e* has three phonemic forms; *e*, *ə*, and *ɛ*. The language has three diphthongs; *ai*, *au*, and *oi* and a few consonant clusters.

Morphology. Indonesian words are dominantly bi- and multisyllabic. The following syllable structures are possible in Indonesian: consonant-vowel (CV), CVC, CVCC, CVV, VC, V, and VCC. Indonesian also has a rich system of affixations: It has about 25 affixes. One affix carries, at least one semantic function (Winskel & Widjaja, 2007), for example, the stem word *baca* becomes *membaca* (to read), *terbaca* (to be read), *bacaan* (reading text), and *pembaca* (reader).

Indonesian in Formal Instruction. As a national language, Indonesian is taught at school as a main subject. Another reason to formally teach the language in school is that many citizens usually use their regional languages for daily communication; therefore, the people who lack exposure to Indonesian need formal instruction in the language. Indonesian is introduced as early as a child receives the formal education.

The Acehnese Language

The Acehnese language is one of the regional languages spoken in Indonesia. Acehnese is spoken in a province of the Republic of Indonesia named *Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam* (addressed as *Aceh* later in the present study). Aceh is located on the northwestern tip of Sumatra Island of which its historical record first appeared in the fifteenth century (Durie, 1996). Before it was ruled under the Republic of Indonesia, Aceh was a kingdom governed by a sultanate (Durie, 1996; Reid, 2004). In the early ages, Aceh was famous for its pepper production and its trading system in the world. Aceh had good linkages in economics, politics, and culture to the Indian Ocean and the Malayan Peninsula. Reid (2004) stated that Aceh was also influenced by the Arabic culture because of the spread of Islam. After the colonists left Indonesia, the Republic of Indonesia is formed. Since then, there have been many rebellious movement regimes in Aceh demanding for a free state (Reid, 2004). In December 2004, the largest natural disaster in three decades hit Aceh; the tsunami disaster. It killed about 250,000 people and caused devastating damages in the city of Banda Aceh and Meulaboh. One year after the disaster, the rebellious movement agreed for a peace agreement with Indonesia. In

addition, Indonesia has granted Aceh an autonomic power, meaning the local government of Aceh has rights to make their own policies.

Although both languages, Indonesian and Acehnese, are spoken in a similar area, they hold differences in terms of linguistic elements. Based on its linguistic evidences found by Thurgood (2007), Acehnese is included in the Chamic languages but lexical evidences of Acehnese relate to the Malayic languages because of the long term, close contact between Acehnese and the Malayic languages. According to Thurgood (2007), the Chamic languages that are linguistically related to Acehnese are a subgroup that includes the mainland Chamic languages Phan Rang Cham (Eastern Cham), Haroi, Jarai, Rade, Chru, and Roglai found in central Vietnam, Hainan Cham (Tsat) found near Sanya on the southern part of Hainan Island, and Western Cham found in parts of Cambodia and Thailand. On the other hand, Acehnese also has close contact with the Malayic languages (e.g. Malay and Minangkabau) because they are spoken in one region.

The Linguistic Description of Acehnese

The Phonology of Acehnese. Phonology is the study of the sound system of a language. Acehnese is one of the languages in which the vowels play a significant role in the sound systems. Every word in Acehnese should contain at least one vowel sound (Al-Harbi, 2003). The vowel phonemes are categorized under four groups; monophthongs, nasalized monophthongs, diphthongs, and nasalized diphthongs. See Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 for the lists of vowels and diphthongs with nasalized and non-nasalized ones in Acehnese. In the tables, the symbols were based on the IPA standard

symbols. Front, mid and back refer to the place of the articulation while high, mid, and low refer to the manner of articulation.

Table 1. Vowel Phonemes in Acehnese.

	Front	Mid	Back
High	i	ɨ	u
Mid	e	ə	o
	ɛ		ʌ ɔ
Low		a	

Table 2. Nasalized Vowel Phonemes in Acehnese.

	Front	Mid	Back
High	ĩ	ɨ̃	ũ
Mid	ẽ		õ ɔ̃
		ã	
Low		ã	

Table 3. *Diphthong Phonemes in Acehnese.*

	Front	Mid	Back
High	i ^a	ɨ ^a	u ^a
Mid	ɛ ^a		ɔ ^a
Low			

Table 4. *Nasalized Diphthong Phonemes in Acehnese.*

	Front	Mid	Back
High	ĩ ^a	ɨ̃ ^a	ũ ^a
Mid	ẽ ^a		õ ^a
Low			

As a language that uses the alphabetic writing system, consonants are also important in Acehnese. There are 20 consonant sounds in Acehnese (Al-Harbi, 2003). See Table 5 for the list of consonant sounds in Acehnese. The symbols were adopted from the IPA phonemic symbols. The column refers to the places of articulation and the rows represent the means of articulation.

Table 5. Consonant Phonemes in Acehnese.

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	glottal
Stops	p b	t d	c ɟ	k g	ʔ
Fricatives		s	ʃ		h
Nasals	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
Trills		r			
Lateral		l			
Glides	w		j		

The Orthography of Acehnese. Acehnese is comprised of many dialects. The linguistic system given in this study is the standard type. It is based upon the official orthography (*Ejaan Bahasa Aceh yang Disempurnakan*) determined in the Seminar of the Acehnese Language Development officially named *Seminar Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa Aceh, Universitas Syiah Kuala* in Indonesian (Daud & Durie, 1999): The Seminar held in August 25-26, 1980. A new approach to orthographic standard has been introduced by the *Pusat Penelitian dan Pengkajian Kebudayaan Islam* in the translation of the Holy Koran into Acehnese verse (see Jusuf, Tgk. Mahjiddin, 1995. *Al-Quran al Karim dan Terjemahan Bebas Bersajak Dalam Bahasa Aceh*).

Acehnese is a transparent language that has many one-to-one mapping in the sound-grapheme relationships. With regard to the consonant sounds, there are also 20 consonant letters in Acehnese. See Table 6 for consonant letters.

Table 6. Consonants in Acehnese

Consonants in Acehnese																	
b	p	m	w	d	t	s	n	l	r	j	c	sy	ny	y	g	ng	h

The language also has consonant clusters (Daud & Durie, 1999). The possible consonant cluster formulas are:

1. [p, t, c, k, b, d, j, g, r, l, ny] + h
2. [p, t, c, k, b, d, j, g] + r
3. [p, k, b, g] + l
4. [mb, nd, nj, ngg]

Similar to the sound system of Acehnese, at least one vowel should also be written in a word in the Acehnese orthography. There are nine vowel letters in Acehnese (see Table 7 for vowel letters).

Table 7. Vowels in Acehnese

Vowels in Acehnese									
i	é	è	eu	ë	ö	a	u	ô	o

The letter sequence *eu* is regarded as one vowel not two. In Acehnese, when the vowels are pronounced nasalized, the letters are also written or marked with special symbols called nasalized vowels. There are six common nasalized vowels in Acehnese. The vowels after nasal consonants are also nasalized, but those vowels do not have nasal mark (see Table 8 for nasalized vowel marks).

Table 8. Nasal Vowels in Acehnese

Nasal vowels in Acehnese						
‘i	‘è	‘eu	‘ö	‘a	‘u	‘o

Acehnese is rich in diphthongs. There are 7 to 8 diphthongs in Acehnese. Most diphthongs appear in the medial positions of syllables. The diphthongs are also nasalized in a number of lexicons. When the diphthongs are nasalized, special marks are also written before the diphthongs (see Table 9 for a list of diphthongs in Acehnese).

Table 9. Diphthongs in Acehnese

Diphthongs in Acehnese						
ie	èe	eue	ëi	ai	ue	ôi oe

The Correspondence of Phonology and Orthography. The mapping of grapheme into sounds is quite shallow in Acehnese. Most of the sounds are represented by one grapheme. The aspirated consonants and non-aspirated ones are spelled differently. The

nasalized and non-nasalized vowels are also spelled in different patterns. The mapping of print to sound is quite regular in Acehnese because the mapping between sounds-graphemes is transparent and has one-to-one correspondence (Daud & Durie, 1999).

Consonants [d, t, s, n, l, r] are all alveolar sounds articulated by touching the tongue tip against the hard ridge behind the upper teeth. However, the letter *s* is the exception because it is produced with the blade of the tongue against the alveolar ridge; thus, the articulation manner of letter [s] in Acehnese is laminal fricative. The glottal stop is written as letter [k] at the end of a syllable. Glottal stop at the beginning of a syllable is not written, for example *laôt* (sea) has two syllables, the word is pronounced /laʔôt/ and a single syllable word such as *u* (coconut) begins with a glottal stop when it is pronounced. In some words, the glottal stops are not pronounced but they are replaced by *y* or *w*, for example *meuriyam* (canon) and *tuwan* (sir).

The Morphology of Acehnese. Acehnese morphology is rich in stem words—most of them are single syllable words but multi-syllable words can also be found. The overall structure of Acehnese syllable structure is C(C)V(V)(C). In Acehnese, the onset may consist of a consonant optionally followed by another consonant (Al-Harbi, 2003) and the rime may consist of a vowel alone, a vowel with a consonant, a diphthong alone, or a diphthong with a consonant. The possible syllable structures in Acehnese are presented in Table 10 below:

Table 10. Possible Syllable Structures in Acehnese

Syllable Structure	Sample Word	English Translation
V	u	Coconut (n)
VV	ie	Water (n)
VC	ek	to climb up (v)
CV	ba	To carry (v)
CVV	cue	To steal (v)
CVC	mon	Well (n)
CVVC	kueh	To dig (v)
CCV	nyo	Yes
CCVV	phui	Light (adj)
CCVC	plah	To split (v)
CCVVC	kriet	Stingy (adj)
CVVV	peue	What (QW)
CVVVC	jeuet	Able (adj)
CCVVVC	kleuet	Wild (adj)

It can be seen in syllable structures above that no syllable ends in a sequence of consonants (except for the ending with *ng* as in *krueueng*, *kleueng*, *ureueng*, *etc.*), but a syllable can begin with a sequence of consonants.

Research Questions

Based on description of Indonesian and Acehnese provided above, this study speculated that children make spelling errors when they spell Acehnese words due to the peculiarities between the two languages (e.g., difference phoneme-grapheme

correspondence, early literacy instruction the children received, exposure to spoken Acehnese, etc). In addition, instruction on spelling the children received was also one of the factors responsible for spelling errors. The important question to ask was whether the exposure to the spoken Acehnese the participants' received helps or hinders their spelling in the Acehnese words. This study also questioned whether the children who speak Acehnese at home spell better than those who do not speak Acehnese but learn Acehnese from textbook at school.

The difference in spelling Acehnese words was measured by looking at the spelling of the words containing the following graphemes in Acehnese:

1. Vowel eu in Acehnese, the similar sound is represented by grapheme e in Indonesian.
2. Consonant cluster ph in Acehnese, the similar sound is represented by grapheme p or f in Indonesian.
3. Vowel è (appears in the initial and medial position of the syllable) *and* èè (appears only in the final position of the syllable) in Acehnese, the similar sound is represented by grapheme e in Indonesian.
4. Vowel eue in Acehnese, the similar sound is represented by grapheme e in Indonesian.

Acehnese	Indonesian
eu	e
ph	p <i>or</i> f
è	e
èè	e
eue	e

Definitions of Key Terms

- Language transfer refers to the process of applying rules or forms of the first language into the second language.
- Orthography is a system that specifies the writing system of how to write in a language.
- Vowel is a sound in a spoken language that is pronounced with an open track of sound articulation means.
- Consonant is a sound in a spoken language pronounced with a closure of means of articulation.
- Diphthong is a two-vowel sound.
- Monophthong is a single vowel sound.
- Phonology is a study that elaborates the sound system of a language.
- Morphology is a study analyzing the word structure of a language
- Consonant cluster is a two-consonant sound.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Transfer

Language transfer is understood as the effect of first-language knowledge that was learned during the development of first-language skills on learning or performance when spelling in a second language (Figueredo, 2006). Figueredo scrutinized that there can be two transfers from L1 to L2: positive and negative. According to Figueredo, positive transfer occurs when first language knowledge can be appropriately applied to second language spelling, phonological awareness is transferred, and there is positive relationship between first-language skills and second-language spelling skills. The transfer can be negative when the second language learner uses the strategy of the first language knowledge, which is not appropriate, to spell words in the second language. For example, transferring the specific orthographic rules of L1 is considered as inappropriate. Unfortunately, there has not been any research conducted on the orthography transfer of Indonesian to Acehnese specifically studying about spelling and reading transfer. Therefore, it is hard to provide evidences of positive or negative transfer between the two languages.

Although there is no evidence of spelling and reading transfer from Indonesian to Acehnese, there has been a reasonable amount of studies confirming that early first-language literacy skills predict later literacy skills in a second language (Akamatsu, 1999; Durgunoglu, Nagi, & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993; Figueredo, 2006; Sparks, Paton, Ganschow, Humbach, & Javorsky, 2008). The present study reviewed the studies that

are considered related to the spelling analysis between Indonesian and Acehnese. For example, the oral and written exposure of the second language, phonological awareness transfer, and difference in the linguistic and orthographic nature of the two languages were predicted to be factors affecting language transfers.

The influence of written exposure of the second language to the spelling performance of the language learners has been confirmed by Aaron and Joshi (2006). Aaron and Joshi (2006) analyzed the English spellings of three groups of students who came from different backgrounds: the Tamil medium group who were from Indian classes with exposure to written English of one hour a day, English medium group who were from Indian classes with entire school day English exposure, and the American group whose English is the native language. The Indian children first language was Tamil—a Dravidian language. The findings of the study provided evidences that dialectical variation of English contributes to spelling errors because of the influence of phonology on English spelling (Treiman & Barry, 2000; Treiman, Goswami, Tincoff, & Leever, 1997). Treiman and Barry and Treiman et al. (1997) examined the English spelling errors of the British and American children and adults to whom English is the native language. As an expansion to the studies, Aaron & Joshi (2006) hypothesized that “children who learn English as a second language from textbooks, being free from dialectical influences, would be better spellers than children from whom English is the native language” (p. 552). They also hypothesized that the ESL students might not be better spellers than the native English-speaking children but the type of spelling errors committed by the two groups of children were predicted to be different. The findings of

the study analyzing the spelling performance of 124 students from Tamil medium group, 44 from English medium group, and 171 from the American group indicated that children in Tamil medium group committed more errors than the other two groups. It can be concluded that children who learn English in written form or from textbooks perform better spelling than do children to whom English is the native language. More generally, it can be summarized that children who are exposed to written form of the second language can spell better than those who receive more oral language exposure.

Although the Indian children were better spellers compared to the American children, they also committed spelling errors. Aaron and Joshi (2006) qualitatively analyzed the nature of the spelling errors. Most of the spelling errors indicated the influence of their first language nature. For example, Indian children had difficulty spelling the word *yet*. They tended to misspell the word as *et*, *ait*, and *ate*. The misspellings may be caused by the negative transfer of first language knowledge. The Indian children had difficulty to spell grapheme [y] because there is no single grapheme to represent phoneme /y/ in Tamil. Tamil medium children substituted [k] for [g] as in *ago* misspelled as *ako* because in Tamil, there is no mark for glottal /g/ phoneme. Indian children substituted [c] for [s] as in *since* incorrectly spelled as *cins* because in Tamil, there is no distinction between voiced and voiceless /c/. Indian children replaced [el] with [l] or [y] as in *else* frequently misspelled as *als* or *yls* because phoneme /el/ is represented by a single grapheme in Tamil phonology. From this study, it can be concluded that the differences in phonology and orthography between the two languages influence children's spelling performance. In addition, the exposure to the spoken native

also causes spelling errors. Positively, visual exposure to written language facilitates effect on the acquisition of spelling skill.

One of the important factors that predict later reading success is phonological awareness (Muter, 1998; Treiman, 2006). Phonological awareness is sensitivity to the sound structure of language (Treiman, 2000). When the children are provided with the instruction to raise their phonological awareness in their first language, the phonological skills can later be transferred when the children learn a second language. Seymour (2006) stated that learning to read is about establishing mappings between written symbols and the spoken form and semantic of a language: Languages differ in their phonological and morphological structures that may influence the way in which literacy is acquired. Thus, instruction about letter-phoneme correspondence is important in the development of early literacy skills. Later, Treiman (2007) proposed that before children begin learning to decode, they must understand that writing represents language and that there exists a code to be broken. Therefore, providing children with early literacy skills such as phonological awareness is very important to develop their reading success.

One of the studies which have found that phonological awareness does transfer from first language to the second language was conducted by Durgunoglu et al. (1993). The primary purpose of the study was to investigate cross-language transfer in bilingual beginning readers. In addition, Durgunolgu et al. (1993) specifically asked whether phonemic awareness that develops through experience at home and school in a child's first language is related to word recognition in another language. To answer the question, they conducted a research on 31 Spanish-speaking first grade students. They were tested

in letter naming, Spanish word recognition, English word recognition, Spanish phonological awareness test, and Spanish oral proficiency test. The findings of the study indicated that Spanish word recognition and Spanish phonological awareness were better predictors of performance on English pseudoword and word reading test than were English or Spanish oral proficiency or English word recognition. The results also indicated that students who performed well on Spanish phonological awareness test were more likely to be able to read English words and English-like pseudowords than were children who performed poorly on phonological awareness test. From the study, it was concluded that to encourage good performance of a child's second language literacy skill can be done by building on the strengths that the child already has in his or her first language. Children who are able to read and have a high level of phonological awareness in their first language tend to perform well in the second language reading while those who lack phonological awareness in the first language tend to read poorly in the second language.

Besides phonological awareness, knowledge of letter names is also a very strong predictor of early reading success (Muter, 1998; Treiman, 2006). When children can differentiate letters in their first language, this knowledge can be transferred when they learn a second language. Ehri (2006) supported this idea by claiming "a key ingredient enabling the acquisition of word reading and spelling skill is knowledge of the alphabetic system" (p. 650). Alphabet is one of the key elements of the language. Providing children with the alphabetic knowledge in their first language helps the

children analyze the orthography system in a second language. Alphabetic knowledge is the knowledge of knowing the sounds of letters and groups of letters (Joshi, 2007).

Since the alphabet is a factor in language transfer, Gomez and Reason (2002) suggested that when two languages have the same writing system but the first is more transparent than the second language, children are able to utilize skills they learn in the first language without the need for semantic knowledge. This phenomenon can be expected to occur in the process of language transfer of Indonesian and Acehnese, since both languages are alphabetic.

Learning to Read and Spell in Indonesian

Because of its transparent orthography system and the close correspondence in the sound-letter relationship, the Indonesian language enables its learners to easier acquire its literacy acquisition. The study indicated that letter knowledge and phoneme play a significant role in learning to read in Indonesian (Winskel & Widjaja, 2007).

Different with the research results, according to Winskel & Widjaja, the reading course in Indonesian progresses firstly with the introduction to the alphabet. Later, the students are instructed to form syllables with a simple pattern of C and V, then the syllables are mixed to form words—no phonological processing involved. The teaching of the CV syllabic patterns, then, develops to the syllable pattern of CVC. Research on spelling in Malaysian also found that even though the language phoneme-grapheme relationship is transparent and predictable, the emphasis of early spelling is based on encoding at the syllable and morpheme rather than the phoneme level (Rickard Liow & Lee, 2004).

Malaysian is a standardized dialect of Malay spoken in Malaysia which is closely similar

to Indonesian; the major differences between the two languages are at the lexical level rather than grammatical level. Rickard Liow and Lee suggested that the syllable awareness would be a predictor of spelling and reading in Malaysian because the language has high salience syllable that makes the syllable tasks easier for the children. Concurrent analysis of Indonesian children's spelling in Grade 1 and Grade 2 indicated that syllable awareness play a significant role in initial reading and spelling, besides, phoneme is also a prominent unit in the early acquisition of literacy in Indonesian (Winskel & Widjaja). Therefore, phonological awareness is still a predictor for later reading success in Indonesian.

Although a significant amount of study has been conducted on literacy development in many languages, there were very few of them analyzed the Asian languages. Uniquely, Indonesian is considered as an Asian language but it uses the same Latin script as English except for Indonesian has a much higher degree of orthographic transparency. There has not been many research conducted on Indonesian literacy acquisition (Rickard Liow & Lee, 2004; Winskel & Widjaja, 2007). Specifically, Winskel and Widjaja suggested that additional research is required to investigate the phonological awareness and literacy acquisition in Indonesian.

Learning to Read and Spell in Acehnese

Being able to read in Acehnese in the traditional era means acquiring literacy in Malay and Arabic (Durie, 1996). The first stage of literacy in Acehnese is acquired in early childhood. At this first stage, children learn to recite the Qur'an in Arabic. *Recite* is closest in meaning to *beuet* in Acehnese which refers to recitation of the Qur'an and

reading aloud of Acehnese or Malay manuscripts. Children learning to recite the Qur'an mean that they learn to pronounce the Arabic alphabet and to recite the passages in the Qur'an in a village classroom. The children do not actually learn the Arabic language but the emphasis is to be good decoders to read the Qur'an. The next stage in literacy acquisition of Acehnese involves learning *Bahasa Jawo* (Malay Jawi) which is Malay written in the Arabic script. This language is usually used for written prose in traditional Acehnese society; religious textbooks, magic charms, letters and other documents were produced in *Jawi*. Unfortunately, there were not many Acehnese who were literate in *Jawi* because learning *Jawi* means travelling away from home to attend a *pesantren* (Islamic boarding school) for a period of two to three years. Durrie claims,

Through an ability to read *Jawi*—which itself presupposes prior training in Koran recitation—an Aceh person could acquire the skill of reciting Aceh from written texts. To the best of my knowledge there is not have been an established tradition of instruction in reading and writing Aceh. Rather Aceh language literacy presupposes preexisting literacy skills in reading *Jawi*. Aceh native self-descriptions use the term *Jawi* to refer to the orthography in which Aceh is written, as well as to written Malay language (p. 116).

In the traditional Acehnese, there are a good number of words similar to Malay as the cause of both borrowings and inherited forms. There are also many borrowings from Arabic to Acehnese. The *Jawi* script of Acehnese inherits from Arabic affected Acehnese to be an extremely less transparent language. The relationship of letters to sounds is many-to-many and there are only three vowels in the *Jawi* that are very

difficult to represent 30 distinct vowel sounds in Acehnese (including nasals and diphthongs). At the same time, a given phoneme may be represented by more than one letter. This means that the relationship between sounds and letters in Acehnese is not shallow and predictable.

Fortunately, when the literacy in Indonesian (previously called Malay) is being based upon the Roman alphabet, there has been a shift to using Roman letters for Acehnese. The first Roman alphabet of Acehnese standard called an earlier standard was developed by Snouck Hurgronje in 1893 (Durie, 1996). In 1980, a modernized standard—used at present time—was determined by a team of scholars at Syiah Kuala University. From the above descriptions, Durie formulates the sequence of literacy acquisition in Acehnese as follows:

Traditional Literacy:

Arabic transferred to Malay transferred to Acehnese

Modern Literacy:

Indonesian transferred Acehnese

From the sequences formulated by Durie, Acehnese literacy was acquired by a process of language transfer—Arabic and Malay transferred to Acehnese in traditional times and Indonesian literacy transferred to Acehnese in modern times. As an influence of the language transfer, the Acehnese language teaching starts at third grade level rather than first grade as Indonesian. The reason of providing instruction in Acehnese at the third grade is that to make sure the children becomes good readers in Indonesian prior to learning to read in Acehnese. Therefore, literacy skills transfer was expected to take

place from Indonesian to Acehnese. It is clearly seen in Bahrum, Suryatimurti, and Suryaningsih's (2002) Acehnese subject books that reflected the reading course in Acehnese. In the books, the reading course mainly contains about teaching comprehension, making sentences, and translation. There is no activity about the teaching of early literacy skills.

For the evidences mentioned above, it was speculated that Indonesian literacy skills cannot be fully transferred to read the Acehnese text because of the insufficient instruction in Indonesian early literacy skills. When the children are expected to use their Indonesian reading skills to read Acehnese text, early literacy instructions (e.g., phonological awareness, letter knowledge, etc) should have been provided to facilitate the positive transfers. In addition, it is also important to provide a similar amount of instruction on early literacy skills in both languages. Therefore, it was also predicted that the exposure to the spoken Acehnese the participants' received might help or hinder their spelling in the Acehnese words.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The Purpose of the Study

The present study aimed to examine the spelling of five phonemes that are similar in Acehnese and Indonesian but represented by different graphemes in the two languages. The spelling of Acehnese words were investigated to see whether the exposure to spoken Acehnese the participants received helps or hinders their spellings in Acehnese words.

Research Questions

In order to fulfill the above purposes, the present study formulated the following research questions:

1. Does the exposure to the spoken Acehnese children's received help or hinder their spelling in the Acehnese words?
2. Do children who speak Acehnese at home spell better than those who do not speak Acehnese but learn Acehnese from textbook at school?

Research Hypotheses

For the above research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. The exposure to the spoken Acehnese children's received benefits their spelling in the Acehnese words.
2. Children who speak Acehnese at home spell better than those who do not speak Acehnese but learn Acehnese from textbook at school.

Participants

The participants of this study were elementary school students in Grade 4 in Aceh, Indonesia. The data were obtained from four schools in Aceh, Indonesia. Two schools had students who speak Acehnese at home and with their peers and the other two schools had students who speak Indonesian in their homes and with their peers. From the data on the language background information that were obtained, the students have received at least three years of instruction in Indonesian literacy knowledge and one year of instruction in Acehnese. In addition, the Indonesian language was also a mean of instruction for other subjects, for example, Math and Science, thus the participants have more exposure of Indonesian than Acehnese at school. In regard to finding the differences in spelling of the students who are exposed and not exposed to spoken Acehnese, the data came from participants who were from the area where the population widely uses Acehnese to communicate and those who were from the population who mostly speaks Indonesian.

Procedure

The data were collected from 97 participants in grade four from four schools in Aceh, Indonesia. Of the 97 participants, 42 were from two schools that had students who spoke Acehnese at home and with their peers, and 55 students were from the other two schools that had students who spoke Indonesian in their homes and with their peers. Participants who spoke Acehnese were categorized into group 1 while the students who spoke Indonesian were grouped into Group 2. The group labeling was used to classify the participants for their spoken language that was also used as data to see the influence

of their exposure to the spoken-second language (in this case Acehnese). The age of the participants was about nine years old.

The words collected from the participants were a result of a spelling test administered by the Acehnese language teacher in each school where the data were collected. The spelling test contains fifty words which were carefully selected to match the students' familiarity to the words. The words were selected from the student textbook in Grades 3 and 4. When the teacher administered the spelling test, the participants heard the words in isolation first, then, the teacher repeated the targeted words in a sentence context, then the word was repeated one more time, finally, the participants were asked to spell the word on the provided sheet.

Spelling Test Result Analysis Method

There were five graphemes targeted in the 50 words collected from the participants' spelling test results. To compute the test results, each grapheme was counted separately. The participants' spelling was marked based on three categories: *Correct Acehnese Spelling* (the target grapheme in Acehnese was spelled correctly), *Transfer Indonesian Grapheme* (the target Acehnese grapheme was replaced with Indonesian grapheme for the similar sound), and *Other* (the target phoneme is spelled incorrectly, the target phoneme is replaced with another phoneme that is not related to the target phoneme, or the word is replaced with another word). Each word fell into one of the categories. The graphemes targeted were the followings:

- a) Similar vowel phonemes in Indonesian and Acehnese represented by different graphemes (/ə/ -- [e] for Indonesian; [eu] for Acehnese). The spelling test had twelve target words carrying the target phonemes in Acehnese.
- b) Phonemes in Acehnese but not in Indonesian (/ph/). Indonesian has phonologically related phoneme to the sound which is /f/ represented by grapheme [f]. Acehnese does not have grapheme [f]. The target words contained the target phonemes in Acehnese to see the spelling performance of the students’.
- c) Similar vowel phonemes in Indonesian and Acehnese represented by different graphemes (/ɛ/ -- [e] in Indonesian; [è] in Acehnese). Eight words were selected to measure the spelling of the target phonemes.
- d) Similar vowel phonemes in Indonesian and Acehnese represented by different graphemes (/ɛ/ -- [e] in Indonesian; [èe] in Acehnese). Ten target words measured the students spelling of the target phonemes.
- e) Similar phonemes in Indonesian and Acehnese represented by different graphemes (/ə/ -- [e] in Indonesian; diphthong [eue] in Acehnese). Twelve target words were used to analyze students’ spelling performance on the target phonemes.

After data were computed, the result was used to analyze the participants’ spelling products. The participants’ performance in spelling was analyzed based on which spoken language they are more exposed to—Acehnese or Indonesian. The participants were classified into two groups—high spoken Acehnese exposure and high spoken Indonesian exposure. The purpose of this classification was to analyze how the language exposure

affects spelling performance. Chi-Square test was the statistical tool used for the analysis. The results, discussion, and recommendations are provided in the next chapters

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The spellings of 50 words were collected from 93 participants in Grade 4. Originally, there were 97 participants but four of the participants were excluded because they spelled less than five out of the 50 words. From the 93 participants, 39 participants spoke Acehnese for their daily communication, labeled as Group 1, and 54 participants spoke Indonesian on daily basis, labeled as Group 2. The participants' performance in spelling was classified into three categories: *Correct Acehnese Grapheme* (includes words spelled using the correct Acehnese Grapheme), *Transfer Indonesian Grapheme* (includes words spelled by transferring the Indonesian grapheme), and *Other* (includes words spelled with other phonemically non-related grapheme, or replaced with other words). In analyzing the participants' spelling products of Acehnese words, their spoken language at home was considered as an influence. Therefore, the spelling performance was compared between Group 1 and Group 2. In addition, it is important to note that of the 50 words tested for spelling, there were five Acehnese graphemes targeted for the spelling analysis because of their peculiarities compared to the Indonesian graphemes; the five targeted graphemes in Acehnese has similar phonemes in Indonesian but represented by different graphemes. The five graphemes were [eu], [ph], [è], [èe], and [eue]. The results for each grapheme are presented separately in this study.

Grapheme [eu]

Of the total 465 words spelled by the participants in Group 1 of the grapheme [eu], 279 (60%) were spelled using the Indonesian grapheme [e], 20 (4.3%) were spelled correctly using the targeted Acehnese grapheme, and 166 words (35.7%) were spelled with other unrelated graphemes or substituted other words. Meanwhile, the participants in Group 2 spelled 634 words for the same target grapheme [eu], of which 334 (51.9%) were spelled using the Indonesian grapheme, 185 (28.8%) used the correct Acehnese grapheme, and 124 (19.3%) were spelled with other unrelated graphemes or substituted other words. Looking closer into each category, the comparison of the participants' spelling performance in Group 1 and Group 2 indicates that there is a difference across the three categories between the two groups. In spelling the words using the correct Acehnese graphemes, for example, the participants in Group 2 (90.2%) outperformed the participants in Group 1 (1.8%). Group 2 (54.5%) also had higher tendency to transfer the Indonesian grapheme to the Acehnese spelling than Group 1 (45.5%). On the other hand, the tendency to spell words with other unrelated graphemes or substitute the words is higher among participants in Group 1 (57.2%) in contrast with the participants in Group 2 (42.8%). For these two groups comparison, which targeted grapheme [eu], the $X^2 = 118.279$ ($df=2$; $p < .05$) indicate there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. The adjusted residual value of (+/-) 10.4 indicates that the most significant difference between the two groups occurred in using the correct Acehnese graphemes to spell the words, where Group 2 outperformed Group 1. The difference is due to the error the participants in Group 1 committed, which caused their spelled words fall into other

categories. The effect size V for the relationship between the two groups is .327. When the df is set at 2, effect size V of .372 is considered a large effect size. Table 11 shows the spelling performance of Group 1 and Group 2 in spelling Acehese words.

Table 11. Group Comparison on Spelling Grapheme [eu]

		Spelling Category			
		Correct Acehnese Grapheme	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme	Other	Total
Group 1	Count	20	279	166	465
	Expected Count	86	257.3	121.7	465
	% within Group 1	4.3%	60%	35.7%	100%
	% within category	9.8%	45.5%	57.2%	42%
	Std. Residual	-7.1	1.4	4.0	
	Adjusted Residual	-10.4	2.7	6.1	
Group 2	Count	185	334	124	643
	Expected Count	119.0	355.7	168.3	643
	% within Group 1	28.8%	51.9%	19.3%	100%
	% within Category	90.2%	54.5%	42.8%	58%
	Std. Residual	6.1	-1.2	-3.4	
	Adjusted Residual	10.4	-2.7	-6.1	

* $X^2 = 118.279$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, $V = .327$

Grapheme [ph]

From the 93 participants from the two groups, there were 744 responses. Participants in Group 1 attempted to spell 312 words and only 70 (22.4%) words were spelled correctly using the Acehese grapheme [ph], while 120 (38.5%) words were spelled using the Indonesian grapheme [p], and 122 (39.1%) words were spelled with

other graphemes. Under the category *Correct Acehnese Spelling*, the participants in Group 1 differed from participants in Group 2. Participants in Group 2 outperformed participants in Group 1 at 65.5% and 34.5% respectively. On the other hand, in category *Transfer Indonesian Grapheme*, there is a higher tendency for the participants in Group 2 (56.4%) to transfer the Indonesian grapheme to spell Acehnese words than in Group 1 (43.6%). In category *Other*, there is also a higher percentages by participants in Group 2 (54.1%) compared to participants in Group 1 (45.9%). There was a statistical significant difference between the two groups ($X^2=6.644$; $df=2$; $p<.05$). Overall, it is important to note that, from the adjusted residual value of (+/-) 2.1, the difference between the two groups in all the three categories did not show a very large difference; with effect size V being .094 thus, showing a small effect of one group to the other. See Table 12 for the frequencies, percentages, and residual values compared between the two groups.

Table 12. Group Comparison on Spelling Grapheme [ph]

		Spelling Category			
		Correct Acehnese Grapheme	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme	Other	Total
Group 1	Count	70	120	122	312
	Expected Count	85.1	115.3	111.5	312
	% within Group 1	22.4%	38.5%	39.1%	100%
	% within category	34.5%	43.6%	45.9%	41.9%
	Std. Residual	-1.6	.4	1.0	
	Adjusted Residual	-2.5	.7	1.6	
Group 2	Count	133	155	144	432
	Expected Count	117.9	159.7	154.5	432
	% within Group 1	30.8%	35.9%	33.3%	100%
	% within Category	65.5%	56.4%	54.1%	58.1%
	Std. Residual	1.4	-.4	-.8	
	Adjusted Residual	2.5	-.7	-1.6	

* $X^2 = 6.644$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, $V = .094$

Grapheme [è]

Grapheme [è] was analyzed based on 732 words. Participants in Group 1 spelled 311 words of which 1 word (9.8%) was spelled using the correct Acehnese grapheme, 225 (72.3%) words were spelled with Indonesian grapheme as an effect of transfer from written L1, and 85 (27.3%) words were spelled using other graphemes or replaced with other words. The distribution across categories in the spelling performance of Group 2 was slightly different from Group 1. Participants in Group 2 attempted to spell 421 words with 22 (5.2%) were spelled using Acehnese grapheme correctly, 329 (78.1%) words were spelled by transferring Indonesian grapheme, and 70 (16.6%) of which were

spelled with other graphemes or replaced with other words. The percentages of the words spelled within the categories were also different between Group 1 and Group 2 (See Table 13). The statistical findings ($X^2=24.165$; $df=2$; $p<.05$) indicates a significant difference between the two groups across three spelling categories. In fact, based on the adjusted residual value (+/-) 3.8, the two groups did not differ much from one another with the effect size $V= .182$.

Table 13. Group Comparison on Spelling Grapheme [è]

		Spelling Category			
		Correct Acehnese Grapheme	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme	Other	Total
Group 1	Count	1	225	85	311
	Expected Count	9.8	235.4	65.9	311
	% within Group 1	.3%	72.3%	27.3%	100%
	% within category	4.3%	40.6%	54.8%	42.5%
	Std. Residual	-2.8	-.7	2.4	
	Adjusted Residual	-3.8	-1.8	3.5	
Group 2	Count	22	329	70	421
	Expected Count	13.2	318.6	89.1	421
	% within Group 1	5.2%	78.1%	16.6%	100%
	% within Category	95.7%	59.4%	45.2%	57.5%
	Std. Residual	2.4	.6	-2.0	
	Adjusted Residual	3.8	1.8	-3.5	

$X^2=24.165$; $df=2$; $p<.05$, $V=.182$

Grapheme [èe]

From the 918 words spelled targeting grapheme [èe], surprisingly, out of 390 words spelled among participants in Group 1, none of the words (0%) were spelled correctly using the correct Acehnese grapheme, 278 (71.3%) were spelled by transferring the Indonesian grapheme, and 112 (28.7) words were spelled using other unrelated graphemes or replaced with other words. Participants in Group 2 attempted to spell 528 of the 918 words. The distribution of the number of words in each category was 20 (3.8%) were spelled using the correct Acehnese grapheme, 384 (72.7%) were spelled by transferring the Indonesian grapheme, and 124 (23.5%) words were spelled with other graphemes or replaced with other words. In addition, the performance was also different when percentages were calculated to compare the two groups for each category (see Table 14 for percentages within category). To compare the two groups in the spelling performance across the three categories analyzed, the chi-square test ($X^2=17.227$; $df=2$; $p<.05$) showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Although there is a difference, the effect size, V , (0.137) was not large. Therefore, it is important to take the standard residual value into account. By looking at the adjusted residual value (+/-) 3.9 (see Table 14), the most significant difference between the two groups was the way the participants spelled the words using the correct Acehnese spelling: The participants in Group 2 outperformed the participants in Group 1.

Table 14. Group Comparison on Spelling Grapheme [èe]

		Spelling Category			
		Correct Acehnese Grapheme	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme	Other	Total
Group 1	Count	0	278	112	390
	Expected Count	8.5	281.2	100.3	390
	% within Group 1	.0%	71.3%	28.7%	100%
	% within category	.0%	42.0%	47.5%	42.5%
	Std. Residual	-2.9	-.2	1.2	
	Adjusted Residual	-3.9	-.5	1.8	
Group 2	Count	20	384	124	528
	Expected Count	11.5	380.8	135.7	528
	% within Group 1	3.8%	72.7%	23.5%	100%
	% within Category	100%	58%	52.5%	57.5%
	Std. Residual	2.5	.2	-1.0	
	Adjusted Residual	3.9	.5	-1.8	

* $X^2 = 17.227$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, $V = .137$

Grapheme [eue]

There were 1083 words targeting the grapheme [eue]. Participants in Group 1 spelled 465 words with 7 (1.5%) words using the correct Acehnese grapheme, 299 (64.3%) words spelled with Indonesian grapheme as an effect of transfer from written L1, and 159 (34.2%) words were spelled using other graphemes or replaced with other words. Participants in Group 2 spelled 618 words with 70 (11.3%) using the correct Acehnese grapheme, 290 (48.1%) words were spelled by transferring the Indonesian grapheme,

and 251 (40.6%) words were spelled using other graphemes or replaced with other words.

The distribution across categories in the spelling performance of Group 2 was different with the Group 1. Under category *Correct Acehnese* grapheme, participants in Group 1 attempted to spell 7 (9.1%) words, while participants in Group 2 spelled 70 (90.9) words. The difference shows that Group 2 outperformed Group 1 in spelling the word correctly using Acehnese Grapheme. In category *Transfer Indonesian Grapheme*, a higher tendency to use Indonesian grapheme to spell Acehnese words was found in group 1 (50.2%) than in Group 2 (49.8%). On the other hand, Group 2 (61.2%) participants had a much higher tendency to spell the words using the other graphemes or replace with other words than participants in Group 1 (38.8%). See Table 15 for the frequencies counted and expected for the bases to calculate the percentages presented above. The statistical findings ($X^2=51.611$; $df=2$; $p<.05$) indicates a significant difference between the two groups across three spelling categories. In addition, by looking at the adjusted residual value (+/-) 6.2, the most significant difference between the two groups was the way the participants spelled the words using the correct Acehnese spelling: The participants in Group 2 outperformed the participants in Group 1.

Table 15. Group Comparison on Spelling Grapheme [eue]

		Spelling Category			Total
		Correct Acehnese Grapheme	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme	Other	
Group 1	Count	7	299	159	465
	Expected Count	33.1	255.9	176	465
	% within Group 1	1.5%	64.3%	34.2%	100%
	% within category	9.1%	50.2%	38.8%	42.9%
	Std. Residual	-4.5	2.7	-1.3	
	Adjusted Residual	-6.2	5.3	-2.2	
Group 2	Count	70	297	251	618
	Expected Count	43.9	340.1	234	618
	% within Group 1	11.3%	48.1%	40.6%	100%
	% within Category	90.9%	49.8%	61.2%	57.1%
	Std. Residual	3.9	-2.3	1.1	
	Adjusted Residual	6.2	-5.3	2.2	

* $X^2 = 51.611$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$, $V = .218$

Result Summary

Table 16 shows how the two groups differ in their performance for each category. The participants' spellings also differ depending on what graphemes they spelled. For example, the results for spelling grapheme [eu] were different from spelling grapheme [eue]. In fact, the cause of the difference was not analyzed in the present study because, overall, the findings indicate that the participants in Group 2 made fewer spelling errors than participants in Group 1. The difference between the two groups' performance in spelling Acehnese words are clearly shown in Figure 1.

Table 16. The Summary of Spelling Performance based on Language Spoken at Home

Graphemes	Spelling Category*	Group 1 (%)	Group 2 (%)
[eu]	Correct Acehnese Grapheme (%)	9.8	90.2
	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme (%)	45.5	54.5
	Other (%)	57.2	42.8
[ph]	Correct Acehnese Grapheme (%)	34.5	65.5
	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme (%)	43.6	56.4
	Other (%)	45.9	54.1
[è]	Correct Acehnese Grapheme (%)	4.3	95.7
	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme (%)	40.6	59.4
	Other (%)	54.8	45.2
[èe]	Correct Acehnese Grapheme (%)	0	100
	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme (%)	42	58
	Other (%)	47.5	52.5
[eue]	Correct Acehnese Grapheme (%)	9.1	90.9
	Transfer Indonesian Grapheme (%)	50.2	49.8
	Other (%)	38.8	61.2

Note: *Higher percentage in category *Correct Acehnese spelling* means better performance while higher percentages in the other categories mean lower performance.

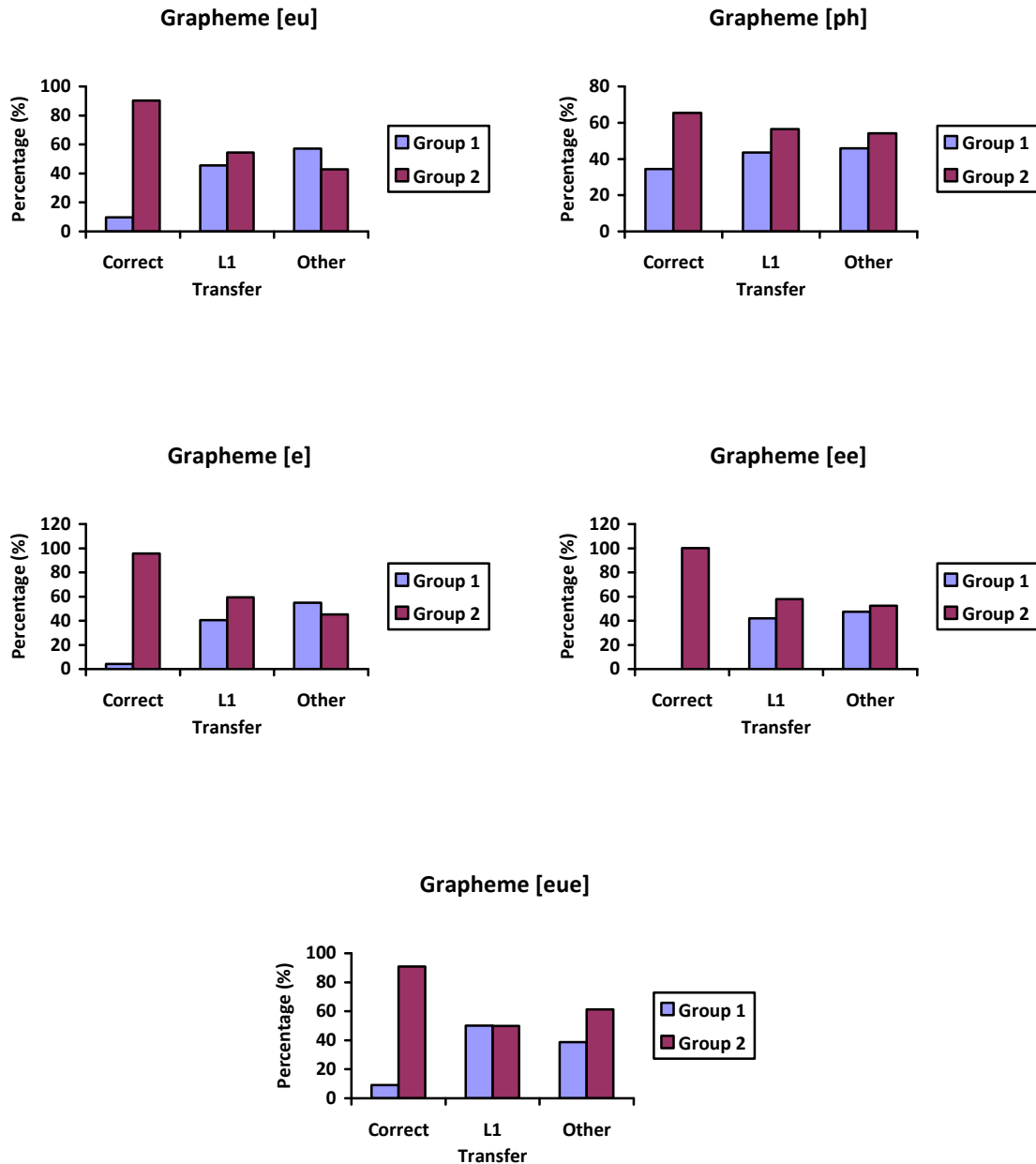


Fig 1. Spelling Performance Comparison between Spoken Language Exposures. The comparison includes the spelling performance of the participants who spoke Acehnese at home compared to participants who spoke Indonesian at home and only learned Acehnese at school. The bars filled in white represent group 1 and black represent Group 2. The percentages in each category added to 100%.

Specifically, Figure 1 presents comparison between the two language groups across the spelling categories for each grapheme. To spell grapheme [eu], participants in Group 2 outperformed group 1, but they also spelled more words by transferring the Indonesian grapheme [e]. Participants in Group 1 spelled the words with more variation in the errors than the participants in Group 2. To spell words with grapheme [ph] and [èè], Group 2 outperformed Group 1 only in spelling the words with the correct grapheme, while in the other categories; participants in Group 1 outperformed Group 2. In spelling the words with grapheme [è], participants in Group 1 outperformed Group 2 only in category *Transfer Indonesian Grapheme*, in which the data indicated that they made less transfer compared to Group 2. For words with grapheme [eue], the table shows that the participants in Group 1 spelled the words with less variation in replacing the targeted grapheme with other far- or non-related phonological grapheme or morphemic substitution, while in the other two groups, Group 2 outperformed participants in Group 1.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The Participants' Spelling Products

Both Indonesian and Acehnese use Roman alphabet for their writing system. Although the writing systems are similar in both languages, but the Acehnese language has more graphemes than the Indonesian language. For example, sound /eu/ is represented by [e] in Indonesian but represented by [eu] in Acehnese. It was speculated that when students learn Acehnese as a second language at school, they transfer the letter knowledge they have in the first language (in this case Indonesian). The transfer can be both positive and negative transfer may be due to the type of instruction received in both first and second language (Figueredo, 2006; Hart & Risley, 1995). The results from the present study indicate that there is a transfer of spelling knowledge from first language to the second language. For example, to spell the words with grapheme [eu], participants replaced this grapheme with Indonesian grapheme [e] that represents the similar sound in both languages; word *eungkôt* (fish) was spelled *engkôt*. This type of transfer also occurs in spelling the words with the other three graphemes: [è] mostly replaced with [e], [èe] replaced with [e], and [eue] replaced with [e]. This transfer can be caused by the peculiarities between the two languages: Indonesian has a single grapheme [e] represents three sounds /e/, /ə/, and /ɛ/ while Acehnese has each grapheme to represent the three sounds. In addition, to spell Acehnese words with grapheme [ph], the participants also transfer the Indonesian grapheme [p] or [f]. Indonesian does not have either sound or

consonant cluster /ph/, the closest graphemes represent the sound are [p] or [f]. In addition, the spelling errors were caused by the transfer of the Indonesian graphemes only, but the participants replaced them with other Indonesian or Acehnese graphemes. In spelling the words with [eu], there were about 3% of the words spelled with other Acehnese graphemes, for example *seunang* (happy) was spelled *seenang* or *sénang*.

Table 17 shows the participants spelling errors due to transferring the Indonesian graphemes replacing the Acehnese graphemes in words. Furthermore, it also presents the participants' confusion on spelling the Acehnese graphemes; they had a tendency to replace the targeted Acehnese graphemes with other Acehnese graphemes. This type of spelling error may indicate that participants lack appropriate instruction on alphabetic principle or alphabetic awareness.

Table 17. Most Common Spelling Errors

Graphemes	Target Word	Product of Spelling	Comments
[eu]	eumpang	empang	In Indonesian /e/ is represented by [e] not [eu]
		èempang	Confused with other Acehnese grapheme for phonemically related sound
		umpang	Indonesian does not have two letters representing one vowel
[ph]	phala	pala	Indonesian does not have consonant cluster /ph/
		fala	
		pahla	
[è]	bèk	bek	Indonesian does not have vowel with diacritical marks
[èè]	gurèe	gure	Indonesian does not have vowel with diacritical marks and two letter-vowels
	palèe	pale	
[eue]	buleuen	bulen	Indonesian does not have diphthong [eue]
		buleun	confused with other Acehnese grapheme
[eu]	eumpang	empang	In Indonesian /e/ is represented by [e] not [eu]
		èempang	Confused with other Acehnese grapheme for phonemically related sound
		umpang	Indonesian does not have two letters representing one vowel
[ph]	phala	pala	Indonesian does not have consonant cluster /ph/

The Influence of Home-Spoken Language to Spelling Words in Acehnese

This study hypothesized that the spoken language at home helps student to learn in the second language. Contrary to what was hypothesized, the findings of this study indicate that the Acehnese spoken language exposed to the participants in Group 1 interfered with their spelling performance. Participants in Group 2 outperformed Group 1 in most words on the five graphemes on the spelling test. The higher performance may be a result of the exposure to the written form of the spoken language received by the participants in Group 2. This finding is similar to the results of the study by Aaron and Joshi (2006) with English and Tamil bilingual children and they concluded “Children who learn English as a textbook language commit fewer spelling errors than do children whose native language is English” (p. 558). Therefore, more exposure to the written form of the second language is beneficial in children acquiring spelling.

In conclusion, school children tend to replace certain graphemes with Indonesian graphemes while spelling Acehnese words. This problem may occur because Acehnese was learned as a second language at school, where they received Indonesian literacy instruction as the first language. Peculiarities in the linguistic nature between the two languages, affects the participants’ spelling of Acehnese words. In addition, lack of literacy instruction such as alphabetic principle and alphabetic awareness the participants received in early grades may also be responsible for the spelling transfer. Moreover, the exposure to the spoken form of the second language was found interfere with spelling of some words; while participants who learned second language from textbooks made fewer spelling errors compared to those who spoke the second language. In order to

avoid this problem, participants should be provided with effective and systematic instruction on early literacy skills (e.g., phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge, etc.) in both first and second languages. When the students master the early literacy skills, the foundation of literacy may be strong enough to bridge the positive transfer from the first language to the second language.

Limitations and Implications

Additional research is required to further investigate the spelling transfer from the first to second language. More specifically, there are not many research studies investigating the relationship and transfer between Indonesian and Acehnese languages. The present study is a pilot research investigating transfer between these two languages and only focused on the fourth grade students. Further investigation on larger sample size and different grade levels are needed to see the effect of Indonesian spelling pattern to the spelling in the Acehnese language. Moreover, the spelling test should include more words and targeted more graphemes in Acehnese.

The findings of the present study may help educators specializing in teaching language and literacy skills. To help students use their knowledge of first language knowledge to learn literacy skills in the second language, in early grades may play a very significant role. Therefore, teachers and educators involved in teaching language and literacy skills should be knowledgeable in the linguistic principles of both the first and second languages to help students in acquiring literacy skills in both first and second languages. This knowledge can be used to provide interventions for children with

literacy problems, for example, enhancing instruction in early literacy skills such as alphabetic knowledge, phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, etc.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

Please answer the questions in the left column by filling out the spaces in the right column.

Questions about students' personal information		
1.	Name	
2.	Age	
3.	Class	
4.	School	
Questions about students' family background		
5.	Parents' education:	a. Father
		b. Mother
6.	Parents' occupation:	a. Father
		b. Mother
7.	Jumlah saudara kandung	
Questions about language exposure (tick the box based on your choice)		
8.	What language do you speak at home?	<input type="checkbox"/> Indonesian <input type="checkbox"/> Acehnese <input type="checkbox"/> Others: _____
9.	What language do you use to communicate at school?	<input type="checkbox"/> Indonesian <input type="checkbox"/> Acehnese <input type="checkbox"/> Others: _____
10.	What language do you speak with your friends?	<input type="checkbox"/> Indonesian <input type="checkbox"/> Acehnese <input type="checkbox"/> Others: _____
11.	How long have you been studying Acehnese at school?	Since grade: <input type="checkbox"/> 2 (two) <input type="checkbox"/> 3 (three) <input type="checkbox"/> 4 (four)
12.	How long have you been studying Indonesian at school?	Since grade: <input type="checkbox"/> Kindergarten (KG)

		€ 1 (one) € 2 (two) € 3 (three)
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APPENDIX B

Spelling Test

Instruction for teacher:

Teacher reads the word out loud

Teacher reads the sentence containing the words

Teacher reread the word one more time

Students write down the word

Instruction for students read by the teacher:

This is a test to spell in Acehnese. The result of the test will not affect your grades and performance at school. Write down the words that I read. To make the words clearer, I will read each word one time, then, I will read a sentence that contains the word, lastly, I will repeat the word again loudly.

Example:

Manoe

Lôn manoe dua go si uroe.

Manoe

Spelling Test:

1. Read loudly:

eumpang

Mak geupasoe breueh lam *eumpang*.

Eumpang

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

2. Read loudly:

bijèh

Mak geu tabu *bijèh* padé di blang.

Bijèh

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

3. Read loudly:

minyeuk

Jinoe, yum *minyeuk* ka meuhai.

Minyeuk

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

4. Read loudly:
aneuk
Aneuk glah dua SD wo sikula poh 12.
Aneuk
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
5. Read loudly:
jeumot
Meunyoe *jeumot* meubaca reujang carong.
Jeumot
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
6. Read loudly:
phôn
Si amat aneuk *phôn* dirumôh jih.
Phôn
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
7. Read loudly:
phala
Anuek got akai geubri *phala* lé tuhan.
Phala
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
8. Read loudly:
meunang
Kamoe *meunang* tandèng bola ngon gampong siblah.
Meunang
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
9. Read loudly:
phui
Nyang ubit mène barang nyang *phui*.
Phui
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)
10. Read loudly:
palèe
Palèe geu pakèek ngon pèh labang.
Palèe
(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

11. Read loudly:

muphôm

Meunyoë hana *meuphôm*, tanyong bak gurèe.

Muphôm

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

12. Read loudly:

reunyeun

Rumôh jameun mandum na *reunyeun*.

Reunyeun

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

13. Read loudly:

puphôn

Kheuen do'a dilèe barô geu *puphôn* meurunoe.

Puphôn

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

14. Read loudly:

euncien

Geutanyoe ta pakèk *euncien* bak jaroe manèh.

Euncien

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

15. Read loudly:

kaphô

Kaphô geu peuduek lam leumari bajèe.

Kaphô

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

16. Read loudly:

euntreuk

Euntreuk seupôt di blang ramèe aneuk miet peu-ek geulayang.

Euntreuk

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

17. Read loudly:

blèt

Bèk pasoe breueh lam *blèt*.

Blèt

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

18. Read loudly:

seunang
 Aneukmiet *seunang* that hate bak uroe raya.
 Seunang
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

19. Read loudly:
 lakèe
 Meunyoe na salah ta *lakèe* meuah.
 Lakèe
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

20. Read loudly:
 uteuen
 Rimueng udép lam *uteuen*.
 Uteuen
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

21. Read loudly:
 alèe
Alèe teupeugot dari beuso.
 Alee
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

22. Read loudly:
 pha
Pha manok teuguréng ngoen pajôh bu.
 Pha
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

23. Read loudly:
 malèe
 Meunyoe keumeueng caroeng bèk *malèe* taumanyoeng.
 Malèe
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

24. Read loudly:
 geusuen
 Banèng na keuh binatang nyang *geusuen*.
 Geusuen
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

25. Read loudly:
 eungkôt

Yah geu kawé *eungkôt* di laôt.

Eungkôt

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

26. Read loudly:

batèe

Jinoe, rumôh ji peugot dari *batèe*.

Bate

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

27. Read loudly:

buleuen

Bak *buleuen* Molôd Nabi Muhammad lahé.

Buleuen

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

28. Read loudly:

kayèe

Rumôh lôn dari *kayèe*.

Kayèe

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

29. Read loudly:

pheuet

Yah cut teungoh geu *pheut* kayèe.

Pheuet

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

30. Read loudly:

asèe

Mie ngoen *asèe* ji meulho sabé.

Asèe

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

31. Read loudly:

eumpeuen

Si Ali ji jôk *eumpeuen* manok tiep seupôt.

Eumpeuen

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

32. Read loudly:

bèk
 Bèk pasoe breueh lam *blèt*.
 Bèk
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

33. Read loudly:
 gurèe
 Ureung nyang peurunoe tanyoe nyang keuh *gurèe*.
 Gurèe
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

34. Read loudly:
 dikeue
 Rumôh lon *dikeue* rumôh pak geuchik.
 Dikeue
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

35. Read loudly:
 hèk
 Meunyo *hèk*, piyôh dilèe.
 Hèk
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

36. Read loudly:
 mèja
 Adék pajôh bu ateuh *mèja*.
 Mèja
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

37. Read loudly:
 bateue
 Aneuk *bateue* uroe akherat tamông lam neuraka.
 Bateue
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

38. Read loudly:
 pèh
 Loncèng *geupèh* bak meulasah.
 Pèh
 (wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

39. Read loudly:
 beuet

Lôn jak *beuet* bak Teungku Lam U.

Beuet

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

40. Read loudly:

lheueh

Lheueh pajoh bu, rah jaroe.

Lheueh

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

41. Read loudly:

sikureueng

Buleuen *sikureueng* geukheun buleuen September.

Sikureueng

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

42. Read loudly:

sèntèe

Watèe tajak malam-malam, ta mée *sèntèe*.

Sèntèe

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

43. Read loudly:

leuen

Hanjeut teubit u lua *leuen* sikula meunyoe hana izin lé gurèe.

Leuen

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

44. Read loudly:

cèt

Cèt rumôh nyan wareuna mirah.

Cèt

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

45. Read loudly:

aleue

Aleue jambô di blang geupeugôt dari bak meuriya.

Aleue

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

46. Read loudly:

bèe

Eungkôt brôk hana mangat *bèe*.

Bèe

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

47. Read loudly:

saweue

Tiep uroe raya kamoe *saweue* ureueng tuha gampông.

Saweue

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

48. Read loudly:

bajèe

Kamoe meubloe *bajèe* barô.

Bajèe

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

49. Read loudly:

pageue

Pageue sikula kamoe wareuna putéh.

Pageue

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

50. Read loudly:

euntat

Yah geu jak *euntat* mak u peukan.

Euntat

(wait and look around to make sure the students write the words)

No	Words read by the teacher to be spelled by the students	Example of words in sentences
Part One		
1.	sack	Mother put rice in the sack.
2.	Ring	We wear ring on the ring finger.
3.	Fish	Father is fishing the fish in the sea.
4.	Later	Later in the afternoon at the farm many children play kite.
5.	Drive someone to	My father takes my mother to the market.
6.	timid	Tortoises are such timid animals.

7.	fuel	The price of fuel increases these days.
8.	Win	We won the soccer game against the neighboring village.
9.	students	The second level students of elementary school ends their classes at 12 pm
10.	joyful	The children feel joyful on 'Eid'
11.	more	Read more makes you smarter.
12.	Stairs	The stairs are available at old houses.
Part Two		
1.	First	Amat is the oldest son in his family.
2.	Drumstick chicken	I eat rice with the fried drumstick chicken
3.	reward	The nice kids will get reward from God.
4.	carve	My uncle is carving the wood.
5.	Light	The small kids can bring the lighter items.
6.	Understand	Please ask the teacher should you have any question.
7.	Begin	Please read the prayer before start studying.
8.	Cloth refresher	Put the refresher in the dresser to keep the cloth fresh.
Part Three		
1.	Ask	I apologize should i make the mistake
2.	Stick	The stick is made of iron.
3.	hesitate	Don't hesitate to ask question if you want to be better.
4.	Stone	Nowadays, the homes are built from bricks.
5.	Timber	My house is made from timber.
6.	Dog	Cats always quarrel with dogs.
7.	Teacher	Teachers are the persons who teach us.
8.	Clothes	We will buy new clothes.
9.	Smell	The putrid fish are smelly.
10.	Hammer	We use hammer to knock the nails.

11.	Do not	Don't put the rice in the pail.
12.	Pail	Don't put the rice in the pail.
13.	Seed	My mother plants the rice seed in the rice field.
14.	Paint	The color of the house is red.
15.	Tired	If you are tired, you may have a break for a while.
16.	Table	My brother is having dinner on the table.
17.	Hit	The bell was hit at the village hall.
18.	Flashlight	We bring the flashlight when we walk at night time.
Part Four		
1.	Moon	In the Molod month Muhammad profet was born.
2.	Recite/read	I go to learn reciting Al-Quran at Teungku Lam U
3.	Jungle	Tigers live in the jungle.
4.	Finish	Please wash your hand after having dinner.
5.	Food	Ali feeds the chicken with food every afternoon.
6.	Nine	The ninth month is called September.
7.	Page	Do not go out of the school page without teachers' permission.
8.	Floor	The hut floor in the farm is made of timber.
9.	Naughty	Naughty kids will be punished by God.
10.	In front	My house if in front of a man's house who is the head of the village.
11.	Visit	We visit the village elderly every Eid.
12.	Fence	The color of our school fence is white.

VITA

Name: Astri Yulia

Address: Department of Teaching, Learning and Culture, Texas A&M
University, Level 3, Harrington Tower
College Station, TX 77843-4232

Email Address: yulia.astri@gmail.com

Education: B. A., English Education, Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh,
Indonesia, 2005.
M. S., Curriculum and Instruction, Texas A&M University, 2009.