



THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHING ENGLISH  
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE  
IN INDONESIA

ISBN 978-602-294-066-1

# The <sup>nd</sup> 62 TEFLIN

## International Conference 2015

Denpasar, 14th - 16th September 2015

### PROCEEDINGS

*Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners  
in the 21st Century*



ENGLISH DEPARTMENT  
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND CULTURE  
IN COLLABORATION WITH  
POST GRADUATE STUDY PROGRAM UDAYANA UNIVERSITY

**BOOK 4**



THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHING ENGLISH  
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE  
IN INDONESIA



# The<sup>nd</sup> 62 TEFLIN

International  
Conference  
2015

Denpasar, 14th - 16th September 2015

**PROCEEDINGS**

*Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners  
in the 21st Century*



ENGLISH DEPARTMENT  
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND CULTURE  
IN COLLABORATION WITH  
UDAYANA UNIVERSITY POST GRADUATE STUDY PROGRAM

I / A / L / F  
EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

LEARNING ENGLISH FOR A BRIGHTER FUTURE

Teacher  
Training

[tesol@ialf.edu](mailto:tesol@ialf.edu)

IELTS at IALF

For a better test experience!

[ieltsbali@ialf.edu](mailto:ieltsbali@ialf.edu)

Study  
Overseas

[info.bali@idp.com](mailto:info.bali@idp.com)

English  
for Academic  
Purposes

[ialfbali@ialf.edu](mailto:ialfbali@ialf.edu)

Jakarta  
Plaza Kuningan  
Menara Selatan, Lt. 3  
Jl. HR Rasuna Said  
Jakarta 12940, Indonesia  
T: +62 21 521 3350  
[ialfjkt@ialf.edu](mailto:ialfjkt@ialf.edu)

Surabaya  
Jl. Sumatera 49  
Surabaya 60281  
Indonesia  
T: +62 31 502 6400  
[ialfsby@ialf.edu](mailto:ialfsby@ialf.edu)

Bali  
Jl. Raya Sesetan 190  
Denpasar  
Bali 80223  
Indonesia  
T: +62 361 225243  
[ialfbali@ialf.edu](mailto:ialfbali@ialf.edu)



[www.ialf.edu](http://www.ialf.edu)

We would like to Thank the Main Sponsors of the Event



## FOREWORD

These proceedings are a collection of papers presented at the 62<sup>nd</sup> TEFLIN International Conference held in conjunction with the celebration of the 53<sup>rd</sup> *Dies Natalis* of Udayana University held in Sanur Paradise Hotel from 14<sup>th</sup> through 16<sup>th</sup> September 2015. The theme of this year's conference is *Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. The papers were selected out of 503 papers presented covering issues of English-language teaching from the perspectives of (1) Language Policy and Planning in Assessment, (2) Quality Assurance in ELT, (3) 21<sup>st</sup> Century Language and Communication skills, (4) Assessment in Character Education, (5) Roles of ICT in Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners, (6) English for Young Learners, (7) Innovations in Teaching and Assessing, (8) Best Practices in L2 Teaching and Research, (9) School-based Assessments, (10) English for Specific Purposes, (11) Standardized Tests of English Proficiency (e.g. KLTS, TOEFL), (12) English for General Purposes, (13) The National Examinations and their Impact on L2 Learning, (14) Translation in Language Teaching, (15) Teacher's Professional Development, and (16) Literature-Based in Language Teaching.

We would like to express our sincere thankfulness to those who presented their papers at the conference. We also wish to thank the students at the English Department, Faculty of Letters and Culture, Udayana University who have assisted us with the typesetting for the format of the proceedings. More importantly, we express our gratitude to the board of reviewers who have worked hard in reviewing the submitted papers selected for the proceedings.

Denpasar, September 2015

The Committee

## LIST OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL REVIEWERS

### INTERNAL REVIEWERS

1. Ni Luh Ketut Mas Indrawati (Udayana University)
2. I Gusti Ayu Gde Sosiowati (Udayana University)
3. Ni Luh Nyoman Seri Malini (Udayana University)
4. Ni Wayan Sukarini (Udayana University)
5. Ni Made Ayu Widiastuti (Udayana University)
6. I Made Rajeg (Udayana University)
7. A A Sagung Shanti Sari Dewi (Udayana University)
8. Putu Ayu Asty Senja Pratiwi (Udayana University)
9. I Gusti Agung Istri Aryani (Udayana University)
10. Ni Ketut Sri Rahayuni (Udayana University)
11. Yana Qomariana (Udayana University)
12. Ni Ketut Alit Ida Setianingsih (Udayana University)
13. Sang Ayu Isnur Maharani (Udayana University)
14. Ni Putu Lirishati Soethama (Udayana University)
15. I Nyoman Tri Ediwan (Udayana University)
16. I Komang Sumaryana Putra (Udayana University)
17. I Wayan Mulyawan (Udayana University)
18. Ida Ayu Made Puspani (Udayana University)
19. Putu Weddha Savitri (Udayana University)
20. Made Sena Darmasetiyawan (Udayana University)
21. I Gusti Ngurah Parthama (Udayana University)
22. I Nyoman Udayana (Udayana University)
23. I Ketut Wandia (Udayana University)
24. I Gede Budiasa (Udayana University)
25. I Made Netra (Udayana University)
26. I Gede Putu Sudana (Udayana University)
27. I Ketut Tika (Udayana University)
28. I Nyoman Aryawibawa (Udayana University)
29. I Nengah Sudipa (Udayana University)
30. Ni Luh Putu Laksmi (Udayana University)

### EXTERNAL REVIEWERS

1. Benedictus B. Dwijatmoko (Universitas Sanata Dharma)
2. Chuzaimah Dahlan Diem (Universitas Sriwijaya)
3. Diemroh Ihsan (Universitas Sriwijaya)
4. Gusti Astika (Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana)
5. Emi Emilia (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)

- |                                       |                             |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 6. Cayandrawati Setiono<br>Mangkurat) | (Universitas Lambung        |
| 7. Oikurema Purwati<br>Surabaya)      | (Universitas Negeri         |
| 8. Setyadi Setyapranata               | (Universitas Negeri Malang) |
| 9. Yazid Basthomi                     | (Universitas Negeri Malang) |
| 10. Lis Amien Lestari<br>Surabaya)    | (Universitas Negeri         |
| 11. Fuad Abdul Hamied<br>Indonesia)   | (Universitas Pendidikan     |
| 12. Handoyo Puji Widodo               | (Politeknik Negeri Jember)  |
| 13. Nur Arifah Drajadi                | (SMA Labschool Jakarta)     |
| 14. I Made Hery Santoso<br>Ganesha)   | (Universitas Pendidikan     |

**SETTING AND TYPESET**

1. Gede Primahadi Wijaya
2. Made Artadi Gunawan
3. Artika Putri
4. Gusti Agung Ngurah Dwi Suryawan
5. Moh. Noval Ashari
6. I Wayan Gede Agus Wirawan
7. Ni Wayan Manik Septianiari Putri
8. I Made Yoga Dwi Angga
9. Ni Luh Putu Sisiana Dewi

**COVER**

I Gede Juniasta Datah

**ISBN 970-602-294-066-1**

**UDAYANA UNIVERSITY PRESS**

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means: electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without prior written permission from the writers.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>FOREWORD.....</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>LIST OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL REVIEWERS .....</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT.....</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>THE USE OF PEER TUTORING TO IMPROVE THE STUDENTS’ WRITING SKILLS .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<i>Dwi Fita Heriyawati.....</i>	<i>1</i>
<b>TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A NETWORKED, DIGITAL WORLD E- LEARNING QUIPPER SCHOOL – NEW DIGITAL METHOD FOR THE 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<i>Erika Ambarita.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<b>CHALLENGES IN ASSESSING CHARACTER EDUCATION IN ELT: IMPLICATIONS FROM A CASE STUDY IN A CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY .....</b>	<b>18</b>
<i>Joseph Ernest Mambu .....</i>	<i>18</i>
<b>PROCESS-GENRE APPROACH TO TEACH WRITING IN AN EFL CLASSROOM (A CASE STUDY IN ONE OF PRIVATE COLLEGE AT GARUT).....</b>	<b>31</b>
<i>Lestiyani Sunarto.....</i>	<i>31</i>
<i>Fathin Anjani Hilman.....</i>	<i>31</i>
<i>Fida Anisah .....</i>	<i>31</i>
<b>TEACHING SPEAKING (ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE SPEAKING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE SETTING).....</b>	<b>41</b>
<i>Suhartono, S.Pd., M.Pd., (UNP Kediri) .....</i>	<i>41</i>
<i>Yatno, S.S., M.Pd., (STKIP Tulungagung) .....</i>	<i>41</i>
<b>PRIMARY STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE USE OF FOLKLORE IN THE EFL CLASS .....</b>	<b>47</b>
<i>Rika Mutiara.....</i>	<i>47</i>
<b>THE EFFECT OF USING SUSTAINED SILENT READING ON STUDENTS’ READING SKILL OF INFORMATIONAL TEXT AT THE SIXTH SEMESTER OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT OF ALMUSLIM UNIVERSITY .....</b>	<b>54</b>
<i>Silvi Listia Dewi .....</i>	<i>54</i>
<b>CORPUS ANALYSIS OF THE WORD ‘FRIENDSHIP’ A STUDY IN CLASS OF ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP) .....</b>	<b>60</b>
<i>C. I Wayan Eka Budiarta, S, Pd., M.A. ....</i>	<i>60</i>

<b>ASSESSING ELF PROFICIENCY IN PROJECT-BASED LEARNING ....</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>PARAPHRASING STRATEGY IN TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION .....</b>	<b>74</b>
<i>Nirwana</i> .....	74
<i>Arifuddin Hamra</i> .....	74
<i>Kisman Saliya</i> .....	74
<b>ENGLISH REPRIMANDING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN STUDENTS.....</b>	<b>86</b>
<i>Sarah Miselly</i> .....	86
<i>Lanny Hidajat</i> .....	86
<b>CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC RELATIVITY: THEIR IMPLICATIONS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING .....</b>	<b>91</b>
<i>Teguh Sulisty</i> o .....	91
<b>OPTIMIZATION OF ICT IN LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP) AT SHARIA AND LAW FACULTY .....</b>	<b>99</b>
A. <i>Research Question</i> .....	101
B. <i>Research Objectives</i> .....	101
<b>WTC : TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT THEIR ROLES AND TEACHING STRATEGIES .....</b>	<b>108</b>
<i>Funny Amalia Sari</i> .....	108
<b>IMPLEMENTING CULTURAL RESPONSIVE TEACHING (CRT) IN WRITING CLASSROOM APPLICATION: THE EFFECT UPON INSTRUCTIONAL EFFECTIVENESS.....</b>	<b>118</b>
<i>Yakob Metboki</i> .....	118
<b>INVESTIGATING THE WASHBACK EFFECT OF NATIONAL EXAMINATION ON CLASSROOM PRACTICES.....</b>	<b>126</b>
<i>Maya Puspitasari</i> .....	126
<b>SPEAKING TEST ANXIETY AMONG FIRST YEAR STUDENTS .....</b>	<b>134</b>
<i>Nguyen Phuong Nhung</i> .....	134
<i>Nguyen Tran Ha Linh</i> .....	134
<b>THE POWER OF COLLABORATIVE WRITING IN PROMOTING QUALITY OF THE STUDENTS' WRITING.....</b>	<b>139</b>
<i>Erlık Widiyani Styati</i> .....	139
<b>ESTABLISHING AND OCCUPYING 'NICHES' IN THE INTRODUCTION OF INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLES IN SCIENCES, TECHNOLOGY AND MEDICAL SCIENCES: A GENRE BASED ANALYSIS .....</b>	<b>145</b>
<i>Safnil Arsyad, Arono, Atmi Painingsih, Beta Puspa Sari</i> ,.....	145

<i>Lexpya Sepni, and Pezi Awram</i> .....	145
<b>THE CORRELATION BETWEEN STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY IN LEARNING SPEAKING AND STUDENTS' SPEAKING ACHIEVEMENT</b> .....	<b>156</b>
<i>Siti Rosmalina Nurhayati</i> .....	156
<b>NATIONAL IDENTITY IN INDONESIAN EFL EDUCATION (A STUDY IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS)</b> .....	<b>162</b>
<i>Ella Masita</i> .....	162
<b>TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN IMPLEMENTING AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENTS IN THE 2013 CURRICULUM</b> .....	<b>173</b>
<i>Wulandari Putri</i> .....	173
<i>Yessy Tri Noviani</i> .....	173
<b>TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON THE WASHBACK EFFECT OF ENGLISH NATIONAL EXAMINATION: THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHERS</b>	<b>182</b>
<i>Yessy Tri Noviani</i> .....	182
<i>Wulandari Putri</i> .....	182
<b>ENGLISH PROVERBS AS MNEMONIC DEVICES</b> .....	<b>190</b>
<i>S.Devaki Reddy</i> .....	190
<b>TEAM ASSISTED INDIVIDUALIZATION (TAI) CONVEYED THROUGH ADOBE FLASH CS3 TO INCREASE PARTICIPATION AND ENGLISH VOCABULARY MASTERY FOR THE SECOND SEMESTER STUDENTS AT AKADEMI BAHASA BALIKPAPAN</b> .....	<b>196</b>
<i>Muhammad Rochman</i> .....	196
<b>ENGLISH FOR A GLOBAL SOLUTION: A CASE STUDY OF JAPAN AND INDONESIA</b> .....	<b>216</b>
<i>Miki SUEHIRO</i> .....	216
<b>CHARACTER VALUES AND THEIR INTERNALIZATION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AT MADRASAH ALIYAH NEGERI 1 SAMARINDA</b> .....	<b>221</b>
<i>Milad Islami</i> .....	221
<i>Desy Rusmawaty</i> .....	221
<b>AN ANALYSIS OF WRITING LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH STUDY PROGRAM OF FKIP UNIVERSITY OF RIAU</b> .....	<b>230</b>
<i>Fakhri Ras,Syafri K</i> .....	230
<i>Jismulatif</i> .....	230
<b>IMPLEMENTING LISTENING STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSROOM</b> ..	<b>241</b>
<i>Angga Rosma Pramodhawardhani</i> .....	241

<i>Esa Yolanda Putri</i> .....	241
<b>CULTURAL VALUES AS CATALYSTS IN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE .....</b>	<b>248</b>
<i>I Wayan Sidha Karya</i> .....	248
<i>Desak Putu Eka Pratiwi</i> .....	248
<b>TEACHERS' DIFFICULTIES IN LESSON PLANNING: DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING .....</b>	<b>256</b>
<i>Srihidayanti</i> .....	256
<i>Desi Wijayanti Ma'rufah</i> .....	256
<i>Khainur Jannah</i> .....	256
<b>USING WEB-BASED SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY ANALYZER TO ANALYZE SENTENCE COMPLEXITY IN THE INTRODUCTIONS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' RESEARCH ARTICLES .....</b>	<b>266</b>
<i>Ratna Dewi</i> .....	266
<b>E-JOURNALING AS A TOOL FOR TEACHER'S FEEDBACK IN EFL PAPER WRITING CLASSROOM.....</b>	<b>275</b>
<i>Rida Wahyuningrum</i> .....	275
<b>THE EFL STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES AND MOTIVATIONS IN ANSWERING TOEFL EXAMINATION .....</b>	<b>282</b>
<i>Dian Kustyasari</i> .....	282
<b>THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SPELLING BEE GAME TO IMPROVE OF STUDENTS' VOCABULARY MASTERY AT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.....</b>	<b>290</b>
<i>Siti Hikmah</i> .....	290
<i>Tri Septiarini</i> .....	290
<b>ENCOURAGING STUDENTS TO THINK CRITICALLY THROUGH QUESTIONING .....</b>	<b>297</b>
<i>Ersy Laksita Rini</i> .....	297
<b>THE APPLICATION OF COLLABORATIVE LEARNING USING PROBLEM BASED LEARNING (PBL).....</b>	<b>308</b>
<i>Elli Setiyo Wahyuni, S.Pd., M.Pd</i> .....	308
<i>Hang Tuah University Surabaya</i> .....	308
<b>SUMMARIZING JOURNAL ARTICLES AND ITS CHALLENGES.....</b>	<b>309</b>
<i>Dyah Sunggingwati</i> .....	309



# THE USE OF PEER TUTORING TO IMPROVE THE STUDENTS' WRITING SKILLS

**Dwi Fita Heriyawati**

dwifitaheriyawati@yahoo.com / dfhfita@gmail.com

*English Education Department  
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education  
Kanjuruhan University of Malang, East Java  
Jl. S. Supriadi No. 48 Malang-Indonesia*

## **ABSTRACT**

*Myriad of studies have shown that writing is a very crucial part of language skill. To overcome this problem I try to implement peer tutoring technique to teach writing for the students who take writing I. Peer tutoring is the development of peer learning, but in this occasion the tutor comes from the students in the different level of education. The tutors are not the professional teachers; they are chosen based on some qualifications especially their results of academics scores and their ability in English writing. Besides, there are some characteristics of peer tutoring as explained by Topping (1996). They are cross-year small-group tutoring, the personalized system of instruction, supplemental instruction, same-year dyadic fixed-role tutoring, same-year dyadic reciprocal peer tutoring, dyadic cross-year fixed-role peer tutoring, same-year group tutoring, peer assisted writing, and peer assisted distance learning (Topping, 1996). Furthermore, this small research is conducted for the second semester students of English Education Department Kanjuruhan University. It is hoped that by applying peer tutoring in the teaching writing, students may develop strategies for collecting, synthesizing, and interpreting new information from their tutors and teachers as this promotes students' autonomy in improving their writing skill as one of the significant principles to meet international standards of language learning.*

**Keywords:** *peer tutoring, writing skill*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

English is an international language that should be acquired by the students in all levels of education. The students have to master all the language skills well. In reality, in EFL classroom, the students still find difficulties to write. They get stuck on their idea whenever the lecturer asked them to write. The students cannot express their idea into a good paragraph. The students probably do not have sufficient knowledge to write.

The students' problems in writing appear because the students are not familiar with the theme and topic given by the lecturer. The students do not understand some background knowledge related to the topic that they should write. Furthermore, writing an essay in English is not part of their culture, because most of the students prefer to express their idea in the spoken form rather than in the written form. Most of the students

think that to write they need to know more about the content of the paragraphs, organization, mechanism, and correct grammatical rule.

Writing is a part of learning process that has to be mastered by the students. Writing is an important skill that has to be learned besides the other language skills (Derewianka, 1990:14). The activity of writing begins by brainstorming to get the ideas of writing. These ideas should be explained in written form (Allen, 1998:16). Writing is an essential ingredient in taking, retaining, and expressing information.

In English department Kanjuruhan University of Malang, writing courses are offered from the second semester to the fifth semester. The writing courses include Writing 1 to writing 4 which starts from the very basic of writing to the complicated one. The teacher of writing always trained the students to write well in English, but the students still get confused to start their writing. The second semester of university students are obliged to learn writing skills. In this case, they have to learn about capitalization, sentences, paraphrase, summarize, topic sentence, paragraph and body of the paragraph and also creating outline of the paragraph. Besides, the students also learn some texts such as descriptive, narrative, expository, and argumentative text.

Unfortunately, many of university students are not good enough in writing. For example, they cannot write a simple composition in writing class. They are still influenced with their own first language. The students consider that writing is one of the most difficult language skills because they are demanded to express their ideas in written English appropriately. This phenomenon is caused by many factors and one of them is the way the teacher teaches writing lesson to the students. The teacher tends to focus on finishing the materials and ignore the results and she/he may also focus on one aspect only, for example the grammatical structure, so the students get less attention in the writing class (Wahyuni, 2003:17). The teacher has a role not only to teach in the class but also to make some important decisions, for example, in selecting appropriate method, material, and media that will be used in teaching in the class. The students have their own proficiency levels and learning styles that affect their comprehension to grasp the material.

In order to help the students solve their problem in writing, I considered employing peer tutoring as one of the interesting methods in writing. Peer tutoring is the development of peer learning, but in this occasion the tutor comes from the students in the different level of education. The tutors are not the professional teachers; they are chosen based on some qualifications especially their results of academics scores and their ability in English writing. Besides, there are some characteristics of peer tutoring as explained by Topping (1996). They are cross-year small-group tutoring, the personalized system of instruction, supplemental instruction, same-year dyadic fixed-role tutoring, same-year dyadic reciprocal peer tutoring, dyadic cross-year fixed-role peer tutoring, same-year group tutoring, peer assisted writing, and peer assisted distance learning (Topping, 1996).

The basis for peer tutoring to teaching writing skill is the concept of Second Language Acquisition (Krasen, 1985). The concept maintains that, in order to learn a language well, one must also learn context in which language is conventionally used in order to attain the language and the course simultaneously. It focuses more on the "meaning" than the "format" of the language as the ability to understand the language would motivate the learners to continue with learning. The main purpose is the students are able to communicate in the target language; they will be able to understand the contents; and subsequently see improvement in their writing skill (Suppawan&Chuchart, 2010:88-89).

The activity of peer tutoring has the advantages for the students, for example the students will more active, interactive, participative, and also responsive in the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, this strategy also has the advantages to make the students feel free from the tension in the teaching and learning process. In this case, peer tutoring increasing the student's awareness in correcting their own mistakes. The lecturer can employ the treatment of matter of form including organization, grammar, and mechanism through the tutors.

The peer tutoring strategies can be more effective means to develop the requisite skills because it deals with writing in a manner similar (or identical) to how writing is assigned, prepared for, and reacted to in real academic courses. In this method, the implementation to teaching writing still follows the four stages of teaching writing; prewriting, writing the first draft, revising, and publishing (Shih, 1986). In this approach, the contexts of the various contents are transformed into language learning tool.

A preliminary study conducted in the second semester students of English Department, Kanjuruhan University of Malang, at the first meeting of sentence writing course. In this occasion, the students get difficulties to develop their idea into good sentences. In addition, they get difficulties in constructing good sentences. The students only sit and do not know what they should write in their paper.

Based on the students' difficulty in developing their idea in good sentences, this research aims to help the students raise their ability to write and to develop their idea and their knowledge into a good paragraph through peer tutoring in sentence writing course. Moreover, the research question in this study is "How can peer tutoring improve the students' writing skill in the second semester of university students?"

## 2 METHOD

Based on the objective of the research is implemented peer tutoring in the sentence writing course or writing I to the second semester of English Education Department, Kanjuruhan University of Malang, a classroom action research design was utilized. The design was implemented to know the improvement of the students writing ability and reducing the student's difficulties in writing sentences.

The classroom action research (CAR) conducted in the second semester students of English Education Department, Kanjuruhan University of Malang. 25 students of English education department were involving to be the participant of this research. This small research was implemented in the first month of the writing subject. The researcher conducted the research for about 8 meetings only, in the first, second, until eight week of the writing course the researcher implementing the peer tutoring approach as a technique to teaching sentence writing. The lesson includes pre-writing, whilst-writing and post-writing. In the pre-writing activity, the researcher gave brainstorming to the students, then the researcher asked the students to make a group, each groups will accompanied by one of the tutor from the six and eight semester of English Education department. In whilst-writing, the researcher grouped the students into 4 groups, and then the students were discussing the topic they read accompanied by tutor. After conducting 15 minutes discussion in group then, the lecturer asked the students to write their sentence by synthesizing and composing their idea into a paragraph guided by the tutor. It took about 40 minutes to write. Furthermore, in the post-writing, the teacher asked the students to share their difficulties in writing sentences, by asking questions related to their difficulties and share their results of writing.

In this part of activity, the lecturer and the tutor give the students correction and feedback related to the students' sentence writing, and asked the students to revise their

works, and in the next following week the students submitted the result of their revision to be published in the classroom. In the week 8 in the first week of April 2015, the researcher conducting post-test aims to know the progress of the students in their writing ability. Furthermore, to know the students' opinion about the implementation of peer tutoring in sentence writing, the researcher conducting questionnaire to the students which consist of 10 items related to the teaching of writing by using peer tutoring approach. The results of questionnaire were described qualitatively. The interviews with some of the participant were conducted to support the research data. Furthermore, to obtain truly data, the researcher was recording the teaching learning process and ticking the observation sheet.

All the data were analysed throughout the research. Therefore, the researcher obviously analyses the result of the students writing test to measure the progress of the students writing ability. Meanwhile, the supporting data related to the student's opinion in the implementation of peer tutoring in sentence writing were collected from questionnaire, interview, and the lecturer observation sheet.

### 3 FINDINGS

This part covers the results of the classroom action research based on the observations which were taken during the implementation of the action research which is supported by the students' answers on the questionnaire. The findings functioned to know the results of research. The research presented only one cycle that consists of eight meetings including the test. The materials were taken from the textbook, supplementary material, and encyclopaedia based on the theme provided. The findings were also supported by the students' responses on the questionnaire which is about the teacher's and the students' activities during the writing activity. Besides, it covers the research findings on the problems that rose during the implementation of peer tutoring in the teaching of writing.

#### **Implementation of the Research**

##### ***Planning***

From the previous experience of writing class, the researcher knows that the students get difficulties in writing. Based on this observation, the researcher planned to apply the action research in improving the students writing ability through peer tutoring approach.

##### ***Acting***

This phase needed to be done simultaneously to have clear description of what happened during the implementation of this strategy. In realization to the learning strategy, the lecturer proposed in orientation and procedure of students' works as an open activity or introduction. Then, the lecturer distributed the material to the students. In the main activity of learning, the lecturer divided the class into groups of 5, and then asked the students to discuss the result of their difficulties with the tutor for 15 minutes. After the discussion session, the lecturer asked the students to write a good paragraph, by following the rule of writing which includes organization, mechanism, and correct grammatical rule. In the post writing activity, the lecturer asked the students to submit their work, and invited some of the students to write their result of writing, so that it will be easy to give the students feedback and comment related with the students work. In the next following week the lecturer asked the students to revise their work and publish it in the classroom wall.

### *Meeting 1 to 5*

The first until the five meeting were conducted on 18<sup>th</sup> February 2015, 25<sup>th</sup> February 2015, 4<sup>th</sup> March 2015, 11<sup>th</sup> March 2015, and 18<sup>th</sup> March 2015 with the following activities.

#### Pre-writing activity

Greeting and introduction were done for about 5 minutes and then the lecturer and the students conducted brainstorming session related to topics discussed in that day; later, the lecturer asked the students to discuss about capitalization, kinds of sentences, coordinating conjunction, and sentence combination. The materials in the first until fifth meetings are focused on the grammar and capitalization. The whole time for conducting pre-writing activity was 15 minutes

#### Whilst-writing activity

Main activity was done for about 60 minutes by discussing the subject matter to the class, forming the class into a group of five. The members were chosen randomly. Then, the lecturer placed one tutor in every group and asked them to assist the students to discuss in the group related with the material they discussed. Furthermore, after 15 minutes discussion, the lecturer gave the students' time to write their sentences based on the result of their discussion into a paragraph for about 40 minutes. Most of them were very busy to elaborate their idea into a paragraph. The students use the rest of the time (5 minutes) for correcting and submitting their work.

#### Closing activity

This activity was done for about 15 minutes. It was focused on concluding and giving the feedback related with the result of the students' works. Then, she closed the meeting.

### *Meeting 6 to 7*

The sixth and seventh meetings were conducted on 25<sup>th</sup> March 2015 and 1<sup>st</sup> April 2015 with the following activities.

#### Pre-writing activity

Greeting and introduction were done for about 5 minutes and then the lecturer and the students conducted brainstorming session related with topics discussed in that day, later, the lecturer asked the students to discuss the material about grammar and commas, this including Subject-verb agreement, Adjective clause, Noun clause, Rules of commas. The whole time for conducting pre-writing activity was 15 minutes

#### Whilst-writing activity

Main activity was done for about 60 minutes by discussing the subject matter to the class, forming the class into a group of five. The members were chosen randomly. Then, the lecturer placed one tutor in every group and asked them to assist the students to discuss in the group related with the material they discussed. Furthermore, after 15 minutes discussion, the lecturer gave the students' time to write their sentences based on the result of their discussion into a paragraph for about 40 minutes. Most of them were very busy to elaborate their idea into a paragraph. The rest of 5 minute that the students have in whilst writing was used for correcting and submitting their work.

#### Closing activity

This activity was done for about 15 minutes. It was focused on concluding and giving the feedback related with the result of the students' works. Then, she closed the meeting.

#### *Meeting 8*

The eighth meeting was conducted on 8<sup>th</sup> April 2015 with the following activities.

#### Pre-writing Activities

Greeting and introduction of the activity were done for about 15 minutes. Then, the teacher made some appraisal to the previous activity.

#### Whilst-writing Activity

Main activity was done for about 60 minutes. The lecturer asked the students to write the descriptive paragraph in right composition of writing, including the content of the paragraph, organization, mechanism, and correct grammatical rule, as the test of writing for the students. The test was done individually. The purpose of the test was to find out the students' improvement in the writing ability.

#### Closing activity

Closing activity was done for about 15 minutes to conclude the result of learning by giving feedback related to the students' works. Then, she closed the activity.

#### ***Observing***

In the implementation of the strategy, the lecturer focused on the observation of classroom condition globally. The interaction happened during implementation of peer tutoring approach was recorded.

On the first meeting, the discussion session was centered on some members of the groups who had prepared themselves with the writing materials to be discussed. These students did most of the group tasks. Other group members were busy with other matters. Other students tended to rely on their friends and ignored the group discussion and their tutor.

At first, the students needed to be assured that they were allowed to ask the teacher or the tutor whenever they had problems in doing the tasks. They needed encouragement. These phenomena showed the researcher that it was important for the students to know the form of the sentences in order to help them writing the sentence for writing easily. Moreover, their comprehension also became important for them because that will support their writing composition.

On the second and third meetings it was found that the lecturer asked all group members to note down the result of their discussion to overcome this problem. Then, all group members directly wrote down the results of the discussion even though they did not join the discussion. Right after that, the lecturer asked the students again to write their paragraph.

On the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh meeting, the researcher found the phenomena that during the discussion assisted by the tutor, the students feel very interested in writing. Applying this strategy in writing, the lecturer had a wider chance to approach the students and guided them whenever they found problem. Moreover, they would feel that they had the responsibility to produce their paragraph.

At the eight meeting, the teacher conducted the test. The lecturer asked the students to write their paragraph in the piece of paper. During the writing session, it was found that the students found it easy to write, perhaps because they know the knowledge of the topics and grammatical rule. The students did the test for 60 minutes. The result of the test showed that the average students' score was 7.6 (see appendix 3). It meant that students' writing skill was improved.

### **Reflecting**

From the observation which had been done, the researcher found some problems which disrupted in the discussion session. Some students did not join the group discussion, relied on other group members to do the group tasks, and made noise. The researcher tried to analyse these problems and found out that the problems arose because they were not concentrating on the group due to the reasons; some students were lazy, passive, and ignorant students. For the first time, the students did not give the attention to their tutor, perhaps they thought that the tutor do not have sufficient knowledge to guide them. Furthermore, this condition was influenced by their ability to write their paragraph. Besides, the implementation of peer tutoring strategy in the teaching of writing can enrich the knowledge of the students, than, make the students write easily.

Based on the analysis of the observation and the reflection of the implementation of peer tutoring approach, the researcher concludes that the students get improve in their writing skill.

### **The Result of Questionnaire**

From the result of questionnaire the researcher can conclude that the students feel joyful and happy in the implementation of peer tutoring in the writing class. The students found it easy to write their paragraph, because they already have the knowledge related to their topic of writing from the tutor. Furthermore, the students also have the knowledge about the organization, mechanism and correct grammar to support their paragraph. In conclusion, the implementation of peer tutoring strategy in the teaching of writing really help the student to write their paragraph, because this strategy provided the students with the sufficient knowledge to compose their sentence and paragraph.

## **4 DISCUSSION**

From the finding of the research, it can be showed that the implementation of peer tutoring could improve the students' writing especially for sentence writing to a simple paragraph. This could be viewed from the result of the analysis of process and product implemented throughout the research. The writing test was administrated by the researcher at the end of each cycle. The materials of the test were taken from the topic.

After the researcher implemented peer tutoring strategy for about 7 times in the teaching of writing, the researcher know that the students' ability in writing a sentence to a simple paragraph increased. It can be seen from the result of the students writing product in every meeting which become better. In the implementation of peer tutoring, the students feel easy to write their sentence and paragraph after they have small discussion with the tutor. The students get the knowledge from their reading and discussion. So, it really helps the student to compose their paragraph.

Furthermore, the result of the research is closely related to a study by Benware danDeci (1984) who conducted a research to the small group of students in the teaching of reading stated that peer tutoring have positive effect for the tutor, that they can learn through teaching learning activity. The tutors also get better understanding than the

advisee. Besides, peer tutoring have the power from the students to actively involved in the teaching and learning process. Another advantage is the students who became the tutor will have a good cognitive and metacognitive ability. They also have a good experience to implementing their knowledge.

*Peer tutoring* is the development from *peer learning* (PL). Peer Learning have wide point of view where the students who come from the different level of proficiency working together in one group to help one another in order to reach the target of knowledge, meanwhile, peer tutoring should have the position to assist their junior. (Topping, 2005). Besides, there are 13 elements to create peer tutoring in the classroom. They are the number of the group, social status, the student's age, the students' ability, and the role of the students, time, place, particular character from the tutor and the students, and the strongest of the team. (Slavin, 1996 & 2005).

Peer tutoring have some characteristics, such as: cross-year small-group tutoring, the personalized system of instruction, supplemental instruction, same-year dyadic fixed-role tutoring, same-year dyadic reciprocal peer tutoring, dyadic cross-year fixed-role peer tutoring, same-year group tutoring, peer assisted writing, and peer assisted distance learning (Topping, 1996).

Peer tutoring strategy differ from traditional approaches to teaching sentence writing in at least four major ways: (1) Writing from personal experience and observation of immediate surroundings is de-emphasized; instead, the emphasis is on writing from sources (readings, lectures, discussions, etc.), on synthesis and interpretation of information currently being studied in depth. Writing is linked to ongoing study of specific subject matter in one or more academic disciplines and is viewed as a means to stimulate students to think and learn. (2) The instructor who guides and responds to writing must know the subject matter well enough to explain it, field questions, and respond to content and reasoning in papers. Treatment of matters of form (organization, grammar, mechanics) and style do not dictate the composition course syllabus, but rather follow from writers' needs. (3) Students listen, discuss, and share about a topic before writing about it as contrasted to the traditional belief that in a writing course, students should only write. (4) Extended study of a topic (some class treatment of core material and some independent and/or collaborative study/research) precedes writing, so that there is "active control of ideas" and "extensive processing of new information" (Anthony, 1985, p. 4) before students begin to write.

In the implementation of the research, the student found the new environment in the teaching of sentence writing. The students also get the new experience which can help them in their writing. In the implementation of peer tutoring strategy in the teaching of writing, the students have to practice guiding the junior to write the topics in order to explore the knowledge related to their writing. Then, the students also have a discussion session related with the topic they read. In this case the students get chances to think and gain a lot of information that will very useful for their writing.

While the reading, writing, and discussion were implemented together, then the students have to learn about the organization, mechanism, and the rule of the grammar use. By having adequate knowledge about this, the students can explore more their idea in the depth of their writing. Even in the discussion session there was a problem with the poor students were only rely on others, but at least they still get the information from the discussion. The students still gain the knowledge from the lecture and tutor related with their topic.

Moreover, the implementation of peer tutoring can change our mind that in the writing class the students not only doing writing. But they can also do reading, listening, and speaking integrated before they write. It means that in the writing class the students

will not feel depressed because they should practice writing for the whole time and commonly they got stuck on their idea because they do not have adequate knowledge to write. Additionally the students also fell depressed because they should also give the attention to the organization, mechanism, and the grammatical rule based on the theory provide by the teacher. By implementing peer tutoring strategy, the students feel free to ask their difficulty to their tutor without any burden because the tutor is their senior whom they meet every day.

Thus, it can be considered by the teacher to use peer tutoring strategy as an alternative ways to improve the teaching writing because this strategy can make the students interested to write, read, and speak. When the students practice all the component of the language skill together, it will enable the students to memorize the information they get longer than the students only see it. The use of this strategy in teaching writing is more interesting and it can give motivation to the students to understand about the lesson longer and automatically. The peer tutoring strategy can give the chance for the students to discuss their difficulties in group with their tutor, and also give the students understanding about the vocabulary and the grammar use. It was to improve the students' motivation and their writing ability.

## 5 CONCLUSION

From the findings of the research and also the discussion part, it can be seen that the implementation of peer tutoring strategy in the teaching of writing really helps the students in improving their writing ability. The students find it easy to compose their paragraph, because they got sufficient knowledge related to their topic. Their writing organization, mechanism, and grammatical rule were improved significantly, because they had the model through their tutor. In addition, these parts of writing were not distracting their time to write. On the other hand, in the implementation of peer tutoring, the students got not only the adequate knowledge related to the content of the text but also the vocabulary use and the grammar. Overall, the students' writing ability was improved as it can be seen from the result of the students writing test. The average score of the students' writing test were 7.6, from 25 students in the writing classroom. It means that the students really enjoyed and got the benefit in the implementation of peer tutoring strategy in the teaching of sentence writing.

The result of this research explains the useful strategy in the teaching of sentence writing and it describes the implementation of the strategy. This is supported by the result of the students writing score and their opinion about the implementation of this strategy in the teaching of writing. Since this research was only small scale classroom action research with the very limited time to implement the research due to peer tutoring strategy, the researcher suggests other researchers to explore more about the implementation of peer tutoring in large scale research, with other various types of text, material to be explored, and also with the adequate time to employ. Future researchers can also implement peer tutoring strategy as one of the strategies for teaching other language skills. In addition, lecturers should know the students' level of proficiency in writing, in order to help the students solve their writing difficulties in EFL classroom.

## REFERENCES

Anthony, T.P. (1985). Writing in EAP: Climate and process. *ESP Newsletter*, 95, 1-6.

- Benware, C.A. danDeci, E.L. 1984. Quality of Learning With An Active Versus Passive Motivational Set. *American Educational Research Journal* Vol.21(4), hal. 755-65.
- Brown, H. D. 2001. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (2<sup>nd</sup>ed). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Derewianka, B. 1990. *Exploring How Text Work*. Australia: primary English Teaching Association.
- Harmer, J.G. 1996. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hyland, K. 2003. *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Krashen, S. 1985. *Writing: research, Theory and applications*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S.D. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S.D. (1985). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications. *New York: Longman. Newsletter*, 95, 1-6.
- McNiff, J. 1995. *Action Research: Principles and Practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Nunan, D. 1999. *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Shih, M. 1986. Content-Based Approaches to Teaching Academic Writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 20, No. 4. December 1986.
- Suppawan, S. & Chuchart, A. 2010. Multidimensional Instruction Model for Comprehensive Academic Writing Capability Development: The Integrative Approach. *Journal of Behavioral Science*. Vol. 5, No. 1, 88-89.
- Topping, K. J. 1996. The effectiveness of peer tutoring in further and higher education: A typology and review of the literature. *Higher Education*, 32(3), 321-325. doi: 10.1007/BF00138870
- Topping, K. J. 2005. Trends in Peer Learning. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 25(6), 631-645. doi: 10.1080/01443410500345172
- Wahyuni, A. D. 2003. *The Students' Descriptive Writing as a Result of the Implementation of Document Portfolio*. Unpublished Thesis: State University of Surabaya.
- Weigle, S.C. 2002. *Assessing Writing*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

# TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A NETWORKED, DIGITAL WORLD E-LEARNING QUIPPER SCHOOL – NEW DIGITAL METHOD FOR THE 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY

**Erika Ambarita**  
ambaritaerika@yahoo.co.id

*SMA NEGERI 96*  
Jl. Jati Raya 40 Cengkareng, Jakarta Barat 11730

## **ABSTRACT**

*We are now living in the digital era. Our students have changed radically. They think and process information fundamentally differently. They need to learn to use digital tools to empower their learning so that they can compete in our ever-changing world. Digital technologies and education are both recognized as essential to a global future. Communities throughout the world, including students and teachers, have access to knowledge, tools, resources that were only dimly imagined even 30 years ago. How can we encourage our students to improve their knowledge through the use of digital technologies? Quipper School ( QS) an e-learning service that is designed comprehensively for teachers and students to help the learning process continues effectively with the benefit of digital technology. Using this service, teachers can manage classes and assign classwork or homework easily and efficiently. Students can learn and finish their homework anywhere while earning rewards, as well as isolating their strengths and weaknesses, at anytime. Quipper School has proven to be essentially providing new learning experience to teachers and students all around Indonesia, with many schools reporting that student's results has significantly improved. In pre task, introduce topics to students to discuss. Then, teachers can quickly see student's performance, analyze where their strengths and weaknesses lie, so that teachers can help them to improve and flourish. During the task, students work in pairs. They are able to share the ideas of a new material one to other students.*

**Key words :** *Digital era, process information, QS, homework.*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Information and communication technology ( ICT ) is the number one phenomenon in human progress of this century . ICT or ICT -based computer, very rapid growth , both hardware and software and strategic function , penetrated into various sectors. If, initially computer functions only as a means of data processing and administration, especially in the world of business or industry . Now , the computer experiencing growth and development in the world of education . Not only for the data processing and administration, but also as a means of learning activities ( KBM ) or the transfer of knowledge. Teaching and Learning using computer media commonly referred to as multimedia-based learning or any other term E -learning system . The presence of

computers as a learning tool is felt. Although a variety of reasons expressed, there is claimed to be afraid of, do not have time to spare, even principled feel old computer already can not then do not bother to learn it. But, in essence causing low ICT competence of teachers due to low awareness or willingness of teachers to learn. Appropriate ICT curriculum one of the subjects in school. Ironically, teachers emphasize students to master ICT only through ICT subject teachers. In fact, the need for teachers' ICT competence over many benefits. As for the administrative work of teachers, began to manufacture Learning Implementation Plan (RPP), the processing value, to the preparation of research reports a class action (PTK).

More importantly, as mentioned above, as a means of multimedia-based learning or E-learning system. We know, school is the basis for the development of science and technology and teachers who are directly involved in it. In the midst of the rapid progress of ICT, it is still very underdeveloped teacher. The question is, where the role of education as a center of science and technology, or as an agent of change? According to the Pew Research Center, 95 percent of American teens use the Internet. Even if teens are not on a digital device, they are surrounded by images, links, and references related to staying connected and begin in the "know" through the Internet, cell phones, and other devices. Young people of this generation have been labeled *digital natives* because of their heavy reliance and use of the Internet and digital technology. Many of the Internet sites adolescents visit are related to social media and the ability to communicate with others. Many teens stay connected to each other through texts, Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, Tumblr, and other social media platforms, and their digital use has become a natural extension of their lives. The ability to "control" their social world, express themselves, and connect with others, fulfills developmental needs adolescents have at this time in their lives. It is difficult to find research proving whether connectedness through digital means has a positive or negative effect on teens' lives.

## 2 STEREOTYPES TEACHING PROFESSION

According to the Law on Teachers and Lecturers teacher is a profession. The reality is that many teachers are not professional. The teaching profession is still not aligned with other professions, such as managers, lawyers, doctors, and accountants. Stereotypes that the teacher is not a profession that coveted remain attached.

Teacher certification programs do not show a positive impact, but add a small portion of income teachers who pass the certification. According to the Chairman of the Indonesian Independent Teachers Federation (FGII), Supaman, of approximately 2.7 million teachers in Indonesia, only 550 thousand teachers who have been certified. Even then, the new 351 thousand teachers who already have the decree. That is, the new number of 351 thousand teachers who have received professional allowance (Pikiran Rakyat : 29/11/2010). To become a professional teacher should continue to improve their competence. In the information age, the role of ICT is very beneficial for the education world, of course with all consequently. Thus, computer literacy for teachers a necessity. Compensation, allowance is intended to improve the competence to support their professionalism, including competence in the field of computer.

In fact, increasing the welfare of teachers, allowances obtained is used for purposes outside by profession. However, to patch up the necessities of life, not to improve the quality, such as, training, purchase of books supporting, or buy a computer. This was due to economic conditions they are forced, because the government has not met the teachers' welfare, especially for a private teacher.

### 3 MULTIMEDIA BASED

Multimedia-based learning or E-learning system has many advantages. Due to limited, it has been a lot of schools that develop the learning models. Although the computer is no longer a privilege, there are many schools that have not implemented a multimedia-based teaching. The main cause is the cost factor and the low competence of teachers in the field of ICT. There are at least three pedagogical theories related to the learning process. First, the theory of Bloom's taxonomy, namely the cognitive (intellectual skill competency). Consists of six levels, namely; knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Second, taxonomy Trathwohl (affective), include the introduction or acceptance, giving a response, respect for the values, organization, and experience. Third, taxonomy Harrow (sphere psikomotor) comprising, imitate, manipulate, precision motion, articulation, and naturalization.

Multimedia-based learning log with the help of computer devices connected to a network or the Internet will accelerate and enrich students' understanding of the learning process. Because with the help of computer technology combination of several elements, such as text, sound, or image, (graphics, movies, or animation) with visualisasi different colors. Thus, students can receive course materials through several senses at the same time. Hear, read and see. Effects of multimedia-based learning process of students not only taken on the cognitive but also affective, psychomotor even. In contrast conventional learning, where the level of efficiency is limited. Educates participants could not imagine further, only the cognitive domain. Within the framework of educational equity, there should be no difference between elite schools and normal schools, between schools in the city and schools in remote corners, or between public schools and private schools. It is ironic, if learners are not not enjoy the use of the computer as a medium of learning for teacher competence factor as a major constraint. One key, the teacher must seek to improve their competence. Governments need to develop policies that encourage teachers to improve their competence in the field of computers simultaneously conducting the training.

#### 3.1 21 st - CENTURY SKILL

The term "21st-century skills" is generally used to refer to certain core competencies such as collaboration, digital literacy, critical thinking, and problem-solving that advocates believe schools need to teach to help students thrive in today's world. Twenty-first-century learning means that students master content while producing, synthesizing, and evaluating information from a wide variety of subjects and sources with an understanding of and respect for diverse cultures. Students demonstrate the three Cs: creativity, communication, and collaboration. They demonstrate digital literacy as well as civic responsibility. Virtual tools and open-source software create borderless learning territories for students of all ages, anytime and anywhere. Powerful learning of this nature demands well-prepared teachers who draw on advances in cognitive science and are strategically organized in teams, in and out of cyberspace. Many will emerge as teacherpreneurs who work closely with students in their local communities while also serving as learning concierges, virtual network guides, gaming experts, community organizers, and policy researchers. Twenty-first-century learning embodies an approach to teaching that marries content to skill. Without skills, students are left to memorize facts, recall details for worksheets, and relegate their educational experience to passivity. Without content, students may engage in problem-solving or team-working experiences that fall into triviality, into relevance without rigor. Instead, the 21st-century learning paradigm offers an opportunity to synergize the margins of the content vs. skills debate and bring it into a framework that dispels these dichotomies. Twenty-first-century

learning means hearkening to cornerstones of the past to help us navigate our future. Embracing a 21st-century learning model requires consideration of those elements that could comprise such a shift: creating learners who take intellectual risks, fostering learning dispositions, and nurturing school communities where everyone is a learner. Success in the 21st century requires knowing how to learn. Students today will likely have several careers in their lifetime. They must develop strong critical thinking and interpersonal communication skills in order to be successful in an increasingly fluid, interconnected, and complex world. Technology allows for 24/7 access to information, constant social interaction, and easily created and shared digital content. In this setting, educators can leverage technology to create an engaging and personalized environment to meet the emerging educational needs of this generation. No longer does learning have to be one-size-fits-all or confined to the classroom. The opportunities afforded by technology should be used to re-imagine 21st-century education, focusing on preparing students to be learners for life. The Internet, which has enabled instant global communication and access to information, likewise holds the key to enacting a new educational system, where students use information at their fingertips and work in teams to accomplish more than what one individual can alone, mirroring the 21st-century workplace. Students in the 21st century learn in a global classroom and it's not necessarily within four walls. They are more inclined to find information by accessing the Internet through cellphones and computers, or chatting with friends on a social networking site. Similarly, many teachers are monitoring and issuing assignments via virtual classrooms.

### **3.2 GLOBAL PROBLEMS OF TEACHER**

Lack of time

Homework takes too much teacher time : 10% of class time , 20% of time at school, Unable to provide for star/struggling students.

Poor use of IT.

Lack of IT adoption within the classroom .

Lack of good supplementary materials.

## **4 QUIPPER SCHOOL**

Quipper School is an E-learning service that is designed comprehensively for teachers and students to help the learning process continues effectively with the benefit of digital technology. Using this service, teachers can manage classes and assign classwork or homework easily and efficiently. Students can learn and finish their homework anywhere while earning rewards, as well as isolating their strengths and weaknesses, at anytime. Then, teachers can quickly see student's performance, analyze where their strengths and weaknesses. Of course teachers nowadays face big challenges, large classes, full of paper works. Quipper School is here to help. Quipper School makes managing, monitoring multiple classes containing hundred assignments. Takuya, Marketing Director at Quipper made a speech at Bett, world's biggest edtech convention in London. He was one of the few speakers talking about edtech in South East Asia. The title of the presentation is "Why South East Asia is Leading the World in Mobile Learning" - Quipper School is growing rapidly across the world, but Takuya feels that when it comes to mobile learning, South East Asia has 3 defining characteristics that may lead the region to the most advanced m-learning hotbed. The first one is growth. Everyone knows that SEAsia is one of the fastest growing regions in terms of population and GDP. And mobile learning is not an exception. Mobile penetration is expected to grow fivefold between 2013 and

2019, and mobile data consumption is expected to grow more than eightfold, one of the fastest pace in the world. Also, SEAsia is a 'mobile first' region. Since mobile devices and network are much more advanced and faster than traditional computers and wifi there, everything is being build around mobile. This includes mobile payment, agriculture, healthcare, and of course learning. There many mobile learning sprouting up in the region as well, such as Kalase from Indonesia. The second distinctive feature is 'BYOD - bring your own device'. We know that this trend is growing quickly. However, when it comes to 'mobile' BYOD, it's not yet become mainstream. Takuya said that after having talked with many edtech leaders, government officials, school principals and teachers, mobile BYOD is not widely accepted, because of security, lack of application, effectiveness etc. He estimates that only around 10- 15% of the students have ever done any significant learning related activities with their own mobile devices at school. However, the situation is very different in SEAsia. When Takuya visited schools in Indonesia, he was surprised to see that working on Quipper School with their own devices at school is very common. When Quipper surveyed more than 1,000 students and 200 teachers, mind-blowing 95% of the students said that they're allowed to bring their own devices to complete the Quipper School tasks at school, and 55% of the students are already actively doing so. This trend is driven by some factors. One is that the region leapfrogging the old technologies such as laptop and wifi, because, as previously mentioned, the new mobile technologies are much more advanced. Secondly, government officials are very supportive. They not only allow students to bring devices, they actively encourage them to do so. This is because they acknowledge that mobile learning is key to improving their country's education, and hence the economy. Lastly, Takuya says "at Quipper, we always say that teachers are at the core of driving the edtech revolution. When someone doesn't have a mobile device to work on Quipper School, teachers actively share their own devices. They're not fighting against new technologies. They're embracing them." - With the BYOD trend, students now can learn anywhere, and anytime. - The third characteristics, is "Test Prep". Asian countries are famous for having very competitive test prep cultures. For example, in Japan, their entrance exams start when they're 3 years old (for kindergarten), and parents send their kids to cramming school to pass the exams. New York Times and Washington Post wrote very compelling articles describing this culture in China and South Korea, as well. And it's growing very quickly in SEAsian countries as well. A lot of review centres and private tutorial centres are being built. And the students naturally expect this to happen on mobile as well. When Quipper surveyed its users, more than 70% of the students expect to receive private tuition online, stating that it's much more convenient and fun. Nearly 80% parents agreed too. Takuya says that it won't be too long before we start to see many interesting innovations in this field. Mobile learning will play very important roles in SEAsia, and a lot of innovations will be born here. There are some questions posed by this, Takuya warns. For example, with mobile learning and the BYOD trend, most of students' learning activities will become online and all the data will be stored in the cloud. We don't know yet to whom the data belong, and who has access to it. Mobile learning is surely catching on, and many interesting things will happen. Help them to improve and flourish. Quipper School has proven to be essentially providing new learning experience to teachers and students all around Indonesia, with many schools reporting that student's results has significantly improved. Another positive switch of habit is that students tend to ask for homework before teachers actually assign it. Students find online learning as a fun way to learn and do assignment, especially because Quipper School present gamified features, which is as challenging as playing any online games. What Quipper School can provide :

Save time for teachers, improve results

National curriculum aligned rich contents  
Basic functions are free  
Fun way to learn

How can start Quipper School?

Sign up : Input basic information, choose job title / subject / school types.

Create class : Input class name, select the course, and have successfully created the class. Please check a class code, give the class code to the students and then the students are able to enter their class.

Create assignment : Drag topics you'd like to select as assignment, set assignment schedule and choose either of assignment/Examination, then send to students.

Here the students are able to study anytime, anyplace, meanwhile the data result resend back to their teacher.

## 5 CONCLUSION

Digital technologies and education are both recognized as essential to a global future. After more than a decade of investment, many countries report slow adoption of digital technologies in their education sector, especially in schooling and in the teacher education, while uptake in the general community, where the students spend most of their lives, continues to outstrip projection. After the invention of Personal Computer and the internet, smart phones and tablet PC are the common gadgets can be easily found among people in the world. Besides its advantages, these instruments change the way users communicating to the others. Teachers use gadgets mostly for supporting their job and routine activities such as checking e-mails, sending text message and browsing for information in the internet. When teachers were asked about the students sending them text message, all of them said that they are welcome to be contacted by them. They said that messaging makes their work efficient. All students admit that they ever send short text messaging to the teachers. Furthermore, they said that prefer to send messages when they want to discuss about assignments or anything related to their study.

Quipper School is here to help teachers in managing, monitoring multiple classes containing hundreds students doing assignments or exams. Using this service, teachers can manage classes and assign classwork or homework easily and efficiently. Students can learn and finish their homework anywhere while earning rewards, as well as isolating their strengths and weaknesses, at anytime. There are three services in Quipper School : learn, create and link. The teachers are able to be a students in order to know what the teachers have given to the students, and also can train himself to master anykind of lesson. In create service the teachers are able to create their own assignments or exam that would be given to the students not depend on the materials that quipper school had inside. Of course here the students have to do the assignments or exam online anywhere, anytime they like. *It is called the digital world, no limitation to do.* The students can do many times until they find the right answer to the questions that given. Here the teacher can monitor the progress of students score classically and individually in detail. There are many advantages of having quipper school both teachers and students. While the teacher is going out the class and the students are easily checked by the teachers what have the students done without afraid of making mistakes because it is done systematically by the quipper school provider.

## REFERENCES

- Allesi M, Steven & Trollip SR. (1985). Computer Based Intruction. Englewood Cliffs, NJ : Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Darmawan (2007). Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi. Bandung: Arum Mandiri Press.
- Undang-Undang tentang Guru dan Dosen No. 14 Tahun 2005
- Stepp-Greany, J. (2002). Student Perception on Language Learning in a Technological Environment : Implications for the New Millenium. *Language Learning & Technology*, 165-180.
- Reiber, Jhon (1990). *Computer for Learning*. New York : Academic Publisher.
- Clyde, W., & Delohery, A. (2005). *Using Technology in Teaching*. London: Yale University Press.

# CHALLENGES IN ASSESSING CHARACTER EDUCATION IN ELT: IMPLICATIONS FROM A CASE STUDY IN A CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

**Joseph Ernest Mambu**  
joseph.mambu@staff.uksw.edu

*Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana*  
Salatiga

## **ABSTRACT**

*In this paper I examine some challenges of assessing character education in the context of TEFLIN. Major sources of character education in Indonesia (e.g., Kurikulum 2013) seem to be religious values. However, there are two salient problems. First, in religiously inspired character education, there are concerns about religious values imposition. Second, it is oftentimes vague what types of, and how, character education can be evaluated in English language teaching and learning settings. In the context of an EFL teacher education program in a Christian university that I studied, one Christian student showed her religious dogmatism in classroom interactions or elsewhere in which peers having different religious views were present. Students' communicative competence in expressing religious values can be assessed by examining their growing self-reflexivity (which problematizes dogmatism), among others, in their discourse. Character education assessment rubrics are developed from the cases reported here, in light of: (1) the Indonesian government's guidelines for assessing character education; (2) critical ELT; and (3) Celce-Murcia's (2007) model of communicative competence.*

**Keywords:** *character education (CE), assessment, critical pedagogy/ELT, communicative competence.*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

In Indonesia, character education (henceforth CE) is inspired by religious values, among others. or The Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia of 1945 [2002] (a.k.a. UUD 1945) clearly states: "The government advances science and technology along with holding religious values... to [promote] civilization as well as the well-being of humanity" (chapter 3, article 31, subsection 5). In *Desain Induk Pendidikan Karakter* (the blueprint of CE developed by the Ministry of National Education; henceforth DIPK, 2010), it is explained that character configuration entails "Olah Hati (*Spiritual and emotional development*), Olah Pikir (*intellectual development*), Olah Raga dan Kinestetik (*Physical and kinesthetic [sic] development*), [and] Olah Rasa dan Karsa (*Affective and Creativity development*)" (p. 9, italics in original). Furthermore, "pendidikan karakter mempercayai adanya keberadaan *moral absolute*" [CE believes in the existence of *moral absolute*] (p. 10). DIPK (2010) justifies its stance on moral absolute by stating that

“sesungguhnya terdapat nilai moral universal yang bersifat absolute... yang bersumber dari agama-agama di dunia... contohnya... hormat, jujur, bersahaja, menolong orang, adil dan bertanggung jawab” [actually there are values of universal morality that is absolute... which originates from religions in the world, e.g., respectful, honest, modest, helpful, just, and responsible] (p. 10). Furthermore, from DIPK’s perspective, character education is more profound than moral education, because the former not only teaches what is right and wrong, but it also instills habit – or “habituation” in the document (p. 10) – of good things. Through habituating oneself to doing good things, DIPK believes that learners are able to understand which one is right and wrong (cognitive domain), feel good values (affective domain), and be accustomed to doing them (behavioral domain).

In another document derivative of the Indonesian Constitution (i.e., *Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter* [Guidelines for Implementing Character Education], 2011), the Ministry of National Education enumerates 18 “nilai-nilai pembentuk karakter” [values that form character] (p. 7) which originate from religions, Pancasila (i.e., the state’s five principles), cultures, and the goal of national education: (1) religiosity, (2) honesty, (3) tolerance, (4) discipline, (5) hard work, (6) creativity, (7) independence, (8) democracy, (9) curiosity, (10), patriotism, (11) nationalism, (12) appreciation towards others’ achievements, (13) friendliness/communicativeness, (14) peace, (15) love to read, (16) environment awareness, (17) social awareness, and (18) responsibility (p. 8).

Unlike in Indonesia where CE cannot be separated from religious views, the place of spirituality, especially those inspired by religions, has been disputed in the literature of TESOL in the West. Buzzelli and Johnston (2002), for instance, contend: “our use of the word *moral* has nothing in common with its use by the Moral Majority [in the United States] and other right-wing Christian organizations” (p. 4). Reluctance to include religiosity in second language pedagogy is not without a reason. In fact, both non-Christian (Edge, 1996, 2003; Kubota, 2009; Pennycook & Makoni, 2005) and even Christian ELT scholars (Chamberlain, 2009; Ferris, 2009; Loptes, 2009) have reservations about evangelization or proselytization, especially by many Western Christian English language educators in non-Western host countries. Shaaban (2005), a Lebanese ELT scholar, also expresses his secular view when saying that “[a] glance at the divisive role played by ‘politicised’ religion in places like Indonesia... and Lebanon clearly demonstrate the dangers of basing moral education on religion” (p. 214). However, non-Indonesian (including Western) scholars’ (excessive) fear of proselytization through ELT or of centering moral education on religion has not been substantiated by more in-depth analyses of challenges, not simply impossibilities, in implementing character education in highly religious societies like Indonesia and its educational institutions.

In the context of TEFLIN, CE has been discussed by some scholars (e.g., in a position paper by Sugirin, 2011), but specific attentions to inter-religious negotiations of CE and how it can be assessed democratically in inter-religious contacts among ELT stakeholders have yet to be sufficiently examined. Qoyyimah (2014), in her ethnographic study in Indonesian state junior-high schools, found out that four EFL teachers in the schools have nuanced views of the role of religious values in their ELT practices. She delves into the tensions these teachers had to encounter when they integrated moral (or character) education from secular and religious perspectives. Apart from what teachers can do or have done in class, Hapsari (2013) investigated to what extent reading sections of the English e-book for senior high school students contained 18 character values (see *Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter* [Guidelines for Implementing Character Education], 2011). In my earlier study (Mambu, 2014), findings related to CE are the by-

products of my larger question of how spirituality was negotiated by EFL teacher educators and students in a Christian university. One case from my findings in the 2014 study (i.e., students' religious dogmatism and religious tolerance) will be selected here as bases for expanding on the specific question of how CE can be assessed through TEFL.

Prior to addressing this question, I will synthesize insights into assessment from (a) the blueprint of CE developed by the Ministry of National Education under Muhammad Nuh (i.e., *Desain Induk Pendidikan Karakter* [DIPK], 2010); (b) critical ELT perspectives; and (c) a communicative competence model (Celce-Murcia, 2007).

The Ministry of National Education in 2010 through its DIPK (2010) has provided some indicators for assessing students' processes of character building. Teachers can base their assessment on observations and anecdotal notes of students' behaviors, as well as students' assignments or reports. Teachers' considerations can be expressed qualitatively based on these incremental progress indicators: (a) *Belum Terlihat* (Yet to be Seen); (b) *Mulai Terlihat* (Emerging); (c) *Mulai Berkembang* (Developing), and (d) *Membudaya* (Part of Students' Culture/Habit) (pp. 35-36). In the first stage, students do not seem to understand the meaning of a value. The second phase is indicated by early signs of expected behaviors because students begin to understand, but these behaviors are not yet consistently done. In the third stage, students' expected behaviors are more consistently performed, especially because there is better understanding and awareness, as well as reinforcement from people close or distant from the students. The final phase is signaled by students' continuous performances of expected behaviors due to fuller understanding and awareness, with stronger reinforcement from people surrounding the students. The students show moral maturity in this fourth stage. Overall, assessment framework based on DIKP is applicable to a myriad of behaviors expected to be performed by learners/students. However, there is no concrete examples of how this is utilized in the context of ELT.

Attending to learners' own social, political, or economic realities to be critically investigated has been a central principle in Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy (see e.g., his seminal work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*). However, practical procedures of critical language/ELT assessment, as Crookes (2013) indicates, are few and far between. Crookes, however, cited the work of Keesing-Styles (2003), an Early Childhood teacher educator. In Crookes's and my view, Keesing-Styles's argument (as cited in Crookes, 2013, p. 68) can be extrapolated in ELT:

To achieve a critical approach to assessment, it must be centered on dialogic interactions so that the roles of teacher and learner are shared and all voices are validated... [A critical approach to assessment] must value and validate the experience students bring to the classroom and importantly, situate this experience at the centre of the classroom content and process in ways that problematize it and make overt links with oppression and dominant discourses. [The critical approach to assessment] must reinterpret the complex ecology of relationships in the classroom to avoid oppressive power relations and create a negotiated curriculum, including assessment, equally owned by teachers and students.

Students' voices can be based on their own realities or experiences (e.g., of dealing with a dishonest person, of facing a racist person, of encountering a discriminatory treatment, of marginalizing other people, etc.). When a student's experience, upon his/her self-reflection, is such that s/he makes others suffer, then the student is expected to problematize it. Regarding negotiated assessment, it is pivotal that teachers provide opportunities for students to either develop their own assessment criteria (or rubric) or do self-assessment. "Student-generated [assessment] criteria" (Keesing-

Styles, 2003, p. 13) will not be discussed here; it deserves at least another paper in its own right. In this paper, I will focus on teacher-generated assessment rubrics.

DIPK (2010) has provided stages of CE-related learning behaviors to be assessed, but the assessment framework appears very teacher-centered. The critical ELT perspective enriches the understanding of narrowing power differentials between students and teachers with regard to assessment. Still unclear is how language-related behaviors in spoken or written discourse are assessed by students themselves and teachers. To address this, I will use the construct of “communicative competence,” especially the one which has been modeled by Celce-Murcia (2007). Her currently developed model provides quite a comprehensive elucidation of language learning aspects that can be tangibly observed and assessed.

Refining previous models of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia (2007) suggested six components in the current model: (1) sociocultural competence; (2) discourse competence; (3) linguistic competence; (4) formulaic competence; (5) interactional competence; and (6) strategic competence. I will summarize the first three only, because they are the most relevant components in this current study.

First, sociocultural competence constitutes “the speaker’s pragmatic knowledge” or competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46). Pragmatic knowledge enables a person to convey thoughts or feelings in ways that are suitable according to (target language) norms of sociocultural contexts of where communication takes place. Second, discourse competence indicates a person’s ability in choosing, sequencing, and arranging words, sentences, and utterances that can be understood by others. Four sub-areas of discourse competence include (a) cohesion (e.g., “reference [anaphora/cataphora], substitution/ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical chains”); (b) deixis (e.g., “spatial terms [here/there...], temporal terms [now/then...], textual reference [the following table...]; (c) coherence; and (d) generic structure or “formal schemata that allow [someone] to identify a... segment as a conversation, narrative, interview, ... lecture, sermon, etc.” (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 47). Third, linguistic competence can be identified by a person’s capacity in using phonological, lexical, morphological, and syntactical knowledge.

## 2 METHOD

In a larger eight-month ethnographic study in a Christian university (i.e., Jawara Christian University [henceforth JCU] – a pseudonym) in Java (Mambu, 2014), I recruited 17 focal participants (i.e., six students and 11 lecturers) who come from various religious backgrounds, especially Islam and Christianity. One of the major criteria for recruiting them is their overt religiosity, which was apparent during my preliminary observations in their classes or was based on teachers’ and/or students’ reports or stories. I elicited data from some of these participants through focus group discussions, individual interviews, and classroom observations.

In this paper, I select data from five participants. These five people brought up the themes of religiosity and tolerance, either in class or elsewhere (i.e., focus group discussions or interviews). They are (1) Calantha (a Christian female student from outside Java); (2) Tono (a Muslim male student from Java); (3) Ellie (a Christian female student from out of Java and a social activist); (4) Franz (a Christian male student from Java); and (5) Celeste (a Christian, non-Javanese female instructor). These are not their real names. Calantha and Tono participated in one focus group discussion together on the same day (March 4, 2014). Calantha, Ellie, and Franz belonged to the same class (i.e., Communication Across Cultures), with Celeste being their instructor. Participants’

responses are transcribed verbatim. As regards students' responses, verbatim transcription will indicate areas of students' linguistic competence, among others, that need improving.

For the current paper, I selected video- and/or audio-recorded data that contain divided views surrounding an issue of expressing religious faiths in ELT settings. The existence of overlapping and conflicting views on this issue accounts for how challenging it is to assess (religious) tolerance as a CE-related theme. This theme will be analyzed by a theoretical framework I synthesized in the introduction from the perspectives of DIPK (2010), critical ELT (Crookes, 2013; Keesing-Styles, 2003), and Celce-Murcia's (2007) model of communicative competence.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Assessing students' religious views expressed in English can be daunting. Let me begin with a student's dogmatic views. In a focus group discussion, Calantha had a dogmatic view of spirituality, after I asked her "What does spirituality mean to you?" This is her response: "It's something that holy. Holy and there is right and wrong. You have to do this, and you don't have to [i.e., must not] do this" (Focus group discussion, March 4, 2014). Binary oppositions like "right" versus "wrong," and "you have to do this" versus "you must not do this" are verbal indicators of this dogmatism.

In another thread of conversation, I asked students in the focus group discussion to comment on a curriculum document that in my opinion contain some Christian bias. Tono expressed his feeling as part of the minority in JCU. Tono was already a member of the students' body, but as a Muslim, he could not be promoted to general or commission chairpersonship. Then he asked: "What if a Muslim or Hindu, or other that's not Christian is more capable to be a leader, right?" Calantha raised her right hand, ready to take the floor, but Tono still managed to continue on his comment: "Like [what] Calantha said that we have to realize that we live in Christian university. You can't change the rule that they created. So we have to adapt not they adapt to us" (Focus group discussion, March 4, 2014).

Calantha's dogmatism was accentuated in full sway afterwards. She not only stressed the word "rules," but she also repeated it across utterances: "Because we have to look the *rules*. ... The university was born or was made in Christian *rules*" (Focus group discussion, March 4, 2014, italics added). Furthermore, the constructed dialogue "What is *tritunggal*?" [i.e., What is Holy Trinity?] only widened power differentials between Calantha and Tono. The same stance on not allowing non-Christian to be leaders at structural positions in JCU was even maintained in a follow-up interview. As she said in an interview two weeks following the focus group discussion (i.e., on March 18, 2014): "And I want to ask him, like 'Do you know the *rules* of JCU? Like *tritunggal* [i.e., trinity]. Can you explain it?' Maybe I just want to prove [that] he cannot answer my question. Something like that." Then I challenged her: "And then if he cannot answer the question? What's next?" Calantha replied: "Ya it is prove that he has to be Christian, to be a leader in this university." Her next statement only makes her power gap with a non-Christian like Tono, despite his absence, more noticeable: "Do you know about like *tritunggal* or *takut akan Tuhan adalah permulaan pengetahuan* [i.e., the fear of God is the beginning of wisdom/knowledge]?" (March 18, 2014).

In a Communication Across Cultures class (April 2, 2014), Calantha remained dogmatic. The class was discussing a drama script (from *Kaleidoscope Eyes*) written by a Singaporean female author, Theresa Tan (1998). *Kaleidoscope Eyes*, briefly speaking, contains a fiction of a Catholic wife of Chinese descent (Clare) who was restless about her husband's being a homosexual, which she knew only after they got married.

When Ellie her fellow Christian friend seemed to be open to homosexual or lesbian friends, Calantha protested strongly: “But how about if the Bible said that God just create woman and man in this world!?”

Ellie resumed her talk:

*Ya. Like I said before, from my religious perspective, I agree that homosexuality is forbidden. But as myself, I very open to them. I mean I have a lesbian friend... My experience is more open-minded. Because, if you make relationship with them, you will know their reason. So sometimes their situation change their identity. So we can't judge them. (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014)*

Noticing the dispute between Calantha and Ellie, Celeste (the instructor) provided her in-situ formative assessment. Unlike Calantha, Celeste planted some seeds of tolerance in her views expressed in an academic tone:

*So as a person, you comprise your personal belief from different sources. Right? And one of them is religion. But I think this is interesting this morning to find out that you share different ideas. Yes. Like on the basis of your religious affiliation or belief, you say you disagree with homosexuality. But as a person you maybe not on the level of agree or disagree, but at least you provide room for this issue. Am I right? Maybe in order to say I agree or disagree is too big. Ya? Unless you spend closer time with the person, like Ellie say, you can understand the reason. Then you can say you agree or disagree. (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014)*

Calantha remained noncompliant to tolerance for the homosexuals. She asked Celeste: “Ma’am. I just [have a] question. How about if we give them time, or give them space to live,... it will increase their homosexual?” Addressing the rest of the class, Celeste clarified Calantha’s question: “She thinks that accepting the fact of homosexuality will facilitate the growth of homosexuality. What do you think of this?” Franz, an opponent of homosexuality, had the following remark:

*I'm agree with Calantha that we can increase the homosexual if we have the room for [them]. Because in the Bible, as I Christian, God have told me, told us that we cannot accept the homosexual. Because it's straight that God want. It's man and woman. It's not like Sodom and Gomorrah. So I cannot accept that about homosexual and lesbian living. (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014)*

Celeste asked her question again: “including providing room for them?” Franz was resolute: “Ya. Including providing room... ” Ellie joined the conversation again: “I think only God can judge.” Calantha picked up on Franz’s idea: “It will related to the Bible that God only creates man and woman... . Can you say that after they pass away they can go to the heaven?” The remaining heated debate between Calantha and Ellie was eventually interrupted by Celeste.

In a follow-up interview on the following day, I played the video recording and asked Celeste why she decided to interrupt Calantha. She explained: “the main reason is I sense... *resistensi, gitu. Yang satu resisten sana, aku resisten ini. Na kalo dilanjutkan, nanti kan akan menjadi kurang dialogis lagi* [resistance. One was unwavering about her opinion, the other was adamant with her own opinion. If it had been continued, it would

have been less dialogic.]” Besides that, Celeste would like other students to participate (Interview, April 3, 2014).

Religious tensions in the above snippets may resonate with many people, including (some) ELT stakeholders in Indonesia, who negotiate either their fundamentalist (a.k.a. dogmatic) perspective (recall Franz and Calantha) or (more) “liberal”/tolerant views (recall Ellie and Celeste). With these two conflicting views present in ELT settings, be it in classroom discourse or focus group discussions and interviews, assessing character education becomes more challenging. It is therefore incumbent upon EFL teacher educators/researchers to, first of all, think of a core value that forms a desirable character. That Calantha and Franz sound very religious is undoubtable. However, when a student’s (e.g., Calantha’s) religiosity is likely to hurt other people who either have a different religion (e.g., Tono) or a secular view, performing religiosity per se might not constitute a desirable character. In the narrative, tolerance seems to be shown by Ellie and Celeste, and the antithesis of tolerance is dogmatism, like that of Calantha and Franz. Let us assume then that (religious) tolerance is the core value (see *Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter* [Guidelines for Implementing Character Education], 2011, p. 8) being focused on to be assessed. The next step I suggest is figuring out a cluster of values relevant to religious tolerance. From the perspective of *Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter* (2011), the cluster of values shape a “character configuration” of “Olah Hati” (spiritual and emotional development), “Olah Pikir” (intellectual development), and “Olah Rasa dan Karsa” (Affective and creativity development).<sup>1</sup> According to the *Panduan*, relevant values in Olah Pikir include being critical, open(-minded), and reflective; in Olah Hati having empathy, and in Olah Rasa dan Karsa being tolerant (p. 9).

Certainly I was not in the position of giving grades to my research participants, especially in the contexts of focus group discussion or individual interviews. Celeste was. However, assuming that interacting with a student like Calantha is not atypical situation in ELT settings, I can still build up a model of how to assess students’ character development through English language use over time. After determining the core value (e.g., [religious] tolerance) with its related values (e.g., being critical, open[-minded], reflective, and having empathy), the next step is delineate observable language-related behaviors, seen through the perspective of communicative competence, that reflect the core and related values being assessed.

The selection of components of communicative competence is certainly at an individual teacher’s discretion. However, to illustrate the development of a model for assessing religious tolerance in TEFLIN contexts, I will elaborate on my selections of communicative competence components that I emphasize and my justifications for doing so. In terms of sociocultural competence, Celce-Murcia (2007) argues that “a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication” (p. 46). Although Celce-Murcia seems to limit the sociocultural aspects within the purview of learning “target language” norms (e.g., the sociocultural norms of English as a foreign language being learned), in the cases of Calantha and Franz the communicational blunder on their part is more on their insensitivity, regardless of the language being used or learned. Still, if Calantha and Franz had been addressing competent English users (including the so-called English “native speakers”) in a highly secular academic context in, say, a state university in the United States, their audience

---

Olah Raga (literally sports) or Physical and Kinesthetic Development is irrelevant here.

(particularly those who are non-Christian and proponents of homosexuality) could have felt very uncomfortable. By asking “but how about if the Bible said that God just create woman and man in this world!?!... How about if we give... [the homosexuals] space to live... it will increase their homosexual?” (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014), Calantha is very likely to be perceived (at least by me and Ellie) as an oppressor who threatens the existence of homosexual people. No matter how strongly Calantha claimed “even though I say that I disagree [with homosexuality], [it] doesn’t mean that I judge them... I only just disagree... with their life as a homosexual” (Interview, April 3, 2014), the way she constructed her discourse in the class on the day before the interview suggests otherwise: Calantha sounded judgmental. Moreover, even in an Indonesian university, Calantha’s dogmatic stance might sound offensive to her Muslim friend, Tono. From Celce-Murcia’s (2007) perspective, a student like Calantha did not appear to be aware of her religiously associated social (especially power) distance between herself, as a Christian in a Christian university, and her Muslim peer. In terms of “stylistic appropriateness” under the component of sociocultural competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46), Calantha still had poor politeness strategies, too. Checking Tono’s understanding of “tritunggal” (i.e., the Holy Trinity) may be regarded as harsh (or downright impolite).

As regards linguistic competence, it is interesting to notice Calantha’s lexical (or word) choices. She used the word “rules” repeatedly, and defined spirituality in a black-and-white approach: “right” versus “wrong;” using the modals “have to” and the erroneous “don’t have to,” which is supposedly “must not” (Focus group discussion, March 4, 2014). Overall, Calantha’s inaccuracy in using “don’t have to” instead of “must not” shows her rather weak linguistic competence. Moreover, her lexical repertoire for religious dialogues seems very restricted as she kept using rule-oriented words (e.g., “rules,” “have to,” “right,” and “wrong”). As such, she did not seem to have some flexibility in expressing a critical stance, empathy, and self-reflections.

In terms of sociocultural competence, Ellie and Celeste conformed to very crucial (target) academic language norm: being critical, which is encapsulated in *Olah Pikir* (intellectual development; *Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter*, 2011). Being critical has a twofold meaning: (1) being objective, as opposed to being too subjective (e.g., Calantha’s one-sided view of religion); (2) being aware of power differentials between people having different orientations, especially in terms of religious views and sexuality.

With regard to discourse competence, Celeste and Ellie elaborates on their critical ELT orientation through reflection (or, to be used interchangeably here, self-reflexivity). The self-reflexivity is expressed in discourse of intrapersonal dialogues in which a learner’s or an educator’s experience is subject to problematization, especially when the experience is deemed colluding with dominant discourses (e.g., religious one-sidedness and dogmatism) perceived as oppressive (Crookes, 2013; Freire, 2000; Keesing-Styles, 2003). At a discourse (i.e., across utterances) level, Ellie could distinguish between her religious belief (e.g., “from my religious perspective, I agree that homosexuality is forbidden”) and her personal secular stance (e.g., “as myself, I very open to [the homosexuals]”). Furthermore, showing empathy, which is part of *Olah Hati* (spiritual and emotional development [*Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter*, 2011]), Ellie stated: “... if you make relationship with [the homosexual or lesbian people], you will know their reason. So sometimes their situation change their identity. So we can’t judge them” (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014). Celeste, the instructor, also exemplifies self-reflexivity through positioning her own religious belief as one source, among other sources, which constitutes the totality of her ever-evolving personal belief. Implied in her self-reflexivity is her “constant questioning”

(Friedrich et al., 2013, p. 131) of religion as the only source of people's (including her own) ever-evolving personal belief.

Celeste's and Ellie's ability in demonstrating their (a) critical stance, (b) empathy, and (c) reflections can be traced by their linguistic competence, especially the use of lexical items like "open" or "open-minded" (Ellie, April 2, 2014), despite her inaccurate usage (i.e., "I very open to them"; "My experience is more open-minded"), and a syntactical construction like "But as a person you maybe not on the level of agree or disagree [sic], but at least you provide room for this issue [of homosexuality]" (Celeste, April, 2, 2014). "Provide room" is particularly a powerful verb phrase in this context. It indicates some degree of empathy for marginalized homosexual or lesbian people.

After discussing how DIPK (2010), critical ELT perspectives, and Celce-Murcia's (2007) communicative competence are related in assessing religious tolerance, I will now proceed to summarizing it in rubrics for teacher's part (see Figure 1) and students' self-assessment. Invisible and desirable language-related behaviors depicting students' character development, as far as their constructed discourse in class or elsewhere is concerned, are gleaned from my discussion about Calantha's, Ellie's, and Celeste's verbalized responses.

**Figure 1. A Teacher's Rubric for Assessing EFL Students' Character Development on (Religious) Tolerance.**

<b>Character Development Rubric</b>				
<b>A Specific Character being Assessed: (RELIGIOUS) TOLERANCE<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>Stages of a Student's Character Development (DIPK, 2010)</b>			
	<b>Not Yet Seen (Belum Terlihat)</b>	<b>Emerging (Mulai Terlihat)</b>	<b>Developing (Mulai Berkembang)</b>	<b>Part of Culture/Habit (Membudaya)</b>
<b>Components of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007)</b>				
Sociocultural competence Indicator: Being critical in an academic setting (i.e., being objective or not one-sided, and being aware of power differentials in people's orientations,	The student does not seem to understand critical and polite stances in academic settings, especially when an audience is from another religion or is non-religious.	The student begins to understand critical and polite stances in academic settings. However, her or his discourse suggests that such stances are not yet	The student's critical and polite stances in academic settings are more consistently performed, regardless of whether there is some degree of reinforcement from the	With or without stronger reinforcement from the instructor and/or peers, the student continuously performs critical and polite stances in academic settings due to a

especially toward religious views and sexuality.		consistently, if at all, performed.	instructor and/or other students.	full(er) understanding and awareness of potential academic audience's expectations.
Discourse competence Indicator: Elaborated discourse (i.e., a stretch of utterances) on reflection (or self-reflexivity <sup>1</sup> , <sup>4</sup> ) that shows some empathy <sup>2</sup> toward a marginalized group of people.	The student does not seem to be aware of the need to be self-reflexive and show empathy across utterances (i.e., at a discourse level) in academic settings, especially when an audience is from another religion or is non-religious.	The student begins to understand the need to be self-reflexive and show empathy in academic settings. However, her or his discourse suggests that such reflection and empathy are not yet consistently, if at all, performed.	The student's reflections and empathy in academic settings are more consistently performed, regardless of whether there is some degree of reinforcement from the instructor and/or other students.	With or without stronger reinforcement from the instructor and/or peers, the student continuously performs self-reflexivity <sup>4</sup> and empathy in academic settings due to a full(er) understanding and awareness of potential academic audience's expectations.
Linguistic competence Indicators: Mastery in using lexical and syntactical forms indexing critical stance (including open-mindedness <sup>1</sup> ), empathy <sup>2</sup> , and reflections <sup>1</sup> .	The student has yet to use lexical items or syntactical forms that show critical stance, empathy, and reflections in academic settings, especially when an audience is from another religion or is non-religious.	The student begins to use lexical items or syntactical forms that show critical stance, empathy, and reflections in academic settings. However, her or his discourse suggests that such reflection and empathy are not yet consistently, if at all, performed.	The student's use of lexical items or syntactical forms that show critical stance, empathy, and reflections in academic settings are more consistently performed, regardless of whether there is some degree of reinforcement from the instructor and/or other students.	With or without stronger reinforcement from the instructor and/or peers, the student continuously utilizes lexical items or syntactical forms that show critical stance, empathy, and reflections in academic settings due to a full(er) understanding and awareness of potential academic

				audience's expectations.
Notes:				
1 Olah Pikir (Intellectual Development): Being critical, open(-minded), and reflective.				
2 Olah Hati (Spiritual and Emotional Development): showing empathy.				
3 Olah Rasa dan Karsa (Affective and Creativity Development): being tolerant. (Based on Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter [Guidelines for Implementing Character Education], 2011)				
4 The notion of self-reflexivity is in line with the critical pedagogy/ELT perspective (Crookes, 2013; Keesing-Styles, 2003).				

In the teacher's rubric (Figure 1), I do not include the word "dogmatism" explicitly, because at the end of a learning process (e.g., at the end of a semester), the rubric will be shared with students, and it is likely to be too face-threatening on the part of the students (like Calantha or Franz) if they are labeled as "dogmatic." It will be more fruitful, therefore, that desirable values forming a composite character like "religious tolerance" are elucidated in the rubric, especially at the indicator sections (under each component of communicative competence). Besides that, by saying "with or without stronger reinforcement from the instructor and/or peers" (under "Membudaya" column) I attempt to provide some space for EFL teacher-researchers to analyze the extent to which (religious) tolerance discursively constructed by a peer like Ellie and an instructor like Celeste is internalized in due course by a student like Calantha. When students ask an instructor to elaborate on her or his rationales behind marking certain columns in the rubric, the instructor can make use of their notes, which are ideally as detailed as my transcribed video-recorded data I presented above. One example of elucidating the rationale is for an instructor to bring the notion of linguistic modalities of necessity (e.g., "must," "have to") to the student's attention. In so doing, students' awareness of lessening dogmatism in academic discourse can be increased.

The teacher's version of rubric (Figure 1) can be used for formative assessment once or subsequently. To illustrate, the rubric allows a teacher/researcher like me – Celeste has never used it – to trace whether or not, or the degree to which, Calantha developed her religious tolerance as a desirable composite<sup>2</sup> character. I will first document how many times I met her. Based on the reported findings above, I met her on three major events: (1) a focus group discussion (March 4, 2014), when she challenged Tono, her Muslim friend; (2) a class session (Communication Across Cultures class, April 2, 2014); and (3) a follow-up interview (April 3, 2014). In these three events, her sociocultural competence as elucidated in Figure 1 are "Not Yet Seen," "Not Yet Seen" and (probably?) "Emerging" respectively. In the first two events, she combatively attacked Tono and an imagined homosexual community respectively. Only in the third event did Calantha incorporated what Celeste said about providing room for homosexuals, but she did not frame it an elegantly academic way, because she was insistent on rejecting that idea altogether. Concerning discourse competence and linguistic competence, "Not Yet Seen" prevails in three events, in my opinion.

<sup>2</sup> By "composite" here I refer to related values (e.g., being critical, being reflective, and showing empathy)constructing the character of religious tolerance.

#### 4 CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

In this paper, the challenges of assessing character education in ELT have been addressed through my working models of assessment rubrics for teachers and students. These rubrics incorporate insights from the findings of my larger ethnographically framed case study, in light of DIPK (2010), critical pedagogy/ELT, and Celce-Murcia's (2007) model of communicative competence. The most challenging part in developing the assessment rubrics is the necessity of coming to terms with the controversy of incorporating religious and critical views into ELT settings, including an English language classroom like Celeste's Communication Across Cultures class. Some Indonesian state policy makers (e.g., authors in DIPK, 2010) favor moral absolute, especially that which is religiously inspired, over relativizing morality. However, DIPK itself endorses "tolerance" as a value that shapes a desirable character. From a critical pedagogy/ELT perspective, tolerance can be nurtured through providing space for EFL students to have interactional dialogues of controversial issues like homosexuality in class or elsewhere. With regard to assessment, the critical pedagogy/ELT perspective encourages me to develop rubrics for both teachers and students, on the grounds that the voices of both parties need to be "validated" (Keesing-Styles, 2003, as cited in Crookes, 2013, p. 68). Central to the rubrics are elaborated indicators of values (e.g., being critical, reflective/self-reflexive, open[-minded], and showing empathy) that are supposed to shape a desirable composite character of (religious) tolerance. These indicators are translated from my research participants' elicited data, in view of Celce-Murcia's (2007) model of communicative competence. The degree to which these values become internalized in the students' language-related behaviors at sociocultural, discourse, and linguistic levels can be observed in four stages, following DIPK (2010): Not Yet Seen, Emerging, Developing, and Part of Culture/Habit.

Challenges in assessing character education in ELT settings do not end here. The working assessment rubrics I present in this paper are inductively generated from my findings in a larger study (Mambu, 2014), and so they have not been used by the research participants whom I assessed with the rubrics. In future studies, the rubrics can be used and refined not only by me and my research participants, but also by other teacher-researchers working in EFL teacher education programs and schools at primary and secondary levels. One aspect of refinement is integration of communicative competence components that have yet to be explored here (i.e., formulaic competence, interactional competence, and strategic competence). Apart from prospective use and refinement of my suggested rubrics here, Indonesian-based ELT practitioners can explore CE-related themes other than religious tolerance. For instance, based on my 2014 study, two major CE-related themes emerged: academic honesty and love to read. How teachers develop and utilize formative assessment rubrics on a regular basis in order for students to avoid plagiarism and to become avid readers are crucial issues to address.

#### REFERENCES

- Brookhart, S. M. (2013). *How to create and use rubrics for formative assessment and grading*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Buzzelli, C. A., & Johnston, B. (2002). *The moral dimensions of teaching: Language, power, and culture in classroom interaction*. New York, NY: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E. A. Soler, & M. P. S. Jordà (Eds.), *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 41-58). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

- Chamberlain, M. (2009). First, the log in our own eye: Missionaries and their critics. In M. S. Wong, & S. Canagarajah (Eds.), *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas* (pp. 46-52). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Crookes, G. V. (2013). *Critical ELT in action: Foundations, promises, praxis*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Desain Induk Pendidikan Karakter [DIPK/Blueprint of Character Education]. (2010). Jakarta: Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional [National Education Ministry].
- Edge, J. (1996). Keeping the faith. *TESOL Matters*, 6(4), 1.
- Edge, J. (2003). Imperial troopers and servants of the Lord: A vision of TESOL for the 21st century. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 701-709. doi: 10.2307/3588218
- Ferris, D. R. (2009). Power and change in ELT: Thoughts from a fellow traveler. In M. S. Wong, & S. Canagarajah (Eds.), *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas* (pp. 205-214). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (M. B. Ramos, Trans.) (30th anniversary edition). New York, NY: Continuum Books. (Original work published 1968).
- Hapsari, P. L. (2013). Character education values in reading section of e-English textbook for senior high school students grade XI. *English Language Teaching Forum*, 2(1), 1-6.
- Keesing-Styles, L. (2003). The relationship between critical pedagogy and assessment in teacher education. *Radical Pedagogy*, 5(1), 1-19.
- Kubota, R. (2009). Spiritual dimensions in language teaching: A personal reflection. In M. S. Wong, & S. Canagarajah (Eds.), *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas* (pp. 225-234). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Loptes, K. A. (2009). A preliminary survey of Christian English language teachers in countries that restrict missionary activity. In M. S. Wong, & S. A. Canagarajah (Eds.), *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas* (pp. 53-58). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mambu, J. E. (2014). *Negotiating the place of spirituality in English language teaching: A case study in an Indonesian EFL teacher education program*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.
- Panduan Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter [Guidelines for Implementing Character Education]. (2011). Jakarta: Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional [National Education Ministry].
- Pennycook, A., & Makoni, S. (2005). The modern mission: The language effects of Christianity. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 4(2), 137-155. doi: 10.1207/s15327701jlie0402\_5
- Qoyyimah, U. (2014). Secular and religious moral grounds resonating across state schools in Indonesia. Paper presented at the Joint AARE-NZARE 2014 Conference, Brisbane, Australia.
- Shaaban, K. (2005). A proposed framework for incorporating moral education into the ESL/EFL classroom. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 18(2), 201-217.
- Sugirin. (2011). Character education for the EFL student-teachers. *Cakrawala Pendidikan*, 1-14.
- The Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia of 1945. (2002). In Asian Human Rights Commission. Retrieved from [http://www.humanrights.asia/countries/indonesia/laws/uud1945\\_en](http://www.humanrights.asia/countries/indonesia/laws/uud1945_en)

## PROCESS-GENRE APPROACH TO TEACH WRITING IN AN EFL CLASSROOM (A CASE STUDY IN ONE OF PRIVATE COLLEGE AT GARUT)

**Lestiyani Sunarto**  
lestiyanis@gmail.com

**Fathin Anjani Hilman**  
fanjanih@gmail.com

**Fida Anisah**  
fidaanisah@ymail.com

*Indonesia University of Education*  
Bandung, Indonesia

### **ABSTRACT**

*writing is skill that is difficult to teach because it requires understanding about grammar, mechanics of writing, diction and style in writing. Those are needed to make students able to write in an organized manner and the message can be transferred to the reader. In teaching writing, it is hoped the students not only able to produce a text, but through writing they also can develop their social networks, support their personal and spiritual growth, communicate professionally and academically and build relationship with others. Process-genre approach is the methodology that not only focus on the product but also the process. Thus, this study aims to investigate the process-genre approach in teaching writing. The case study research design was used in this study. Observation and interview were employed in this study to collect the data. Then the data were analyzed by organizing data, transcribe data, coding the data, representing findings and then interpreting the findings. The findings revealed that process-genre approach is the suitable approach to teach writing in an EFL classroom. This approach not only make students able to produce a text, but also make them involve a lot in process of writing so they can develop their writing ability. Therefore it is recommended to use proses-genre approach in the teaching writing*

**Keywords:** *Process-Genre Approach, Writing*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

Writing is skill that is difficult to teach because it involves proper accumulative knowledge of grammar, mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation & capitalization) and diction (vocabulary to be used); it also involves style (way of writing to meet the expectations of the English reader), merit (ability) to write in an organized manner and finally imagination (Khalil, 2010). Then, Writing is also considered to be one of the most difficult skills that learners are expected to master (Sabouri, Zohrabi, & Vafa, 2014). The

aim of teaching writing is not only the students able to produce a text but through writing, perhaps they can develop social networks; engaging in civic discourse; supporting personal and spiritual growth; reflecting on experience; communicating professionally and academically; building relationship with others, including friends, family and like-minded individuals; and engaging in aesthetic experiences (The Writing Study Group of NCTE Executive Communittee, 2004). Since it is difficult, the aim of teaching writing has not been achieved. Thus, the teachers need a good teaching strategy in order to achieve the aim of teaching writing.

The success of learning can come from the strategy used by the teacher (Saputra, 2015). There are two kinds of approach that usually used by the teacher in teaching writing; process approach and product approach (Tribble, 1996). The product approach is one of the most practiced approaches in schools around the world (Pincas, 1982). This writing approach encourages students to world. This writing approach encourages students to essay or the essay normally provided by teachers. The main aim of the approach is to provide some linguistic knowledge about to language student (Palpanadan, Salam, & Ismail, 2014). The product approach has four stages: 1) familiarization; 2) controlled writing; 3) guided writing; and 4) free writing. (Badger & White, 2000; Palpanadan, Salam, & Ismail, 2014).

Tompkins (2008) defined the writing process as a way of looking at writing instruction in which the emphasis is shifted from students' finished product to what they think and do as they write. Ho (2006) stated that process approach in teaching writing emphasizes on linguistic skills such as planning and drafting rather than on linguistic knowledge such as grammar. This approach focus on what happens while student write. There are four stages in process approach: 1) Planning), 2) drafting, 3) Revising and Editing, and 4) Publishing (Cavkayta & Yasar, 2010; Tribble, 1996; Harmer, 2007)

**Table 1. A comparison of genre and process orientations**  
(Source: Hyland, 2003; Badger & White, 2000 cited in (Yanghee & Jiyoung, 2005))

Attribute	Process	Genre
<b>Main Idea</b>	Writing is thinking process concerned with the act of writing	Writing is a social activity concerned with the final product
<b>Teaching Focus</b>	Emphasis on creative writer skills in using languages	Emphasis on reader expectations and product Knowledge about language Knowledge of the context in which writing happens
<b>Advantages</b>	How to produce and link ideas Makes processes of writing transparent Provides basic for teaching	How to express social purposes effectively Makes textual conventions transparent Contextualizes writing for audiences and purpose
<b>Disadvantages</b>	Assume L1 and L2 writing similar Overlooks L2 language difficulties Insufficient attention to product Assumes all writing uses same processes	Requires rhetorical understanding of texts Can result in prescriptive teaching of texts Can lead to over attention to written products Undervalue skills needed to

Attribute	Process	Genre
produce texts		

The product and process approach, focus on different things. The product approach focus more on the reader, and on the conventions that a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership (Yanghee & Jiyoung, 2005). While the process approach focuses more objective and it also focuses on the process of writing rather than the end-product of writing (Palpanadan, Salam, & Ismail, 2014). Though both approaches has different focus, but the aim of those approach is same that is to achieve the aim of teaching writing. Yanghee and Jiyoung (2005) provide a new approach that combine both approach; process and product approach called process-genre approach. This approach was used to make students realize that in writing, they also need focus on the end product, not only their progress in the writing.

The focus of the process-genre approach is to make students not only able to produce a text, but also make them involve a lot in process of writing so they can develop their writing ability. Hence, the main purpose of this research is to investigate the implementation of the process-genre approach in teaching writing.

## 2 METHOD

### 2.1 Research Design

Case study research design is used in this study because this study focus on a case that involve in bounded context happened in one of private college at Garut (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Malik & Hamied, 2014; Cresswell, 2012). The sample of the research is one lecturer who teaches in one private college at Garut. He has taught writing using the process-genre approach for 5 years. It is selected by using purposive sampling; in this case participant is chosen because of who they are and what they know (Malik & Hamied, 2014).

### 2.2 Data Collection

The data is collected by conducting interview; in form of semi structured interview and observation. Semi-structured interview is used to obtain the information that can later be compared and contrasted (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 1932). Then, the interview is done in one on one interview in order to know the teachers' belief regarding to the implementation of the process-genre approach in teaching writing. The process of the interview is recorded to make the researcher easy to recheck the data. While, non-participant observation was conducted by video recording and fields note to get complete activities of teaching writing. The observation is conducted to confirm the Interview result of the implementation of the process-genre approach in teaching writing.

### 2.3 Data Analysis

To identify the findings then the data are analyzed by applying five steps according to Cresswell (2012), the steps are as follows:

1. *Organizing data*, the researcher organizes the data by type from the interview and the observation.
2. *Transcribe data*, the data that has been organized are being transcribed. The results of interviews and observation are converted from audiotape into text data, which is called transcription.

3. *Coding the data*, coding is the process of segmenting and labeling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data. The transcriptions are read carefully to find the major themes of findings that must be related to the research questions.
4. *Representing the findings*, the major themes that have been found as findings are represented by creating sub theme and then reported it in narrative discussion.
5. *Interpreting the findings*, the findings that have been reported in narrative was are interpreted in the meaning of the research. The interpretation consists of advancing personal views, making comparison between the findings and the literature, and suggesting limitations and future research.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Findings

After analyzing the data, it was found there are four stages in the process-genre approach in teaching writing in an EFL classroom:

1. Familiarization
2. Controlled writing
3. Guided writing
4. Free writing
  - a. Prewriting
  - b. Composing
  - c. Revising and editing
  - d. Publishing

#### 3.2 Discussions

In the process teaching writing, it was found that the lecturer emphasize first on the product, and then after the students aware what product they are going to write, the lecturer emphasize on the process approach. There are two sessions in this approach: product session and process session.

##### 3.2.1 Product Session

In the product session, there are three stages that happened in the teaching writing process;

##### 3.2.2 Familiarization

The familiarization stage aims to make learners aware of certain features of a particular text. In this stage, the lecturer explained about an essay argumentative as a main product of the writing.

##### 3.2.3 Controlled Writing and Guided writing sections

The controlled and guided writing stages was conducted integratedly by the lecturer. In this stage, the students were divided into 10 group (each group consist of 3-4 members). They were given task to make an essay in group, step by step; beginning with choosing the topic; the lecturer explain how to choose a topic and sub-topic by conducting the brainstorming, body paragraph; they have to make arguments about the topic and conclusion; the last statements about the topic. Here, they practise the skills with increasing freedom until they are ready for the free writing section.

### 3.2.4 Process section

In the process section, the lecturer explores the free writing stage in the product section. Different from the product section that done in group, in this section the students write individually. Here, the lecturer divided the free writing stage into the four stages of the process approach; planning, composing, revising/editing, and publishing.

### 3.2.5 Planning

In this stage, same as when choosing topic in the controlled writing, the lecturer used brainstorming to explore students' idea. Here, they are explored what they want to write. This process was conducted individually to make students' more active and to make lecturer aware about students' difficulties, since it was found that when write in group, there are a few students who active in the teaching process.

Firstly, the lecturer gave them the theme; movie. Then, the lecturer gave them 15 minutes to make planning about what they want to write. The lecturer also asked them to make an outline. The themes that lecturer gave also interested, since almost all students love movie. This method was effective to be used in getting students' express their idea. It also can make students realize that it is not hard to get an idea.

**Table 2. The Activities conducted in planning stage**

Activity	Data From Interview	Data from Observation
<b>Planning</b>	"... in the planning stage, the students are exploring their ideas, it is done in individually different from the product section which was done in group. But, the process is the same, to explore their ideas, I conducted brainstorming then they are asked to make an outline in order to make them easier in writing their essay..."	In the first, the lecturer didn't explain what genre they have to produce since it was done last week, in the product session. He directly explained how to explore idea by conducting 'brainstorming' to the students. These are the process of planning stage from the observations result: The lecturer given student theme 'movie' The lecturer explain the brainstorming, clustering, mind mapping The students make outline for their writing

### 3.2.6 Composing / drafting

After they planned what they are going to write in the planning stages, they are asked to make paragraphs from the outline. They are guided to make an essay, step by step in this process.

Firstly, the lecturer asked them to make introduction paragraph. While they are making the paragraph, the lecturer are guiding them how to make their paragraphs have the coherence and unity. Then, after they are finishing their introduction paragraph, they are asked to make body paragraph and conclusion.

In making paragraph also, the lecturer gave them the rules such as the limitation of paragraph and sentence; they have to make an essay consist of 4 paragraph (minimum), each paragraph consist of four sentences.

In this stage almost all students involved in the process. In the end, before continuing to the next stage, there are some students that chosen randomly to present their essay in front of the class. Since they do not know who will be asked by the teacher, so they worked hard to make the good essay on their own.

**Table 3. The Activities conducted in Composing/Drafting Stage**

Activity	Data from Interview	Data from Observation
<b>Composing / Drafting</b>	“...after each of students has their outline, I asked them to make an essay based on their outline. After that, I asked three or four persons randomly to present their result.”	The teacher asked students to make an essay based on the theme given. These are the process of the composing stage from observation results: Each student are asked to make /paragraph individually Lecturer gave the rules in making paragraph Students make their essay Each students represent their essay in front of class (randomly)

### 3.2.7 *Revising*

In this stage, the students are asked to re-read again then revise their writing if there is mistake they did. While revising their own writing, since the lecturer cannot help all students work one by one in the class, so the lecturer used peer-feedback method. When the students finished their writing, they have to collected it to the class leader, then the class leader distribute their work, and then each students has to correct or comment their friends writing. They are given about 10 minutes to correct or comment their friends writing. After that, they have to collect it again to the class leader, and then the class leader gave the writing back to their own.

The peer feedback writing was an effective method since the lecturer cannot revise all the students' writing. But it has the weaknesses, not all the students have the ability to correct the writing. In order to solve this problem, then the teacher made a consultation session in the end of class. If there are students who have problem in their writing, they can consult directly to the lecturer. In this consultation session, the lecturer gave the direct feedback to the students.

**Table 4. The Activities conducted in Revising/Editing Stage**

Activity	Data from Interview	Data from Observation
<b>Revising/ Editing</b>	“... the most difficult to do is the revising stage. In this stage, the most thing need by students is my revision. But because there are many students, I conducted the peer-	The lecturer asked student to check and read again their writing. After that they collected it to the class leader. Then the class leader distributed it to all students. Then

Activity	Data from Interview	Data from Observation
	feedback among students. Each student has to give revision or comment to their friends.”	the lecturer asked students to revise or give a comment. These are the process of the revising stage from observation result: After they finished their writing, students have to collect their writing to the class leader The class leader distribute the students’ writing Each students have to revise or give comment

### 3.2.8 Publishing / final version

The last stage of this process in teaching writing is the final version or publishing. As Harmer (2007) stated that publishing or final version is the last stage of the writing process. In this stage, the students share the text they have written with the readers they determined in the prewriting stage. Since the lecturer know that writing is not easy. The lecturer did not directly ask students to collect their writing, but he gave them time, to revise it in their home. They were given more time because they also have to revise their writing after peer-feedback and consultation they did. There is also deadline, which they have to collect their writing 3 days after class meeting to lecturer’s email.

Table 5. The Activities conducted in Publishing/ Final Version Stage

Activity	Data from Interview	Data from Observation
<b>Publishing / Final Version</b>	“... the students do not collect their writing directly in the class after the teaching process. I gave them more time to finish their writing. besides that, they also have to revise their essay after peer-feedback. Usually I gave them 3 or 4 days, then they have to send their writing to my email.”	The teacher did not ask students to collect their writing, he asked students to revise their essay then send it to his email. Then, before ending the teaching process, rather than asked them to collect their job, He asked students, if they want to consult their writing. in this consultation, he revised the students’ writing and gave them comment. But, this consultation was only for 5 or 6 students because the limitation of the time.

## 4 CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

### 4.1 Conclusion

In conclusion, in the process-genre approach there are two session; product and process session, happened in the teaching writing process. In the product session, there are three stages; familiarization, controlled writing and guided writing, while in the process session, there is only one stage that is free writing. In the free writing, there are four stages that involve the process approach; planning, composing, revising/editing and publishing.

The first stage is the planning, in this stage the lecturer conducted the brainstorming then asked students to make outline. The second stage is composing, in this stage the students make an essay based on the theme given. The third stage is revising or editing, in this stage the students revised their essay, and there is also a feedback whether from the teacher or students. The last stage is publishing or final version, in this stage the students have to collect their writing.

#### **4.2 Suggestions**

Since this research is a case study that occurred in one private college at Garut, so the result of this research will not be same as the other college. Besides that, the samples in this research are only one lecturer who has taught writing more than 10 years, so his opinions will not be same as the lecturers who have taught for 1 year or more than 5 years. So it is recommended to do a deep research with more samples and more procedures in collecting data.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Agustien, H. I. (2006). Genre-Based Approach and the 2004 Curriculum. A plenary paper presented in National Seminar at Indonesia University of Education.
- Agustien, H. I. (2014). The 2013 English Curriculum: The Paradigm, Interpretation, and Implementation. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) Conference (pp. 39-64). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Al-gomoul, M. D. (2011). Teaching and Assessing Writing Strategies for Secondary School Students and Investigating Teachers' and Students' Attitude towards Writing Practice. *Int J Edu Sci*, 3(1), 25-36.
- Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to Teaching Writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153-160.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative Research for Education; An Introduction to Theory and Methods* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cavkayta, S., & Yasar, S. (2010). Using Writing Process in Teaching Composition Skills: an Action Research. *ICT for Language Learning*. Florence: De Montreal University.
- Chakravety, A., & Gautum, K. (2000). Dynamics of Writing. *Forum*, 38 (3).
- Cresswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational Research Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. Boston: Pearson.
- Derewianka, B. (2003). Trends and Issue in Genre Based Approaches. *RELC Journal*, 34(2), 693-722.
- Emilia, E. (2010). *Teaching Writing: Developing Critical Learners*. Bandung: Rizqi Press.
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (1932). *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education* (8th ed.). New York: Mc-Graw Hill.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Ho, B. (2006). Effectiveness of Using The Process Approach to Teach Writing in Six Hong Kong Primary Classroom. *Working Papers in English and Communication*, 17(1), 1-52.
- Jayanti, F. G. (2014). Integrating Reading and Writing in Academic Writing Class. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 552-555). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.

- Kartikasari, E. (2014). Improving Students' Writing Skill by Using Think-Pair Think-Share. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 544-547). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Khalil, F. M. (2010). Teaching Writing to Post-Secondary Students: Procedures and Technicalities in an EFL Classroom. Nablus: Unpublished Journal An-Najah University.
- Knapp, P., & Watskin, M. (2005). Genre, Text, Grammar: Technologies for Teaching and Assessing Writing. Sidney: UNSW Press Ltd.
- Linse, C. (2005). Practical English Language Teaching Young Learner. New York : McGraw Hill.
- Malik, R. S., & Hamied, F. A. (2014). Research Methods: A Guide For First Time Researchers. Bandung: UPI PRESS.
- Matra, S. D. (2014). The English Teachers' Perceptions toward School-based Curriculum (SBC) and 2013 Curriculum: Complaints, Comparisons and Contrasts (an Investigation on English Teachers' Perceptions in Pekalongan). The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) Conference (pp. 63-66). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Mirzon, S. (2004). 2004. Some Aspect of English Competency Based Curriculum, 24(1), 67-86.
- Mujiono. (2014). The Effect of Process-Product Approach to Writing on EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 689-692). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Nation, I., & Macalister, J. (2010). Language Curriculum Design. New York: Routledge.
- Palpanadan, S., Salam, A. R., & Ismail, F. B. (2014). Comparative Analysis of Process Versus Product Approach of Teaching Writing in Malaysian Schools: Review of Literature. Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research, 22(6), 789-795.
- Pincas, A. (1982). Teaching English Writing. London: MacMillan.
- Posner, G. J. (1992). Analyzing the Curriculum. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Prisilya, A. (2014). Which one is Better; KTSP (School-based Curriculum or 2013 English Curriculum? The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) Conference (pp. 6-9). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Rachmawati, U., & Madya, S. (2014). Pengembangan WEBQUEST sebagai Media Instruksional Membaca Siswa SMA Negeri 1 Muntilan. Jurnal Kependidikan, 44(1), 83-91.
- Reppen, R. (2002). A Genre Based Approach to Content Writing Instruction. In J. C. Richards, & W. A. Renandya, Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice (pp. 321-327). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). Curriculum Development in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rini, J. E. (2014). Teaching Reading and Writing to English Department Students of Low Proficiency. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 621-624). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Rohmatika, A. (2014). The Effectiveness of Process Approach in Teaching Writing Viewed from Students' Level of Creativity and Its Implication toward Writing Assessment. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 470-473). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Sabouri, H., Zohrabi, M., & Vafa, A. (2014). Genre-Based Approach to Teaching Writing in EFL Context. International Journal of Applied Linguistic Studies, 1-7.

- Saputra, E. R. (2015). Implementing Genre-based Approach in Teaching Writing. Konferensi Linguistik Tahunan Atma Jaya (KOLITA) (pp. 311-315). Jakarta: Universitas Katolik Indonesia Press.
- Sari, N. E. (n.d.). Enhancing Report Writing for Eleventh Grade Students through Genre Based Approach (GBA): An Attempt to Connect Reading Comprehension and Writing Comprehension .
- Shofiya, A. (2014). Teachers' Response toward 2013 Curriculum after a tear of Implementation. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) Conference (pp. 10-11). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Suharyadi. (2013). Exploring "Scientific Approach" in English Language Teaching. Seminar Nasional Exchange of Experience (pp. 1348-1355). Malang: Malang University Press.
- Sun, C., & Feng, G. (2009). Process Approach to Teaching Writing Applied in Different Teaching Models. CCSE .
- Syahmadi, H. (2013). Bedah Kurikulum 2013 bagi Guru Bahasa Inggris. Bandung: CV Adoya Mitra Sejahtera.
- Thai, M. D. (2009). Text-based Language Teaching . Cecil Hills, NSW: Mazmania Press.
- The Writing Study Group of NCTE Executive Communittee. (2004, November). NCTE Beliefs about the Teaching of Writing. Retrieved March 21, 2015, from NCTE Web Site: <http://ncte.org>
- Tribble, C. (1996). Writing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Vyas, M. A., & Patel, Y. A. (2009). Teaching English as a Second Language: A New Pedagogy for a New Century. New Delhi: PHI Learning Private Limited.
- Widhiyanto. (2014). Writing to Negotiate Versus Writing to Report. The Association of Teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN) (pp. 391-395). Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Yanghee, K., & Jiyoung, K. (2005, June). Teaching Korean University Writing Class: Balancing the Process and the Genre Approach. *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(2), 1-5.
- Yanti, S. H., Ma'rufah, D. W., & yanti, S. Y. (2015). Implementing the Process Approach in Teaching Writing. Konferensi Linguistik Tahunan Atma Jaya (pp. 463-467). Jakarta: Universitas Katolik Atma Jaya Press.
- Zampardo, K. M. (2008). An Examination of the Impact of Teacher Modeling on Young Children's Writing. Oakland University: Unpublished Doctoral Thesis.

## TEACHING SPEAKING (ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE SPEAKING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE SETTING)

**Suhartono, S.Pd., M.Pd., (UNP Kediri)**  
nurmantono@yahoo.com

**Yatno, S.S., M.Pd., (STKIP Tulungagung)**  
edyyatno@yahoo.com

### **ABSTRACT**

*Today's world requires the Teaching English As Foreign Language (TEFL) should improve students' communicative skills in speaking. However, for many years the method of teaching has been undervalued and continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. To promote speaking English in a foreign language setting, an investigation on various activities are necessary to contribute a great deal in developing basic interactive skills. These activities make students active in the learning process, and their learning is more meaningful and fun for them. Through this process students can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance. The ability to communicate clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner in school, later in every phase of life. Speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through verbal and symbols, in variety of contexts. The method to promote activities speaking English not merely recommended to ESL, but also to EFL especially to the classroom settings in Indonesia, and suggestions for teachers who teach English language.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Teaching Speaking, Speaking Activities, EFL Setting.*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

EFL classroom is in a country where English is not the dominant language. Therefore, their local students share the same language and culture. The teacher may be the only native English speaker they have been exposure, and outside of the classroom students have very few opportunities to use English. For some, learning English may not have any obvious practical benefit. Students have limited exposure to English-speaking culture, most often through a distorted lens like TV or music. Based on these definitions, we can see that there are important differences in the student population. An effective lesson plan must take them into account as EFL students need lots of practice using English, especially orally. Get them speaking in the classroom, but also teach them where to find opportunities to practice speaking English outside of class, and reward them for doing so. Exposure to living English, never lead students to believe English is a set of rules and words to memorize. It is the living, breathing creation of cultures and communities around the world. Pen pals, non-traditional teaching materials, and field trips are great ways to make English come alive for students.

## 2 DISCUSSION

Teaching speaking is to teach ESL/EFL learners to produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns. It is to use word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language. Students select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter. Besides, they organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence, and use language as a means of expressing values and judgments. Use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency (Nunan, 2003).

### 2.1 How to teach speaking

Many linguists and teachers agree on students learning to speak a language by "interacting". Communicative language teaching and collaborative learning serve best for this aim. Its teaching is based on real-life situations that require communication. By this method, students will have the opportunity of communicating with each other in TL. Teachers should create a classroom environment where real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks promote oral language. It occurs when students collaborate in groups to achieve a goal or to complete a task.

### 2.2 Element of speaking

The ability to speak fluently presupposes not only a knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process information and language 'on the spot'. Among the elements necessary for spoken production are Connected Speech, Expressive Divise, Lexis and Grammar, and Negotiation Language. In Connected Speech, effective speaker of English needs to be able not only to produce individual phonemes as in saying, "i would have gone" but also to use fluent connected speech (*I'd've gone*). In connected speech, sounds are modified (*assimilation*), omitted (*elision*), added (*linking r*), or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning).

For the Expressive Divise, native speakers of English change the pitch and stress of particular part of utterances, vary volume and speed, and show by other physical and non-verbal (*paralinguistic*), means how they are feeling (especially face-to-face interaction). Meanwhile Lexis and Grammar, spontaneous speech is marked by the use of numbers of common lexical phrase, especially in the performance of certain language functions. Such as agreeing or disagreeing, expressing surprise, shock, or approval. Where students are involved in specific speaking context such as a job interview, we can prime them, in the same way with certain useful phrases which they can produce at various stage of an interaction.

As in Negotiation Language, effective speaking benefits from the negotiatory language we use to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying. We often need to 'ask for clarification' when we are listening to someone else talk. For students this specially crucial. A useful thing teacher can do, therefore, is to offer them phrases such as the following: (I'm sorry) I didn't quite catch that; (I'm sorry) I don't understand; What exactly does X mean?; Could you explain that again, please?

### 2.3 Mental/Social processing

Success is also dependent upon the rapid processing skills that talking necessities. Effective speakers need to be able to process language in their own heads and put it into coherent order that it comes out in forms that are not only comprehensible, but also convey the meanings that are intended. Most speaking involves interaction with one or more participants. This means that effective speaking also involves a good deal of listening, an understanding of how the other participants are feeling, and a knowledge of

how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so. While (On-the-spot) information processing, quite part from our response to others' feeling, we also need to be able to process the information they tell us the moment we get it.

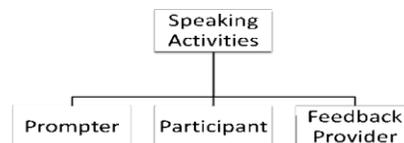
#### 2.4 Classroom speaking activities

Many of the classroom speaking activities which are currently in use fall at or near the communicative end of the communication continuum. Some of the most widely used is as follows.

1. Communication Games Games to provoke communication between students frequently depend on an information gap. (communicative approach) or Communicative Language Teaching.	Students talk to a partner in order to solve a puzzle, draw a picture (describe and draw), put things in the right order (describe and arrange), or find similarities and differences between pictures.
2. Discussion Teacher can form groups of students, preferably 4 or 5 in each group, and provide controversial sentences to be discussed.	Best ways students to reach decision or a consensus, often as a result of choosing between specific alternatives. It provides enjoyable and productive speaking.
3. Prepare Talks: A student (s) makes a presentation on a topic of their own choice.	Such talks are not informal spontaneous conversation; they are more 'writing-like'.
4. Speaking Lesson Sequences: The class chooses four or five students to be a panel of 'expert' to deliver chosen subjects.	The class chooses the subjects for example: from transport policy to film musik, from fish to football. In pairs or groups, the class also write down the questions to ask the expert about these particular subjects.
5. Role Play Teacher gives information to learners, "You are David, you go to the doctor and tell him what happened last night, and..." (Harmer, 1984)	Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles.
6. Simulations Students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. They increase the self-confidence of hesitant students (Harmer, 1984).	If a student is acting as a singer, s/he brings a microphone to sing and so on. Since they are entertaining, they motivate the students.
7. Information Gap Students are working in pairs. One student will have the information and the partner will share their information.	Information gap activities serve many purposes as solving a problem or collecting information.
8. Brainstorming: Students are not criticized ideas; they will be opened to sharing new ideas.	On a given topic students produce ideas in a limited time. Either individual or group brainstorming is effective and learners generate ideas quickly and freely.
9. Storytelling Students briefly summarize a tale or story, tell riddles or jokes they heard, or they may create their own to tell	It fosters creative thinking and helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending, including the characters and setting a story has to have.

their classmates.	
10. Interviews Teacher provides a rubric to students so they know what type of questions to ask or what path to follow, yet students should prepare their own interview questions.	It gives students a chance to practice their speaking ability not only in class but also outside and helps them becoming socialized. After interviews, each student can present his or her study to the class.
11. Story Completion This is a very enjoyable, whole-class, free-speaking activity for which students sit in a circle.	A teacher starts to tell a story, after a few sentences the teacher stops narrating. Then, each student starts to narrate from the point where the previous one stopped. Each student is supposed to add from four to ten sentences. Students can add new characters, events, descriptions and so on.
12. Reporting Before coming to class, students are asked to read a newspaper or magazine.	Students report to their friends what they find as the most interesting news, or talk about whether they have experienced anything worth in their daily lives.
13. Playing Cards Students should form groups of four. Each suit represents a topic i.e., Diamonds: Earning money; Hearts: Love and relationships; Spades: An unforgettable memory; Clubs: Best teacher	Each student in a group chooses a card and write 4-5 open-ended questions of the topic. For example: "Diamonds: Earning Money",...Is money important in your life? Why? What is the easiest way of earning money? What do you think about lottery? etc.
14. Picture Narrating It is based on several sequential pictures and rubrics can include the vocabulary or structures they need to use while narrating.	Students are asked to tell the story taking place in the sequential pictures by paying attention to the criteria provided by the teacher as a rubric.
15. Picture Describing Each group of students is given just one picture, and having them describe what it is	Students discuss then describes the picture to the whole class. It fosters creativity, imagination, and public speaking skills.
16. Find the Difference Students work in pairs and are given two different pictures of picture of boys playing football, and picture of girls playing tennis.	Students in pairs discuss the similarities and/or differences in the pictures.

### 2.5 The role of teacher



Teachers need to play a number of different roles – the role may change from one activity to another, or from one stage of an activity to another. However, the three speaking activities above have particular relevance if we are trying to get students to speak fluently. 1. Prompter: students sometimes get lost, cannot think of what to say next, or in some other way lose the fluency we expect of them. 2. Participant: teachers should be good animators when asking students to produce language. 3. Feedback Provider: The vexed question of when and how to give feedback in speaking activities is answered by considering carefully the effect of possible different approaches.

### 3 CONCLUSIONS

It is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking rather than leading students to pure memorization. Provide students with a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With the aim, various speaking activities as listed above can contribute a great deal in developing basic interactive skills necessary for life. These activities make students active in the learning process, and their learning is more meaningful and fun for them.

### 4 SUGGESTIONS

Here are some suggestions for English language teachers to provide maximum opportunity to students to speak the TL by providing a rich environment that contains collaborative work, authentic materials and tasks, and shared knowledge. Additionally, this journal would provide information to researchers in related discipline who are interested in conducting research in the field. As an illustration, other dimensions in writing could be explored with more subjects to obtain more valid and reliable data. This journal, hopefully gives some insight into the teaching speaking problems, especially in TEFL as a clue for teachers. That, Try to involve each student in every speaking activity; for this aim, practice different ways of student participation. Reduce teacher speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time. Involve speaking activities not only in class but also out of class; contact experts and other people who can help. Diagnose problems faced by students who have difficulty in expressing themselves in the TL and provide more opportunities to practice the spoken language.

### REFERENCE

- Bangkok Post. 17 Jan 2012. Thailand's 2012 English Speaking Year programme  
[www.bangkokpost.com/..25/04/2013](http://www.bangkokpost.com/..25/04/2013)
- Baruah, T.C. 1991. The English Teacher's Handbook. Delhi: Sterling Publishing House
- Brown, G. and G. Yule. 1983. Teaching the Spoken Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Celce-Murcia. M. 2001. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (3rd ed). USA: Heinle&Heinle.
- Chaney, A.L., and T.L. Burk. 1998. Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gebhard, G. Jerry. 1996. Teaching English As A Foreign or Second Language: A self-development and Methodology Guide. USA: The Univ. of Michigan Press.
- Harmer, J. 1984. The Practice of English Language Teaching. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. 2005. The Practice of English Language Teaching. Printed in Malaysia, PP.
- Hayriye Kayi [http://iteslj.org/Articles/Kayi-Teaching\\_Speaking.html](http://iteslj.org/Articles/Kayi-Teaching_Speaking.html) 5/4/2013

Hayriye Kayi <http://unr.edu/homepage/hayriyek> [kayih\[at\]unr.nevada.edu](mailto:kayih[at]unr.nevada.edu)  
University of Nevada (Nevada,USA) 5/4/2013

McDonough, J. and C. Shaw. 2003. *Materials and Methods in ELT: a teacher's guide*.  
Malden, MA; Oxford: Blackwell.

Nunan, D., 2003. *Practical English Language Teaching*. NY:McGraw-Hill.

Staab, C. 1992. *Oral language for today's classroom*. Markham, ON: Pippin Publishing.

The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. XII, No. 11, November 2006 <http://iteslj.org/> 6/4/2013

## PRIMARY STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE USE OF FOLKLORE IN THE EFL CLASS

**Rika Mutiara**  
r1\_ms@yahoo.com

*BPK Penabur*  
Jakarta

### **ABSTRACT**

*Teaching English to young learners is unique because young learners have different characters with other learners. These characters should be accommodated in learning activities to encourage the young learners enjoy the lessons. This enjoyment makes them involve in the lesson so they get opportunities to practice their language skills. One of the characters of young learners is rich of imagination. The lessons will be more interesting if they have opportunity to use their imagination. Imagination can be included in the lesson with the use of representational language (Mc Rae, 1991). Representational language can be found in some types of texts such as stories and poems. Stories are commonly heard and read by young learners. Some types of stories such as folklore are popular in children world over the course of time. This study aims at investigating students' attitudes towards the use of folklore in learning English. The participants of the study were 126 fifth graders in a private school in Jakarta. In four weeks, they attended the lessons in which folklore was used as the learning material in teaching English. They filled the open-ended and close-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to gather some information such as students' interest and involvement. The result of the study shows that more than a half of the students have positive attitudes. Around 30 percent to 40 percent students have neutral opinions. A number of students want to study English again using stories because it is fun and they like the activities. It can be seen that using stories is useful and in line with children's characteristics. It also shows folklore as the authentic material can be applied in the language class for young learners.*

**Keywords:** *literature, attitude, young learners*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

A number of primary schools especially in the big cities provide English classes for the students. It may be done because the schools realize a need to learn English to prepare the children for the globalization era. Besides, they believe the earlier the students learn English, the better their English proficiency will be. Teaching English to primary students is categorized as teaching English to young learners. Those who are interested in this area have learnt that young learners' characteristics should be considered in conducting the lessons to create language learning activities that help young learners learn language

effectively. Some scholars explain how English should be taught to young learners regarding their characteristics.

Pinter (2006) emphasizes the importance of opportunities to interact in English during the lesson. This interaction could be done among students or with teachers. Having this opportunity gives the students experience the real language use especially in the EFL context where the opportunity to use spoken English outside the English class is rarely found (Shin, 2014). By doing so, they use English for the purpose of communication.

Some characteristics of students in primary schools are discussed by Halliwell (1992). The students are able to interpret meaning even though they do not know all meanings of the words. They also have a good ability to imagine. Imagination and fantasy help them to be creative. The lesson that gives them opportunity to use imagination and fantasy makes them enjoy the lesson. In addition, they like to talk in the class. It makes some of them prefer activities that do not focus on doing written exercises. Besides, they enjoy the lessons by having fun. To make them fun, they need to be involved in projects that attract their attention.

Moon (2004) mentions that children use language creatively. In addition, they also use representational and referential language. According to Mc Rae (1991), referential language focuses on delivering information. Representational language appears when the texts represent meanings for the students. It is necessary to use the texts that have both representational and referential language. Some examples of such texts are stories, poems, brochure, etc. Using these texts also gives benefit for students because they contain things related to imagination and it suits to young learners' characteristics. It could appear as stimulus in language learning. The use of stories, songs, videos, and comics facilitates the students to imagine many things.

Some scholars also propose the use of stories in the class. Using literature in teaching English also has an important role in children learning. Vale (1999) focuses on the use of literature that can give contribution in social and emotional values of the students. Through these values, students' language and literacy are developed. One of the simple examples of literature is story. Through stories, they do some processes that help them learn language those are picturing and imaging, predicting and recalling, identification and personalizing, and making value judgment.

Mixon and Temu (2006) argue that the benefit of using stories in language class exists because stories are close to what children experience every day. Stories also contain some moral values that are needed to be possessed by the young generations. Therefore, values are important points in the story-based lessons. The lessons do not only focus on language aspects such as grammar, expressions, vocabulary, or language strategies but also good values that are necessary to have. Folklore is good to be used in such lessons because folklore has universal theme. Wherever the stories come from, they have universal themes that can be accepted by people from all countries (Campbel in Mixon and Temu, 2006).

Other scholars explain the good points of using stories in the language class. According to Ellis and Brewster (2014), the use of stories could motivate and give challenge and pleasure to the students. By doing so, students' positive attitudes towards language learning are increasing. Using stories also gives them opportunity to use imagination that is a part of children's characteristics. While listening to stories, the students share responses such as happiness, sadness, or excitement. They try to share their feelings. In language learning strategies, they practice some skills such as listening for general meaning, predicting, guessing meaning, and making hypothesis. They learn how to apply those skills when they are exposed to the stories. Moreover, stories have

authentic language that supports the process of language acquisition. Stories based lessons facilitate the students to be aware of language use, learning strategies, and sociocultural values.

Martinez (2007) applies story based lessons to a class of a bilingual school. The result shows the role of stories to attract students' attention in learning particular topics, vocabulary, and grammar. Such lessons also provide engaging activities. With more engagement, the students learn more effectively. It is successful to motivate the students learn better.

Based on the review of literature, the scholars mention the benefit that can be gained if the characteristics of children are included in the lesson. It is also found that children' characteristics can be accommodated well through the use of stories. However, children' attitudes themselves towards this issue have not been investigated well. This study focuses on the use of stories especially folklore in the EFL class for primary school students. Folklore was chosen because usually it exists for years and passes from one generation to another one. It shows that it is interesting because it can survive for years. In addition, it has good moral value which gives benefits to students characters' development. This study seeks to answer this research question:

What are students' attitudes towards the use of folktale in the English class?

## 2 METHOD

The study was conducted in the EFL setting with 126 fifth graders as the participants. They studied in a bilingual school in which English was used as the medium of instruction of some subjects besides Indonesian. They had studied English since they were in kindergarten. For four weeks, various folklore from different countries was given in the English lesson. The titles of the folklore are a baker's dozen, the empty pot, the story of Mr Dungu, and Alladin. They were taken from some websites in the internet and story books.

Based on the folklore, they did some activities such as listening, reading, watching, discussing, acting out, creating a comic, giving comment on others' works, and reading a poem. After that, they were asked to fill the questionnaire that has two parts i.e. open-ended questionnaire with three scales and close-ended questionnaire. In the second part, they were free to answer the questions. The result of the first part was analyzed using descriptive statistics. It was presented in the form of percentage and numbers. After that, it could be seen whether the result is in line with what scholars say. The second part of the questionnaire investigated about what the students remembered most and whether they wanted to study English again using folktale. In every question, the students were expected to give the reasons.

## 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this part, the finding of the study that was first reported is the result of closed-ended questionnaire. Then, the result of the open-ended questionnaire was presented. In discussing both results, the findings were compared directly to the findings in the literature.

In the first item that asked whether using folklore in the English class gives pleasure or not, 69 students (54.8%) agreed and 47 (37.3%) students felt neutral. There are 10 students (7.9%) that did not agree with this statement. It can be seen that more than half of the students still enjoy the lesson. The lesson still attracts their attention. This finding is in line with what Brewster (2014) and Martinez (2007) mention. Having

pleasure in the lessons makes the students feel comfortable during the process of learning. For young learners, they do not realize that what they do are learning activities. They do not have any burden that might cause them anxious or depressed.

The second item required the students to state whether students' emotional values are included in the lesson. The findings show that the number of students that chose agree and neutral options are same. The number of students who agreed is 51(40.5%), disagree is 24 (19%) and neutral is 51 (40.5%). Based on literature, stories can sharpen students' emotional value (Vale, 1999; Mixon & Temu 2006). They become sensitive with what others feel. In this case, only some students are involved emotionally. Even though it is not a half of the students agreed, the number of the students who agreed is still significant. Some student participated cognitively and emotionally.

In the third item, in which they were asked to give responses towards whether it is fun to act out the folklore, 66 students (52.4%) agreed, 46 students (36.5%) felt neutral, and 14 students (11.1%) disagreed. Acting out the folkltore was designed to make the students actively participated in the lessons. Besides, they are kinesthetically active. They enjoy the lesson that makes them use their body movement. This item was used to measure what they felt while doing hand out activities like acting out. In this activity, they used spoken English to interact when they performed. It was expected that they felt happy with the activities in which acting out was done based on folklore. This finding is relevant with what is mentioned by Pinter (2006) that the young learners enjoy interacting with others.

In the fourth item that investigated whether they learn better through folklore, 69 students (54.8%) agreed, 51 students (40.5%) were not sure, and 6 students (4.8%) disagreed. Vale (1999) explains that some processes that support the language learning happen when stories are used. It helps them learn better. Based on the finding, around half of the students stated that they can learn better through stories. It is in line with what Vale (1999) explains. The students view that it is more effective for them to learn language using folklore. The use of authentic language and interesting topics encourage them to learn better.

Responding to the fifth item whether they use creativity, there were 64 students (50.8%) who agreed, 50 students (39.7%) were in the middle position, and 12 students (9.5%) disagreed. Although it is only around a half of the students that agreed with the statement, this finding is still relevant with what Moon (2004) states. According to her, children have capacity to be creative. This finding shows a support to use folklore in English class in relation to students' creativity development. The students try to use their creativity to accomplish the tasks.

In the sixth item in which the students were asked whether they like to discuss the stories or not, 55 students (43.7%) agreed, 52 students (41.3 %) were neutral, and 18 students (14.3 %) disagreed. The purpose of discussion is to encourage the students to use English for communication goals and identify some elements of the stories. They discussed the characters, the settings, and the moral values. This finding also shows that 43.7 per cent of the students have positive attitudes towards discussing the stories. According to Halliwell (1992), children enjoy talking to others. They might enjoy this activity because it gives them opportunity to talk when they share ideas.

In the seventh item asking whether they use imagination, it shows that 60 students (47.6%) agreed, 51 students (40.5%) were neutral and 15 students (11.9%) disagreed. This finding is relevant with what McRae (1991) & Halliwell (1992) discuss that the use of stories can give positive effect because it encourages the students to imagine. Even though, it is not until half of the students agreed with this statement but

among three scales (agree, neutral, and disagree), more students agreed than felt neutral and disagreed.

In the last item, the students were required to give responses whether they enjoy the activities in which they create other stories based on the main ideas in the folklore given. There are 67 students (53.2%) who agreed, 48 students (38.1%) were neutral, and 11 students (8.7%) did not agree. In this activity, they learn English especially in productive skill. Based on the result of this finding, more than half of the students enjoy this activity.

There are two questions of open ended questionnaire. The first question asking about what the students remember most, their answers vary i.e. the folklore, characters, and activities (act out the folktale, sing, make stories with friends, make comics, and tell the story). They remember those things most because the lessons are funny and make laugh, exciting, interesting, and easy to remember. In addition, they were also impressed by particular activities related to the stories such as drawing, rapping, reading a poem, and watching other groups' performance in reading a poem or acting out. Two students answered nothing in the question what you remember most. One of them answered that s/he was not good in remembering folklore and the other wrote that the folklore is not interesting.

Responding to the second open ended question whether they want to study English using folktale, among 126 students, 21 students did not want, 5 students were not sure, and 4 students did not really want. For those who enjoyed the activities, they wanted to use folklore again because they felt happy and excited, learned better and easier, and knew more folklore. Those who did not want have negative attitudes. Three students stated the problems are with the folklore. One of the student mentioned that h/she knew the folklore (Alladin) before it was learned in the school. Another student gave reason because the folklore was horrible. It can be said that using new folklore that the students do not know anything about it has particular benefit. It attracts more attention. It makes the students feel curious. They may not think that they know and then they feel that they do not need to pay attention. Some students mentioned it is boring. Moreover, they did not like stories or English, had stories at home, preferred other activities such as watching movie, learning from textbook, or playing games. Some students gave answer that shows that they did not like stories before and the lessons could not change their attitudes.

From the findings, in each item of the open ended questionnaire, there are 40.5-54.8 % of the students gave positive attitudes to the use of the folklore. They enjoy the lessons and have fun in the class. Their emotional values are also developed through the folklore they read or listened. This process makes them feel that they learn English better. In the process, they use their imagination that makes them creative. In some learning activities such as discussing the folklore and writing stories, they use English for the real purpose.

The usefulness of using folklore also depends on the activities. Majority of the students like the activities such as drawing comics based on the stories, acting out, reading out the poem, and discussing the folklore with friends. It also shows that such activities encourage them to involve in the lesson. They practice their language skills and use vocabulary and grammar by doing some projects. However, a few numbers of the students prefer other activities. It can be implied that the activities provided are not appropriate for a few students.

Folklore used in this study can be categorized as story that was not created for language teaching activities. The folklore is authentic materials. The students were exposed to real language use. The result of open ended questionnaire shows there is no statement indicated students' difficulty dealing with authentic materials. As has been

stated by (Ellis and Brewster, 2014) such use of materials with appropriate learning activities help students to acquire English. They use English to accomplish some tasks that have a goal. The acquisition process is also supported by the learning activities. The learning activities were designed to make the students practice the language by considering young learners' characteristics. In this acquisition process there is no particular place in which the students learn grammar and vocabulary. Vocabulary was learnt incidentally. In some lessons, paper works such as word search was still given to the students. It aimed at giving more practice opportunity for the students. Having such learning activities makes the students practice their English without thinking so much on language aspects. These activities also help them to focus not only on written languages but also spoken languages. The English class is the most possible place for them to use spoken English. In the learning activities, they practice some points of spoken languages such as pronunciation, intonation, and communication skills that help to share their ideas and understand others. These processes might be what make the students feel that they learn better. Working with groups or in the pairs also has influence on students' learning process. They interact with friends and through this interaction they learn how to use language for communication. They help each other and discuss what to do in order to do the tasks. This activity also encourages the students to acquire language.

As a number of students mentioned so many times about feeling fun, interesting, and exciting and a few students wrote negative attitude shown by the use of words boring and shame, it can be stated that what develops their feeling or emotion in the lesson is important. It influences whether they want to learn with this particular materials or not. The students did not write clearly what parts of the lessons that make them have particular feeling. It could be the learning activities that did not suit to them. There are 34 to 36 students in the class and they have different learning styles and preferences. One of the students mentioned feeling shame. Most activities in the lesson required them to study in a group to do a project or perform. It could be the case in which the student does not have enough confident to do the projects. In this case, the teacher or friends may support the students to do the activities confidently.

From the open ended questionnaire, the aspect of imagination can be seen in one of the students' answer. The student gave answer towards the reason of why they remember most. This student remembers the story of Alladin most because Alladin flew with the magic carpet. This part of the story is in line with his imagination to fly. Another student answered that s/he remembered most the story of empty pot because when learning this story, s/he imagined that s/he was in China in which the setting of the story happened. The importance of imagination has a pivotal role in children's learning. In this case, the power of imagination encourages the students to learn. From the students' answers, it is proved that children tend to use imagination and the use of imagination is effective enough to arise students' interest. When they imagine, it is also related to something that gives particular feeling that is exciting and interesting to them. In this case, it is something that the students dreamt about.

In the aspect of emotional value, the student remembered most the story of Mr Dunggu because of the value that was learned from the story. From this story, three students learnt to be honest. They realized the importance of having honesty. They learnt this character based on what the main character in the story did. Based on the folklore, the students concluded that the honest character is the role model. To achieve this understanding, the students follow some processes including synthesizing. Synthesizing information makes them able to understand the values in the story. Besides honesty, another value written by one of the student is wise. This student remembered most one of

the character of the folktale because s/he learnt to be wise to solve problems. From the examples, it is not only students' cognitive but also students' emotion is involved.

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In each questionnaire item, around a half of the students (40.5-54.8%) had positive attitudes towards the use of folktale in the class. Around 36.5-41.3% of the students were not sure. A few of the students (7.9-19%) gave negative responses. Based on close-ended questionnaire, more than a half of the students enjoyed learning English by using folktale. They were still enthusiastic to learn English using folktale. Besides, a number of the students were involved in learning activities. They felt excited to learn. However, there was a few of students did not suit to the learning activities. Therefore, it is suggested to provide more various learning activities that cover all students learning styles. The folklore has moral values and the students understand the values through the lessons delivered. The lessons encouraged them to understand message, setting, plot, and the content. It is an effective method to help the students learn important values to develop their characters. Having the students listen to the folklore that they never listen or read before is also necessary. It might keep them paying attention and become more curious. The use of folklore also proves the benefits of using authentic materials. Authentic language use does not discourage the students to learn. Even though they do not understand all meaning of the words, no one of them mentioned that it was hard. It is in line that meaning interpretation does not need require the students to understand words by words.

#### REFERENCES

- Ellis, G. & Brewster, J. (2004). *Tell it again!: The storytelling handbook for primary English language teachers*. The British Council: UK.
- Halliwell, S. (1992). *Teaching English in the primary classroom*. Longman: London.
- McRae, J. (1991). *Literature with a small "l"*. Macmillan: London.
- Martinez, B. A story based approach to teaching English: A classroom experience. *Encuentro*, 17, 52-56.
- Mixon, M. & Temu, P. First road to learn language through stories. *English Teaching Forum*, 44 (2), 14-19.
- Moon, J. (2004). *Children learning English*. Macmillan Press: London.
- Pinter, A. (2006). *Teaching young language learners*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Shin, J. K. (2014). Teaching young learners in ESL and EFL settings. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & M. A. Snow. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 550-567). Cengage Learning: Boston.
- Vale, D. & Feunteun, A. (1999). *Teaching children English : A training course for teachers of English to children*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

**THE EFFECT OF USING SUSTAINED SILENT READING ON  
STUDENTS' READING SKILL OF INFORMATIONAL TEXT  
AT THE SIXTH SEMESTER OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT OF  
ALMUSLIM UNIVERSITY**

**Silvi Listia Dewi**  
silvi.listiadewi@yahoo.com

*Almuslim University*  
Jl. Almuslim, Matangglumpangdua, Bireuen, Aceh Province, Indonesia

**ABSTRACT**

*The previous research have shown that when students are given choices in selecting texts, they are more encouraged to read. Silent reading was formerly developed to promote a love of reading while synchronously supporting students' reading skill. The purpose of this research is to find the effect of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) to the sixth semester English Department students of Almuslim University. To conduct this research, one group pre-test post-test design experiment research was done by randomly selected 28 students in sixth semester English Department students of Almuslim University. Students in the classroom should be tested at the beginning of the SSR experiment on reading comprehension. There was variety and opportunities of students' choice of informational texts for student during SSR. Informational texts have the potential to greatly benefit readers at all levels. Researcher should also devote the same amount of time toward SSR each day and each week in 6 days. After the SSR treatment, all subjects took the post reading comprehension test. Data was analyzed quantitatively. The one-tailed paired samples t-test was used to examine the effect of SSR on students reading comprehension skill. Data analysis showed higher gains on the reading comprehension test in all areas for experimental participants. Researcher claimed to have found evidence that SSR could indeed have positive effects on students' reading skill.*

**Keywords:** *sustained silent reading, reading skill, informational text*

**1 INTRODUCTION**

Many university involve struggling readers in some form of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). In such programs, all students, including struggling readers, read silently for some 15 to 45 minutes daily. As they read silently, so does the teacher. The teacher models silent reading, showing that she values it and enjoys it. If done right, sustained reading is important practice for students, an important way for teachers to communicate they value reading, a way of helping students become competent, motivated readers. Sustained silent reading goes under different names, such as Drop Everything And Read (DEAR), Super, Quiet, Uninterrupted, Independent Reading Time (SQUIRT), Sustained Silent Reading (SSR), and Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR).

As reading teachers, we recognize the joy that comes from getting lost in the pages of a good book. We fondly recall the books that inspired and changed us as students and that still influence us as adults. As teachers, we want to awaken that love of literacy in our students and invite them to experience that magic in our classrooms. We want them to grow into “skilled, passionate, habitual, and critical readers” (Atwell, 2007).

The effect of SSR has been shown by many teachers and practitioners as motivating students to read and developing their reading proficiency in their native language (L1) (e.g., Henry, 1995; Pilgreen, 2000; Trelease, 2001). SSR is also effective for second and foreign language learners in motivating them to read an abundance of books with concentration (Furukawa et al., 2009; Takase, 2008), helping reluctant readers to continue reading (Mason & Krashen, 1997; Takase & Otsuki, 2012), and bridging the gap between the beginning and advanced level by consolidating the learners’ foundation in the language, and thereby allowing them to acquire higher levels of proficiency (Krashen). It produces “the most beautiful silences on earth” (Henry, 1995) in the classroom.

Fostering a love for reading was the original purpose of sustained silent reading (Yoon, 2002). Researchers have shown that when students are given choices in selecting texts, they are more motivated to read. More motivation leads to more time spent on-task reading. Additionally, the theory of self-determination and intrinsic motivation explains that students’ desire to learn is fueled by a natural curiosity while the self-determination theory suggests that students are motivated when given choice and ownership in what they read. Both theories correlate with cultivating a love of reading. Therefore, silent reading was originally developed to promote a love of reading while simultaneously supporting student achievement in reading (Yoon, 2002), especially informational texts reading.

Many students prefer informational text and are more motivated to read this type of text (Caswell & Duke, 1998). Self-selection of nonfiction texts can improve students’ motivation to read (Moss & Hendershot, 2002). The search for answers to questions about our world through informational text is motivating to students (Palmer & Stewart, 2005). Informational texts “capitalize on students’ interests and whet their appetite for more information” (Yopp & Yopp, 2000, p. 412). Gambrell (2007) suggested that many newer innovations to SSR may actually enhance the benefits of silent reading. In addition, such innovations can afford teachers some degree of student monitoring so they are not pushed too far outside their comfort zone and compliance with standards and mandates. For example, many teachers and researchers have documented the importance of conversations as a way of extending students’ thinking, even as book clubs for adults can deepen their appreciation for and understanding of literature (Atwell, 2007; Cole, 2003; McLaughlin & DeVoogd, 2004).

Considering the benefit of SSR, the researcher is interested in implementing this technique to overcome some problems faced by the English students in teaching and learning reading at English Department of Almuslim University. Based on the above assumption, the researcher is eager to investigate a classroom experiment using SSR in reading class for the sixth semester of English Department at Almuslim University. Therefore the research problems are formulated as follows:

- Is the post-test average reading score of the students after being treated using Sustained Silent Reading(SSR) higher than their pre-test score for the sixth semester students of English Department at Almuslim University?
- To what extent does the use of SSR influence students’ reading skill for the sixth semester students of English Department at Almuslim University?

## 2 METHODS

This study is one group pre-test post-test design experiment research. All participating students were pretested using a reading comprehension test. The pre reading comprehension test conducted to get the scores of reading skill before SSR treatment. After SSR treatment, the students will get the post reading comprehension test to get the scores of reading skill. Finally, this study has only one independent variable specifically reading strategy using SSR and one dependent variable namely reading skill.

Participants met 8 times during the year, out of which two sessions were utilized for the pre- and the post-tests, leaving 6 sessions for class work. They had SSR for approximately 45 minutes. Students were also required to read as much as possible outside of class. Students were required to check out books from the library and bring them into class to read. Students were suggested to read approximately 15 easy books which are lower than Flesch Reading Ease 30 score begin with in order to unlearn the word-by-word rigid translation habit that they had acquired during the prior seven or more years of formal English classes.

Objective difficulty in reading is assessed by readability, which is determined by the complexity of text features, such as sentence structure, cohesion, and word length (Benjamin, 2012). In this study, readability was measured using Flesch Reading Ease which establishes text difficulty based on sentence length and word frequency. In the Flesch Reading Ease test, higher scores indicate material that is easier to read; lower numbers mark passages that are more difficult to read. Scores can be interpreted as shown in the Table 1.

*Table 1. Flesch Reading Ease Scores Interpretation*

90.0 – 100.0	easily understood by an average 11-year-old students
60.0 – 70.0	easily understood by 13 to 15-year-old students
0.0 – 30.0	best understood by university graduates

Source: Edit Central, 2012.

After becoming used to reading easy books fluently, they were instructed to gradually read books in higher levels. The requirement of the course was to keep a reading log after finishing each book, including dates, word counts of each book, the time spent for reading the book, reading speed (WPM = word per minute), interest level, and short comments on the book. At the beginning of the course reading comprehension test was administered as the pre-test, and the same test was conducted at the end of the course as the post-test, which was approximately nine 2weeks later. The pre and post reading comprehension test consisted of six informational texts adapted from <http://englishnewspaper>

For research question number one the one-tailed t-test was used to examine the effect of SSR on English students' reading comprehension. For research question number two a descriptive statistics will be used to show the students' achievement in scores and the number of books that have been read in 6 days. In this case, for all the right answers, would be given score of 100. All analysis was performed by using SPSS statistic package for Window Version 16.0.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Findings

Table 2 showed that mean difference in two pre- and post-reading comprehension tests were significant. This was the one-tailed t-test. In order to probe the null hypothesis for the research question one and examine the effect of SSR on students' reading skill, two paired samples t-tests were conducted. As the level of significance showed that it was  $.000 \times 2 = .000$  for one-tailed (.000 for 2-tailed), it is still smaller than .05. Therefore, SSR have positive effect on reading comprehension skill. It could be concluded that the null hypothesis cannot be accepted.

*Table 2. Pairwise Comparisons of the Before and After Tests*

		Paired Samples Test							
		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	SSR_Before - SSR_After	-1.60714E1	7.74084	1.46288	19.07301	13.06984	-10.986	27	.000

In Table 3 showed descriptive statistics for the reading skill achievement using SSR. The achievement include pre- and post-test reading comprehension, sum of books and words that students have read in 2 weeks.

*Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for the Reading Skill Achievement using SSR*

Num.	Student's Name	Pre-test of Reading Comprehension Score	Post-test of Reading Comprehension Score	Sum of Books	Sum of Words
1.	M	55	70	14	65828
2.	L	60	70	12	45612
3.	IF	65	80	13	47463
4.	RH	55	60	10	48750
5.	A	65	80	14	71876
6.	SD	45	70	15	78180
7.	U	40	60	10	54330
8.	J	45	55	11	60973
9.	Z	50	65	12	55332
10.	AKS	70	75	13	69472
11.	AN	65	80	13	60216
12.	S	65	75	13	69342
13.	RH	65	70	14	63924
14.	NS	45	60	12	61464
15.	F	40	60	10	51110
16.	M	45	70	11	56254
17.	YS	50	60	14	73262

18.	OD	70	80	14	63308
19.	HH	65	80	13	54743
20.	MA	65	70	12	50784
21.	RJ	60	80	15	81315
22.	J	55	75	14	78834
23.	NF	40	70	12	57732
24.	SW	45	70	12	49260
25.	A	40	75	12	60804
26.	MD	45	60	11	46211
27.	FR	50	75	13	55913
28.	MAA	70	85	11	44132

### 3.2 Discussion

The present study examined the effect of SSR on reading comprehension skill. The null hypothesis predicting that the post-test average reading score of the students after being treated using Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) is the same or lower than their pre-test score cannot be accepted. As the result showed the after SSR treatment outperformed the before SSR treatment. This is in accordance with the results found by previous researchers.

Researchers have demonstrated that SSR is an activity that students find pleasant and worthwhile (Ivey & Broaddus, 2001; Kyung & Dong, 2008; Yoon, 2002). Researchers have suggested that student motivation is a factor in reading achievement (Yoon, 2002). There is little question that SSR promotes positive reading attitudes when student choice and variety of texts are available in the classroom. Positive reading attitudes and a drive to read have been linked to reading achievement, so SSR could be suggested consequently alone. Meanwhile, a number of researchers have attempted to show evidence that SSR is effective in increasing students' reading fluency, comprehension, and test scores.

Based on the results of the test administered to the students, all the students were got higher score than before. Accordingly, it can be expressed that SSR reading strategies have a great influence in the reading skill since that was proved through the good results got in specific parts of the test.

Finally, in a data analysis of another study which showed similar results to this study, researchers demonstrated confirmation that traditional SSR yields expanded reading test scores. As a case, in classrooms in which SSR was set, students outscored their classmates not participating in SSR by 0.6 of a year (Fisher, 2004). Researchers showed evidence that SSR and modified silent reading can increase students' test scores in reading (Fisher, 2004).

## 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

### 4.1 Conclusion

The post-test average reading score of the students after being treated using Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) is higher than their pre-test score for the sixth semester students of English Department at Almuslim University.

The principle of SSR has shown evidence that SSR is effective in influencing students' reading skill including comprehension and test scores for the sixth semester students of English Department at Almuslim University.

#### 4.2 Suggestion

SSR is part of these last two components: lots of opportunities for readers to independently apply their abilities and to read, read, read. As indirect instruction, it can supplement, but not replace direct instruction, such as a reading strategy instruction. It is advisable to analyze the independent variable 'time' in SSR treatment to improve reading skills

#### REFERENCES

- Atwell, N. (2007). *The reading zone: How to help kids become skilled, passionate, habitual, critical readers*. New York: Scholastic
- Edit Central. (2012). *Style and Diction*. Retrieved from: <http://www.editcentral.com/gwt1/EditCentral.html>
- Kyung, S. C., & Dong, S. C. (2008). Are read-alouds and free reading "natural partners"? *Knowledge Quest*, 36,
- Caswell, L., & Duke, N. (1998). Non-narrative as a catalyst literacy development. *Language Arts*, 75(2)
- Fisher, D. (2004). Setting the "opportunity to read" standard: Resuscitating the SSR program in an urban high school: One urban high school made significant efforts to provide students with the opportunity to read. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 48.
- Furukawa, A., Takase, A., & Nishizawa, H. (2009). A Successful ER Program for Japanese Students of All Ages. Paper presented at the 43rd Annual TESOL Convention and Exhibit in Denver, USA.
- Gambrell, L. (2007). Reading: Does practice make perfect? *Reading Today*, 24(6).
- Ivey, G., & Broaddus, K. (2001). Just plain reading: A survey of what makes students want to read in middle school classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 36,
- Mason, B., & Krashen, S. (1997). Can extensive reading help unmotivated students of EFL improve? *ITL Review of Applied Linguistics*.
- Moss, B., & Hendershot, J. (2002). Exploring sixth graders' selection of nonfiction trade books. *The Reading Teacher*,
- Henry, J. (1995). *If not now*. NH: Boynton/Cook Publishers, Heinemann.
- Palmer, R. G., & Stewart, R. A. (2005). Models for using nonfiction in the primary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 58(5)
- Pilgreen, J. L. (2000). *The SSR Handbook*. Boynton/Cook Heinemann
- Takase (2008). The two most critical tips for a successful extensive reading program. *Kinki University English Journal* (1).
- Takase, A., & Otsuki, K. (2012). The impact of extensive reading on remedial students. *Kinki University Center for Liberal Arts and Foreign Language Education Journal (Foreign Language Edition)* 2(1).
- Trelease, J. (2001). *The Read-Aloud Handbook*. Penguin
- Yoon, J. C. (2002). Three decades of sustained silent reading: A meta-analytic review of the effects of SSR on attitude toward reading. *Reading Improvement*, Retrieved from <http://find.galegroup.com>

## CORPUS ANALYSIS OF THE WORD 'FRIENDSHIP' A STUDY IN CLASS OF ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP)

C. I Wayan Eka Budiarta, S, Pd., M.A.  
eka.budiarta@sampoernauniversity.ac.id

*SampoernaUnviersity*  
*Mulia Business Park, Build. D*  
Jl. MT HaryonoKav. 58-60 Pancoran, Jakarta

### ABSTRACT

*Academic vocabulary has been identified as one of the main challenges for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Nowadays, many institutions offer formal education programs by employing English immersion, however, big gaps appear when the students are required to read academic texts as well as to write academic writings. This study is a corpus-based lexical study which aims to explore the use of words in Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL) in student's academic writing at Sampoerna University, Jakarta. It examines adjectives that appear before the word 'friendship', which is also one of the topics of essay writing being suggested in class. The analysis was conducted by comparing students' writing between male and female, and between students from Java and outside of Java to see what adjectives were being used to describe the word 'friendship'. The result shows that female group utilized the words 'good' and 'important' to describe friendship, while male group used the words 'real' and 'great'. Surprisingly, according to category Java and non-Java, those adjectives which describe the word 'friendship' mostly appeared for non-Java students. There are also some similar features appeared in COCA and BNC that are related to students' language background and cultural belief.*

**Keywords:***English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Academic Word List (AWL), COCA and BNC.*

### 1 INTRODUCTION

In reading and writing academic discourse, the mastery of academic vocabulary has been identified as one of the main problems for learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). In particular, the increase number of Indonesian students who willing to pursue their study abroad requires the students to be able attending classes delivered in English, reading textbooks which are mostly written in English and writing report and essay with a good standard of academic English. On the other hand, most teachers of academic English would agree that it is crucial to include vocabulary as part of their courses.

Cobb & Horst (2004) underlined that knowledge of AWL words as well as the knowledge of words of General Service list (GSL) initiated by West in 1953, are important to understand academic texts and write academic papers in English. Furthermore, Alderson, 1984; Shaw, Perfetti & Laufer, 1991; Coany, Magoto Hubbard, Graney & Mocharty, 1993; and Nation, 2001, have conducted several research on reading

and writing for ESL/EFL students (as cited in Shabani&Tazik, 2014), and they conclude that many students, both native and non-native, find difficulties with their vocabulary proficiency.

In 2000, Coxhead identified another concept of academic vocabulary, which refers to words appeared in texts across several disciplines or academic domains. He developed the Academic Word List by analyzing the corpus of 3.5 million words consisting of texts in Law, Arts, Commerce, and Science. The AWL comprises 570 word families or headwords in total and ideal academic texts or academic writing should contain academic words for about 10% of the total tokens. This study aims to examine students' academic essays, and in particular to examine how academic words (adjectives) were used before the word 'friendship'.

## 2 METHOD

The subjects of the study are students of the Sampoerna University (USBI) from cohort 2014. They were attending 3 credits of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) during the first semester. They were selected based on purposive sampling method, that all of them were learning essay writing. Furthermore, the subjects are students from two different classes under supervision of the researcher. From 35 total students, there were 15 students wrote explanatory essay with the same topic, i.e. 'friendship'. All the 15 students are representing barely the same number of male and female students, as well as their place of origin, i.e. Java and non-Java. The following table is detail information about the subject.

*Table 1 Summary of the subjects*

Class	Gender		Place of Origins	
	Male	Female	Java	Non-Java
ENG 101 C	4	5	5	4
ENG 101 D	2	4	3	3
Total	6	9	8	7

There are 6 male and 9 female students involved as the subject of the study. In terms of their place of origin, there are 8 students from Java and 7 of them from outside of Java. Those, who are from Java, do not merely come from Jakarta or other big cities, but are from several remote areas along the island, such as Blora, Indramayu, Tuban and Malang. On the other hand, those who are from outside of Java are from West to East of the country such as Padang, Palembang, Bali, Kupang, and Ambon. Most students are originally from underprivileged families that because of their excellent performance during high school, they are allowed to receive a financial support from the PuteraSampoerna Foundation. This opportunity made them come to Jakarta and enroll in the Sampoerna University.

### 2.1 Data Analysis

The analysis of data begins with an identification of the adjectives which followed the word 'friendship' in students' writing and compare them with the Academic Word List (AWL) introduced by Coxhead (2000). Second, the data were analyzed according to main groups, i.e. male-female and Java-Non Java according to Nation's theory on the

classification of academic vocabulary (2001) i.e. Key Word in Context (KWIC). Third, the discussion was continued by comparing the highly frequently word(adjectives) which follow the word 'friendship' with Corpus of Contemporary of American English(COCA) and BNC.

In brief, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) is one of a freely-available corpus of English, and the only large and balanced corpus of American English. COCA was released in 2008 and it is now used by tens of thousands of users every month (linguists, teachers, translators, and other researchers)(Davies, 2008). On the other hand, the British National Corpus (BNC) is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English, both spoken and written, from the late twentieth century(Hoffmann, 2014)

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The word 'friendship' in students' writing appears differently for both male and female group, as well as Java and non-Java group. Furthermore, adjectives which followed the word 'friendship' were also varied among the groups. Here is the distribution of the findings.

Features	Gender		Place of Origins	
	Male	Female	Java	Non-Java
Freq. of 'Friendship'	35	44	28	50
Adjectives	real (2)	good (2)	good (1)	real (2)
	great (1)	best (1)		great (1)
		important (1)		important (1)
				best (1)
				good (1)

It is interesting to know that female students used different types of adjectives before the word 'friendship' than male students, such as good friendship, best friendship, and important friendship. On the other hand, male students utilized the word 'real' and 'great' to describe 'friendship'. According to Oxford Advanced Learner Dictionary, the words 'good', 'best' and 'important' refer to high quality or an acceptable standard. While the word 'real' in 'realfriendship' refers to something actual and not imagined or pretended. Such a choice of words shows that male students have different value in expressing their feeling about friendship.

In terms of Java and non-Java features, the adjective appeared in students from Java surprisingly only once, i.e. good friendship, while those who are from outside of Java wrote in 5 different words, i.e. real, great, important, best and good. Although 'best' and 'good' were derived from the same word family, however, the students from outside of Java seems to have more variations in expressing their thought about friendship. Being away from home seems to force them to have a good relationship among their peers, who they may consider as impromptu family members in Jakarta.

#### 3.1 COCA and BNC Analysis

After considering the frequency of its appearance, only one phrase 'good friendship' was selected and compared between COCA and BNC. According to Corpus of Contemporary American English, the phrase 'good friendship' appears 29 times in several contexts such

as in spoken, news, magazine and also academic field. Meanwhile in British of National Corpus (BNC) noted that 'good friendship' only appears one time. This is interesting that British people seems to express the quality of friendship more firmly such as 'strong friendship', 'exclusive friendship'.

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In a nutshell, male and female students have different way of expressing their feeling about friendship. Male students seem to use more actual word while female students tend to focus on the quality of the friendship itself. On the other hand, students from outside of Java seem to consider friendship as a crucial element that they can rely on. Therefore, with a lot number of hits, they were able to express varied quality of friendship. Finally, American people seem to value the quality of 'good friendship' more compared to British people. The study would be more remarkable if there are bigger data and more features being administered.

#### REFERENCES

- Antonio, A. L. (2004). The influence of friendship groups on intellectual self-confidence and educational aspirations in college. *The Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 75 (4), 446-471.
- Carson, D. (1997). The learning and the use of academic English words. *Language Learning* 47, 671-718.
- Charles, M. (2012). 'Proper vocabulary and juicy collocations': EAP students evaluate do-it-yourself corpus-building. *English for Specific Purposes* 31, 93-102.
- Cobb, T., & Horst, M. (2004). Is there room for an academic word list in French? In P. B. (Eds.), *Vocabulary in A Second Language* (pp. 15-38). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL quarterly*, 213-238.
- Farrell, P. (1990). A lexical analysis of the English electronics and and study of semi-technical vocabulary. CLCS Occasional Paper no.25. Trinity College.
- Jong, Y. (2007). Learning and use of academic vocabulary: case study of three Korean undergraduate students in a U.S. Academic Setting (Doctoral Dissertation). Philadelphia, PA: Graduate Schoold, Temple University.
- Krappmann, L. (1996). Amicitia, drujba, shin-yu, philia, Freundschaft, friendship: On the cultural diversity of human relationship. In A. N. W. M. Bukowski, *The Company They Keep: Friendship in Childhood and Adolescence* (pp. 10-11, 14). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Kwary, D. A. (2011). A hybrid method for determining technical vocabulary. *System*, Vol. 39 (2), 175-185.
- Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. (2010). Oxford: Oxford Univeristy Press.
- Shabani, M. B., & Tazik, K. (2014). Coxhead's AWL across ESP and Asian EFL journal research articles (RAs): A Corpus-Based Lexical Study. *Social and Behavioral Science* 98, 1722-1728.
- Shaw, P. (1991). Science research students' composing process. *English for Specific Purposes*, 10, 189-206.
- Telfer, E. (1970-1971). *Friendship*. The Aristotelian Society (pp. 223-241). London: Wiley.

Valipouri, L., & Nassaji, H. (2013). A corpus-based study of academic vocabulary in chemistry research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 12, 248-263.

## ASSESSING ELF PROFICIENCY IN PROJECT-BASED LEARNING

**Tricia Okada**

tokada@lit.tamagawa.ac.jp

**Ethel Ogane**

ethel@bus.tamagawa.ac.jp

**Brett Milliner**

milliner@lit.tamagawa.ac.jp

**Yuri Jody Yujobo**

yujobo@lit.tamagawa.ac.jp

**Takanori Sato**

taka-sato@lab.tamagawa.ac.jp

*Tamagawa University*

6-1-1 Tamagawa Gakuen, Machida, Tokyo, Japan 194-8610

### ABSTRACT

*English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is the use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option (Seidlhofer, 2011). Our Japanese students have the opportunity to use ELF with teachers and tutors who have different first languages. As many students may go on to work in multicultural and multilingual situations, our goal is to raise student language awareness of ELF contexts. This study, which is part of a larger research project on ELF-oriented curriculum development, focuses on student assessments of listening and speaking using insights from the literature on ELF and project-based learning (PBL). A range of pedagogical implications has been identified by ELF researchers. Björkman (2013) advocates incorporating listening and speaking materials with a variety of non-native accents, examples of negotiation of meaning and the use of communicative strategies. Kaur (2014) suggests that teachers should encourage students to be explicit at the outset and to pursue understanding through the use of communication strategies such as paraphrasing and repetition. PBL is a pedagogical approach which provides a platform for self-awareness and critical thinking within the framework of 21st century skills (Buck Institute of Education, n.d.; Partnership for 21st century skills, n.d.). Formative and summative assessment protocols and rubrics have been developed to assess student progress in listening and speaking. Critical analysis of video or audio recordings of student interaction with their tutors and student focus group discussions track developments in language awareness in the students.*

**Keywords:** *English as a Lingua Franca, Project-Based Learning, assessment, listening and speaking*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

The Center for English as a Lingua Franca (CELFL) at Tamagawa University is the first of its kind in Japan. In line with Tamagawa University's educational philosophy to harmoniously integrate societal and cultural values into the character and disposition of Tamagawa students, the CELFL promotes teaching and learning from global perspectives. The goal of the CELFL program is to help students communicate effectively and intelligibly with people from all over the world by means of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

At the CELFL, we strongly encourage the exchange of teaching ideas and collaboration on research among our teachers. The CELFL research agenda is to develop a curriculum that takes into account the teaching and learning of language from an ELF perspective. The present study focuses on listening and speaking assessment. The authors, all full-time CELFL instructors, gained insights from ELF research and Project-Based Learning (PBL) to develop a task which would both allow teachers to effectively assess listening and speaking skills, and student development in language awareness.

### **1.1 The CELFL students and teachers**

In 2015, nearly 2,500 students from the Colleges of Business Administration, Humanities, Tourism and Hospitality, Arts and Sciences, Arts, Education, Engineering, and Agriculture were enrolled in the ELF program. The CELFL offers classes in four levels from elementary to intermediate. Classes are held 200 minutes weekly for 15 weeks of study in each semester. English is the main medium of communication but the use of other linguistic resources, such as Japanese, is supported in ELF-aware teaching. In addition to regular classroom activities, CELFL students have the opportunity to experience intercultural communication through the CELFL Tutor Service which provides students with on-campus tutoring in order to assist them with their English studies. The students sign up with or without their teachers' referral for a 15-minute tutor session. The tutors, all CELFL teachers who are of various language and cultural backgrounds, offer students additional opportunities to engage in ELF communication.

Teachers at the CELFL are not required to be native speakers of English but are hired based on their teaching experience and academic achievements. CELFL teachers are encouraged to promote language awareness in their lessons and expose their students to various kinds of English. Through the multicultural atmosphere at the CELFL, it is hoped that students become more receptive to the use of English beyond the norms of native-English speakers (NES), and be more prepared to adapt to global trends. In the following sections we will introduce our understanding of ELF and briefly discuss Project-Based Learning. The paper continues with our methodology and concludes with the findings, analysis of data, and discussion of the first stage of our study, which included a pre-project survey.

### **1.2 ELF proficiency and assessment**

ELF is the "use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p.7). Although ELF includes interactions between NESs and non native-English speakers (NNEs), the majority of ELF communication occurs among NNEs. The use of English for intercultural communication is observable not only in simple interpersonal settings

but also in highly specialized domains or influential frameworks, including global business, politics, higher education, and so forth (House, 1999).

Given the characteristics of ELF, the traditional view of English proficiency is called into question. English proficiency is widely equated with conformity to the language norms of people who speak English as a first language (Leung, 2005), and thus adherence to NES norms has been regarded as crucial in English learning. Any deviance from NES norms is considered an error or deficiency to be corrected no matter how successful the outcome is. However, this traditional view of language proficiency overlooks the fact that ELF interactions often take place with no NESs present. Even when NESs are present, their variety of English is less likely to constitute the linguistic reference norm (Seidlhofer, 2014). In fact, a number of empirical studies have found that intelligibility in ELF settings does not require conformity to NES norms and that NES proficiency per se does not guarantee successful ELF interactions (e.g., Björkman, 2008; Jenkins, 2006). Proficiency is viewed by Canagarajah (2006) as meaning “the ability to shuttle between different varieties of English and different speech communities” (p. 233). Therefore, ELF researchers emphasize the use of communicative strategies, which are useful in negotiating meaning and preventing communication breakdown, rather than adherence to native linguistic forms. Examples of such communicative strategies include accommodation (manipulation of linguistic forms according to the interlocutor), repetition, paraphrasing, non-verbal strategies, hypothesis forming (Cogo & Dewey, 2012), seeking clarification, and checking for understanding (Kaur, 2013).

Although the definition of English proficiency has been revisited as such, L2 English learners’ speaking performance tends to be assessed based on conformity to NES norms (Jenkins & Leung, 2014). In addition, the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), an influential framework for language assessment, assumes that learners need to be able to comprehend only NESs, excluding the ability to understand varieties of English spoken by NNEs (McNamara, 2011). Since successful intercultural communication depends on the use of communicative strategies, in speaking and listening assessment it is appropriate to emphasize the use of such strategies in the achievement of mutual understanding, rather than only focusing on linguistic accuracy based on NES norms.

### **1.3 PBL and communication strategies**

Project-based Learning (PBL) is an effective approach for engaging students with meaningful, motivating, and real-life challenges through extensive collaborative work (Bender, 2012). PBL can be distinguished from regular projects in that it uses essential product design elements (Buck Institute for Education, n.d.) including a non-Googleable driving question that focuses on authentic problems or issues. Larmer and Mergendoller find that the hallmark of virtually all PBL experiences typically increases student motivation to actively participate in the projects (as cited in Bender, 2012). The question is followed by sustained inquiry which fosters critical thinking, thoughtful decision making, and reasoned judgments as well as more authenticity, student voice and choice, reflection, critique and revision in the final presentation of the product or solution (Buck Institute for Education, n.d.). PBL focuses on the learning goals of acquiring key knowledge, understanding issues and gaining 21<sup>st</sup> century skills through collaborative and creative investigative problem-solving and decision-making activities.

Researchers have also found evidence of increased motivation and improved student attitudes toward learning through PBL. A study by Walker and Leary showed that students exhibit more engagement, are more self-reliant, and have better attendance than in more traditional settings (as cited in Bender, 2012). Also, in the PBL process, students

obtain authentic, up-to-date material through online research by scanning, evaluating, and synthesizing information, which leads to further discoveries. Bender (2012) claims that the use of modern technological tools is changing the very fabric of schooling by reformulating the teaching/learning process in a fundamental way - rather than being passive consumers of knowledge, students become producers of knowledge.

Björkman (2013), in her study of ELF interactions in a higher educational context, found a range of pedagogical implications for the classroom. First, teachers should consider the current needs and expectations of learners, moving beyond dated descriptions of English. Second, comprehensibility should be prioritized in language teaching especially for those who will be using ELF. Third, learners should be exposed to a wide range of English and be provided with a broader, more modern view of language. Also, in her study on lecture-style classrooms and group-work sessions, she found that lectures are largely monologic and riskier in terms of communicative effectiveness because speakers have little room for maneuvering and making use of discursive strategies. Monologic events offer few opportunities to the listener to negotiate meaning or check their understanding and these situations are where misunderstandings most likely occur. On the other hand, group-work involves dialogic speech which provides opportunities for learners to enhance communication and understanding. Björkman found that interactions in group-work sessions involved the use of pragmatic strategies, and the negotiation of meaning, helping learners to understand how communicative effectiveness is actually achieved.

Another ELF researcher, Kaur (2014), advises teachers to help their students avert communication problems from the outset by teaching them to be more explicit. Students might be taught, for example, to replace general terms with more specific ones, and to replace pronouns with their referents. She also states, “collaborative problem-solving tasks and role plays, again based on ELF-type situations which are both meaningful and realistic, can provide learners with opportunities to use (various pragmatic) strategies (2014, p. 68).” Such measures for teachers to consider, particularly the prioritizing of comprehensibility, and a focus on effective communication through the use of pragmatic strategies, can be practiced in classrooms through the authentic and meaningful collaboration among students which PBL affords. PBL can help students to increase language awareness and to notice the use of communication strategies in ELF contexts.

## **2 METHOD**

This study, as part of a larger research project on ELF-oriented curriculum development, focuses on assessing student listening and speaking skills through the tool of PBL methodology. As many of our students will go on to work in multicultural and multilingual situations, our pedagogical goal is to develop student awareness of how speakers may use strategies for effective communication in these ELF contexts. Our research is thus concerned with tracking if there may be language awareness development in our students.

### **2.1 Participants**

Forty-seven first-year students in two classes majoring in Education participated in this study. There were 23 students at level 101 and 102 in one class and 24 students at level 102 in the other class. Both classes were held in the spring semester of 2015 and instructed by two of the authors. The TOEIC Bridge is used to assess the proficiency of all incoming first-year students before their first semester in order to place them in the

appropriate ELF level. The students in level 101 had TOEIC Bridge scores of up to 110 and those in level 102 had scores between 112 and 124. Each class was divided into five groups of four to five members for the PBL task.

## 2.2 The PBL Task

Each group from the two classes was given this driving question:

*Small sized devices have helped enhance people's lives in many ways. For example, smartphones have transformed how we communicate. You are a company that has been asked to increase the survival rate of people during natural disasters. What kind of new, unique product will you develop that can help you survive during a natural disaster?*

The task took approximately four to five class sessions. The task gave a role to each member of the group which required the use of the 21st century skills of collaboration, critical thinking, communication, and creativity. Students continued with online research and watching videos about natural disasters and the hardships of living in temporary housing shelters. Each group had a chance to consult with a CELF tutor to receive timely advice on how to improve their product. Every PBL group member was then required to prepare for a speaking role in a final presentation which introduced the group's unique new product to an audience which included students from each of the two classes and several CELF teachers. The instructors used formative and summative assessment protocols and rubrics to assess student progress in listening and speaking

## 2.3 Data Collection

Before the start of the PBL task, all students in both classes were asked to take a pre-project survey. The students were then given instructions on how to proceed with and complete the task.

Tutor sessions were held during the following class session. Each tutor session included a CELF tutor and two students, the group leader and assistant leader of the PBL task group. Tutors were provided with a sheet of questions to support and elicit communication strategies from the students during the tutor session. Each session was a maximum of ten minutes in length and was audio and video recorded.

The student PBL task groups completed the project with group presentations held during class sessions. These presentations were video recorded. A Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was held in each class and conducted immediately after the group presentations. The FGDs were video recorded. All students completed a post-project survey in the following class session.

Verbal consent for the use of the audio and video recordings for research purposes was obtained from the students and tutors.

## 2.4 Survey Instruments

The bilingual (English and Japanese) pre-project and post-project surveys were online questionnaires. Five Likert-style questionnaire items asked students about their use of communication strategies and eight items elicited student perceptions about PBL. When responding to each statement presented in the questionnaire, students could choose between the following five responses: strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree and strongly agree. The results of the pre-project survey are summarized in the following section.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Forty-seven students (response rate 100%) completed the pre-project survey. Student responses to the items on the use of communication strategies indicated that about a third of the students have a neutral perception of their ability to use communication strategies (see Table 1). About half of the students perceive that they can use repetition, check for understanding, and seek clarification. About 70% agreed or strongly agreed that they can replace general terms with more specific ones. However, only a quarter of the students agreed or strongly agreed that they could use paraphrasing to communicate effectively. The student responses show that some of these students may need more help in using communication strategies and suggest that they may not be as critical of how they are communicating in English as they could be. Their teachers may need to implement more activities that raise student awareness of communication strategies and encourage them to be more critical of their language use in interaction.

*Table 1 Student response to items on communication strategy use (n=47)*

Item	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
1. I can use repetition to help me communicate effectively.	0.0	19.2	36.2	42.6	2.1
2. I can use paraphrasing to help me communicate effectively.	4.3	36.2	34.0	21.31	4.3
3. I can check for understanding to help me communicate effectively.	0.0	23.4	25.5	42.6	8.5
4. I can seek clarification to help me communicate effectively.	2.1	23.4	25.5	36.2	12.8
5. I can replace general terms with more specific ones to help me communicate effectively (e.g., using 'dog' instead of 'animal')	0.0	6.4	23.4	61.7	8.5

Note: SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Disagree nor Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree.

The results of the questionnaire items on PBL revealed that students for the most part have a positive perception of PBL skills and project group work (see Table 2). Almost all of the students agreed or strongly agreed that they can collaborate with their peers and that through collaboration they can learn English. Most of the students also appear to believe that group presentations can teach them about presentation structure and that they can learn presentation skills through group presentations. A majority also perceives that group projects motivate them to learn English.

Not all of the items received positive responses - less than half of the students (40.5%) responded that they could think critically about a problem. This is interesting because more than half of the students perceived that a group project would help them to think critically about a problem. A substantial majority of students also appears to believe that they gain creative thinking skills through projects. These findings suggest that group

work may help to increase critical and creative thinking. Furthermore, the implementation of more group work or collaborative tasks may be a solution to the issue of students' lack of critical awareness in their use of English.

*Table 2 Student response to items on PBL (n=47)*

Item	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %
1. I can collaborate with peers on projects.	0.0	0.0	2.1	63.8	34.0
2. Collaboration is helpful for me to learn in English.	0.0	2.1	0.0	57.5	40.4
3. I can think critically about a problem.	0.0	8.5	51.1	36.2	4.3
4. Group project work helps me to think critically about a problem.	0.0	0.0	31.9	61.7	6.4
5. I can gain creative thinking skills through the projects.	0.0	2.1	21.3	57.5	19.2
6. I can learn about presentation structure through group presentation.	0.0	0.0	6.4	68.1	25.5
7. I can learn about group presentation skills through group presentations.	0.0	0.0	2.1	61.7	36.2
8. Working on a group project motivates me to learn English.	0.0	2.1	12.8	66.0	19.2

*Note:* SD=Strongly Disagree, D=Disagree, N=Neither Disagree nor Agree, A= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree.

The results of the pre-project questionnaire indicate that some of these students are somewhat uncertain about how they can use strategies to communicate effectively. The application of PBL and collaborative activities appears to represent an opportunity to create deeper learning opportunities for CELF students. These students appear to enjoy group projects, and more importantly these students feel that they have the potential to increase both their English skills and critical thinking, and to learn presentation skills.

To summarize: (1) some of the students may need more help in using communication strategies; (2) they may not be as critical of how they are communicating in English as they could be; (3) students for the most part have a positive perception of PBL skills and project group work; (4) group work may help to increase critical and creative thinking as well as improving language awareness; (5) students are somewhat uncertain about how they can use strategies to communicate effectively.

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate from an ELF perspective the assessment of student listening and speaking skills, and the development of language awareness - how languages are used for effective communication - in students. Students dealt with an authentic and meaningful issue through collaborative group work on a PBL project. Pre-project and post-project surveys, group work, tutor sessions and the FGD (feedback) sessions were incorporated to help focus student attention on the use of communication/pragmatic strategies.

The data from the pre-project survey appear to show that even though the students may not be fully aware of how to use communication strategies, they believe that group projects may help improve their critical thinking and creativity. Therefore, if more group projects are carried out in the classroom, the students will have more opportunities to think creatively and critically, and at the same time utilize communication strategies to elicit their ideas in English.

In this multi-tiered research project we will continue to collect and analyze student and student-teacher interaction for the use of communication strategies through video and audio verbal protocol. Also, the authors plan to further develop listening and speaking assessments by reviewing the use of verbal and nonverbal strategies in dialogic situations. Communicative strategies like repetition help to increase the communicative effectiveness of spoken English by fulfilling important functions in ELF settings. According to Lichtkoppler, speaking assessments could further incorporate different types of repetition (exact repetition, repetition with variation, for example) or the functions of repetition, such as repetition for time-gaining, repetition that ensures accuracy, and repetition for indicating prominence (as cited in Björkman, 2013).

The authors, recognizing the unique resources specifically the multilingual and multicultural teachers at the CELF, see PBL as an important approach for classroom projects as one of the methods to assess their students listening and speaking skills and development of language awareness. At the later stage of this study, they will present on post-project surveys, tutor sessions, and FGD reflections. The authors plan to continue to develop rubrics for the assessment of listening and speaking skills. The hope is that this further research on the effective use of communication strategies through the tools of PBL in an ELF setting will contribute to English education in Japan.

#### REFERENCES

- Bender, W. N. (2012). *Project-based learning: Differentiating instruction for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Björkman, B. (2008). 'So where are we?' Spoken lingua franca English at a technical university in Sweden. *English Today*, 24(2), 35-41.
- Björkman, B. (2013). *English as an academic lingua franca: An investigation of form and communicative effectiveness*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Buck Institute of Education (BIE) (n.d.). *Project Based Learning for the 21st Century*. Retrieved from <http://www.bie.org/about/>
- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 3(3), 229-242.
- Cogo, A., & Dewey, M. (2012). *Analysing English as a lingua franca*. London: Continuum.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Greenstein, L. (2012). *Assessing 21<sup>st</sup> century skills: A guide to evaluation mastery and authentic learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- House, J. (1999). Misunderstanding in intercultural communication: Interactions in English as lingua franca and the myth of mutual intelligibility. In G. Gnutzmann (Ed.), *Teaching and learning English as a global language: Native and non-native perspectives* (pp. 73-89). Tübingen: Stauffenberg Verlag.
- Jenkins, J. (2006). The spread of EIL: A testing time for testers. *ELT Journal*, 60 (1), 42-50.
- Jenkins, J., & Leung, C. (2014). English as a lingua franca. In A. Kunnan (Ed.), *The companion to language assessment* (pp. 1605-1616). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Kaur, J. (2013). Lecture on Teaching the effective use of ELF: Insights from research into the use of pragmatic strategies in ELF communication. Second ELF International Workshop. Waseda University, Tokyo.
- Kaur, J. (2014). Teaching the effective use of ELF: Insights from research into ELF pragmatics. *WASEDA Working Papers in ELF (English as a Lingua Franca)*, 3, 158-168.
- Leung, C. (2005). Convivial communication: Recontextualizing communicative competence. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 119-144.
- McNamara, T. F. (2011). Managing learning: Authority and language assessment. *Language Teaching*, 44(4), 500-515.
- Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (n.d.). *Framework for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.p21.org/about-us/p21-framework/57>
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2014). Lecture on English used as a lingua franca in the world. *Shaping Learning Together: A Day with Oxford 2014*. Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo.

# PARAPHRASING STRATEGY IN TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION

Nirwana  
Arifuddin Hamra  
Kisman Salija  
nir\_wana88@ymail.com

*Study Program, State University of Makassar, Indonesia  
Mts Ummul Mukminin Makassar.  
Kampus UNM Gunungsari Baru, Jln. Bonto Langkasa PPS UNM Makassar,*

## **ABSTRACT**

*This study aims at finding out the implementation of paraphrasing strategy in teaching reading comprehension for the students at Mts Ummul Mukminin Makassar and the interest to the use of that strategy in the teaching and learning process. The subject consisted of 30 students for experimental group and 30 students for control group. The instruments consisted of a reading comprehension test and a questioner. The result shows that paraphrasing strategy significantly enhances the students' reading comprehension (.000 < .05). The students' interest is categorized in high category for experimental group which is proved by the mean score of students' interest 71.87. Finally, paraphrasing strategy contributes to the enhancement of reading comprehension achievement and the students are interesting in using that strategy in teaching and learning process. The students are interested in reading English texts.*

**Key words:** *Paraphrasing strategy, reading comprehension, achievement,*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Most countries in the world put English as an important subject in their school curriculum. In Indonesia, English becomes a compulsory subject in every school from junior high school to university with the main purpose is to develop communication skills both in oral and written. Reading as one of the skills has become a very important factor for successful in academic purposes, the success of their study will depend on the greater part of their ability to read, no subject without reading.

Reading comprehension is still a problem for most Indonesian students (Hamra & Syatriana (2012). The problem is generated from different factors, among others: the students lack of English knowledge, global knowledge, and reading strategies. This phenomena also happens to the students of Mts Pondok Pesantren Ummul Mukminin, Makassar. The preliminary survey indicated that the English achievement of the students based on the teacher's teaching strategy is below the minimum target criteria (75) of the English curriculum. In this case, teachers should be able to create a new strategy to solve the learning problem.

One of appropriate strategies in improving the students reading comprehension achievement is paraphrasing. The paraphrasing strategy helps students learn to read and

recall information in their own words. Students work with short passages to identify key points and then reword them. This technique builds students' confidence in their ability to remember details accurately and state the meaning of new terms or sentences.

Previous studies have been conducted in relation to the paraphrasing strategy. Achmad (2011) states that paraphrasing strategy improve students' vocabulary, reading and writing ability by paraphrasing reading passage, and they are interested in the use of the strategy; although paraphrasing activities is difficult to do, but they realize that they are very useful for comprehension. Lee (2003) from University of Kansas conducted a research with the title: "The effect of instruction in the paraphrasing strategy on reading fluency and comprehension" with a conclusion that a positive effect was found on comprehension and reading rate following the instruction. Hadijah (2009) conducted a research entitles "Teaching writing by using paraphrasing reading passage strategy to the second years students of SMA Wahyu Makassar with a conclusion that the use of paraphrasing reading passage is interesting and applicable to improve the writing skills of the students.

The present study explored the use of paraphrasing or rephrasing strategy in teaching reading comprehension, and the research questions are as follows:

1. Does paraphrasing strategy improve the students' reading comprehension achievement?
2. Are the students interested in studying reading by using paraphrasing strategy?

The outcome of this research is expected to be a piece of useful references toward learning and teaching process in improving the students' reading comprehension achievement.

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.293) argue that listening, speaking, reading, and writing are generally called language skills. Speaking and writing are called the active/productive skills and reading and listening are the passive/receptive skills. Harmer (2003) in *The Practice of English Language Testing* states that "Reading is an exercise dominated by the eyes and the brain." Patel and Jain (2008, p.113) state that reading is understanding the meaning of printed words i.e. written symbols.

A simple conclusion can be presented that reading is an act of getting information through the eyes and the brain of the readers. Readers before reading should realize the purpose that can lead them to get meaning. Byner (1998, p.9) argues that determining the reading purpose before reading will help readers obtain comprehension: perceptive, selective, interactive and extensive.

Extensive reading is intended for long texts, usually for fluency and pleasure to get global understanding (Grellet, 1983, p 2). Nunan (2003, p.72) states that extensive reading is reading for longer texts) without focus on classroom exercises for comprehension skills. Therefore, extensive reading involves reading different texts (journal articles, reports, long essays, short stories, and textbooks. Carrel and Carson (1997) in Richards and Renandya (2002, p.295) state that extensive reading is generally involves quick reading of large quantities for general knowledge.

Snow and Chair (2002, p.11) state that reading comprehension as a process of constructing meaning at once through the interaction and involvement of the written language. Lems, Miller and Soro (2010) state that in general, reading comprehension is the ability to acquire meaning from a written text.. Cooper (1987) states that comprehension is a process in which the reader may construct meaning by interacting with the text. In reading comprehension, a reader should have knowledge about understanding the reading passage.

Lapp & Flood (1986); Richard&Renandya (2002) divide three levels of reading comprehension: literal reading comprehension, inferential reading comprehension, and critical reading comprehension. Literal comprehension refers to reading for recalling or remembering about the fact or information in the texts. Inferential comprehension refers to an understanding of information that is not explicitly stated in the texts, information is implicitly stated through inferences.. Critical comprehension refers to the readers' view or global knowledge.

The word, paraphrase (New Oxford American Dictionary) comes from Greek, a combination of prefix, "para" means "expressing modification" and "phrazein" means "tell". Bailey (2003, p. 21) states that helpful paraphrasing is very essential for academic writing, effective in avoiding plagiarism. A good paraphrase does not change the meaning at all, and it is significantly different from the wording of original source. Paraphrase is a parallel text, one that goes alongside an original writing (Simon & Schuster, 1997). Paraphrase is a powerful method that teachers can use to improve content understanding, learning, interest, communication, or creative skills. This strategy not only gives students a reason to read but also to encourage them to keep on reading and learning. Larson (2004, p. 45) presents some reasons for using paraphrasing strategy in reading: (1) to restate a difficult passage that the reader may not understand. (2) to explain or interpret concepts or unfamiliar term. (3) or to make abstract facts and concrete ideas. Harris (2014) states that paraphrasing is a useful learning strategy for some reasons. The act of changing of words, phrases, grammar, or paragraph into other words, phrases, grammar, or paragraph and writing them down engage learner's mind and body with the text content.

In paraphrasing a passage, paraphraser first read the passage and try to find the main idea and some details of the texts. They have to be selective in altering the words and sentences, and they are not necessary to paraphrase the entire passage instead of choosing and summarizing the material that helps them to make a point for their papers, and think of their own words. Larson (2004, p. 5) presents two ways of paraphrasing: (1) literal paraphrase allows paraphraser to substitute the original words of each sentences with synonyms as the first step in drafting paraphrasing. Since paraphrasing by sentences the overall structure may be awkward, and it may result greater risk of plagiarism. To avoid this the paraphraser may use free paraphrasing for all of the final results. In this case, paraphraser can use synonym and rearrange the sentences structure. Using the main ideas without necessarily keeping the same organization. This kind of paraphrasing sounds more natural and is recommended. There are some steps to get useful paraphrase. Read passage several times so that you can good comprehension of the passages. Set the original source aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you use the material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of the paraphrase. Compare the length of what you have paraphrased to the original text. Use quotation marks to identify any unique terms. Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it into your paper.

Bailey in Paltridge&Starfield(2007, p. 111) prepares three techniques in paraphrasing strategy: changing the words (for example, study to research), changing the word class (for example, arrange (verb) to arrangement, noun), and changing the word order (we need to be flexible to flexibility is necessary for us).

This study is based on team based-learning (Hamra & Haryanto, 2015) in which the students should read the instructional reading materials first at home (outside of the classroom). While reading they are to prepare reading notes by finding/underlining the main ideas, some details, and to answer comprehension questions. When the students

come to the class they have to meet their groups and discuss the instructional materials. Each group has to submit the best work from the group as a weekly submission. The last procedure is one group is to present the work in front of the class. The teacher is to control the group work and the class presentation.

## 2 METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 Design

The method used in this study was quasi-experimental with one experimental group, 30 students and one control group, 30 students. The population was the second graders of MTS UmmulMukminin, and the subject was chosen through cluster sampling technique.

### 2.2 Variables

The use of paraphrasing strategy is independent variable, and the reading comprehension achievement is dependent variable. The students' interest to the use of the reading strategy is extraneous variable, not relating to the purpose of the study. The students' reading comprehension achievement is the improvement of the students' reading comprehension after treating with paraphrasing strategy. Paraphrasing strategy is a strategy used to improve the students reading comprehension achievement by restatement of the original words, word order, and grammar without changing the meaning.

### 2.3 Procedure

Based on the previous descriptions about paraphrasing strategy, the present study implemented three techniques in paraphrasing texts or sentences in the teaching and learning process: (1) the first strategy uses different words with the same meaning, for example: It is very difficult to choose a suitable place to study mathematics becomes: It is very *hard* to *selectan appropriate* place to *learn* mathematics. (2) the second strategy changes the word order. If the sentence consists of two or more clauses, alter the order of the clauses, and if the sentence has an adjective and noun, change the adjective into the relative clause, for example: Speaking English is a challenging task for me becomes: Speaking English is a task which is challenging for me. (3) the third strategy uses different grammar. Change the words in the original sentence into different parts of speech, change the order of the words and some other words. Active sentence can be changed into passive one or passive into active sentences, for example: You should learn English becomes: English should be learned.

### 2.4 Collecting data

A reading test with 25 multiple choice items was administered to see the reading comprehension achievement and a questionnaire with 20 items was administered to explore the information about the students' interest to the use of paraphrasing strategy. The collected data, reading comprehension used percentage score and it was analyzed by using SPSS version 20 (Santoso, 2011) to test the hypothesis, and the questionnaire used percentage analysis.

### 2.5 Teaching treatment

Treatment applying paraphrasing strategy on the experimental group was conducted for eight times or two months with the following procedures:

1. The teacher introduced paraphrasing strategy and explained the procedures in the teaching and learning process.

2. The class was divided into groups, 5 students for each group.
3. Students read the texts individually to find the main ideas and some details.
4. Students discuss the text in group by checking the difficult words of the passage, finding the main idea and some details, and answering the comprehension questions.
5. Students paraphrase the sentences or passage by applying the three strategies described previously.
6. In group presentation, students presented result of the group activity in front of the class.

The control group treated without using paraphrasing strategy, the teaching steps are the same, but there is no paraphrasing activity. Posttest was administered to all groups and reading interest questionnaire (20 items) to the control group. To analyze the test result, the researcher used percentage analysis. The use of percentage analysis aimed to know the percentage score of reading comprehension test, and t-test was used to test the null hypothesis through SPSS program. This study used Likert like scale survey to see the interest of the students to the use of paraphrasing strategy (Gay, et al. 2006, p. 130). The interest is ranged from very high (85-100), high, (69-84) moderate (52-68), low (35-51), and very low (0<35).

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Students' reading comprehension in the pretest of the control and experimental groups.

Before conducting treatment using paraphrasing strategy, a pretest was conducted for control group and experimental group.

*Table 1 The frequency and percentage score of students' reading comprehension in the pretest of the control and experimental groups.*

Evaluation	Range of score	Control group		Experimental group	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Excellent</b>	96-100	0	0	0	0
<b>Very good</b>	86-95	0	0	0	0
<b>Good</b>	76-85	6	20%	6	20%
<b>Fairly Good</b>	66-75	11	36,7%	14	46,7%
<b>Fairly</b>	56-65	5	16,7%	4	13,3%
<b>Poor</b>	36-55	5	16,7%	4	13,3%
<b>Very Poor</b>	0-35	3	10 %	2	6,7%
<b>Total</b>		30	100	30	100

*Chart1 The frequency and percentage score of students reading comprehension in the pretest of control group and experimental group.*

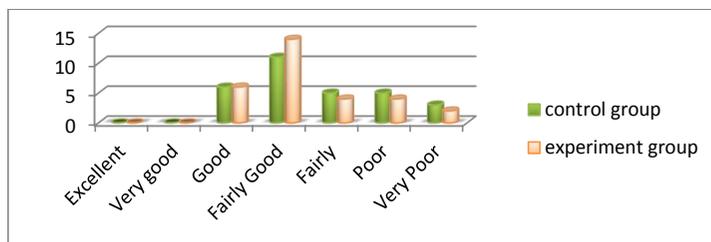


Table 1 and chart 1 show that in the control group, there are 3 students (10 %) classified as very poor category, 5 students (16,7 %) are poor and fairly, 11 students (36,7 %) are fairly good, 6 students (20 %) are good, and no one student is in the category of very good and excellent. Besides that, in the experimental group, there are 2 students (6,7 %) are very poor, 4 students (13,3%) are poor and fairly, 14 students (46,7 %) are fairly good, 6 students (20 %) are good and no one student is very good and excellent. Based on the presented data before treating the students, most of the students are in fairly and good classification, and means the students are ready to apply the paraphrasing strategy.

### 3.2 Percentage score of students' reading comprehension for the posttest of control group and experimental group.

After treatment of paraphrasing strategy, a posttest of reading comprehension was administered for control and experimental groups.

*Table 2 The frequency and percentage of students reading comprehension on posttest of control group and experimental group.*

Evaluation	Range of score	Control group		Experimental group	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	96-100	0	0	4	13,3%
Very good	86-95	3	10 %	3	10%
Good	76-85	8	26,7%	10	33,3%
Fairly Good	66-75	9	30 %	9	30%
Fairly	56-65	7	23,3%	2	6,7%
Poor	36-55	3	10,7%	2	6,7%
Very Poor	0-35	0	0	0	0
<b>Total</b>		30	100	30	100

*Chart 2 The frequency and percentage of students reading comprehension on posttest of control group and experimental group.*

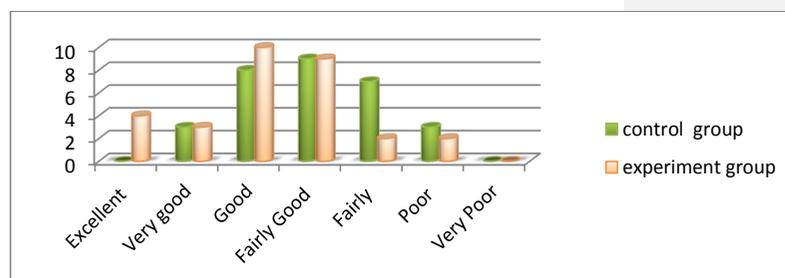


Table 2 and the chart 2 show that in the control group, no students are classified as very poor category, 3 students (10,7 %) are poor, 7 students (23,3 %) are fairly, 9 students (30 %) are fairly good, 8 students (26,7 %) are good, 3 students are very good and no one student is excellent. Besides that, in experimental group, no one student is very poor, 2 students (6,7%) are poor and fairly category, 9 students (30 %) are fairly good, 10 students (33,3 %) are good, 3 students (10 %) are very good, and 4 students (13,3%) are excellent. Based on the presented data, some students in the experimental group are in excellent classification and many students are in good classification, and these results surpassed the scores of control group. The paraphrasing strategy improves the reading comprehension of the students in general.

### 3.3 The mean score and standard deviation of the students pretest and posttest.

The mean score and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest of the control group and experimental group:

**Table 3 The students' reading comprehension in the pretest and posttest**

Variabel	Group	Mean	Standar deviation	Mean difference
Pretest	Control	62.26	12.83	2.53
	Experiment	64.80	16.78	2.53
Posttest	Control	70.06	10.29	6.93
	Experiment	77.00	11.89	6.93

**Chart 3 the students' reading comprehension in the pretest and posttest**

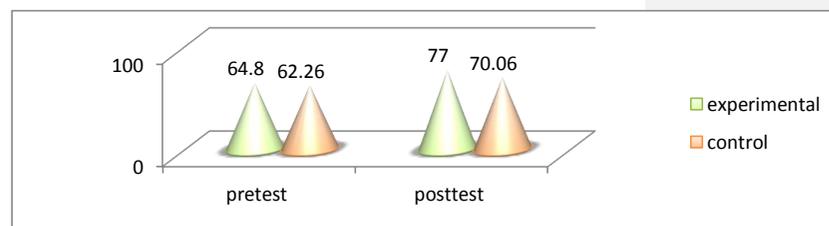


Table 3 and chart 3 show that in the pretest the mean score of the experimental group and the control group are almost the same reading achievement before giving the

treatment (64.80 and 62.26). After giving the treatment, the mean score of experimental group shows 77.00 and the control group 70.06, and it shows that there is teaching improvement in reading with the paraphrasing strategy (Hagaman & Reid, 2008; Firman, 2013).

### 3.4 The result of the t-test

1) The result of t-test from pretest of experimental group and control group. In testing the hypothesis, t-test was used and the data from the reading comprehension test were analyzed through Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

*Table 4 The t-test of students' pretest of experimental group and control group.*

Variable	$\alpha$	Probability Value
Pretest	0.05	0.07

Table 4 indicates that the probability value was greater than  $\alpha$  ( $0.07 > 0.05$ ). It means that  $H_0$  was accepted and  $H_1$  was rejected. In other words, there was no significant difference of reading achievement of the two groups. In other words, the students almost have the same achievement of the control and experimental groups before starting the study.

2) The result of t-test from posttest of experimental group and control group. The aim of posttest is to inform if there is any significant effect in applying paraphrasing strategy. The data from the posttest was analyzed by using SPSS.

*Table 5 The result of t-test from students posttest of experiment group and control group*

Variable	$\alpha$	Probability Value
Posttest	0.05	0.000

Table 5 indicates that probability value was lower than  $\alpha$  ( $0.000 < 0.05$ ), and it means that  $H_0$  was rejected and  $H_1$  was accepted. There is a statistically significant difference between the result of posttest of control group and experimental group. This indicates that paraphrasing strategy facilitates students to get comprehension of the reading texts.

*Table 6 the t-test of students' pretest and posttest of experiment group*

Variable	$\alpha$	Probability Value
Pretest -Posttest	0.05	0.000

Table 6 show that  $H_1$  was accepted and  $H_0$  was rejected. It means there is statistically significant difference between the result of pretest and posttest of the experimental group. In other words, there is an improvement on the student's reading comprehension between pretest and posttest in the experimental group.

### 3.5 The result of t-test from pretest and posttest of control group.

The reading achievement of the students' pretest and posttest in control group before and after teaching using paraphrasing strategy.

*Table 7 the t-test of students' pretest and posttest of control group*

Variable	$\alpha$	Probability Value
----------	----------	-------------------

<b>Pretest -Posttest</b>	0.05	0.000
--------------------------	------	-------

Table 7 shows that  $H_1$  was accepted and  $H_0$  was rejected. It means there is statistically significant difference between the result of pretest and posttest of control group. There is an improvement on the students reading comprehension between pretest and posttest in control group.

### 3.6 Students' interest in reading using paraphrasing strategy

In order to know whether the students are interested in the application of paraphrasing strategy, the researcher distributed questionnaire to the students. The expression of interest are: very high, high, moderate, low, and very low and the percentage score can be seen in the following table.

*Table 8 Students' interest to use of paraphrasing strategy*

No	Interval score	Category	Frequency	Percentage
1	85-100	Very high	7	23,3%
2	69-84	High	14	46,7%
3	52-68	Moderate	9	30 %
4	36-51	Low	-	-
5	20-35	Very low	-	-

Table 8 shows that most students (70%) are interesting in the use of the strategy, and some (30%) of the students are moderate. The mean score of the interest is 71.87. It indicates that the interest of the students toward the use of the strategy is high. High interest in reading can be a good contribution to the reading comprehension of the students as Khairuddin (2013) states that the reading interest of students can influence the reading comprehension of EFL students.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The application of paraphrasing strategy improves the students' reading comprehension. English language teachers need to encourage learner to develop learning strategies. Karbalaie&Amoli (2011) state that reading comprehension of college students can be improved by the development of their paraphrasing abilities. This result indicates the implementation of teaching reading by using paraphrasing strategy is better than the teaching reading strategy without paraphrasing activity. Teaching with paraphrasing strategy provides creative activities: finding synonyms, changing word order, changing grammar without changing the meaning of the texts. It is an effective tool in helping students to be creative in getting meaning from reading texts. By working in groups students have opportunities to comprehend the text easily and change the texts without changing the meanings. This reading strategy increases vocabulary and reading comprehension of the students. They can build their own words, automatically make them easy to understand meaning of the words or sentences. Learning to read becomes meaningful, students are able to increase their understanding through paraphrasing the sentences from the texts. Therefore, teachers should be able to develop learning strategies that are appropriate for students (Khonbi&Sadeghi, 2013).

The questionnaire was given to the students covered the statement about whether or not the students are interested in the use of paraphrasing strategy. The questionnaire result shows that the use of paraphrasing strategy in teaching reading improves their

interest in reading comprehension. In other words the students have high interest to the use of paraphrasing strategy in learning reading. Paraphrasing is valuable skill because it is better than quoting information from a passage, and it trains students to grasp meaning from the original text.

Since the use of paraphrasing strategy improves the students' reading comprehension this strategy can be an alternative strategy for teachers in teaching reading comprehension. It is also suggested that other researchers can conduct further research on paraphrasing strategy for other language skills.

## REFERENCES

- Ahmad. (2011). Improve the students' vocabulary, reading and writing ability by paraphrasing reading passage. Unpublished thesis. Universitas Ahmad Dahlan Yogyakarta.
- Allen, E. D. (1975). Classroom techniques: Foreign language and English as a Second Language, Ohio: Ohio State University Press.
- Anderson, J. (2000). Assessing reading. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, S. (2003). Academic writing a practical guide for the students. New York. Rodge Falmer.
- Bennete, J. (2001). A course in light speed reading, a return to natural intuitive reading. American: American Institute of Hypnotherapy
- Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles language learning and teaching, 4th Edition. Longman: Edison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). Teaching by principles. 2nd Edition. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- Brown, H. D. (2004). Language assessment principles and classroom practices. White Plains, NY: Person Education, Inc.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles language learning and teaching, 5th Edition. Longman: Person Education, Inc.
- Byner, B. (1998). The foundation of literacy, the child's acquisition of the alphabetic principle. Hove UK. Psychology Press.
- Carrel & Carson. (1997). Extensive and intensive reading in an EAP setting. ESP Journal. (16) 1.
- Cooper, J.D. (1987). Improving reading comprehension, Boston: Houghtonmifflin Company.
- Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan RI, Keputusan Menteri: No.096/Kep/1967, "Bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing pertama di Indonesia dan mata pelajaran wajib untuk SLTP sampai perguruan tinggi".
- Firman. (2014). The effect of paraphrasing strategy in improving the reading comprehension of the second grade students of SMAN 2 Bau-Bau. Unpublished thesis. State University of Makassar.
- Grellet, F. (1983). Developing Reading Skill. London: Cambridge University press.
- Gay, L.R., Mills, E. M. & Airasian, P. W. (2006). Educational research competencies for analysis and application. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hadijah. (2009). Teaching writing by using paraphrasing reading passage strategy to the second years of SMA Wahyu Makassar. Unpublished thesis FIP Universitas Negeri Makassar.
- Hagaman, J. L., & Reid R. (2008). The effect of the paraphrasing strategy on the reading comprehension of middle school students at risk for failure. Remedial and

- Special Education. 29 (4), 222-234. Retrieved on January 13, 2015 from <http://online.sagepub.com>.
- Hamra, A., & Syatriana E. (2012). A model reading teaching for university EFL students: Need analysis and model design. *English Language Teaching*, 5(10), 1-11. Retrieved on January 12, 2015 from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n10p1>
- Hamra, A., & Haryanto, A. (2015). Rephrasing Strategy in Team-Based Learning and Reading Comprehension of Indonesian EFL Students. *Proceeding Seminar Nasional Lembaga Penelitian, Universitas Negeri Makassar*.
- Harmer, J. (1990). *The practice of English language teaching*, Essex: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2003). *How to teach English*. London: Longman.
- Harris, S. & Robert. J. (1980). *How to increase reading ability*, New York: Longman, Inc.
- Hidi, S. (2001). Interest, reading, and learning: Theoretical and practical consideration. *Educational Psychology*, 13 (3), Retrieved on January 10, 2015. From <https://www.google.com/#q=Definition+of+in+learning>
- Karbalaei, A. & Amoli, F. A. (2011). The effect of paraphrasing strategy training on the reading comprehension of college students at the undergraduate level. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13 (10), 229-245.
- Khairuddin, Z. (2013). A study of students' reading interests in a second language. *Internasional Education Studies*, 6 (11), 160-170. Retrieved on April 6, 2015 from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v6n11p160>
- Khonbi, Z. A., & Sadeghi, K. (2013). Learners' starting age of learning EFL and Use of language learning strategies. *English Language Teaching*. 6 (1), Retrieved on April 6, 2015 from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6i1p28-34>.
- Kletzien, S.B. (2009). Paraphrasing : an effective comprehension strategy. *Journal of Reading Teacher*, 63 (1).
- Lapp, D., & Flood, J. (1986). *Teaching student to read*. NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Larson, R. K. (2004). Sentence final adverbs and "scope" in M. Wolf and K. Moulton (eds). *Proceeding of NELS 34*. Pp. 23-43) UMASS: GLSA.
- Lems, K., Miller, L. D. & Soro, T. M. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: insight from linguistics*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Lee, S.W & Von Collon, T. (2003). The effect of instruction in the paraphrasing strategy on reading fluency and comprehension. *ERIC journal*. 143
- Michaelsen, L.K., Parmelee, D. X., McMahon, K.K., Levine, R.E. (2008). *Team-based learning for health professions education: A guide to using small groups for improving learning*. Sterling VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Mikulecky, B. S. & Linda J. (2004). *More reading power. Reading for pleasure, Comprehension skills, thinking skills, reading faster*. 2nd Edition. New York. Longman.
- New Oxford American Dictionary, Retrieved on January 25, 2014 from online books.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English language teaching*. First Edition. International Edition. Mc. Graw Hill.
- Patel & Jain. (2008). *Language teaching: method, tools and technique*. India: Distributor.
- Paltridge, B. & Starfield, S. (2007). *Thesis and dissertation writing in a second language. A handbook for supervisor*. New York. Routledge.
- Richards, J. C. and Richard S. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching & applied linguistics*. 3rd Edition. Longman: Person Education
- Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Santoso, S. (2011). *Panduanlengkap SPSS versi 20*. Alex Media Komputer: Jakarta.
- Simon and Schulters. (1997). *Handbook for writers*. Fourth edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Snow, C. E. (2002). *Ensuring reading success for African American children*. National Black Child Development Initiative.
- Strickland, C. (2007). *Windmills HBJ. Reading program level 7*. Harcourt School.

## ENGLISH REPRIMANDING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN STUDENTS

**Sarah Miselly**

sarahmiselly1@gmail.com

**Lanny Hidayat**

lanny.hidayat@atmajaya.ac.id

*Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia*  
Jl. Jenderal Sudirman Kav. 51, DKI Jakarta

### **ABSTRACT**

*Reprimanding is an action that potentially threatens a hearer's face badly; accordingly, using appropriate politeness strategies in reprimanding is important in order to save one's own face or other's. People use different politeness strategies in different situations. The type of politeness strategies employed in reprimanding are affected by social distance and social power (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Speakers of different cultures also use different strategies for reprimanding (Garcia, 2009). This study was intended to investigate the politeness strategies used by Indonesian EFL learners when reprimanding in English in different conditions. The participants were 22 undergraduate students of an international university in Jakarta. The data were collected by using DCT questionnaire adapted from Ahmadian and Dastjerdi's (2010) study, which required the participants to reprimand an interlocutor in the four made-up situations. The results indicate that, in Indonesian community, social distance and social power affect the choice of politeness strategies in reprimanding. In addition, the fact that the participants generally used bald on record and positive politeness strategies in the four conditions under study suggests that Indonesians prefer to threaten the interlocutor's face rather than their own in reprimanding.*

**Keywords:** *Reprimanding, politeness strategies in Indonesia, speech act*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

Politeness is a crucial aspect in communication. It shapes how we behave and talk in a certain community. Holmes (2013: 4) defines politeness as an action performed to show respect with the purpose of not offending the hearer. People use different politeness strategies in different situations and with different people. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), social distance and social power are some of the factors that can affect the politeness strategies used in a given context.

Politeness is reflected in a speech act, which can be defined as all actions which are conducted while speaking (Schmidt & Richards, 1980). Searle (1969) classified speech acts into five types: assertive, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaratives. In this study, we focus on one of the expressive speech acts, i.e. reprimanding. Vanderveken (1990, as cited in Garcia, 2009) defines reprimanding as an

*Proceedings*

*The 62<sup>nd</sup> TEFLIN International Conference 2015*

**ISBN: 970-602-294-066-1**

act that shows accusation that might threaten the hearer's face because of the misconduct caused by the hearer. Reprimand is generally produced in an asymmetrical situation, which is from superior to inferior. There are various strategies of reprimanding; cooperative and coercive strategies are some of the instances. In the cooperative strategy, the speaker respects that the hearers' face (i.e. the right to be treated fairly and free from imposition); in contrast, the coercive strategies strike the hearers' face (Garcia, 2009, p. 462).

Reprimanding strategies are different in different cultures. Garcia (2009) found that Peruvians, Argentines, and Venezuelans used different strategies when reprimanding in an asymmetrical situation (i.e. boss/employee context). The Peruvians bosses emphasized on the power differences between boss and employee and preferred to use the coercive strategies rather than cooperative. The Venezuelans bosses were somewhat similar to the Peruvians bosses as they also asserted their authority control; however, they also showed some interest in establishing interdependence by expressing desire for involvement, empathy and respect. The Argentinean bosses showed a great respect in their strategy when conducting reprimand. They expressed a reprimand by showing empathy in the form of accepting excuse or explanation from the employee. According to Garcia, the three groups of speakers were similar only in the emphasis on threatening their interlocutor's face rather than their own face.

The current study is conducted to explore the kinds of politeness strategies Indonesian students employed when they reprimand in English in four different conditions with respect to the social power and social distance. The writers believe that there would be differences and similarities between the reprimanding strategies employed by Indonesians and those who speak other languages although they all reprimand in English. To analyze the data, the writer followed Blum Kulka's sentence categorization (1984) and Brown & Levinson's politeness strategies (1987).

## 2 METHOD

This was a survey-based study. 22 undergraduate students with different majors from an International University in Jakarta participated in this study. The average TOEFL score of the participants was 550 or above. To gather the data, the writers used Discourse Completion Test (DCT), which was adapted from Ahmadian and Dastjerdi's (2010) role-play situations. The present DCT consisted of the following four different situations:

- 1) The first situation, i.e. low grade, represented a condition in which both social power and social distance existed between the speaker and the hearer. The speaker, who was a student, had lower power than the hearer, who was a lecturer. The student wanted to complain about his/her grade to the lecturer because the lecturer graded his/her exam inaccurately.
- 2) Similarly to the first situation, the second situation, i.e. playing cell phone, also represented a condition in which both social power and social distance existed. However, in this situation, the speaker, who was a chairman of an event, had higher power than the hearer, i.e. the subordinate. The chairman was upset with his/her subordinate because he/she played with his/her mobile phone during a meeting.
- 3) The third condition, i.e. coming late, represented a situation in which both social power and social distance were absent. Both the speaker and the hearer were students at the same levels and they were friends. The speaker reprimanded the hearer because he/she came late.

- 4) The fourth condition, i.e. smoking cigarette, represented a situation in which social distance existed, however social power was absence. The speaker and the hearer barely knew each other. The speaker reprimanded the hearer, who was a stranger, because he/she was smoking

The data of this research were the respondents' responses to DCT. In line with Blum Kulka et al (1989, as cited in Garcia, 1996), to analyze the data, the writers first separated each response into *head act* (i.e. the core of the sentence) and *supportive moves* (i.e. the external sentence of speech act that might aggravate or mitigate the impact of the sentence). As the limitation of this study, in the rest of the analysis, the writers focus on the head acts. Afterwards, in accordance with Garcia's (1996) study (based on Brown & Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness strategies, the head acts were categorized into bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, off record, and do nothing. Do-nothing means that the speaker said nothing. Responses which did not contain any sentences that could be considered as the head act of reprimand were excluded from the analysis.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

As shown in Table 1, the respondents used somewhat similar reprimanding strategies in the situations in which social distance existed, i.e. the first, second and fourth situation. In these three situations, negative politeness strategies were used the most frequently. On the other hand, in the third situation, in which social distance is absence, the respondents never used negative politeness strategies; instead, they tended to use positive politeness and bold on record strategies. The fact that respondents used different reprimanding strategies in different social distance contexts corresponds to Brown and Levinson's argument that social distance affects the use of politeness strategies.

The frequent use of positive politeness strategies in the third situation, in which the speaker and hearer are friends, is expected. As mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 67), this type of strategies is generally used when the speaker considers the hearer as important as the speaker. By using positive politeness strategies, the respondents could reprimand their friends for being late without hurting their friends' feeling. However, the fact that bold on record strategies were used almost as frequently as the positive politeness strategies is somewhat interesting. According to Brown & Levinson (1987), a speaker generally employs bald on record strategies when he/she wants a quick result from his/her action without being afraid of hurting the hearer's feelings. The respondents who used this type of strategies to reprimand their friends were not afraid that their friends would get offended by their action. There are two possible explanations for this finding. Firstly, the respondents considered that the relation between the speaker and hearer was very close so that they could speak to each other straightforwardly. The second possible explanation is that the respondents thought that the hearer was a 'not-so-close' friend of the speaker so that the speaker did not mind to lose that friend.

The effect of social distance on the politeness strategies is noticeable in the absence of negative politeness strategies in the third situation and their presence in the fourth condition. This finding corresponds to Brown & Levinson's (1987) argument that a speaker will use negative politeness strategies to establish a distance between the speaker and hearer in a conversation. In the third situation, the respondents did not use negative politeness strategies because the speaker and hearer were friends. On the other hand, in the fourth situation, the speaker and hearer did not know each other. It is possible

that the respondents frequently used this type of strategies in the fourth condition because they imply formality and respect (Garcia, 1996).

*Table 1. Head act used in reprimanding by Indonesian students*

Head act	I (S< H)	II (S> H)	III	IV
	+ P; +D	+P; +D	-P; -D	-P; +D
	n	n	n	n
<b>Bald on record strategies</b>				
Accusation	4	0		
b. Presentation of facts	0	0	6	0
c. Warnings/ threats	0	4	2	1
d. Claiming of authority	0	0	1	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>4 (20%)</b>	<b>4 (16%)</b>	<b>9 (37%)</b>	<b>1 (4%)</b>
<b>Positive politeness strategies</b>				
e.. Expected behaviour	0	5	2	4
f. Request for justification	4	0	8	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>4 (20%)</b>	<b>5 (20%)</b>	<b>10 (42%)</b>	<b>4 (17%)</b>
<b>Negative politeness strategies</b>				
g. Indirect	4	0	0	0
h. Question_request	3	16	0	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 (35%)</b>	<b>16 (64%)</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>15 (67%)</b>
<b>Off record strategies</b>				
i. Indirect	4	0	5	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>4 (20%)</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5 (21%)</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Do nothing</b>				
<b>Total</b>	<b>1 (5%)</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>4 (42%)</b>

S= speaker; H= hearer; P= power; D= distance

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The results of the present study showed that the respondents used different reprimanding strategies in the four situations understudy. This finding suggests that social distance and social power affected the choice of politeness strategies in Indonesian community. In addition, the findings of the research also reveal that the Indonesians generally use negative politeness strategies when reprimand someone. They only use bold on records and positive politeness strategies when they reprimand a person who has the same level of power and is close to them. This outcome is different from the result of Garcia's study (1996) on the Peruvian Spanish speakers.

For further research, the writers suggest that the data should be gathered in two-ways of conversation in a natural situation. According to Bardovi-Harlig (1996: 242), study of interaction could only be learned in the form of interaction as well. In addition, oral data is more convenient because the interlocutor's language becomes more varied in which provides more data to be analyzed in depth (Dahl & Kasper, 1991: 245).

## REFERENCES

Commented [u1]: DELETE?

- Abdolrezapour, P. Mitigation Devices in Reprimand Speech Act: Cross-cultural and Situational Variation in Iranian and American Speech Communities. (2012). In *TELLSI 10 Conference Proceedings* (p. 370). Retrieved from [http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Reza\\_Vaseghi/publication/232724367\\_Corrective\\_Feedback\\_A\\_Contrastive\\_Study\\_of\\_Iranian\\_EFL\\_Learners%27\\_and\\_Teachers%27\\_Perceptions/links/0912f5090b6ec33346000000](http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Reza_Vaseghi/publication/232724367_Corrective_Feedback_A_Contrastive_Study_of_Iranian_EFL_Learners%27_and_Teachers%27_Perceptions/links/0912f5090b6ec33346000000)
- Ahmadian, M. J., & Vahid Dastjerdi, H. (2010). A comparative study of perception of politeness of American reprimands by Iranian EFL learners and Americans. *The Social Sciences*, 5(4), 359-363.
- Allami, H., & Samimi, F. (2014). Rapport Management Approach to Reprimand: Intermediate Vs. Advanced EFL Learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 220-224.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. *Pragmatics across languages and cultures*, 7, 219-259
- Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and Apologies: A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns(CCSARP). *Applied linguistics*, 5(3), 196-213.
- Brown, P., and Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Frescura, M. (2006). Reacting to a context specific reprimand: A study of an Italian speech community. *Journal of pragmatics*, 38(12), 2144-2157.
- García, C. (2009). Intra-lingual pragmatic variation in the performance of reprimanding. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 6(4), 443-472.
- García, C. (2004). Coercion and cooperation: A case study of Argentinean reprimands and responses to reprimands. In R.M.Reiter and M.E.Placencia (eds.) *Current trends in the pragmatics of Spanish*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing C. (pp.231-264)
- Garcia, C. (1996). Reprimanding and responding to a reprimand: a case study of Peruvian Spanish speakers. *Journal of pragmatics*, 26(5), 663-697.
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 13(02), 215-247.
- Schmidt, R. W., & Richards, J. C. (1980). Speech acts and second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 1(2), 129-157.
- Searle, J. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vanderveken, D. (1990). *Meaning and speech acts: Principles of language use* (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.

# CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC RELATIVITY: THEIR IMPLICATIONS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**Teguh Sulistyio**

teguhsulistyio30@yahoo.co.id

KANJURUHAN UNIVERSITY OF MALANG

JL. Sodanco Supriyadi No. 48 Malang

## **Abstract**

*The main purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance of cultural contents in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesian context. ELT in Indonesia aims at empowering students to develop competence in communication, to increase students' awareness about the importance of English in the globalization era, and to develop students' understanding related to the relevance between the target language and its culture. Based on the fact that every language is unique structurally and culturally, it is important to present cultural contents in ELT for some reasons. Furthermore, realizing the inseparable relationship between language and culture, it is crucial to present intercultural contents covering both local and target cultural contents in ELT activities to make students realize similarities and differences between L1 and L2 to raise their awareness that there are varied worlds around them to inculcate cross-cultural respect. The present paper also provides some tips which are helpful for developing cross cultural understanding (CCU).*

**Keywords:** *cultural and linguistic relativity, cultural contents, cross cultural understanding, English language teaching.*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Linguistic relativity or the Sapir –Whorf hypothesis is the idea that culture, through language, affects the way we think (Gumperz and Levinson, 1999:1). As a result, language, as a system of arbitrary vocal and visual symbol, has its own uniqueness in terms of structure and culture (Kadarisman, 2009:214). This concept implies that there are no languages which are alike. Meanwhile, English language teaching (ELT) in Indonesia aims at enabling students to develop competence in communication, to increase students' awareness about the importance of English in the globalization era, and to develop students' understanding related to the relevance between the target language and its culture (Irmawati, 2013:153). In addition, an emphasis on developing students' moral and ethical character is evident in the 2013 National Indonesian Curriculum (Welsh, 2014:233). The facts imply that ELT is not only a matter of acquiring English competencies in terms of its systems but also how the students behave accordingly when using English in a communication with others across different nations and cultures.

Based on the fact that every language is unique structurally and culturally, it is important to present cultural contents in ELT for at least three reasons. First, language is a part of culture, and culture is a part of language (Brown, 2001:133). Second, since

language and culture are inseparable, ELT should be cultural content-oriented to make students able to use English correctly. Last but not least, understanding differences and similarities between two different cultures promotes students to be aware of cross-cultural understanding. As a result, the materials of English teaching-learning process should be able to facilitate students to understand the target language culture better, so they will be able to produce English utterances which are structurally and culturally accepted since according to Kadarisman (2009:205), in discussing the relationship between language and culture, most scholars in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) agree with the widely accepted view that language exists in culture and that cultural values express themselves, among other things, by means of language. Accordingly, a question to be answered is which cultural contents must be covered in ELT: local culture contents, target culture contents, or intercultural contents?

## 2 DIFFERENT LANGUAGES, DIFFERENT STRUCTURES AND CULTURES

The notion that each language has its own culture is probably best represented by the idea of Edwards (2003:176), who avows that the existence of different languages implies the existence of different cultures. In addition, the exact nature of the relationship between language and culture has fascinated, and continues to fascinate, people from a wide variety of backgrounds (Wardhaugh, 2006:221). It indicates that there are no two languages in the world which are the same. There may be some languages which are alike, but they are different. Furthermore, with regards to English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia, the notion that every language is structurally and culturally different may be illustrated clearly by comparing and contrasting between English and Indonesian.

Structurally, Indonesian is different from English. Basically, there are many differences between English structure and Indonesian structure. One such difference deals with the forms of singular and plural nouns. For instance, Indonesian applies repetition or reduplication to show plural forms or without changing the form, but English has regular and irregular nouns to show singular and plural forms (see Table 1).

*Table 1. A Comparison between Singular and Plural Forms in English and Indonesian*

NO	Singular	Plural
1	I have a <i>pen</i> . Saya mempunyai sebuah <i>pena</i> .	I have two <i>pens</i> . Saya mempunyai dua buah <i>pena</i> .
2	She has a <i>box</i> . Dia mempunyai sebuah <i>kotak</i> .	She has three <i>boxes</i> . Dia mempunyai tiga <i>kotak</i> .
3	The <i>fish</i> is cute. <i>Ikan</i> itu menggemaskan.	The <i>fish</i> are cute. <i>Ikan – ikan</i> itu menggemaskan.
4	The <i>man</i> came. <i>Orang</i> itu datang.	The <i>men</i> came. <i>Orang-orang</i> itu datang.

Table 1 shows that English has regular and irregular plural nouns, and the plural of most English nouns is formed by adding final – s, such **pens** (No.1). In contrast, **Pena**(No 1) in Indonesian does not change from a singular form into a plural one. Also, final – **es** is added to plural nouns that end in –**sh**, –**ch**, –**s**, and **x**, such as **box – boxes** (No. 2), yet the word **kotak** does not change from a singular into a plural form. The addition of final –

sand – **es**, or the plural of words that end consonant + **y** is spelled **iesis** called regular forms. Meanwhile, the same form of **fish** (No. 3) both for singular and plural noun and the change of **man** into **men** (No 4) are called irregular plural noun forms. On the contrary, the word **fish** (singular) is translated into **ikan**, and **fish** (plural) is translated into **ikan – ikan**, using reduplication in the Indonesian system.

The complexity of plural formation may result in grammatical errors made by Indonesian students. For instance, a sentence “My uncle has three childs” shows that there is an error of plural formation resulting from overgeneralization of adding – s for plural noun. The sentence should be “My uncle has three children” because the plural form of child is children. In this case, the error is caused by intralingual transfer since learners have just begun to acquire only insufficient parts of L2 system, and more intralingual transfer or overgeneralization within L2 commonly happens (Brown, 1987:178).

Regarding structural differences, Table 1 is a good thing to present to make students understand English structure better. In this respects Contrastive Analysis (CA) may take its important roles. CA basically is the analysis of L1 and L2 structures to find out their similarities and differences (Kadarisman, 2009:193), so learners will be able to master L2 much better. CA probably takes beneficial roles to overcome the problems as diagnostic and prognostic providers. Diagnostic deals with sources of errors, so teachers may be able to anticipate possible errors produced by learners. On the other hand, prognostic provides teachers’ awareness to plan and construct materials and methods needed by students to achieve the target language rules. Somehow, errors are evidences that learning takes place (Darus, 2009).

On the other hand, culturally, English is also different from Indonesian. As language is a mirror of the culture (Duranti in Kadarisman, 2009:172), the way Americans behave towards an issue will be probably different from what Indonesians do. For example, when asking a question in a class, an American student probably raises his or her left hand or right hand. It implies that American people believe that there is no significant difference between using a left hand or a right hand in various situations. In contrast, Indonesian students always use their right hand when asking a question. It shows that Indonesian people believe that kanan (right) is the symbol of good (polite) things, and kiri (left) reflects bad (impolite) ones. So, in Indonesian culture there is an utterance (song lyric by Ari Wibowo – an Indonesian singer) “Madu di tangan kananmu, racun di tangan kirimu” (Honey is in your right hand, and poison is in your left hand). Another example is that the term “golongan kanan and golongan kiri” to differentiate between a good party and a bad one is commonly used in some situation in Indonesian culture.

What is the implication? Indonesian people should use their right hand when offering something to another. In case they have to use their left hand, they have to say “Maaf – Permisi” (excuse me). Even an Indonesian left-handed child, for example, is considered a little bit odd and should be trained to use his/her right hand to write or hold something. In contrast, Americans or people of other English speaking countries do not differentiate between the importance of using left and right hands in community.

### 3 INTERCULTURAL CONTENTS IN ELT

Providing similarities and differences between L1 and L2 related to culture is considered an important wisdom to be taken by English teachers. This activity assesses students how the two languages are culturally unique and different. In addition, related to cultural similarities and differences, basically, there are three different cultural contents in

ELT activities: local culture contents, target culture contents, and intercultural contents (Cahyono, 2013:xi). Furthermore, Welsh (2011:40) states that learning an L2 automatically results in intercultural understanding. In addition, Byran & Morgan (1994:39) mention that:

*There exists today a widespread consensus concerning the justification of the demand that foreign language teaching should not just be limited to the mediation of competence in understanding and using other languages, but that, in addition or closely linked to this, foreign language teaching should include the mediation of knowledge about the culture, from which the language arises, and attitudes towards members of the culture.*

The following two examples figure out a failure in verbal communications between an Indonesian student with an English native speaker resulting a misunderstanding.

- (3-1) Example 1 (On a street somewhere in Indonesia).  
Indonesian : Hello, mister. Where are you going?  
Native Speaker: It's none of your business (annoying).  
Indonesian : ??? (confused)

The Indonesian basically tries to speak English, but he lacks of understanding the importance of applying an appropriate cultural content. As a result, there is a misunderstanding existing in the communication since he does not realize that asking 'where someone is going to' is considered very impolite in English speaking countries. In contrast, this kind of question commonly happens in Indonesian context.

- (3-2) Example 2 (At an airport somewhere in United States).  
Native speaker : What a beautiful necklace.  
Indonesia : Oh, it is very cheap.  
Native speaker : I don't care with the price (annoying).  
Indonesian : ??? (confused)

Example 2 describes the result of the failure in responding to an appreciation. In Indonesian context, an utterance "*Wah kalungmu sungguh indah*(What a beautiful necklace)" might be responded by saying "*wah ini murah kok* (It is very cheap)". Thus the Indonesian uses English with an Indonesia cultural convention which causes annoyance for the native speaker since the common acceptable response in English speaking countries might be 'thank you'.

Actually, a meaningful and successful communication can be carried out if there are mutual understandings between a speaker and a hearer by involving contexts of utterance (Chapman & Rutledge, 2009:86) even though they come from different nations or different cultures. It implies that it is of paramount importance to develop cross cultural understanding in a communication across nations or cultures.

To sum up, realizing the inseparable relationship between language and culture, it is crucial to present intercultural contents in which they cover both local and target cultural contents in ELT activities to make students realize similarities and differences between L1 and L2 to raise their awareness that there are varied worlds around them to inculcate cross-cultural respect (Edwards, 2003:188). In other words, intercultural

contents are the substances of language learning in which similarities and differences between two different cultures should be presented in a balanced way. In addition, communicating across cultures is a difficult pursuit for many students because they need to apply the right values or norms of different cultures. Probably, a certain action is considered a normal convention in one particular culture, but it is possibly rejected in the other culture.

Meanwhile, regarding some differences and similarities between L1 and L2 cultural contents, the question arising is that how to familiarize intercultural contents to promote cross-cultural understanding (CCU) since CCU is a part of a successful interaction between a speaker and a listener coming from different countries or cultures. The following tips may be helpful for developing cross-cultural understandings as suggested by Welsh (2011:41-42):

### **3.2 Exploring Definitions of Culture**

Culture is the integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior that depends upon man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations (Webster, 1989:314). The definition simply refers to the notion that language has two functions: (a) integrating knowledge and belief as the basics of a culture and (b) transforming a specific culture from one generation to the next ones (Kadarisman, 2009:23). However, according to Welsh (2014:239), if teachers promote a traditional notion of culture, then students are likely to view the world as a place with static cultural borders that reinforce a sense of 'us' and 'them' as being separate and constantly in opposition to each other. Thus providing the perspectives of culture in English Language Teaching activities, accordingly, will help students understand the existence and importance of culture in language teaching. Students will understand better that English language classroom should not only discuss utterances but also the dimension of culture – how culture influences language and how language conveys culture. This perspective will lead students to learn sociolinguistics. One such example is that students should understand why people living in a certain area speak faster than those living in other parts of the world or why they have different dialects and varieties, and such variation is a basic fact of linguistic style (Wardhaugh, 2006:25). Understanding this fact, students will be able to give an appropriate respect to others who have different ways of speaking in a communication across different cultures.

### **3.3 Discussing How Language Reflects Micro Culture**

A discussion on how to use language in a particular situation will be beneficial to help students to realize that even though they use a particular language they need to use the language properly in a specific situation. They have to understand that the way they speak with their friends is quite different from the situation when they have to speak to their headmaster. In this respect, they need to have adequate sociolinguistic competence.

The following examples reflect how to use formal and non-formal communications in both English and Indonesian contexts. In English context, for instance, an utterance "Sorry, I've to leave ye. See ya..." is surely conducted by two close friends or two persons having a very close relationship. In this case they have a non-formal dialogue. In contrast, the utterance is considered very rude if it spoken by a student to his headmaster. In this respect, the student has to apply a formal communication by saying "I am sorry, Sir. I have to go now. See you again, Mr. Edwards."

In Indonesia context, an expression of “when did you come?” is translated into “*Kapan kamu datang?*” in an acceptable non-formal communication conducted by two close friends. Yet, the utterance is not appropriate if it is addressed to the headmaster, so the student will then say “*Maaf, kapan Bapak datang?*”. It shows that someone needs to understand to whom he or she is talking, and he or she adjusts the appropriate modes of communication in specific contexts. The two examples prove that in communities, a good speaker must be able to understand kinds of communication settings he or she is facing.

### **3.4 Exploring Cross-Cultural Similarities and Differences**

Students need to know that there must be some differences and similarities between their own culture and the target culture. Thus teachers should provide intercultural contents as the materials of language teaching. The teachers, for instance, may provide similar contents such as “*Sukuran*” which represents Indonesian cultural contents and “Thanks Giving Party” which is originally taken from English/American culture. The teachers guide the students to find differences and similarities between the two events. Also, it is important to discuss moral values in the events, so the students understand that even though the events are different, but in some cases they are similar – both convey some good messages. Here nonverbal languages/behaviors across cultures include kinesics (facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, touch and posture and movements) and proxemics (the use of space, such as the distance people sit or stand) should be discussed (Gebhard, 2000:119). Videos or films are possibly appropriate sources to be discussed in a classroom to identify some specific features of a culture both for verbal and non-verbal language.

### **3.5 Promoting Tolerance of Differences**

After knowing similarities and differences between the two different cultures, the students should be motivated that they need to understand and tolerate differences between the two cultures. In this respect, the ability and willingness to tolerate differences will lead them to build their cross-cultural understanding. For example, after discussing similarities and differences between “*Sukuran*” and “Thanks Giving Party” and realizing that both are different in processions but convey similar messages, they never judge which one is much better. Instead, they are aware that they live in the world where similarities and differences are easily and normally found. Welsh (2014:241) suggests that if students are to truly become global citizens and agents of transformational change for a better world, they will require an understanding of other cultures but more importantly they will also need to be able to engage constructively in inter-cultural spaces. In other words, students need to understand how they behave accordingly in a heterogeneous society consisting of people having different cultures.

## **4 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS ON ELT**

Since every language is structurally and culturally unique, it is logically significant to discuss similarities and differences between Indonesian and English in English Language Teaching (ELT) settings. Regarding the uniqueness of structure, Contrastive Analysis (CA) should be a part of ELT to make students aware of the similarities and differences between structures of L1 and L2 because structurally English is different from Indonesian. Applying CA helps teachers a lot to predict the difficulties students may encounter.

In addition, as language and culture are intertwined and inseparable, it is strongly suggested that teachers be aware of the importance of presenting intercultural contents in

ELT activities. The intercultural- based activities might be hopefully effective to make students understand how to use English better both for verbal and non-verbal communications. The positive attitudes of the students towards similarities and differences between two different cultures also promote them to have cross-cultural understanding. In this case, the competence to have cross-cultural awareness contributes to increase students' tolerance towards differences between the two cultures.

The most significant implication of this paper is that the needs to provide the students with sufficient opportunities to use English language well by having intercultural contents with them. The teachers are responsible for familiarizing intercultural contents in English teaching and learning process in order to promote cross-cultural understanding. On the other hand, the students should be more active to learn not only the English language but also the culture where the language is spoken and widely used by its native speakers. Finally, it is absolutely suggested that intercultural contents take greater exposures in ELT since language and culture are two inseparable substances.

## REFERENCES

- Brown, Douglas H. 1987. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc
- Brown, Douglas H. 2001. *Teaching by Principle: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Pearson Longman
- Byran, Michael and Morgan, Carol. 1994. *Teaching and Learning: Language and Culture*. Frankfurt: Multilingual Matters Ltd
- Cahyono, Bambang Yudi. 2013. *Teaching English by Using Culture Contents*. Malang: State University of Malang Press.
- Chapman, S. & Rutledge, C. 2009. *Key Ideas in Linguistics and the Philosophy of Language*. Edinburg: Edinburg University Press.
- Darus, Saadiyah. 2009. Error Analysis of the Written English Essays of Secondary School Students in Malaysia: A Case Study. *European Journal of Social Sciences*. 8 (3): 483-495
- Edwards, John. 2003. *Multilingualism*. New York: The Taylor & Francis Group
- Gebhard, Jerry G. 2000. *Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Gumpers, John J. and Levinson, Stephen C. 1999. *Rethinking Linguistic Relativity*. Edinburg: Cambridge University Press.
- Irmawati, D.K. 2013. *Introducing American Culture through Halloween. Teaching English by Using Culture Contents*. Malang: Malang University Press.
- Kadarisman, Effendi. 2009. *Mengurai Bahasa Menyibak Budaya*. Malang: Universitas Negeri Malang Press
- Krauss, Robert. 2002. *The psychology of Verbal Communication*. Columbia University [www.columbia.edu/~rmk7/PDF/IESBS.pdf](http://www.columbia.edu/~rmk7/PDF/IESBS.pdf)
- Purba, Hemat. 2011. The Importance of Including Culture in EFL Teaching. *Journal of English Teaching*. Volume 1, Number 1. Pp. 46-56
- Wardhaugh, Ronald. 2006. *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Fifth Edition. Malden, Massachusetts. Blackwell Publishers.
- Webster's Ninth Collegiate Dictionary*. 1989. Springfield, Massachusetts: Merriem Webster Inc. Publishers
- Welsh, Alistair. 2011. Avoiding Stereotyping and Enhancing Intercultural Understanding. *TEFLIN Journal*. Vol 22, No. 1. Pp 34-44.

Welsh, Alistair. 2014. Promoting a Respect for Difference through Language Teaching.  
*TEFLIN Journal*. Vol 25, No. 2. Pp 233-242.

# OPTIMIZATION OF ICT IN LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP) AT SHARIA AND LAW FACULTY

(A Classroom Action Research in Sharia and Law Faculty, UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta)

## 1 BACKGROUND

As the language of international and global business communication, English becomes very important to be learnt. This is a main tool for people to communicate their business and academic knowledge. Also, English is needed in order to fulfill the international knowledge and other international information. Because English is a tool, it needed in all areas of science including (Islamic) Law.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is one of the programs in which to learn English tailored to the needs of science students. ESP is the teaching by using a special topic appropriate with the occupied areas of learners' study. ESP program combines scientific fields with English. It can motivate students because they can learn English at the same time they apply their knowledge based on their scientific field. Their skills in a particular field will ultimately improve their English achievement. Subject / materials used to provide the context of understanding that they need to learn English (David. 1983; Hutchinson dan Waters. 1990; Mackay and Mountford . 1992; Morrison. 2001; Robinson. 1988, ).

The term "Specific" in ESP refers to the specific purpose in learning English. Students approach the English language through a field of science that is relevant to their field. This means they can use what they learn in the ESP classroom directly in their studies. ESP approach will provide information on the relevance of what they learn through English, so learning English will be a very fun and easy for them.

Faculty of Sharia and Law is a barometer of Islamic economy and law in Indonesia. Therefore, it is necessary to increase the quality of student learning and apply it in a curriculum development that fits the needs of teaching and learning in the faculty. However, the problem is most of lecturers using many references that taken from books that using a foreign language (English), while students still hard to earn their English achievement. This is of course become an obstacle for them in understanding the English texts.

Improving the quality of learning and teaching English to synergize the needs of students in the learning materials will meet their needs in understanding English-language reference. Thus, a need analysis should be done before the process of teaching and learning in English. It is intended that students have focused on their language acquisition, especially in understanding English-language reference.

Thus, ESP is required as the program which can elaborate among materials, methodology and strategy in learning English for specific students. The convenient materials are a must in learning ESP. However, the accuracy of learning strategies becomes prominent in delivering ESP program. Indonesia has already had appropriate materials of ESP which are built based on the needs of occupational learners. But, still

most learners have difficulties in achieving the lesson. This problem found because teacher could not deliver the material in appropriate strategy. Teacher center becomes the favorite way in teaching it. Other reason, learners just try to understand the text and translate it into their native language (Dewi. 2012; Fahriany. 2009; Kultsum. 2012). This weakness makes the ESP teaching in the field failed. Whereas, Dudley-Evans (1998) emphasize ESP purpose should related orientation. This regards to the strategy of learning, such as business, marketing, creating logo and so on (Carver. 1983). Afterwards, a self direction which is about 'what, when and how' also important in part of learning ESP (Dudley-Evans. 1998). Therefore, the emphasis in the ESP program is not only on teaching materials but also teaching strategies.

ICT (information and communications technology - or technologies) is an umbrella term that includes any communication device or application, encompassing: radio, television, cellular phones, computer and network hardware and software, satellite systems and so on, as well as the various services and applications associated with them, such as videoconferencing and distance learning (Victoria, 2002). Information and communication technologies (ICTs)—which include radio and television, as well as newer digital technologies such as computers and the Internet—have been touted as potentially powerful enabling tools for educational change and reform. When used appropriately, different ICTs are said to help expand access to education, strengthen the relevance of education to the increasingly digital workplace, and raise educational quality by, among others, helping make teaching and learning into an engaging, active process connected to real life (Victoria, 2012).

The Internet which is an integral aspect of the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is becoming an indispensable tool for quality teaching, learning and research in an academic setting. Internet is a tool that can be used as an effective aid in teaching. The internet is defined as a network of networks of millions of computers in the world, communicating and sharing information with each other. It is an information superhighway that provides unlimited access to a wealth of information on different topics contributed by people throughout the world (Griffith. 2002; Leiner, et al. 2002; Scholastic. 2003).

Currently, almost all students have and understand the use of technological means and make it as important needs in their lives. Similarly, in the study, many students rely on the use of technology. They do a lot of browsing, communication and reading through the internet and other gadgets that supply the information about the subject. Therefore, In teaching ESP which requires a lot of resources and unfamiliar terms language, technology is considered very necessary to be used. The use of ICT is expected to improve their English language learning and changing the model of student learning.

For further study, I will explore ICT program more complete, it's not only for reading materials but also for writing. ICT can be used for both students and teacher as major tool in the teaching of ESP in order to help teacher who does not have the background knowledge in accordance of occupation. Teacher will compile the occupation English materials through ICT and students access them before the class begins. These materials will also provide teacher content knowledge then he/she can develop their occupation information before he/she starts teaching.

**Furthermore, the use of ICT provides Task-based learning** that focuses of classroom activity which students use to complete it. The task is an activity in which students use language to achieve a specific outcome. The activity reflects real life and learners focus on meaning, they are free to use any language they want (Bowen. 2000).

### **1.1 Limitation of the Problems**

This research aims to optimization the use of ICT at Sharia and LAW Faculty, UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta. It will integrated English subject with other subjects in various departments in the Faculty. It will incorporate the elements of Work-Integrated Learning, Content and Language Instructional Learning (CLIL). English subject is purposively selected because every departments in every university includes the subjects in their curriculum. However, English subject in various department still have a dim direction in terms of goals and instructional materials (Dewi 2012).

#### **A. Research Question**

The objectives of this study are:

1. Whether the optimization of Information and Communications Technology - or Technologies (ICT) in teaching ESP can provide students' improvement.
  - a. Does ICT improve students' comprehension in Reading ESP?
  - b. Does ICT improve students writing skill?
2. What is the merit/demerit of optimization of Information and Communications Technology - or Technologies (ICT) in teaching-learning ESP program?

#### **B. Research Objectives**

This research would serve as a prototype model of using ICT in various departments at UIN Syarif Hidayatullah. Further, a lucid information of the impacts of integrated subjects can be utilized to enhance other similar program.

#### **C. Significance of the Research**

This research is expected to provide benefits and contributions both theoretically and practically to the following parties:

##### 1. Theoretical Benefits

This research is expected to provide the optimization of ICT, especially on subjects that integrate English with other subjects

##### 2. Practical Benefits

- a. For researchers: This study is expected to deepen insight about learning strategy using ICT.
- b. For the University: This research is expected a result in recommendations for improvement in teaching strategy and provide an overview of the courses can be integrated with other subjects.

#### D. Theoretical Framework and Conceptual

##### 1. Definition of ESP

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the teaching by using a special topic appropriate with the occupied areas of learners' study. ESP program combines scientific fields with English. It can motivate students because they can learn English at the same time they apply their knowledge based on their scientific field. Their skills in a particular field will ultimately improve their English achievement. Subject / materials used to provide the context of understanding that they need to learn English (David. 1983; Hutchinson dan Waters. 1990; Mackay and Mountford . 1992; Morrison. 2001; Robinson. 1988, ).

The term "Specific" in ESP refers to the specific purpose in learning English. Students approach the English language through a field of science that is relevant to their field. This means they can use what they learn in the ESP classroom directly in their studies. ESP approach will provide information on the relevance of what they learn through English, so learning English will be a very fun and easy for them.

In learning English, ESP is more emphasis on the context of the language rather than the teaching grammar. In other words, English teaching focused on the needs of each field, such as English for tourism, accounting, science, computers, economics, law and many others. ESP focus in teaching English that does not separate between subject matter and the fields of learners (Jeremy Day and Mark Krazanowski, 2011).

In Indonesia context, English for Specific Subject are starting from the preparation of the subject matter up to the implementation in class. As it is explained above, the objective of occupation learning, creating and designing a student with certain skill proficiency used in work skill. So the objective of the subject matter should also support it. Additionally, BSNP (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan*) defined the content standard of ESP program that are:

- 1) Mastering the basic knowledge and skills to support the achievement of English language competency skills program.
- 2) Implementing mastery skills in English to communicate both orally and in writing at the intermediate level.

Based on the two purposes above, ESP definitely concern to support the skill or proficiency in the work field and the teaching learning process in vocational school or department.

Robinson (1988) stated; there are three characters in ESP programs that different from general English:

- 1) ESP program is oriented in purpose. It means that language is learnt not as grammatical rules or as a part of culture. But they learn ESP because it has a special purpose, and specific in certain academic fields and professions.
- 2) The substance of ESP is designed and developed based on the concept of needs analysis. The concept of needs analysis aims to specialize, associate, and bring what it takes of students in both the academic and professional fields.
- 3) ESP is more targeted at adult learners (in these case college students) than in children or teenagers. This is logical since ESP is generally taught at the middle and high levels of academic and professional or workplace.

## 2. Kinds of ESP

David (1983) defines the three types of ESP:

- 1) English as a language is restricted;
- 2) English for academic purposes and employment (English for Academic and Occupational Purposes-EAOP);
- 3) English with specific topics.

English used by the air regulator or by waiters are examples of English as the restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1992) clearly illustrate the difference between the restricted language and language in general:

*“...the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as ‘special’ in the sense that reporter required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situational. As must be the linguistic needs of the dining room waiter or air hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not a grammar. Knowing a restricted ‘language’ would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation or in contexts outside the vocational environment”.*

The second type of ESP is English for employment or academic purposes (EAOP). Hutchinson and Waters (1990) in the Tree of ELT say that ESP is divided into three branches, which are; (1) English for Science and Technology, (2) English for Business and Economics, and (3) English for Social Studies. Each subject is divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Example is the English for Technicians EOP and EAP example is English for Medical Study. The third type of ESP is English with specific topics. This type of learning with the use of specific topics based on the theme of learning that is appropriate to the needs of or related to the knowledge of college students. Topics have been selected and designed in English language learning materials in accordance with the development of language skills including speaking, listening, reading and writing. The pattern or strategy can be applied in the form of delivery of the reading text. Then from the text, students can conduct discussions, comprehension, and others.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a learning approach that focuses on both content and language teaching. That is, in teaching learning process teacher should emphasize the integration between language materials and content materials based on student’s learning outcome in the curriculum (Coyle / Hood / Marsh (2010: 1).

Achieving this two-fold aim calls for the development of a special approach to teaching in that the non-language subject is not taught *in* a foreign language but *with* and *through* a foreign language (Eurydice (2006: 8). CLIL has been applied in Europe for about 25 years. Thus, government and shareholders supported and liked it. Therefore, this program relatively smooths to be run in the country (Clegg, 2012).

## 3. Information and Communications Technology - or Technologies (ICT)

### a. Technology integrated in teaching learning process

Technology is essential for today teaching and learning. Teacher, parents and students prefer to take technology for educate the children (Eady and Lockyer, 2013). Students today may have been born into a technologically rich world; they may not be avid and

skilful users of technology (Bennett, Maton & Kervin, 2008). Therefore, students today cannot be separated from technology not only in their learning but also in their life.

To face this phenomenon, it is the time for school and teacher to develop the integrated curriculum where technology takes a part in a learning process. It does not mean students should know how to use the technology, but how students can apply technology related knowledge and skills (Eady and Lockyer, 2013). In other words, a teacher has many considerations and influences in designing learning experiences for students, and the appropriate use of technology is but one of those considerations. Just as teachers keep up to date with curriculum developments, new educational policies and advances in the art and science of teaching practice, they keep up to date with the technological tools that are available to them (Eady and Lockyer, 2013; Heidi, 2013; Kolb, 2014).

#### **b. The use of Smartphone or mobile phones in learning language.**

In language education, both teacher and students can do online learning that accomplish learning in new and exciting ways by sourcing information from the Internet (Schrum, 2000).

The use of gadgets becomes the favorite equipment for teacher and students to enhance the instruction. One of them is Smart phone. Even it is still controversial, the use of Smartphone is necessary to help students in finding many sources (Heidi, 2013). Kolb in a research (<http://www.cellphonesinlearning.com/>) mentioned that:

- 88% of teenagers own a Smartphone (with Internet) or basic cell phone (without Internet)
- Most teenagers send about 30 text (SMS) messages per day
- Most popular apps are KIK and WhatsApp
- 91% of teenagers primarily use a mobile device to go online
- If teenagers own a mobile device with Internet access, 94% go online daily, while only 68% of teenagers who own a mobile device without Internet access go online each day (through a standalone computer or other type of device)

The rapid growth of access to mobile phones around the world and in Africa and Middle East regions in particular have a potential of improving teaching, learning and institutional efficiencies to enable national education system transformation (UNESCO, 2012). Mobilephones and Smartphones facilitate students not only in accessing web based contents, remix it, and share it, but also open collaborative and communicative learning among students and teachers (Ferry, 2009).

In learning ESP program for higher education, for example, smart phones give significant facility. From there, students can find many related texts, the basic law of a case, and analyze a recent issue then discuss it in the class. Thus, students can do learning outside the class when they can learn together in using the free chat on their Smartphone. By using their Smartphone, students have their motivation in solving their learning problems (Kolb, 2014).

In ESP class, at Sharia and Law faculty, students elaborated their smart and mobile phones to search many issues of law and take one the issue to be discussed with their classmates. Later, they start to write an idea about what they have discussed. Also, by using their mobile, they sent some message to develop their sentences about a topic. Here, they can learn how to build proper simple sentences.

In discussing a picture, such as a picture of moot court, sequences of procedures, map and schemes, teacher and students looked off the picture through internet and their Smartphone, and then they described it into a writing task. Here, they start write a descriptive writing.

## 2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The classroom action research is used to conduct the application of the teaching strategy. Classroom action research is a way to develop teaching strategy to enhance student's leaning achievement. Thus, in classroom action research, we can measure the proper methodology and strategy for students learning (Hole and McEntee, 1999). This is the effective way to improve our teaching strategy. Thus, it can help us to discover the best way of teaching for particular students. In other words, this study can find out what the exactly need for students in their learning habit (Mettetal, 2001). Therefore, in order to achieve students' goal in learning ESP, I try to apply the use of ICT, in this case, the use of Smartphone to facilitate students learning.

This research conducted in Law Science Department semester II, Sharia and Law Faculty, UIN Syarif Hiidayatullah Jakarta. There are two classes of Law Science Department, class A and B. to make more effective, I only take class A as my research sample. Class A consists of 25 students. 20 persons of them (80%) graduated from public and private general high school and other five students (20%) graduated from Islamic school and Islamic Boarding school (*pesantren*). Their background, in somehow, describe their ability in using English. Therefore, I decided to rise up their learning level into writing English. The research was conducetd in 2<sup>nd</sup> February – 25<sup>th</sup> of May 2015.

## 3 RESEARCH FINDINGS

There are two cycles in the research. Each cycle consist of four meetings. In the first cycle, I introduced them the basic knowledge of writing and explain about how to develop their writing habits. In this cycle, students start to describe a picture and write their opinion about the picture. Later, students used their Smartphone to find out the picture and start to describe it into writing. After that, they share their writing task to others, and let others analyze each other tasks. In the evaluation, it was recognized that students have difficulties in developing their sentence. Therefore, I give them some homework in the end of the class. The first homework is developing sentence through text message. They have one week to sent a word to their friends and let others to resentence the words. After that, other will continue the sentence into more complete sentence. The second homework was analyzing an issue based on the case that they have learned. In this task, students start to make simple and compound sentence. They start develop their writing into longer sentence. In this session, students start writing a paragraph.

The evaluation of the first cycle was students reached their motivation in learning writing. It can be seen that they submit their homework on time and can analyze many different issues and discuss them into their paragraph. In analyzing session, they give their high intention on reading their friends text. Thus, they also discuss any problems that they have found in the text with their lecturer. It can be concluded that they curios and serious to develop their writing task. However, ESP faces them with many difficult words that they have less inferences about the termination. It can be seen from their writing task, where they have used very limit vocabularies of legal terms. Therefore, in the reflection, I tried to let students to use their Smartphone to help the language terms.

The second cycle was made in four meetings and was closed with the writing test. In this cycle, students were challenged in writing complex sentence. Furthermore, they use the application of Smartphone during the class. This, in fact, helps them a lot to find out many termination about legal English. In this session, students also start to write complex sentence and make a small essay. The essay is oriented into describing a sequence or procedure. I make some map of procedures and they write the description into some paragraph. The process start in how using sequences words such as, first, second, and then, later, after that and so on. These words should be selected in their writing task. After the lesson, students was asked to make a sequence and describe it into a paragraph. In this cycle, Smartphone was very crucial to accommodate the writing process. For example, they can look up many example of one procedure and find out much information about how to do something. Thus, it also helped them to develop the definition about some words such as, moot court, obligation, persecutor, attorney, act, regulation and so on. The cycle also completed with the full essay writing. In this session, students were challenged to develop their mind by writing full text of essay in the complete of writing procedure including *introduction*, *body* and *closing*. Students were allowed to use their smart phone to help their language and find out legal information to support their reasons. At the end of the cycle, students made a great achievement compare with the achievement before the treatment. The test is made on writing model with writing rubrics. Here are the results:

Respondent	Pre test	Post test
Student 1	65	72
Student 2	63	70
Student 3	70	75
Student 4	71	76
Student 5	74	75
Student 6	70	72
Student 7	70	70
Student 8	70	70
Student 9	65	70
Student 10	65	70
Student 11	66	70
Student 12	72	75
Student 13	70	70
Student 14	72	75
Student 15	68	70
Student 16	72	80
Student 17	68	74
Student 18	68	72
Student 19	65	70
Student 20	65	72
Student 21	65	71
Student 22	71	78
Student 23	71	76
Student 24	71	75
Student 25	75	80





























the strategies would operate for. In so doing, Hofstede, Peterson, and Hofstede (2002: xv) recommend for teacher as the cross-cultural educator to include stories and exercises that connect between culture theory and learning practices.

In implementing the first strategy in the classroom, teacher as the outsider observer wishes to know the procedures on the making of local things by one to another student. This activity ran through the developed lesson plan, though. Yet, for most of the stages of the lesson plan, teacher should help a few students whose text writings need editing and/ or revision. Instead, it is considered more objective and, therefore, effective for students to experience on learning to write in English (language) where there is teacher who carefully guides. Both of these positions have become teacher's critical concern to change the lesson plan an effective and efficient one.

Next, teacher practiced what the fellow teacher suggested to plan a fixed schedule of instruction that would apply the strategies to the following meetings. Following this suggestion, planed on the next three lesson plans one hour meeting outside the classroom (See appendix 3). Along with this short time, teacher acts as a student who wishes to investigate much more detail on students' culture; on the other hand, students chaired on source of information. Spoken language is the mode used over the meeting promotes students' real life experience realized on different culture contexts. Hinkel (2001: 450) views on EFL activity as such must increase their awareness of the significance of the sociocultural dimensions. More, Saville-Troike (2003:89) contends that there is an advantage marked over the pattern of investigation, since teacher is inclusively studying with SS on their culture to make things explicit a plane of understanding which are implicit. Deeply, both partners are ethnographers who enable themselves to thematically pack attached content. Dunnet, Dubin and Lezberg (1986: 148) shed light on this way of teaching a technique which meets to the principle of cultural understanding, where teacher focuses on both students' background and the materials utilized.

Come to classroom teaching and learning with 90 minutes Writing Classroom Application, teacher adjusts students' writing to meet the requirements. Here, there is appropriation and internalization of input, both from teacher and students. The ultimate goal of this activity is to permit acquisition throughout their texts writing. Long cited in Johnson (2004: 12) shows adjustment promotes knowledge of context represented on text. Placing varying activities across writing classroom application, then, promotes comprehensible input on what and how to write. As result, there is acquisition of both cross-cultural knowledge structure and ways that language helps communicate them through text writings.

The implementing practice, on the one hand, comprises teaching writing components; such as, there is a plenty of time for organizing students' content knowledge over good use of English writing practices. Although, a number of challenges accompanied teacher's critical period of planning, implementation, and revision, the implementation of the cultural-based approach in this course figures out ready-use content knowledge to organize in classroom application. Towards this implementing design, teacher is aware of the playing of such a crucial role to students, and so for students, that they have to casually act things out against the vacuum style.

There is text placing the spoken and written zones. Widdowson (2011: 4) contends that the realization of a text is in isolation to context of students' cultural background. So, its production should communicate the information on different text types. Bearing in mind that the model generates the continuum production of text with the same content from spoken to written, the present study focuses on how learners communicate local-based contents on different text types writing. Sequence of the

































- Driscoll, R. (2010) *Test-Anxiety Reduction Improves Test Scores*. [online] Available at: <http://www.peacewithmyself.com/tests/MANUAL.pdf> [Accessed: 21st November 2012].
- Driscoll, R. (2004) *Westside Test Anxiety Scale Validation*. [online] Available at: <http://www.testanxietycontrol.com/research/sv.pdf> [Accessed: 20 Apr 2013].
- Rana, R. and Mahmood, N. (2010) The Relationship between Test Anxiety and Academic Achievement . *Bulletin of Education and Research* , 32 (2), p.63.
- Sarason, I. (2013) Stress, Anxiety, and Cognitive Interference: Reactions to Tests. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46 (4).

































- Essential Tasks and Skills, Michigan: The Michigan University Press.
- Safnil 2001. Rhetorical Structure Analyses of Indonesian Research Articles, unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation in the Australian National University, Canberra Australia.
- Soler-Monreal, Carmen and Luz Gil-Salmon. 2011. A Cross-language Study on Citation Practice in Ph.D. Theses, in *IJES*, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp: 53-75











- Takač, V. P. (2008). *Vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language acquisition*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Wenden, A. L. (1987). Conceptual background and utility. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learners strategies in langauge learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.





















- Pennycook, A. (1998). *English and the Discourses of Colonialism*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Rizvi, F. & Lingard, B. (2010). *Globalizing education policy*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Sekolahdasar.net. (2012). Inilah alasan dilakukannya perubahan kurikulum. Retrieved from <http://www.sekolahdasar.net/2012/11/inilah-alasan-dilakukannya-perubahan.html>
- Wodak, R., de Cillia, R., Reisigl, M., & Liebhart, K. (2009). *The discursive construction of national identity, second edition*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

















- Lombardi, M. M. (2008). Making the Grade: The Role of Assessment in Authentic Learning. *Assessment in Authentic Learning*, 1-16.
- Mertler, C. A. (2011). *Action Research: Mengembangkan Sekolah dan Memberdayakan Guru*. Yogyakarta: Pustakan Pelajar.
- Ministry of Education and Culture. (2013). *Materi Pelatihan Guru Implementasi Kurikulum 2013*. Indonesia: Ministry of Education and Culture.
- Moon, T. R., Brighton, C. M., Callahan, C. M., & Robinson, A. (2005). Development of Authentic Assessments for the Middle School Classroom. *Journal of Advanced Academics*(XVI), 119–133.
- Olfos, R., & Zulantay, H. (2007). Reliability and Validity of Authentic Assessment in a Web Based Course. *Educational Technology & Society*, 156-173.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Pierce, L. V. (1996). *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners: Practical Approach for Teachers*. United States: Longman.
- Satori, D., & Komariah, A. (2010). *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*. Bandung : Alfabeta.
- Wiggins, G. (1989). A True Test: Toward More Authentic and Equitable Assessment. *70* (9), 703-713.

# TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON THE WASHBACK EFFECT OF ENGLISH NATIONAL EXAMINATION: THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHERS

**Yessy Tri Noviani**  
yessynoviani@gmail.com

**Wulandari Putri**  
wulandari.putri.d@gmail.com

*Indonesia University of Education*  
Bandung

## **Abstract**

*The washback effect of a high stakes test may vary in different situations. It can be either positive or negative, and strong or weak. One of the factors influencing the washback of a high stakes test is the suitability of the curriculum implemented with the test content. This study is aimed at investigating the English teachers' perception on the washback effect of the English National Examination as a high stakes test. Moreover, the way teachers keep abreast with the demands of curriculum and the test and will be revealed. This descriptive qualitative study employed the interview technique in collecting the data taken from two English teachers teaching in public and private schools. The findings indicate that the washback effects that exist in the private school are stronger than in the public school. In addition, both teachers agree that the curriculum is not really in line with the test content.*

**Keywords:** *washback effect, high stakes test, English National Examination, curriculum*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

English is one of the subjects that are compulsory to be taught in Secondary schools in Indonesia. It is due to the fact that English is one of the subjects to be tested in National Examination. To pass the National Examination is a prerequisite for students in Indonesia in order to continue their study to the higher level of education. It is obviously stated in the Government Regulation Number 144 year 2014 on the National Standards of Education that students have to fulfill several requirements to graduate from school and one of the requirements is to pass the National Examination. Moreover, the scores taken from the National Examination will give 50% contribution to the students' final scores.

Considering its crucial effect, the English National Examination in Indonesia is categorized as a high stakes test. High stakes test is "any test for which students' performances have a meaningful impact either on those students or on the educators who taught them" (Popham, 2002:1 in Solorzano, 2008). High stakes test will result in important decision that will give a great impact not only to the students but also the

teachers, schools, communities, and districts (Madaus, 1988 in Au, 2007). Moreover, it was explained that high stakes test possessed the power to influence teacher's and students' behavior. Thus, high stakes test needs to be paid extra attention by teachers, students, and the education stake holders as well.

Consequently, a test with important effect will contain what is called washback effect and vice versa (Wall, 1993 in Bailey, 1999). Washback effect is "[t]he effect of tests on teaching and learning" (McNamara, 2000:73). Following Tayeeb et al. (2014), teachers and students are those who are directly affected by the washback. Specifically, the washback gave a great impact not only to teaching method but also the teachers and student's attitude and motivation. Thus, the English National Examination will have washback effect to the teaching and learning.

In spite of the fact that Indonesia is now implementing a new curriculum in education which is Curriculum 2013, most of the schools in Indonesia are still implementing Curriculum 2006, which is widely known as KTSP, for students of the last grade. KTSP was introduced in 2006 and became compulsory across Indonesia in 2009 (Sulfasyah, 2013). One of the distinctive features of Curriculum 2006 is that its emphasis on authentic assessment. Moreover, it is also supported by the Government Regulation Number 66 year 2013 about the use of authentic assessment in the classroom. According to this regulation, teachers are expected to use authentic assessment in assessing students. Authentic assessment is the type of assessment in which the teaching instruction is related with the student's real world experience (Dikli, 2003). The authentic assessment can be in the forms of performance-based assessment, project-based assessment, and so forth.

Turner (2006) stated that the ideal educational system is where the curriculum, teaching practice, and testing are in line. However, it seems convincing that there is a gap between the curriculum demand and the test in Indonesia since the English National Examination is presented in paper-based test in the form of multiple choices. According to Frederiksen (1984), multiple choice format test is more efficient than the other types of tests such as performance-based test, open-ended questions, etc, but it may leave important abilities untested. Multiple choice test, as one kind of traditional assessments offers the higher level of practicality as well (Brown, 2001). However, Curriculum 2006 expects teachers to create a learning atmosphere that accommodate students to enhance their critical thinking through varieties of meaningful, contextual, and authentic learning activities. Meanwhile, the washback effect of high stakes test may trigger teacher-centered learning (Au, 2007) where teachers then tend to focus only on the materials to be tested (Gunzenhauser, 2003 in Palmer&Rangel, 2010). Parallel with the statement, Johnston & McClune (2000) in Aysel (2012) believed that because of high stakes examination, teachers may tend to focus on training their students to pass the exam and use teaching methods that are not beneficial in promoting students' learning.

Explicitly, this study is aimed at bringing to the fore the washback effect of English National Examination based on the teachers' point of view. The areas which are likely to be affected by the English National Examination which may involve teaching content, teaching method, and teaching activities will be examined. Moreover, teachers' perception of the English National Examination and how they keep abreast with the demands of curriculum will be revealed. Furthermore, since this study involves teachers from both private and public school, it will be compared whether there are differences between the private and public school in facing the English National Examination.

This study is influenced by several studies in the same field that have been conducted. Aysel (2012) had investigated the effects of high stakes examination on the teaching and learning in post-primary education in Ireland and Turkey. The result showed that the examination systems in both countries affect the teaching practice and students'

learning. It was also reported that the high stakes examination gave less positive washback effect than negative washback effect. Another study by Tsagari (2011) focused on the influence of high stakes English examination on the teaching content. The findings showed that the teachers believed that the exam needs extra preparation and what was taught in the classroom was influenced by the test content.

## 2 RESEARCH METHOD

This research employed a descriptive-qualitative research design which has been widely used in educational research (Elliot & Timulak, 2005). Following Lambert & Lambert (2012), descriptive-qualitative research is aimed at attaining comprehensive summarization of specific experience of individual or groups.

Two English teachers from one public senior high school and one private senior high school were involved as the subjects of this research. The technique used in selecting samples is purposive sampling. It was due to the purpose of this research which is intended to investigate whether there is a difference of public and private schools in facing English National Examination.

The instrument used in this research was interview which was presented in open-ended questions. The questions were designed to be able to elicit several important points of the teachers' perception towards the English National Examination. The interview questions were then piloted on December 15th 2014 to an English teacher who will not be assigned as the sample of this research. Finally, the one-to-one interview was conducted on December 18th 2014. The duration of each interview was about 40 minutes. Considering the limited time, note taking technique was employed in this interview. The data analysis of this research is based on the framework analysis of qualitative data established by Creswell (2003). The first step was sorting and arranging the data taken from the interview. After that, the data were coded and classified into meaning units. Next, the description generated by each meaning units were collected. Lastly, the descriptions were used as the basis to interpret the whole data. Moreover, the interpretation presented was based on the reflection of theoretical foundation of the research as well.

## 3 FINDINGS & DISCUSSIONS

### 3.1 The English teachers' perceptions on the washback effect of the English National Examination

The data taken from the interview showed that the English teachers' perceptions on the washback effect of the English National Examination were various. The teachers agreed that the washback effect existed because of the status of the English National Examination which was a high stakes test. Besides, it was also revealed that there were some similarities and differences between the perceptions of English teachers teaching in public and private schools. In details, the teachers' perceptions are depicted in the following table.

*Table 1 The English Teachers' Perceptions on the Washback Effect of the English National Examination*

English teacher of a public school	English teacher of a private school
The power of the washback effect of	The washback effect of English National

<p>English National Examination has decreased due to the fact that the score is no longer be the only determiner in determining students' graduation. The results of the English National Examination should be used to measure the quality of national education, not to determine the students' future.</p>	<p>Examination is still strong due to the fact that the result of the test directly influences the reputation of the school. The results of the English National Examination should be used to measure the quality of national education, not to determine the students' future.</p>
---	--

Teacher #1 who taught in a public school stated that the English National Examination as a high stakes test had been the primary concern of the school for many years. It was due to the fact that the result of the test would directly determine whether students were able to graduate or not. Therefore, in every year, students of the last grade were automatically directed to the preparation of the test. The test preparation was specially designed to prepare students to the test and it demanded the extra time beyond the school regular time. In addition, the teacher said that the test preparation was started from about 2-3 months before the exam.

However, since the government released the regulation that said that the students' score on the National Examination is not the only determiner used in deciding students' graduation, several changes occurred in the teacher's, students', and also school's attitude towards the English National Examination. The regulation stated that the score of the National Examination contributes 50% of the students' graduation. The rest 50% includes the students' daily scores, the accumulation of the students' scores from the first semester until the last semester, and the students' affective scores. As the result, the teacher tended to be more relax in facing the English National Examination in compared to the previous years before the regulation was released. Moreover, the teacher said that even though the worst point (there are students who do not pass the test and therefore do not graduate from the school) happened, the other alternative way to graduate which was "Paket C" program was available.

On the other side, teacher #2 who taught in a private school stated that although the scores taken from the National Examination was not the only determiner in determining the students' graduation, the National Examination still became the main concern of the teachers, schools, and the parents as well. It was due to the fact that the result of the National Examination would directly influence the reputation of the school. Also, the result of the National Examination was seen as the form of accountability of teachers and schools to the parents. Moreover, the teacher said that the existence of a private school depended on its reputation in the society. Thus, the teacher and school did the extra work in preserving the students' scores of the National Examination from year to year.

The findings from both teachers' perception were parallel with Wall (1993, cf. Bailey 1999) who believed that the test with important consequences will result in washback effect, and vice versa. An essential point that can be drawn from the findings is that the higher the degree of power of a test, the stronger the washback effect will likely to exist, and vice versa.

Moreover, the similarities of the teachers' perception could be seen in the point of their disagreement of the high stakes status of the English National Examination. Both of the English teachers agreed that the English National Examination should not be used as a high stakes test since they believed that it was not fair to assess the students' three-years-learning by one-day-test. Nevertheless, the teachers believed that the English

National Examination is worth to administer if it is aimed at mapping and knowing the quality of the national education.

In more specific ways, the English teachers' perception on the washback effect of the English National Examination can be classified into two; negative and positive washback effects, as presented in the table below.

*Table 2 The English Teachers' Perception on the Positive and Negative Washback Effect of the English National Examination*

Public Schools		Private Schools	
Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Effective way to measure the students' achievements nationally Forcing the students to learn Motivating the teacher to teach better	Demotivating the students	Effective way to measure the quality of national education	Demotivating the teacher to teach Leading the teacher to teach the test

The English teacher who taught in a public school believed that the English National Examination could be an effective way to measure students' achievements nationally. Also, she suggested that the English National Examination was helpful in forcing the students to learn. By the existence of the English National Examination, students were forced to study better, even some students were enrolled in a course which was intended to help in the test preparation. Moreover, the English National Examination motivated the teacher to teach better as well. However, the teacher stated that the English National Examination might demotivate the students to learn since the students might feel under pressure because of the test.

Similar with the perception of the English teacher in the public school, the English teacher who taught in a private school also believed that the English National Examination was effective to measure the students' achievements. However, he believed that the existence of the English National Examination might demotivate the teacher to teach since the dishonesty of the test is often found. Besides, the teacher explained that the English National Examination might lead the teacher to teach the test, not the teaching materials as suggested by the curriculum.

### 3.2 The Washback Effect of the English National Examination on the Teaching and Learning Practice

In relation with the washback effect of the English National Examination on the teaching and learning practice, the findings drawn from the interviews with both English teachers were slightly different. The data were then depicted as follows.

*Table 3 The Washback Effect of the English National Examination on the Teaching and Learning Practice*

	Public School	Private School
Teaching materials	No effect	Yes. The use of test preparation book
Teaching method	No effect	No effect

<b>Teaching content</b>	No effect	Yes. The learning objectives are suited with the test.
<b>Assessment used in the classroom</b>	No effect	No effect
<b>Time allocated</b>	No effect (4 hours/week)	Yes. (6 hours/week)
<b>Extra time for test preparation</b>	Yes	Yes
<b>Motivation</b>	Yes. Motivated to teach better	Yes. Demotivated to teach
<b>Pressure</b>	No effect	Yes. Pressure from society.

Following the data collected, it was reported that for the English teacher who taught in a public school, the washback effect of the English National Examination was quite weak. It was proven by the number of areas affected by the test. The teacher explained that the washback effect of the test did not affect her teaching materials, teaching content, or teaching method. Moreover, the types of assessments used in the classroom were various and were not aligned with the test. Also, the time allocated for English followed the instruction of the curriculum which was 4 hours per week. Moreover, the time for teaching the test content was provided in the test preparation class. In this point, the teacher said that the test preparation was essential as the effort to attain a high score in the test. In addition, the teacher admitted that the English National Examination gave no pressure for her and even motivated her to teach better.

On the contrary, the washback effect of the English National Examination seemed to be quite strong in the private school. The teacher stated that the English National Examination affected the teaching materials since the books for test preparation were used in the classroom. As the result, the teaching objectives were affected as well. Moreover, the crucial points that should be underlined were related to the time allocated and the effect of the test on the teacher's motivation. The teacher stated that in his school, the time allocated for the subjects tested exceeded the time allocation instructed by the curriculum. Normally, the time allocated for English was 4 hours per week. However, in his school, English was taught 6 hours per week. In addition, the extra time for test preparation was also provided. Moreover, the teacher explained that the test demotivated him to teach due to the fact that the dishonesty is often found in the test. Also the teacher admitted that the test gave a lot of pressures. It was related to the parent's and society's expectation of the high scores of the National Examination.

The findings are in line with the Washback Hypothesis proposed by Alderson & Wall (1993, in Pan, 2008) that stated that a test will influence teaching and learning; teaching method, teaching content, students' attitude, teachers' attitude, etc. However, it should be noted that the washback effects of a test may be various.

### 3.3 The English National Examination in relation with the Curriculum

The curriculum implemented in Indonesia (Curriculum 2006 and Curriculum 2013) put its emphasis on the authentic assessment. Meanwhile, the National Examination is administered in an indirect test in the form of multiple choices. The data taken from the interview to elicit how the English teachers keep abreast with the curriculum and the test showed that the English teachers worked extra hard to fulfill the demands of the curriculum and to lead the students to get a high score in the English National

Examination. It was due to the fact that based on the perspectives of the English teachers, the curriculum and the test were not really in line.

Teacher #1 emphasized the content of curriculum in the teaching practice instead of teaching the test content. She believed that if she taught appropriately and the students could understand the materials well, it would not be a problem whether the English National Examination would be presented in the form of indirect or direct test. Nevertheless, she said that perhaps it would be better if the English National Examination involved the four language skills; reading, writing, listening, and speaking in order to make the curriculum and the test in line.

On the contrary, teacher #2 explained that sometimes the teacher disobeyed the instruction of the curriculum to use various assessments such as performance-based assessment, project-based assessment, etc. The teacher argued that although the speaking and writing skills would be tested through practice test, the test was not considered as a high stakes test since the teacher had the authority in the test. As the result, unlike the other skills to be tested (listening and reading), speaking and writing skills did not become the main concern.

#### 4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The findings and discussions in this research have led to several essential points of the English teachers' perception on the washback effects of the English National Examination. Firstly, it is reported that generally, both English teachers agreed that the English National Examination should not be a high stakes test that determines the students' future. Nevertheless, they agreed that the English National Examination could be beneficial to measure the quality of national education.

The second point is the difference between the washback effects that exist in the public and the private school. From the findings, it can be concluded that the degree of power of the washback effect that exist in the private school is stronger than in the public school. Moreover, the areas affected by the washback effects of the English National Examination in the private school are wider than the affected areas in the public school. Furthermore, in relation with the teachers' feelings, the teacher in the public school stated that the English National Examination motivated her to teach better while in contrary, the teacher in the private school claimed that the English National Examination demotivated him to teach.

Lastly, in relation with the curriculum, the English teachers agreed that the curriculum is not really in line with the test. Hence, the teacher sometimes disobeyed the instruction of the curriculum in favor of the test preparation.

Regarding the findings resulted from this research, it is recommended for further research to investigate the way how to remove or lessen the negative washback effects and how to promote the positive washback effects of the English National Examination.

#### REFERENCES

- Au, W. (2007). High-Stakes Testing and Curricular Control: A Qualitative Metasynthesis. *Educational Researcher*, 36(5), 258-267.
- Aysel, Tugba. (2012). *An Exploration of the Effects of High Stakes Examinations on the Teaching and Learning of Mathematics in Post-Primary Education in Ireland and Turkey*. P.hD Thesis. National University of Ireland Maynooth
- Bailey, K. M. (1999). Washback in Language Testing. *TOEFL Monograph Series*, Ms. 15. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

- Brown, H. (2001). *Teaching by Principles An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Pearson Education.
- Cheng, L. (2000). *Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)*. Retrieved 12 03, 2014, from Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC): <http://files.eric.ed.gov>
- Creswell, John.W. (2003). *Research Design Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. California: Sage Publications
- Dikli, S. (2003). Assessment at a Distance: Traditional vs Alternative Assessment. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology: TOJET*, 2(3), 13-19.
- Elliott, R. & Timulak, L. (2005). Descriptive and Interpretive Approaches to Qualitative Research. In J. Miles & P. Gilbert (eds.), *A Handbook of Research Methods in Clinical and Health Psychology (147-159)*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. Retrieved on October 25th 2014 on <http://nideffer.net>
- Frederiksen, N. (1984). The Real Test Bias: Influences of testing on teaching and learning. *American Psychologist* 39, 193-202.
- Lambert, Clinton E. & Lambert, Vicky A. (2012). Qualitative Descriptive Research: An Acceptable Design. *Pacific Rim International Journal of Nursing Research*, 16 (4), p255. Retrieved on October 25th 2014 from <http://connection.ebscohost.com>
- McNamara. (2000). *Language Testing*. (H.G.Widdowson, Ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Palmer, D., & Rangel, V. S. (2011). High Stakes Accountability and Policy Implementation: Teacher Decision Making in Bilingual Classroom in Texas. *Educational Policy*, 25(4), 614-647.
- Pan, Y. C. (2008). A Critical Review of Five Language Washback Studies from 1995-2007: Methodological Considerations. *JALT Testing and Evaluation SIG Newsletter*, 12(2), 2-16.
- Solorzano, R. W. (2008). High Stakes Testing: Issues, Implications, and Remedies for English Language Learners. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(2), 260-329.
- Sulfasyah (2013). *Investigating the Implementation of the Indonesian KTSP (School-based Curriculum) in the Teaching of Writing in Year Two*. P.Hd thesis. Edith Cowan University. Retrieved from [ro.ecu.edu.au](http://ro.ecu.edu.au)
- Tayeb, Y. A., Aziz, M. S., Ismail, K., & Khan, A. B. (2014). The Washback Effect of the General Secondary English Examination (GSEE) on Teaching and Learning. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 14(3), 83-102.
- Tsagari, Dina. (2011). *Washback of a High-Stakes English Exam on Teachers' Perceptions and Practices*. Selected Papers from the 19<sup>th</sup> ISTAL
- Turner, E. (2006). Professionalism and High-Stakes Test: Teachers' Perspectives When Dealing With Educational Change Introduced Through Provincial Exams. *TESL Canada Journal/ Revue TESL Du Canada*, 23(2), 54-76.
- Wall, D. and J. C. Alderson (1993). "Examining washback: The Sri Lankan impact study." *Language Testing* 10(1): 41-69.
- Watanabe, M. (2007). Displaced Teacher and State Priorities in a High-Stakes Accountability Context. *Educational Policy*, 21(2), 311-368.

## ENGLISH PROVERBS AS MNEMONIC DEVICES

**S.Devaki Reddy**  
dre@iitm.ac.in

*Indian Institute of Technology Madras*  
IITMadras, Chennai, India

### **Abstract**

*The use of mnemonic devices is known to be effective in helping learners remember difficult concepts. The paper describes an experiment using popular English proverbs to help students remember the contexts in which articles are used, in an English course offered to students of an undergraduate programme, in India.*

*The incorrect use of articles is one of the grammatical errors frequently seen in the writing of students using English as a second language. Speakers tend to omit articles where needed or use them in contexts that do not require them, as articles are not a part of the grammatical system of most of the Indian languages. The idea of definiteness or indefiniteness, however, is conveyed by other linguistic means in Indian languages. Experience in teaching and assessing students' grammatical competence revealed that some students still made mistakes in the use of articles, in spite of explicit instruction. This was the motivation for trying a different method of teaching the use of articles in the classroom. Some of the English proverbs that students were familiar with, each of which illustrated specific contexts for the use of articles were chosen and discussed in class. Language tests that were administered to the students before and after the experiment indicated that most of the students had made significant improvement in the use of articles in English.*

**Keywords:** *mnemonic devices; articles; proverbs; definiteness; ESL*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

Speakers of English as a second language often face problems in using articles in English (Lacey, 1997 in Al-Fotih, 2003). According to Whitman (1974), the misuse of articles is one of the most evident signs that a person is not a native speaker of English. One of the reasons frequently cited for improper use of articles by non-native speakers of English is interference from one's mother tongue or L1 transfer. A close examination of samples of writing in English reveals that the explanation appears to be too simplistic. Articles in English serve certain functions such as indicating quantity and definiteness (Whitman, 1974; Master, 1990; Farkas and Swart, 2007). In most of the languages spoken in India, these functions are met by other means such as the use of numbers to indicate quantity or indefiniteness and demonstrative pronouns to indicate definiteness. Sometimes, the omission of articles also implies definiteness/shared speaker-hearer knowledge. Sharma (2005), in her study on article use in Indian English, states that L1

transfer occurs when an overt form occurs in the L1, but when there is a gap speakers do not completely omit the article in their second language. They tend to use articles to disambiguate meaning and omit them in contexts they believe to be redundant. However, speakers of English who have had greater exposure to English tend to use articles with greater ease than those who have had limited exposure to English.

As languages across the world employ different linguistic devices to encode meaning, efforts need to be made by English teachers to help students of English as a second language understand the significance and usage of articles in English. The fact that various methods have been suggested for teaching articles in English suggests that no single method is effective. An eclectic method is therefore recommended. It is well known for, example, that students tend to remember facts with the help of thumb rules and mnemonic devices.

Mnemonic devices are learning strategies which can help recall facts or information, and have proven to be helpful in teaching contexts (Bower, 1970; Knop, 1971; Bellezza, 1981). Forming associations between known and new information is an important step in the process of using mnemonic devices to enable the effective retrieval of information. The cues that serve as memory aids may be visual or verbal, such as concrete objects, images, rhymes, acronyms and acrostics. The paper describes how popular English proverbs were used to illustrate the usage of articles, in an English course. The students, who were from various regional and educational backgrounds were in the first year of an undergraduate programme, and their proficiency level in English could be described as the intermediate level.

## 2 METHOD

### 2.1 Diagnostic test

The process of teaching the usage of articles was carried out in several stages. Initially, students were given a paragraph from a short story that they had already read, and asked to fill in the missing articles. The test revealed that most of the students were unable to use the articles appropriately. The test was followed by a discussion on how articles contribute to meaning in English. Some of the sentences in the paragraph were translated into the regional languages spoken by the students in order to illustrate the difference between English and their languages. This served to create awareness about linguistic differences, in general, and the manner of describing nouns, in particular.

### 2.2 Discussion of rules for article usage in English

In the next stage, some of the methods of describing the article system in English were discussed explicitly.

Leech and Svartvik (1975, pp. 50-53) list the various contexts for the use of the definite article: **Unique use** (Examples: *the* earth, *the* world, *the* queen); **Back-pointing use** (Example: They have *a*son and two daughters but *the* son is already grown up and has a family of his own.); **Forward pointing** (Example: John returned *the* radio he bought yesterday.); **Conventional use** (Examples: *the*radio, *the* train, *the* paper, etc.); **Generic use** (Example: *The* tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.); Usually, when a noun is followed by a modifier - **post modification** (Examples: *the* history of China, *the* behaviour of animals); **Generic *the* with adjectives, nationality nouns and group nouns** (Examples: to denote a class of people – *the* poor, *the* unemployed, to denote an abstract quality – *the* absurd, *the* beautiful, with nationality adjectives- *the* Dutch, *the* French, with group nouns – *the* middle class, *the* administration).

Whitman (1974; pp. 255-256), on the other hand, suggests a different method for the presentation of the English article. He lists four possible types of article that are found in a noun phrase:

- (i) Neither QUANTITY nor DETERMINER (boys, water, etc.)
- (ii) QUANTITY alone (a/an, some, several)
- (iii) DETERMINER alone (the boys)
- (iv) Both QUANTITY and DETERMINER (one of the planes)

Besides the contexts for article use mentioned above, students' attention was drawn to the use of articles in idioms, because the usage is often unpredictable

### **2.3 Test on articles in English proverbs**

At the next stage, students were given a test to assess their awareness of articles used in English proverbs. Hand-outs consisting of five popular English proverbs, with all the articles removed, were distributed in class. When students were asked to fill in the missing articles, they came up with several variations of the proverbs. The average score of the class was 3.65 points on a five-point scale (seventy three percent). Most of the students had written the following proverbs correctly.

- (i) An apple a day keeps the doctor away. (answer given by 80% of the students)
- (ii) Necessity is the mother of invention. (answer given by 85% of the students)

The activity was followed by a discussion of the conventions for the use of articles that each of the proverbs illustrated. The proverbs written by the students were examined and the different meanings conveyed by each of the versions were discussed.

### **2.4 Gathering feedback on ability to use articles**

After about two weeks, students were given another test containing a new set of proverbs, with the articles omitted. The results of the test indicated that the average score of the class was 4.4 (eighty-eight percent) on a five-point scale, indicating a significant improvement in the performance of the students. The students were also given a paragraph from an unknown passage in which the omitted articles were to be filled. The results of the test based on the paragraph, however, indicated a marginal improvement in their ability to use articles. The errors were mainly in the area of article use to indicate shared knowledge, and in the use of idiomatic expressions.

## **3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **3.1 Implication of results of the diagnostic test**

The results of the first test, in which students had to fill in the missing articles in a paragraph from a known passage, revealed students' inability to use articles at the appropriate places. While most of the students used the indefinite articles correctly, they used the definite articles only in some contexts, omitting them in contexts where definiteness should have been indicated. They also failed to use the definite article before post-modified nouns and in idiomatic usage.

### 3.2 Students' awareness of article usage in English proverbs

The results of the second test in which proverbs were used indicated a better performance by the students than in the first test. A closer analysis of the results suggests that the students may have written the proverbs correctly by recalling from their memory rather than a conscious awareness of the rules for the usage of articles. The answers revealed the inconsistency in the use of English articles. It also indicated that, in spite of the classroom discussion on the usage of articles, students had not internalized the knowledge. Besides explicit instruction, therefore, students need practice activities and techniques to help them recall the rules, till they become fluent users of the language. The fact that some of the proverbs were written correctly by most of the students also suggests that students can memorize certain proverbs, and that proverbs can be used to illustrate some of the rules for the usage of articles.

Each version of a proverb written by the students was examined in class, and the manner in which articles contribute to the meaning of the sentences was discussed. Students were enabled to understand, for example, that any of the following variations of the proverb are acceptable in English:

- A. 1. An apple a day keeps a/the doctor away.
- 2. One apple a day keeps a/the doctor away.
- 3. An/one apple a day keeps doctors away.

The function of 'an' and 'one' in the proverbs given above, which is to express quantity and indefiniteness (Whitman, 1974), was explained in class. Either of the determiners could therefore be used. Students were also helped to understand that 'a doctor', 'the doctor' and 'doctors' are illustrative of generic reference, in the proverb.

The following example was used to explain the difference in meaning that is due to the use of 'one/an' or 'the.' The first sentence (B1) conveys indefiniteness, whereas the second sentence (B2) conveys definiteness. The fact that 'an apple a day' also means 'an apple everyday', in idiomatic usage in English, was highlighted.

- B. 1. One/an apple must be eaten every day.
- 2. The apple is from my orchard. (The definite article implies shared speaker-hearer knowledge.)

### 3.3 English proverbs and rules for article use

In the classroom, each of the proverbs given in the second test was discussed and the rules suggested by Leech and Svartvik (1975, pp. 237-240), were illustrated. Thus, associations were made between the following proverbs and the rules for the usage of articles, as this is an important stage in the process of using mnemonic devices in teaching.

- C. 1. An apple a day keeps the doctor away.
- 2. Make hay while the sun shines.
- 3. Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy wealthy and wise.
- 4. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
- 5. Necessity is the mother of invention.

Proverb 1, given above, clearly shows that the indefinite articles 'a' or 'an' may be used with singular count nouns, depending on the sound of the word that follows the article. The use of 'the' (in 'the doctor') indicates generic reference which, in the given proverb, refers to the community of doctors. A slightly modified version of the proverb was given by one of the students: 'An apple a day keeps a doctor away. If the doctor is handsome, keep the apple away.' The proverb illustrates the use of the definite article for back-pointing, as in "the doctor is handsome."

Proverb 2 illustrates the use of the zero article when referring to mass nouns, as in 'make hay.' The phrase 'the sun' illustrates the use of the definite article to indicate unique reference.

Proverb 3 illustrates the idiomatic use of the phrase 'to bed.' Students' attention was drawn to the difference between the phrases 'the bed' and 'to bed', one with and the other without the definite article. Most of the students were aware that 'the bed' refers to the definitive use of the noun. The phrase 'a man' illustrates the indefinite meaning of the count noun 'man.'

Proverb 4 illustrates the use of the indefinite article with singular count nouns to indicate indefinite meaning, as in 'a friend.'

Proverb 5 illustrates the generic use of the abstract noun 'necessity.' The noun may be preceded by a definite article to indicate a specific use as in 'the necessity' or an indefinite article to indicate indefiniteness as in 'a necessity.' Students were sensitized to the different meanings generated by each of the usages. The proverb also illustrates the forward pointing use of the definite article as in 'the mother of invention.' According to Whitman (1974), this usage, where a definite article precedes a noun that is post modified, accounts for roughly half of all the instances of 'the'.

In addition to the proverbs given above, some more proverbs were used to illustrate various other contexts in which articles are used in English.

The scores obtained by the students in the third classroom test were better than the scores of the first and second tests. The results indicate that students can improve their ability to use articles appropriately when they are made aware of the rules and given sufficient practice and time to internalize the rules. Students would also need to learn about the usage of idioms consciously to avoid conveying unintended meanings. As the usage of articles in idioms is a matter of convention, students can be directed to online and offline sources so that they can learn at their own pace. While proverbs can be used to illustrate most of the contexts in which articles are used, other contexts in which a mere application of rules would be ineffective, should be highlighted.

#### **4 CONCLUSIONS**

The paper has attempted to present a different way of teaching articles, adding to the already existing methods. While proverbs can be used to illustrate certain contexts in which articles are used, some aspects of language such as the use of idioms should be explicitly discussed in class.

As proverbs are part of common knowledge, and are orally transmitted, students tend to recall proverbs from memory. Using proverbs helps students to form associations between proverbs and some rules for the usage of articles. The experiment has attempted to make students aware of the manner in which articles in English contribute to meaning, by re-examining the proverbs they already know. As languages usually have their own versions of some of the English proverbs, it provides an opportunity for the teacher and students to translate the English proverbs into the regional languages and examine the linguistic differences between the languages, particularly the function of determiners such

as articles, numbers and pronouns to indicate quantity and definiteness. Proverbs can, therefore, serve as mnemonic devices for language teaching.

## REFERENCES

- Al-Fotih. (2003). Acquisition of the English articles by Arabic-speaking students: Study of the second and third level students in Yemen. *Indian Linguistics*, 64(1), 157-174.
- Bellezza, F.Z. (1981). Mnemonic devices: Classification, characterization, and criteria. Review of *Educational Research*, 51(2), 247-275. Retrieved June 15, 2010, from <http://www.jstor.org/>
- Bower, G.H. (1970) Analysis of a Mnemonic Device: Modern psychology uncovers the powerful components of an ancient system for improving memory. *Sigma Xi, The Scientific Research Society*, 58(5), 496-510. Retrieved October 30, 2013 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27829239>
- Farkas, D. F and Swart, H. de. (2007). Article choice in plural generics. *Lingua*, 1298. Retrieved June 14, 2010 from [www.elsevier.com/locate/lingua](http://www.elsevier.com/locate/lingua)
- Knop, C. K. (1971). Mnemonic devices in teaching French. *The French Review*, 45 (2), 337-342. Retrieved June 15, 2010, from <http://www.jstor.org/>
- Leech and Svartvik. (1975). *A communicative grammar of English*. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Master, Peter. (1990). Teaching English articles as a binary system. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(3), 461-478. Retrieved June 14 2010 from <http://links.jstor>
- Quirk and Greenbaum. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. Essex, England: Pearson Education Limited
- Sharma, Devyani. (2005). Language transfer and discourse universals in Indian English article use. *SSLA*, 27, 535-566.
- Whitman, Randal L. (1974). Teaching the article in English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8(3), 252-262. Retrieved November 2, 2009 from <http://712educators.about.com/od/creativethinking/tp/mnemonics.htm>

**TEAM ASSISTED INDIVIDUALIZATION (TAI) CONVEYED  
THROUGH ADOBE FLASH CS3 TO INCREASE  
PARTICIPATION AND ENGLISH VOCABULARY MASTERY  
FOR THE SECOND SEMESTER STUDENTS AT AKADEMI  
BAHASA BALIKPAPAN**

**Muhammad Rochman**  
muhammad\_rochman@yahoo.com

*Akademi Bahasa Asing Balikpapan*

**Abstract**

*Most lecturers were still rely on the lecturing method to deliver material, how they use the media (whiteboard, pictures, cards) and their teaching methods are less than optimal and catch students' attention, which degrade the quality of the learning process. In the preliminary study, the researcher observed the learning process of Second Semester students Akademi Bahasa Balikpapan. The result of preliminary study also found out that the previous English summative test score were still 50. It means that their score average was still for all the students in that Second Semester. It is necessary to pay attention to instruction that can foster vocabulary development.*

*The research design of this study was classroom action research, which focuses on a particular group of students in a certain classroom. The first cycle consisted of three meetings. If it does not reach the criteria of success, the cycle would be continued to cycle two. The classroom action research is consisted of four stages: (1) planning, (2) implementing, (3) observing, and (4) reflecting.*

*The setting of the research was Akademi Bahasa Balikpapan. The subjects of the research were the second-semester students who took English vocabulary lesson. They were chosen as the subjects of the research because based on the lecturer-researcher's preliminary study that was the list of score from English test in previous day showed a low achievement score.*

*The research method used was descriptive qualitative research because it was a type of class action. Kemmis' planning system uses self-reflection spiral that starts with a plan of action, observation, reflection and re-planning was the basis for solving the problem. Action research was conducted in two cycles, each cycle consisting of the planning, implementation, observation and reflection.*

*Data collection techniques adapted to the data to be obtained to determine students' achievement of English test by using Adobe Flash CS3 Media in vocabulary building project assessment in making animation collection that were contained with English sentences and their meanings. To determine the role of the student in the learning process with the assessment of the affective*

*aspects of the observations obtained during the teaching and learning activities take place and the role of the student participation.*

*The results showed that it could be concluded that the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in teaching vocabulary could enhance the students' Project on groups' laptop in vocabulary the text. The observation checklist and field note proved the students' involvement in text given.*

**Keywords: Vocabulary Mastery, Students' Participation, Team Assisted Individualization and Adobe Flash CS3 Program.**

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Learning English would be more attractive when using multimedia-based interactive media. For the interactive media students can utilize all the three senses. The three senses means that students can use their eye, ear, and fingers as application that can make a constructive learning process where they can learn from making mistakes in the using of this application. This application refers to program in a computer (Adobe). The more senses used to receive and process information, the more likely the concept of information is understandable and can be maintained in memory. This can be achieved by using multimedia as a learning medium. Adobe Flash CS3 is a multimedia program to design animated graphics that are very popular and widely used by graphic designers.

In the class that was observed informally by researcher in Akademi Bahasa Asing Balikpapan, the students tended to be passive and student motivation in following lesson is low. It is visible from at least the students who listened to the lecturer, asked, and answered questions. The lecturer in here presented the material with few variations of teaching method, only lecturing method that was mostly used; therefore, it is created lack of activity for the students. This condition makes students' achievement and motivation low. Based on the results of informal interview with lecturers of Akademi Bahasa Asing Balikpapan, it showed that English materials that were presented to improved students' vocabulary in the classroom seemed did not work. It was known by the students' achievement of the vocabulary in Second Semester students was still weak.

The reason on why the researcher chose in focusing of vocabulary since that learning a foreign language requires one to learn its vocabulary. Without adequate knowledge of vocabulary, people are not able to communicate well. They cannot deliver or receive messages effectively. According to Waring (2002), to be competent in English, a foreign learner needs about 3000-5000 word families. However, it is found that most Indonesian students do not have adequate vocabulary size (Kweldju, 1996); high school graduates possess only about 1,000 word families. Poor language skills of students would also attributed because of insufficient vocabulary. Thus, it is necessary to pay attention to instruction that can foster vocabulary development.

The problem that had been found in preliminary study by the researcher those are: Firstly, the students have difficulty to remember the words and their meaning. They admitted that to remember the words in English are difficult to be compared to remember their meaning in Bahasa Indonesia. It is depressing to open dictionary very often while reading and translating sentences in Bahasa Indonesia. These double activities make them reluctant to learn English and discourage them to learn English furthermore.

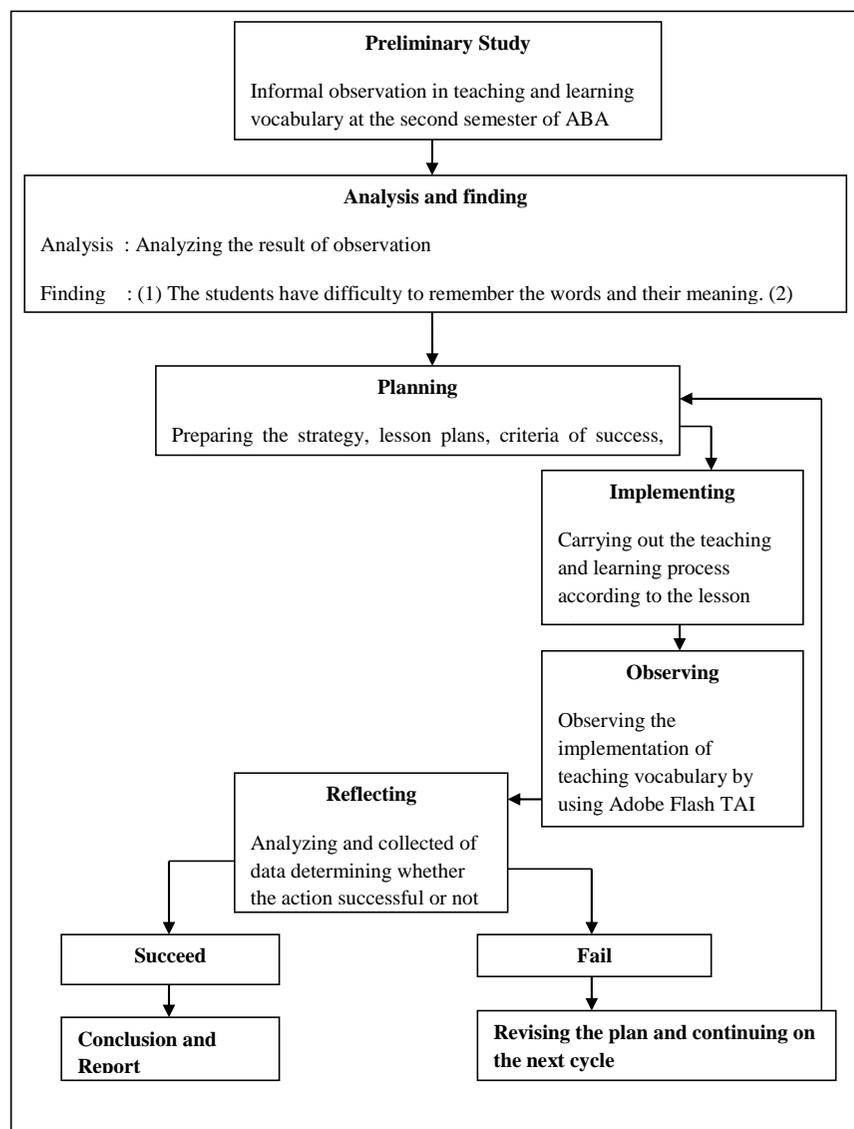
Secondly, the vocabulary bank of English word is very hard to be obtained, since the students have lack of ability to memorize each word in English. This is admitted by the students that the activity of memorize the words by using drilling could discourage them, as this activity is very boring to them. They get bored with this drilling activity.

Thirdly, the English subject is often delivered by reading the texts then translate whole sentences in bahasa Indonesia. This activity required the students to discuss the meaning and share the words with other students in the classroom; the students became very noisy and disturbing or cheating. The researcher must find a way to solve this problem. He must find a media to help the students in learning vocabulary.

Based on the background described above, there were various problems could be identified: (1) Teaching learning process is still lecturer-centered, (2) Instructional media used is still less attention and participation of students, whereas school facilities sufficient to support, so the low student mastery of concepts. Through the cooperative method using multimedia as a medium of learning in this study, is expected to increase the participation and control of vocabulary building to students.

## **2 CONCEPTS AND METHOD**

The research design of this study was classroom action research, which focuses on a particular group of students in a certain classroom. The first cycle consisted of three meetings. If it does not reach the criteria of success, the cycle would be continued to cycle two. The classroom action research employed in this study follows Kemmis' model (Kemmis 1988, cited in McNiff, 1995). Each cycle consisted of four stages: (1) planning, (2) implementing, (3) observing, and (4) reflecting. The cycle was continued when the criteria of success would not achieve and there would be re-planning, acting, observing and reflecting (Kemmis 1988, cited in McNiff, 1995). See figure 1.



*Figure 1 Diagram of the classroom action Research Procedure (Adapted from Kemmis and McTaggart, 1998). See references.*

The subject of the study was the second semester and as the campus located on Jl. Soekarno Hatta, Straat II, Kelurahan Gunung Samarinda number 19, Balikpapan. The researcher chose second semester and speaking as research subject; because English Speaking was taught in the second semester, and based on the result of the preliminary

study, and questionnaire, this class had problems memorizing new vocabulary (vocabulary mastery).

The research method used was descriptive qualitative research because it was a type of class action. Cycles of action research models developed Lewin Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) in Kasbolah (2001) in the form of the spiral model. Kemmis planning system uses self-reflection spiral that starts with a plan of action, observation, reflection and re-planning was the basis for solving the problem. Action research was conducted in two cycles, each cycle consisting of the planning, implementation, observation and reflection.

The research data had been collected from various sources that include: (1) List of students' score from the tests conducted in each cycle. (2) Documents include planning for learning, group discussion reports, and textbooks. (3) Field notes and observation sheet. Data collection techniques adapted to the data to be obtained to determine students' achievement of English test by using Adobe Flash CS3 Media in vocabulary building project assessment in making animation collection that were contained with English sentences and their meanings. To determine the role of the student in the learning process with the assessment of the affective aspects of the observations obtained during the teaching and learning activities take place and the role of the student participation. Assessment psychomotor aspects of the observations obtained in the computer room for their activities. See table 1.

*Table 1. Data and Technique of Collecting Data*

No.	Research Problems	Technique of Collecting Data	Data Analysis
1	1. "How can Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) Conveyed through Adobe Flash CS3 improve the vocabulary mastery of the Second Semester students of Akademi Bahasa Asing Balikpapan?"	Assessments	Pretest and post test result comparison
2	2. "How Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) Conveyed through Adobe Flash CS3 for in the Second Semester students of Akademi Bahasa Asing Balikpapan improve the participation of the students in learning vocabulary?"	- Observation	- Observation Analysis (field notes)

Analysis of the data in this study starts from the beginning to the end of data collection. The analysis had been done by an assessment in making a English Vocabulary project by using animation videos, therefore it will be scored to the clarity of English Vocabulary inside the animation project.

The data analysis had been collected from students' achievement in preparing the animation project of vocabulary English lesson. It had been judged from the result of the students' score, observation sheets, and field notes

Since in this research was the kind qualitative research the data had been focused on the interpretation of the instrument of the research (students' score and observation sheets) in the qualitative way. The qualitative analysis would cover on:

(1) Students' score (assessment): the number as a result of calculating students' score, the range of increasing number from pretest and posttest difference would be judged in qualitative way. The researcher concluded that the difference of increasing

score as the increase number of vocabulary indicator by using Vocabulary Rubric Indicator to fulfill the first criterion of success. From 36 students x 60%, so at least would be 21 students in this class gain score at least 65;

(2) Observation sheet: The collaborator would observe during the lecturer teach TAI-Adobe Flash CS3 in each meeting in every cycle. The finding would be notes in field notes and observation sheets. The data, which were written in these research instruments, had been judged in qualitative way, to conclude about the increase of students' participation in the process of teaching and learning. Rubric for assessing students' participation had been employed to calculating the students' attendance in the class in each meeting, the students' initiative on making questions, class attendance, listening attentively, or answering question from lecturer concluded also as an participation. The indicator was at least 70 % or 25 students from 36 students got involved to fulfill the third criterion

(3) Field Notes: this instrument had been employed to see the students' activities on TAI-Adobe Flash CS3 implementation. Field Notes had been judged in qualitative way. The result of Field Notes had been analyzing through how observer gave comments relatively tend to satisfaction of students' role and lecturer's role during the activities, the data had been judged qualitatively.

To decide whether the cycle was successful, and whether the researcher needs another cycle or not, the researcher sets up the criteria of success which was used as standard of measuring whether or not the students was considered to improve their vocabulary mastery through Adobe Flash CS3.

**2.1 Criteria of success**

In order to meet the aspect related to the objective, the researcher set up three optional criteria of success as indicator.

a. The first, the students' vocabulary indicator showed by their projects / product increase at least 60% of all the students in the class can show indicator score of 3 (three); see the Vocabulary Rubric Indicator. For instance, from 36 students x 60%, so at least would be 21 students in this class gain score at least 65. The tape-scripts would be scored by adapting Vocabulary Rubric Indicator.

Since the class was provided with 6 units of computer, the 36 students would be divided into six groups in TAI. One group contains of six students, in the first meeting, the group 1 and 2 do presentation, in the second meeting for the presentation of group 3 and 4, while at the last third meeting for the presentation of project group 5 and 6. In the post test, all 36 students follow multiple choice as in the pre test to measure their achievement in English vocabulary mastery. Meanwhile, Dimiter and Rumrill (2003) state that pretest-posttest designs were widely used in behavioral research, primarily for the purpose of comparing groups and/or measuring change resulting from experimental treatments. The focus of this article was on comparing groups with pretest and posttest data and related reliability issues. In rehabilitation research, change was commonly measured in such dependent variables as employment status, income, empowerment, assertiveness, self-advocacy skills, and adjustment to disability.

*Table 2. Vocabulary Rubric Indicator*

Indicator	3	2	1
Words Identified	Identified more than 5 words.	Identified 3 or 4 words.	Identified less than 3 words.
Elements	Each word had the	Some words were	Most words were

	part of speech and definition.	missing either part of speech or definition.	missing either part of speech or definition.
Definitions	Definitions were detailed and accurately matched the meaning and context clues in sentence.	Definitions accurately matched the meaning and context clues in sentence.	Most definitions accurately matched the meaning and context clues in sentence.
Appearance	Responses were neatly written and easy to read.	Responses were neatly written and readable.	Responses were not neatly written and difficult to read.

*(Adapted from Barrow Country School (2012) at <http://www.barrow.k12.ga.us/>)*

b. This second criterion was to judge the product of the group in Adobe Flash CS3. Since the class was provided with 6 units of computer, the 36 students would be divided into six groups in TAI. One group contains of six students would create one product / one project in the form of animation text presentation to be discussed and used as learning media. The project would be presented at the end of meeting in turn for three meetings for six groups. In the posttest, all 36 students follow multiple choices as in the pre test to measure their achievement in English vocabulary mastery.

To judge the product the researcher would apply scoring guide rubric for project assessment adopted from International Center for Leadership in Education, Inc (2012). The indicator at least at proficient (80-89 points) for the result of each member presentation of their project of animation vocabulary.

**Table 3. Product / Project Rubric**

Distinguished (95-100 points)	Exhaustive coverage Completely understands problem and has ability to apply data to the solution Shows originality
Highly Proficient (90-94 points)	Excellent work, meets all requirements of task, good breadth Well planned and documented Shows fine understanding and ability to apply data to the solution of the problem Shows evidence of creativity
Proficient (80-89 points)	Fine or good work, meets requirements of task Good breadth of coverage, fairly well planned and documented Shows a good understanding and ability to apply data to the solution of new problems Could show more evidence of creative thinking
Suggests Proficiency (70-79 points)	Fair work, meets many requirements of the task Fair breadth of coverage with some gaps Shows uneven understanding with some, but not complete, ability to apply data to the solution of the problem Needs to fill gaps
Suggests Lack of	Uneven work, meets some requirements of the task Poor breadth of coverage with a number of gaps in coverage











with some, but not complete). The words in animations were not completed for these three groups. The animations were still too fast to be read.

Group 1 and group 3 could not finish the projects of Adobe Flash TAI, but the project was still not completed (Uneven work, meets some requirements of the task and little understanding and ability to apply). The words in animations could be played as GIF file pictures that would be moves. The animation were still could not be played.

Group 4 could not finish the projects of Adobe Flash TAI (Poor work, meets few if any requirements of the task). The words were still in Microsoft words program. The project in Adobe Flash could not be saved in Adobe program.

The Third Criterion was the students' participation was increased towards the implementation of TAI conveyed through Adobe Flash CS3 in the teaching of English Vocabulary. The indicator was at least 70 % or 25 students can pass the rubric as proficient (80-90%).

From the table above could be concluded that 11 students did not bring the devices need (Laptop), so they only could watch their friend in their group to make the same project, they made a less contribution to the project. 8 Students gave uninformative comments : 'susah sekali' while they did bring laptop. Therefore the total number of students who gave low participation was 19 while the third criterion asked for at least 25 students.

**3.1.2 Revision of the Strategy Implemented in Cycle 1**

The changes can be observed inside the lesson plans for cycle 2, the lecturer put those vocabulary lists for the students, and meanwhile in the first cycle vocabulary list was not used. In the first cycle, when there was not provided with vocabulary list, the students project tend to pick words that lead out to the word outside of the topic given for them. After the vocabulary list given, each group would have different words to choose. The aim was to minimize the words; therefore, the students would choose the words to be discussed in their project still inside the scope of the topic.

**Table 8. Revision of the Strategy for Cycle 2 (Vocabulary List)**

No	Meeting	Topic	Vocabulary List
1	Meeting 1 cycle 2	Apology expressions	<p>We use these expressions to express apology.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sorry.</li> <li>• I am very sorry.</li> <li>• I apologise for ....</li> <li>• Please excuse me.</li> <li>• Please accept my apology.</li> </ul> <p>We use these expressions to respond to apology.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Never mind.</li> <li>• That's all right.</li> <li>• That's OK.</li> <li>• Please don't be sorry.</li> </ul>
2	Meeting 2 cycle 2	Asking and giving information expressions	<p>We use these expressions to ask information</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Excuse me. What is your name?</li> <li>• Can you tell me where you live?</li> <li>• Can you help me find the laboratory?</li> <li>• Sorry to trouble you, but do you know where Anisa is?</li> </ul>

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do you happen to know where the bank is?</li> <li>• Could anyone tell me when the test is?</li> </ul> <p>We use these expressions to give information</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My name is Edo.</li> <li>• I live in Jalan Setiabudhi.</li> <li>• Anisa is in the post of <input type="checkbox"/> ce.</li> <li>• Take your <input type="checkbox"/> rst right.</li> <li>• Go straight up the street. It's on the left.</li> <li>• The test is on June 11th, 2007.</li> </ul>
3	Meeting 3 cycle 2	Command expressions	<p>Examples of command and prohibition expressions</p> <p>Giving a command</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Put the report on my desk</li> <li>• Bring the books.</li> <li>• Open the door.</li> <li>• Close the door, please.</li> <li>• Could you please give me the report?</li> <li>• Come here, please.</li> </ul> <p>Giving Commands</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Close the door.</li> <li>- Open the book, please.</li> </ul> <p>Expressing prohibition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Don't come late.</li> <li>- Don't be lazy.</li> </ul>

### 3.1.3 Findings from Cycle 2

Based on the observation done, the researcher got some important results dealing with the implementation of Adobe Flash TAI activities in cycle 2. There is an improvement on the students' English vocabulary in general, compared with the data obtained from the pre-test score. The summary of the result of the improvement can be seen in the following table 9.

*Table 9. The Result of Statistical Account in Cycle 2*

Point	Pre-Test Result	Post-Test Result
Lowest	50	70
Highest	75	100
Average	66.53	85.28

The data show that there is an improvement in the average score of the post-test in cycle 2. The average score of pre-test was 66.53 and the average score of post-test in cycle 2 was 85.28. It means that there are 18.75 improvements of the average score.

*The first Criterion*, the students' vocabulary indicator showed by their projects / product increase at least 60% of all the students in the class can show indicator score of 3 (three); see the Vocabulary Rubric Indicator. For instance, from 36 students x 60%, so at least would be 21 students in this class gain score at least 65. The tape-scripts would be scored by adapting Vocabulary Rubric Indicator. All the 36 students gained score more than 65; therefore, the first criterion was already achieved.

*Second criterion* was to judge the product of the group in Adobe Flash CS3. Since the class was provided with 6 units of computer, the 36 students would be divided into six groups in TAI. One group contains of six students would create one product / one project in the form of animation text presentation to be discussed and used as learning media. The project would be presented at the end of meeting in turn for three meetings for six groups. In the posttest, all 36 students follow multiple choices as in the pre test to measure their achievement in English vocabulary mastery.

To judge the product the researcher would apply scoring guide rubric for project assessment adopted from International Center for Leadership in Education, Inc (2012). The indicator at least at *proficient (80-89 points)* for the result of each member presentation of their project of animation vocabulary.

**Table 10. Product / Project Rubric of Students in cycle 2**

Point	Description	Group
Highly Proficient (90-94 points)	Excellent work, meets all requirements of task, good breadth Well planned and documented Shows fine understanding and ability to apply data to the solution of the problem Shows evidence of creativity	Group 2 Group 5 Group 6
Proficient (80-89 points) (Second Criterion Minimum requirement for each group)	Fine or good work, meets requirements of task Good breadth of coverage, fairly well planned and documented Shows a good understanding and ability to apply data to the solution of new problems Could show more evidence of creative thinking	Group 1 Group 3 Group 4

From the table above, table 10, group 2, group 5, and group 6 could finish the projects of Adobe Flash TAI, but the project were completed (Excellent work, meets all requirements of task). The words in animations were completed for these three groups. The animations were can be read.

Group 1, group 3 and group 4 could finish the projects of Adobe Flash TAI, but the project were completed (Fine or good work, meets requirements of task). The words in animations could be played as GIF file picture that would be moves. The animation were still could be played. The entire project in Adobe Flash could be saved in Adobe program. It means the second criterion was achieved well.

*The Third Criterion* was the students' participation was increased towards the implementation of TAI conveyed through Adobe Flash CS3 in the teaching of English Vocabulary. The indicator was at least 70 % or 25 students can pass the rubric as proficient (80-90%).

From the table above could be concluded that only 2 (two) students did not bring the devices need (Laptop) in one meeting. 5 Students gave positive comments: '*ternyata Adobe tidak sukar dan mempelajari Bahasa inggris menarik*' while they did bring laptop. Therefore the total number of students who gave low participation was only 2 students. While the third criterion asked for at least 25 students to be participated, the total number

of participation was 34 students. It means the third criterion was achieved well. Finally, this second cycle brought success. Therefore, the next cycle could be terminated.

### **3.2 Discussion**

This chapter presents the data obtained from the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in reading. The findings and discussions of the study are presented in this chapter are based on students' result of comprehension reading exercises, observation checklists and field notes.

In doing the Adobe Flash TAI activity, the students could cooperate more. Nonetheless, it did not mean that the researcher did not precaution a few students who had lower concern and enthusiasm. He would try to access and motivate them sympathetic and with patience. Through attending the criteria of success, all the criteria of success were achieved in second cycle. It means that there was no need to add the cycle for sure.

The reflection of why in this second cycle the implementation Adobe Flash TAI strategy did achieve criteria of success, because the students understood clearly about the stages in Adobe Flash TAI questions. Their motivation had been increased as well. The indicators are; they are follow the lesson, they are all attending this subject, no one absent. Their are apperently give their attention to their lecturer only. Their activities are the things that they concerned. Compared to the pole position when the Adobe Flash TAI was introduced; right now in this cycle, they are understand the Adobe Flash TAI Questions were developed and how to answer these question by using Adobe Flash TAI Strategy, it was proven by its indicator where the score was increased on average.

At last, the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in vocabulary could increase students' Adobe TAI Project on groups' laptop. However, the lesson material should be adjusted to the students' level and the students' need if it applies in the other school. It should be contextual to gain students' motivation and involvement to task given.

Based on the discussion above, the researcher can conclude that that the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in teaching vocabulary could enhance the students' Adobe TAI Project on groups' laptop in vocabulary. The students' Adobe TAI Project on groups' laptop vocabulary achievement on their projects proved this. The observation checklist and field note proved the students' involvement in second cycle.

Regarding the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI teaching strategy, it can be applied in all types of courses, not only vocabulary courses. The important thing is the application of the stages in Adobe Flash TAI, where both the lecturer and students follow the stages in a sequence.

It is necessary for the lecturer to notice, before they choose the Adobe Flash TAI strategy to be implemented in their classes. They need to choose the contextual materials and it should be based on students' needs. It can attract students' attention and draws the students' motivation to be involved in the tasks given.

The weaknesses of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in vocabulary so far cannot be found in the field, it could be happen only if the students could not provide laptop, and meanwhile it is cheap device for today. The lecturer should always monitor and ensure that the students' activities have to follow the stages in subsequent. Therefore, if this model were applied in a larger class it would be hard for the lecturer to keep monitoring the students' activities. In the larger class which is contained many students, the lecturer should be ensured that all students have done the activities according to the tasks, which are conducted, as they should be.

The lecturer' awareness is needed in developing the vocabulary list that is given in the exercises inside this model. The suitable materials and the attention of the level of the questions with the level of the students are necessary. After all this model is well to be applied by the lecturers in their classes, however, it is a challenge for the lecturers in general to give more improvements and contributions for this strategy in the future.

#### 4 CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATIONS

##### 4.1 Conclusion

Based on the research findings, it can be concluded that the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in teaching vocabulary could enhance the students' Adobe TAI Project on groups' laptop in vocabulary the text. The students' Adobe TAI Project on groups' laptop vocabulary achievement proved this. The observation checklist and field note proved the students' involvement in text given.

Adobe Flash TAI strategy in developing project of vocabulary is an interesting media and by using Team Assisted Individualization can reduce lecturer energy in the class while it can save the time as well. Regarding the implementation of the Adobe Flash TAI teaching strategy, it can be applied in all types of courses, not only vocabulary courses. The important thing is the application of the stages in Adobe Flash TAI, where both the lecturer and students follow the stages in a sequence. Adobe Flash TAI was proven could increase the students score in vocabulary since the device and program is interesting.

It is essential for the lecturer to acknowledge, prior to decide the Adobe Flash TAI strategy to be applied in their classes. They necessitate selecting the contextual materials and it had better be supported students' needs. It can draw students' attention and attracts the students' motivation to be involved in the tasks given. The weaknesses of the Adobe Flash TAI strategy in vocabulary thus far cannot be found in the field, is the lecturer had better always supervise and assure that the students' activities have to observe the levels in consequent. Consequently, if this model is employed in a bigger class it would be difficult because the lecturer to keep supervising the students' activities. In the bigger class that is carried many students, the lecturer had better comprise assured that all students have done the activities allotting to the chores that are guided, as they should be. The lecturer' awareness is called for in building up the vocabulary list that is given in the exercises inside this model. The suitable materials and the attending of the level of the questions with the level of the students are essential. Afterward all this model is advantageously to be employed by the lecturers in their classes, nevertheless, it is a challenge for the lecturers in worldwide to afford more improvements and contributions for this strategy in the future. The students' engagement was established growth as they can apply picture and animation, in the meantime animation and picture could draw great pursuit for students.

##### 4.2 Recommendations

Realizing that Adobe Flash TAI technique is very beneficial in improving students' motivation and English vocabulary mastery, some suggestions are proposed for English lecturers, students, and other researchers. In carrying out the teaching learning process, in this case teaching speaking, the lecturer should determine the technique that is able to make students enhance their vocabulary. Before implementing Adobe Flash TAI technique, the lecturer should select the appropriate topic to be given to the students by considering the level of students' proficiency as well as the language functions that have

been mastered by the students. During the implementation of Adobe Flash TAI technique, the lecturers should be directly and actively involved in helping students to solve their problems. Besides, the lecturer should be patient since usually the class becomes little bit noisy. It can be said that the applying of Adobe Flash TAI technique is successful and satisfying. For other researchers who are interested in conducting a similar study, it is suggested to use the finding of the research as a starting point. However, it must be developed and adjusted with the other condition that might be different.

## REFERENCES

- Arsyad, A. (2005) *Multimedia, Graphik dan Animasi*. Airlangga University Press. 2005.
- Ainslie, D. (2000/2001). Word detectives. *The Reading Teacher*, 54(4), 360-362.
- Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles. 2nd*. Englewood Cliff, N.J.: Prentice Hall
- Biemiller, A., & Slonim, N. (2001). Estimating root word vocabulary growth in normative and advantaged populations: Evidence for a common sequence of vocabulary acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(3), 498-520
- Calhoun, E., Poirier, T., Simon, N., & Mueller, L. (2001, April 10-14). *Teacher (and district) research: Three inquiries into the TAI inductive model*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA.
- Calhoun, E. F. (1999). *Teaching beginning reading and writing with the picture word inductive model*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. USA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Coady, J. & T. Huckin (eds) (1997). *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Craik, F. I. M., & Lockhart, R. S. (1972). Levels of processing: A framework for memory research. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal behavior*, 11, 671-684.
- Cynthia and Johnson (2013). *Why We Teach Vocabulary?*. Science article. Retrieved from internet on Sunday, 1<sup>st</sup> Spetember 2013 at [www.epsbook.com](http://www.epsbook.com).
- Dimiter, D. and Rumrill, D. (2003). *Pretest-posttest designs and measurement of change*. White Hall, College of Education, Kent State University, Kent, OH 44242-0001, USA Tel.: +1 330 672 0582; Fax: +1 330 672 3737; E-mail: [ddimitro@kent.edu](mailto:ddimitro@kent.edu) – IOS Press. All rights reserved, 2003.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *The Role of Formal Instruction in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford University Press.
- Grabe, W. & Stoller, F. (1997). *Reading and Vocabulary Development in a Second Language: A case study*. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hollandsworth, S.E. (2006) *Best Practices of National Board Certified Teachers and No-Board Certified Teachers in Grades One and Two*. Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Marshall University Graduate College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Instruction
- Johnson, C., & Johnson, D. (n.d.). *Why teach vocabulary?*. Retrieved September 22, 2008, from [www.epsbooks.com/downloads/articles/](http://www.epsbooks.com/downloads/articles/)

- Why\_Teach\_Vocabulary.pdf#search='word%20wizards%20vocabulary%20instruction'
- Joyce, B., & Weil, M. (2004). The picture-word inductive model: Developing literacy across the curriculum. In B. Joyce & M. Weil (Eds.), *Models of teaching* (7th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Kemmis, S. & R. McTaggart (1988) *The Action Research Planner*, 3rd ed, Geelong: Deakin University.
- Krashen, S.D.(1989). *We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading*: Additional evidence for the Input Hypothesis. The Modern Language Journal.
- Kuhn, M.R., & Stahl, S.A. (1998). *Teaching students to learn word meanings from context: A synthesis and some questions*. Journal of Literacy Research.
- Kweldju, S. (1997). *English Department Students' Vocabulary Size and the Development of a Model of Extensive Reading with Individualized Vocabulary Learning*. Singapore, SEAMO-Regional Language Centre.
- Kweldju, S. (1997). *Measuring English Department Students' Vocabulary Size and Developing A Model of Extensive Reading with Individualized Vocabulary Learning*. RELC Journal.
- Latief, M.A. (1999) *Penelitian Kuantitatif dan Kualitatif*. Forum Penelitian Kependidikan. Jurnal Teori dan Praktik Penelitian Kependidikan. Lemlit Universitas Negeri Malang.
- Laufer, B. & Sim, D.D. (1985a). *Taking The Easy Way Out*: Non-use and Misuse of Clues in EFL Reading. *English Teaching Forum* 23,2, 7-10.
- Lawson, M. J.; Hogben, D. (1996). *The Vocabulary Learning Method of Foreign Language Students*. Language Learning.
- Long, M. (1988). *Instructed interlanguage development*. In L. Beebe (ed.) *Issues in Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Newbury House.
- McKeown, M.G. and M.E. Curtis (1987). *The Nature of Vocabulary Acquisition*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.
- McNiff, J. (1993). *Teaching as learning: An Action Research Approach*. Routledge, London.
- Meara, P. & G. Jones. (1990). *The Eurocentres Vocabulary Size Tests*. 10KA. Zurich: Eurocentres.
- Mutmainah and Purbo (2002). *Dunia Animasi*. Airlangga University Press. 2002.
- Nagy, W., & Herman, P. (1987). *Breadth and Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge: Implications for acquisition and instruction*. In McKeown, M., & Curtis, M. (eds), *The nature of vocabulary acquisition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. (pp 19-35). Retrieved from internet in 23 December 2008 at <http://www.ingenta.com/uhelp@ingenta.com>.
- Sudjana, N. and Rival (2002) *Pembelajaran Multimedia*. Airlangga University Press. 2002.
- Nation, I.S.P. (1982). *Beginning to learn foreign vocabulary: a review of the research*. RELC Journal 13: 14-36.
- Nation, P. & Waring, R. (1997). *Vocabulary Size, Text Coverage, and Word Lists*. In Schmitt N, & McCarthy, M. (Eds). *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition, Pedagogy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nordin, et al (2010) *European Journal of Social Sciences – Volume 17, Number 2* (2010).
- Nurweni, A., & Read, J. (1999). *The English Vocabulary Knowledge of Indonesian University Students*. English for Specific Purposes. Retrieved from the internet in June 15, 2008 from

- <http://1-pis.com/pdf/Relationship.pdf>  
Robertson, P., Dash, P., Jung, J. (2005) *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly in December 2005*, Volume 7 Issue 4.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sengupta, S. (1996). *Creating a hypertext database to help Hong Kong English language teachers teach writing*. *System* 24, 187-198.
- Shah, M. (1999). *Learning Method*. Airlangga University Press. 1999.
- Stirling, J. (2003) *Helping Students To Learn the Vocabulary That We Teach Them*. English Language Garden. Science Article. 2003
- Sumanti and Permana (2001). *Penggunaan Multimedia dalam Proses pembelajaran*. Airlangga University Press. 2001.
- Soedarsono, F.X. (1997). *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Penelitian Tindakan Kelas (PTK)*, bagian kedua, Rencana, Desain dan Implementasinya. IKIP Jogjakarta: Dirjen Dikti
- Sukmin (2004). *Word Game to Increase The Vocabulary of The Third Year Students at Mts Sunan Kalijogo Malang*. Unpublished Thesis. Graduate Program in English Language Education. State University of Malang.
- Sumarno (1997). *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Penelitian Tindakan Kelas (PTK)*, bagian ketiga, Pemantauan dan Evaluasi. IKIP Jogjakarta: Dirjen Dikti
- Sutarsyah, C., I.S.P. Nation and G. Kennedy. (1994). *How useful is EAP vocabulary for ESP? A corpus based case study*. *RELC Journal* 25, 2: 34-50.
- Tangkulung, H.W. (2013) *Penerapan Model Pembelajaran Team Assisted Individualization Untuk Meningkatkan Hasil Belajar Siswa Pada Mata Pelajaran KKPI Kelas X SMK Negeri 3 Tondano*. E2-J UNIMA. *Engineering Education Journals UNIMA*. ISSN 2337-5892. Volume 1, No 3, 2013
- Wahab, A. & Lestari, L.A. 1999. *Menulis Karya Ilmiah*. Airlangga University Press.
- Wardiman, et al (2008) *English in Focus. For Junior High School grade VII*. Buku Sekolah Elektronik.
- Yamamoto, Y. (2011) *Bridging the Gap between Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Size through Extensive Reading*. *Toyo Eiwa University The Reading Matrix* © 2011. Volume 11, Number 3, September 2011.
- Zimmerman, C. B. 1997. *Do reading and interactive vocabulary instruction make a difference? An empirical study*. – *TESOL Quarterly* 31, 121–140.

# ENGLISH FOR A GLOBAL SOLUTION: A CASE STUDY OF JAPAN AND INDONESIA

**Miki SUEHIRO**  
m-sue@econ.u-hyogo.ac.jp

*University of Hyogo*  
8-2-1 Gakuennishi-machi, Nishi-ku, Kobe, Hyogo 651-2197, Japan

## **Abstract**

*The purpose of this pilot study is to examine the hybrid teaching method of using English as an intervention language and computer-based learning cooperating with two countries as an effective study strategy. Participants were composed of thirty nursing students selected at random who had just finished their three-year nursing course in Indonesia. As a result, the fact that Indonesian candidates had sufficient expertise, knowledge and skills was revealed by taking this exam translated into English. Using English elucidated new findings: some questions that candidates were not able to get a good mark were regarding social system and cultural issues. Besides, we found that ICT was a helpful solution tool for the problems of time and physical distance between Indonesia and Japan.*

**Keywords:** *Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA), Indonesian certified care worker candidates, the national examination, information and communication technology (ICT), nursing students*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Japan concluded an economic partnership agreement (EPA) with Indonesia in 2008 in order to address rapidly aging societies. However, it is evident that the percentage of EPA program candidates having passed the examination was not very high. This low pass rate is due to the fact that the examination is given in Japanese. Care worker candidates have no choice but to take the national examination in Japanese in the same way as Japanese nationals (Aoki, 2010). Candidates who fail to become licensed certified care workers during the stay period are forced to leave Japan as a rule. Contrary to Japanese expectations, the total annual number of care worker candidates decreased from 104 in 2008 to 58 in 2011.

## **2 METHOD**

### **2.1 Theoretical Framework and Purposes**

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of this hybrid teaching method of using English as an intervention language and computer-based learning cooperating with two countries in helping foreign candidates pass the national examination for certified care workers. The informants in this study do not have any knowledge of Japanese as a target

language. In East and Southeast Asia, 'Lingua Franca Approach' to teaching English is proposed (Kirkpatrick, 2012). In fact, English is the sole working language that Indonesia and Japan can share. Therefore, using English as an intervention language could be useful not only because it is a lingua franca in the world but also because it is used in Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN Secretariat, 1988; Okudaira, 2004; Takeshita and Ishikawa, 2013). Information Communication Technology (ICT) could also be a helpful solution for the problems of time and physical distance between Indonesia and Japan, and could work best for very self-directed learners who just want to try the exercises of the national exam for a certified care worker before they decide to become a candidate.

## 2.2 Participants, Data Collection and Analytical Method

Participants were composed of thirty nursing students selected at random who had just finished their three-year nursing course from a certain nursing university with which we had cooperative relationship for this study in Indonesia (group B). The past examination (the 24<sup>th</sup> national exam for certified care workers) was translated into English, and it was administered to the nursing students in the e-learning form. Null hypothesis was used to see a statistically significant difference comparing the successful answer rates of the original Japanese examinations taken in 2012 by the Indonesian certified care worker candidates after three-year training in Japan (group A). The data of fifty candidates was taken from Japanese Council of Senior Citizen Welfare Services.

## 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### 3.1 Statistical Analysis

Table 1 presents the comparison of the accuracy rates that two groups scored in Japanese original version and in English translation version respectively. As can be seen from the results obtained by testing a null hypothesis, statistically significant differences exist between group A and group B. The score of group A was higher than group B in only one section: human dignity and independence in the region of people and society ( $p > 0.05$ ). Then, there does not exist a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the second question: human relationships and communication, and fifth question: communication techniques. Group B scored higher than group A in other questions: #3, #4, #6, #7, #8, #9, #10, #11 and #12 ( $p > 0.05$  respectively). In particular, group B scored the highest in the question #10, understanding disability, and the second highest in #6, livelihood support techniques. On the whole, group B scored higher in the nine sections out of 12 (75%) than group A.

**Table 1. Accuracy rates of the informants' exam scores compared with the ones taken by the first batch of Indonesian elderly-care workers.**

No.	Areas	Sections	# of Q*	Group A (First Group in 2008) (n = 50)			Group B (Informants in this research) (n = 30)			z value
				total # of Q	# of right answers	accuracy rate (%)	total # of Q	# of right answers	accuracy rate (%)	
1	People and Society	Human dignity and independence	2	100	77	77.0%	60	35	58.3%	-2.50

2		Human relationships and communication	2	100	72	72.0%	60	45	75.0%	0.41
3		Social understanding	12	600	364	60.7%	360	246	68.3%	2.79
4	Nursing care	Nursing care basics	16	800	476	59.5%	480	368	76.6%	6.25
5		Communication techniques	8	400	275	68.8%	240	174	72.0%	0.86
6		Livelihood support techniques	20	1000	583	58.3%	600	480	80.0%	8.90
7		Nursing care process	8	400	264	66.0%	240	209	87.0%	5.86
8	Mechanism of the mind and body	Understanding development and aging	8	400	256	64.0%	240	192	80.0%	4.28
9		Understanding Dementia	10	500	250	50.0%	300	221	73.6%	6.57
10		Understanding Disability	10	500	264	52.8%	300	267	89.0%	10.49
11		Structure of the mind and body	12	600	358	59.7%	360	310	86.1%	8.61
12	Overall Question	Overall Review Question	12	600	333	55.5%	360	295	81.9%	8.33

\* "# of Q" means the number of questions

### 3.2 English as an Intervention Language

As a result, it verified that English as an intervention language successfully helped both Indonesian candidates and Japanese trainers understand which parts in the fields should be focused on for additional study. It is matter of course, but the fact that Indonesian candidates had sufficient expertise, knowledge, and skills, and that language truly hindered them to work as professional right after training in Japan were revealed by taking this exam translated into English. This time, using English elucidated new findings: some questions that candidates were not able to get a good mark were regarding social system and cultural issues. As for the questions related to a social system including understanding Japanese social welfare system, it stands to reason that they were not able to get a good mark.

As for the questions related to cultural issues, culture has the powerful effect on communication (Hall, 1976; Triandis, 1989, 1995; Shweder, 1991). According to anthropologist Hall, context is more important than words. Context might include the speaker's tone of voice, facial expression, gestures, posture and even the person's educational background, family history and social status. The candidates will not be able to get the correct answer after understanding the Japanese manner or behavior. Through my observation of nursing facilities, the ways of teaching EPA candidates were various. It appears that most trainers in facilities try to teach through trial and error. However, since English as an intervention language was used, it would be so easier for candidates to understand the reasons why they lost points, whether it was because of language

barrier, cultural differences, lack of understanding Japanese social system and social welfare system, or lack of specific knowledge.

### 3.3 Use ICT to the Fullest

All the questions of the 24<sup>th</sup> national examination for certified care worker translated into English were set up on the web site called “WebOCM Next” for this pilot study. It was a free learning support system developed by Osaka University, Japan. Some disadvantages were reported regarding computer-based learning such as learners with low motivation or bad study habits may fall behind. Therefore, we managed in cooperation with teachers in the cooperated universities. Since a telecommunications application software product ‘Skype’ was used, for example, students were encouraged to work on a task on a regular basis. This pilot study is still continuing even now. Providing a class in Indonesia from Japan through the Skype is at testing phase for this project. As a result, simultaneous live classes in both countries have become possible by making the best use of the small time difference.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the viewpoint of language learning, the effective and efficient teaching methods have been examined so far in order to help certified care worker candidates from Indonesia pass the national examination. Consequently, this pilot study revealed that by using English as an intervention language, the reasons preventing candidates from achieving high scores have been classified into categories. The hybrid teaching method is suggested as an effective solution for this type of global issue. This blended method could also be applied to registered nurses candidates under the EPA program. The results of this pilot study could raise the question to the Japanese government whether it is really needed to have EPA candidates take the national examination in Japanese. The role expected to be played by the English language towards globalization among Asia is a language to connect one another without any ideologies. English language use is strongly expected to keep EPA sustainable.

## REFERENCES

- Aoki, M. (2010) “Language sets high hurdle for caregiver candidates.” The Japan Times. Retrieved May 7, 2015, from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2010/05/11/reference/language-sets-high-hurdle-for-caregiver-candidates/#.VU1sZMJ0w5s>
- (The) ASEAN Secretariat. (1988). *ASEAN Documents Series 1967-1988*. Retrieved April 21, 2015, from <http://www.asean.org/>
- Hall, E.T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2012) English as an Asian Lingua Franca: the ‘Lingua Franca Approach’ and implications for language education policy. *J. of English as a Lingua Franca*. 1(1), 121-139.
- Okudaira, A. (2004). *ASEAN and English*. in *World of English*, 15-25.
- Shweder, R. A. (1991). Cultural psychology: What is it? In R. A. Shweder (Ed.), *Thinking through cultures: Expeditions in cultural psychology*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 73-110.

- Takeshita, Y. and Ishikawa, T. (2013). *Sekaiwa Eigo wo Dou Tsukatteiruka*. Tokyo: Shinyosha.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96, 269-289.
- Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism and collectivism*. Boulder: Westview Press.

# CHARACTER VALUES AND THEIR INTERNALIZATION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AT MADRASAH ALIYAH NEGERI 1 SAMARINDA

**Milad Islami**  
miladian1018@gmail.com

**Desy Rusmawaty**  
desyusmawaty@yahoo.com

*Mulawarman University*  
Jl. Muara Pahu Gedung E Lt 2 FKIP Universitas Mulawarman, Samarinda.

## **Abstract**

*The study is aimed to investigate the internalization of character values in teaching and learning English since the learners do not only learn how to master the language skills but also learn how to use it properly according to appropriate norms, and values. The design of this study was qualitative since there was no experimental or manipulated settings involved. The data that collected in this research were check list of observation, field notes, interview guide for the teachers and students, and teachers' lesson plan. The results showed that there were at least six character values performed by the students in learning English, they were independent, hardworking ethos, curiosity, democratic attitude, communicative manner, and reading interest. In addition, the character values were internalized by the English teacher into the process of teaching and learning even though she did not realize it. Referring to the results, there were some suggestions. First, the Ministry of Education and Culture should formulate the specific character values that really composed based on the four language skills competency of English. Second, the school should facilitate the training specifically for the teachers about character education and how to implement it into teaching and learning activity. The last, the teachers should increase their awareness about the implementation of character education into the classroom activities.*

**Keywords:** *Character values, Internalization, and Character Education*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

The existence of a nation is more likely determined by its characters. The stronger its characters, the more civilized the nation will be. As the consequence, becoming a nation with strong and good characters may be all people's expectation. Since the conditions of national character seem to be decreased, the scholars urge the character education to be taught and integrated formally in the teaching and learning process at schools (Asmani: 2012). They believed that through character education a nation will find the best and preventive way as well in solving character problems. The best and systemic way to bring it into reality isthrough education.

As stated in the regulation of Ministry of National Education number 20/2003 about National Education System, that the function of Indonesia education is developing the national characters and dignifying national civilization. Related to that, one of main programs of Ministry of Education is to develop character education for the sake of increasing national education quality (Ministry of National Education, 2010: 5).

Character education in Indonesia's educational system is not likely a brand new thing. There are two subjects that contribute to develop students' moral and values, they are religion and civics education. In Islamic School like MAN 1 Samarinda there is also a subject that concerns about character, it is Aqidah Akhlaq (faith and moral). It is one of religion group subjects besides *Qur'an*, *Hadith*, *Arabic*, and *Tarikh* (Islamic History). It is not only discussed about the Islamic belief but also about values, morals, manners, and characters. In Islamic perspective, faith and characters are inseparable. One's strong belief may affect one's manners and vice versa.

Unfortunately, those subjects may not significantly contribute in building students' good character because they only emphasize to the knowledge of the values not about how to apply them in the daily life (Ministry of National Education, 2010: 3). As the consequence, the students only know all about the values but they do not see the real example of how to implement them in their daily life. Because the result of character education through religion and civics education may have not yet satisfying, the government believed that it should involve all of the subjects. The implementation of it should also be modified in such a way that focus on the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor development that the character values are not only integrated in all core materials or topics of the lessons but also should facilitate the students to implement them into the learning activity.

It seems that the main focus of education so far is to increase the intelligence of the brain only or cognitive aspects. The ground thinking paradigm is that the success in a student's life is determined solely by one factor, namely intelligence (IQ). From an early age children have been directed to achieve high intelligence. Almost all pre-school children have been taught to read and numeracy, thus fostering emotional aspects and mental attitude of the children gets less attention. The emphasis of the cognitive aspect is also apparent from the use of educational methods in school. According to Tafsir (2010: 8) educational methods that are often used in schools limited means to increase knowledge (transfer of knowledge). On the other side, education that supports the affective domains in exemplary shape and habituation rarely applied.

Tsui (2008: 90) stated that the purpose of incorporating character education into the EFL classroom is to provide a content-based environment for students to learn the language as well as the ethics. As a lingua franca, English is learned by people as second or foreign language in the most parts of the world. Unfortunately, the EFL learners are not able to access authentic language input as their learning resources because they only get it when dealing the classroom activities. The EFL teachers play the important role in providing the learners with a conducive learning situation to overall language development. To provide a content-based environment is not an easy responsibility for the EFL teachers. They should set the activities in teaching and learning in line with the communicative approach.

Shaaban (2005) proposed a comprehensive framework of implementing moral education into the ESL/EFL curriculum. There are seven parts of it, they are: message, language skills, methods, outcomes, activities, resources, and assessment. The framework will effectively promote second and foreign language learners' linguistics and cognitive development and, at the same time, encourage the growth of their character.

There are many values that can be developed and taught to the learners. Because of that, it is necessary to classify them to be distributed into all subjects. As the consequence, every lesson has its own main characters as the priority to be taught to the students. It focuses on the integration of the prime values that need to develop in the different subjects. It does not mean that one subject has the limitation in implementing those characters based on the regulation that is released by the government. The characters of each lesson are chosen as the main values based on the closeness of the characteristics of each subjects (Ministry of National Education, 2010: 12).

As one of the school subjects, English also has its own character values that should be developed in its learning activity. These character values are formulated to strengthen the success of language learning. Because when study a language, the learners are not only learn how to master the language skills but also learn how to use it politely and properly. People tend to learn and use language merely to express their ideas, believe, and thought or as intellectual based. Language is more than those purposes, it also used to express the norms, values, and even emotions. To strengthen the implementation of character education, there are eighteen character values that should be developed by the school, they are: (1)Religious, (2)honest, (3)tolerance, (4)Discipline, (5)Hardworking ethos, (6)Creative, (7)Independence, (8)Democratic,(9)Curiosity, (10)The spirit ofnationality, (11)Love the country,(12)Rewarding Achievement, (13)Friendly/Communicative, (14)Love of Peace,(15)Reading Interest,(16)Care for the Environment, (17)Social Awareness, &(18)Responsibility (Curriculum And Books Center, Department Of Research And Development, 2011: 3).

To internalize those character values into the teaching and learning activity the first step to do is to analyse the standard of competency and basic competency of the lesson. By doing so, the teachers may able to decide what character values that can be integrated into the activity of the lesson. Then, the character values that they want to develop and integrate to the lesson can be stated in the syllabus and lesson plan. The next step is applying what have been planned in the syllabus and lesson plan into the classroom activity. In this step, some problems may arise, such as teachers are only good at planning of the teaching programs but not at the implementation. It might happen because they consider that it is only a formality in order to fulfil their administration that is obligated by the school. As the result, what have been planned in the syllabus and lesson plan are oftendifferent to the application in the classroom.

Based on the facts above, it was assumed that the character education has already been implemented in teaching and learning activity of English classes at MAN 1 Samarinda even though both teachers and students did not realize it. Take it into account, a research regarding to the internalization of character values in teaching and learning English conducted at MAN 1 Samarinda.

## 2 METHODS

Shank (2002) defines qualitative research as a form of systematic empirical inquiry into meaning. By systematic it means "planned, ordered and public", following rules agreed upon by members of the qualitative research community. By empirical, it means that this type of inquiry is grounded in the world of experience. Inquiry into meaning says researchers try to understand how others make sense of their experience. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) claim that qualitative research involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. The focus of this study was on the description of the implementation of

character education without any experimental or manipulated settings involved, therefore, the design of this study was qualitative design.

The subjects of this study were four students and one English teacher of Madrasah Aliyah Negeri 1 Samarinda. The aim of the study is to identify and describe central themes which are character values and their internalization, the research subject can cut across the variety of cases or people (Holloway et.al in Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). To determine the students who became the research subjects, the researcher asked some students and an English teacher who know well them in term of their both English achievements and behaviour. All the research subjects were from the third year students that were assumed to have experience in the development of character education in learning English since the first year.

The data that collected in this research were check list of observation, field notes, interview guide for the teachers and students, and teachers' lesson plan. The observation was functioned as the main source of data; meanwhile the interview and documents were used as supporting source of data.

- (i) The observation check list was made based on the adaptation from character values and indicators purposed by Ministry of National Education (2010). The data were taken based on the process of teaching and learning activity.
- (ii) The field notes in this study was used to know the activities during the teaching learning process, such as how the teachers carry out the implementation of character values and the students' responses.
- (iii) Interview was used to reveal more information from the teachers and students based on what had found in the process of observation. Unstructured interview was conducted to make the rapport between the interviewer and informants in natural situation.
- (iv) The teachers' lesson plans would be useful to know about the character values that would be carried out during the process of teaching and learning English.

For data collection technique, the observation and interview were used. Data from observation would be functioned as primary data and data from interview was functioned as supporting data. Since this study would like to figure out the application of character education in the process of teaching and learning activity, observation was considered the effective way to support this step. The observation was conducted to the each class of the research subjects to get more obvious point of view. The observation checklist was used in the classroom observation that adapted from Ministry of National Education (2010). For the sake of gathering more information during the observation process, the field notes were also taken. To get information from the teachers and students about the researcher's findings from the observation, the interview was chosen as the cross-checking data.

In data reduction, the data from observation, field notes, interview and documents were selected, focused, simplified, made an abstract, and transformed. At the second step, the data were displayed by using the list of character values and transcription of the interview and give explanation about them. In the last step, conclusion drawing and verification, the conclusion and verified through the result on data display were made.

In this study data triangulation was used using more than one source to gather data. Observation was conducted to gather the obvious phenomenon of character education implementation especially about what character values that appeared and how they were internalized in the process of teaching and learning English. Interview with the teachers and some informants of the students was used to strengthen and confirm the

result of observation. Teacher's lesson plan was used to figure out the target of character values that want to develop by the teacher and how she delivered them into the class activities.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

From the observation and field notes about the character values and how the teacher internalized them in teaching and learning English activities were found that there were six character values appeared. Those character values did not appear together at once, they were performed by the students in three times classroom observation differently. At the first observation, there were only two character values appeared namely; independence and hardworking. At the second one, there was one additional character value beside independence and hardworking, it was curiosity. The third observation offered more character values; they were hardworking, reading interest, democratic attitude, and communicative manner. In addition, the class activities were prepared by the teacher really brought significant contribution in internalizing those character values. By setting the teaching and learning activities appropriately, it would support the character building of the students.

On the other side, based on the interview with the teacher and some informants from the students, it revealed that among those characters there were only two of them; independence and hardworking that were performed by all the research subjects. When the teacher was asked about how she internalized the character values into her teaching, she confessed:

**Teacher:** "Jujur saja saya belum memahami apa itu pendidikan berkarakter. Untuk sosialisasinya kurang sepertinya, terutama dalam Bahasa Inggris."

Translated:

**Teacher:** "Honestly, I do not understand about what character education is. There is so limited information about it especially for English subject."

It meant that she had limited awareness about the internalization of character values even though subconsciously she had already applied it into her teaching and learning activities. In fact, the teacher had implemented character education through internalization of the character values into her class. In her teaching instruction, she kept telling her students the importance of learning English for the students' future. Besides that, she expected the students to do their best in finishing the tasks. She also reminded her students the way to propose a question during the classroom activity, that is, by raising one of hands when the students wanted to ask or answer the questions.

Furthermore, in the teacher's lesson plans were clearly stated about the list of character values and the class activities that support the implementation of character education into the teaching and learning English. In the lesson plans, the teacher mentioned eight character values based on the list of character values that should be developed for English learners at high school level released by Ministry of National Education. In the implementation step, the teacher only developed six of them into her class activities. It could happen because the teacher had not analyzed the appropriate character values which were supposed to be appropriate with the topic that want to be delivered.

From the six of character values, there were two of them that seemed to be owned by all research subjects. The two character values were independence and hardworking

ethos. Independence and hardworking ethos had been transformed into a habituation of these students. It meant that those character values were performed consistently by the students not only when dealing with individual task but also when they should work in group. It was appropriate with the indicators that used in the observation check list about independence and hardworking ethos. In completing the task given by the teacher, the students always did it responsibly with their effort. Because English is a foreign language, they need to translate and get the meaning of source language to the target language and they did it by themselves. All the tasks and assignments set by the teacher would be accomplished by the students as accurate as their best.

The last four character values were reading interest, curiosity, democratic attitude, and communicative manner. These character values were observed significantly when the students did discussion about some reading text. They started to ask and to get more information about the learning material. When the discussion season, the students appeared to listen, ask and express opinions and accept the differences of opinion in learning activities. They also shared the idea to the group members or class in the process of learning using the language properly. These indicators proved that curiosity, democratic attitude, and communicative manner were still in the level of appear and did not become the students habituation in learning English. They grew because of the teaching and learning activity set by the teacher.

In addition, there were two good characters that performed by S3. The researcher did not find them in the classroom activity but beyond learning time when he still in the school area. Based on researcher observation, S3 was a pious student who does not only do *Zuhur* and *Asar* prayers but also additional prayer called *Dhuha* at the first of break time. Besides, he always greets the teachers when he meets them.

Teacher's role in the implementation of character education was significantly needed. From his/her setting, the character values could be internalized into the activity of teaching and learning. In this study, the teacher convinced the researcher that she did not understand well about character education and how to apply it into classroom activity. She confessed that the character values in her syllabus and lesson plans were attached just to fulfil the obligation that is ruled by the school. In fact, what she performed in teaching and learning activity reflected the internalization of character values in learning English. It showed that the teacher had internalized the character education in her teaching and learning process but she did not aware about it.

Referring to the research findings, the result of this study proved that the character values implemented in the process of English teaching-learning in MAN 1 Samarinda were appropriate to the list of character values for English subject released by the Ministry of National Education (2001: 3). It also supported the three steps of establishing the character education in school, they were planning, implementing and evaluating (Ministry of National Education; 2010). Sternberg (1988) brings the need of interactions to determine behaviour, particularly the ability to adapt and shape the present environment, an important consideration for creating a values-based atmosphere in a school. In addition, Lickona (2005) proposed that schools must help students understand core values, adopt or commit to them, and then act upon them in their own lives. The internalization of six character values in teaching and learning English was appropriate to Shaaban's study (2005: 203). He believed that nurturing of some universal values, such as honesty, integrity, respect, and responsibility be called for in the early stages of moral education and that independence, reflective moral agents, individuals capable of making

informed decisions and justifying the principles that guide such decision should be aimed at the later stages of the development.

Even though without being fully aware, planning and implementing steps were done by English teacher. Unfortunately, the English teacher had not conducted the evaluating step yet to observe the progress of character education of the students. It was understandable because she confessed that she did not know anything about character education and never got brief explanation about it from school officials or colleagues. It is argued that character values development is an outcome of effective teaching. It is a precipitate of best practice instruction. According to Solomon, Watson, & Battistich (2001), effective teaching promotes both moral and academic excellence. Effective teaching for character values aligns with best practice instruction for academic achievement. The knowledge base that supports best practice instruction is coterminous with what is known to influence the character values development. However, making explicit this knowledge should be clear for teachers.

#### **4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

The character education had been subconsciously implemented in MAN 1 Samarinda especially in teaching and learning English. There were three steps in developing character education that could be internalized in the process of teaching and learning namely planning, applying and evaluating. In this study the teacher did the step of how to develop character education through planning, and applying but not for evaluating. The character values were internalized by the English teacher into the process of teaching and learning even though she did not realize it.

There were six of character values that appeared in teaching and learning English possessed by the students. The character values were; independence, hardworking ethos, reading interest, curiosity, democratic attitude, and communicative manner. The character values of independence and hardworking ethos became habituation to all the research subjects. They implemented them not only when dealing with individual task but also in group work. Meanwhile, reading interest, curiosity, democratic attitude, and communicative manner started to appear during the process of teaching and learning English especially when they dealt with discussion among the students. In the other side, religiousness and social awareness were applied by one of the research subjects consistently. These character values were observed by the researcher mostly beyond the learning time at the school.

Therefore, it is suggested that teachers have training or seminars in which they are able to modify their syllabus or lesson plans in such ways that include/cover the character values required by the ministry of education and culture. So that, in recent years, the teachers should state the character values in their teaching equipment. As the consequences, many teachers do that as the obligation because actually they do not understand well about it. In the end, the school should facilitate the training specifically for the teacher about character education and how to implement it into teaching and learning activities.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Asmani, Jamal M. 2012. Buku Panduan Internalisasi Pendidikan Karakter di Sekolah. Jogjakarta: DIVA Press.
- Berkowitz, Marvin W., 2002. The Science of Character Education, in William Damon ed., *Bringing in a New Era in Character Education*. California Stanford University, Hoover Institution.
- Berkowitz, Marvin W & Bier, Melinda C. 2005. *What Works In Character Education: A research-driven guide for educators*. Washington, DC: Character Education Partnership.
- Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. 2006. *Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theory and methods*. Allyn & Bacon.
- Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary. 2008. Cambridge University Press.
- Curriculum And Books Center, Department Of Research And Development. 2011. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter (Berdasarkan Pengalaman di Satuan Pendidikan)*. Jakarta: Ministry of National Education.
- Denzin, N. K. 1978. *The Research Act in Sociology*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Directorate General of Elementary Education. 2011. Policy Brief: Pendidikan Karakter untuk Membangun Karakter Bangsa. Edisi 4 Juli. Jakarta: Ministry of National Education.
- Halstead, J. Mark. 2007. Islamic values: a distinctive framework for moral education? *Journal of Moral Education*. 36 (3), 283–296.
- Harms, Kristyn & Fritz, Susan. 2001. Internalization of Character Traits by Those Who Teach Character Counts! *Journal of Extension*. 39 (6), 1 – 12.
- Huitt, W. 2004. Moral and character development. *Educational Psychology Interactive*. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.
- Hussen et.al, 2010. *Model Pendidikan Karakter Bangsa*. Jakarta: Universitas Negeri Jakarta.
- Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B. S., & Masia, B. 1973. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, the Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook II: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Co. Inc.
- Li, Ziang. 2012. A Summary about Practice of Communicative Approach in Real Collage English Teaching. *Sino-US English Teaching*. 9 (3), 996-1004.
- Lickona, Thomas. 2005. "The Return of Character Education", in Noll, James Wm., *Taking Sides: Clashing Views on Controversial Educational Issues*. Iowa: McGraw-Hil.
- Lickona, Schaps, and Lewis 2010. *CEP's Eleven Principles of Effective character Education*. Washington, DC: Character Education Partnership.
- Matera, D. 2001. *A cry for character*. Paramus: Prentiss Hall Press.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, A.M. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ministry of National Education. 2010. *Kerangka Acuan Pendidikan Karakter Tahun Anggaran 2010*. Jakarta.
- Ministry of National Education. 2010. *Panduan Guru Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris: Pendidikan Karakter Terintegrasi dalam Mata Pelajaran di Sekolah Menengah Pertama*. Jakarta.
- Ministry of National Education. Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan. 2010. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter: Berdasarkan Pengalaman di Satuan Pendidikan Rintisan*. Jakarta.
- Nord, Warren & Charles Haynes. 2000. *The relationship of religion to moral education in the public schools*. George Washington University: The Communitarian Network.

Ritchie, J., Lewis J., Elam G. 2003. Designing and Selecting Samples. In Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. (Eds). *Qualitative Research Practice a Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers* (p. 77-104). London: SAGE Publication.

Rubin, J. & Thompson, I. 1982. *How to be a more successful language learner*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.

Shaaban, Kassim. 2005. "A Proposed Framework for Incorporating Moral Education into the ESL/EFL Classroom." *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 18.(2): 201-217.

Shank, G. 2002. *Qualitative Research. A Personal Skills Approach*. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Solomon, D., Watson, M., & Battistich, V. 2001. Teaching and schooling effects on moral/prosocial development. In V. Richardson (Ed.) *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. (pp. 566-603). Washington. D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Sternberg, R. 1988. *The Triarchic Mind: A New Theory of Human Intelligence*. NY: Viking Press.

Tafsir, Ahmad. 2001. *Metodologi Pegajaran Agama Islam*. Bandung, Remaja Rosdakarya.

Tsui, Cheng-Fang. 2008. Character Education in Demand for the University EFL Classroom. *Foreign Language Study*. 8 (06), 85-101.

Webster, R. Scott. 2010. Does the Australian National Framework for Values Education Stifle Education for World Peace? *Educational Philosophy and Theory*. 42 (4), 462-475.

Winkel, WS. 2009. *Psikologi Pengajaran*. Yogyakarta: Media Abadi,

Yaqin, Ainul. 2011. Efektivitas Pembelajaran Afeksi di Madrasah/Sekolah. *ISLAMICA*. 6 (1), 190-202.

# AN ANALYSIS OF WRITING LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH STUDY PROGRAM OF FKIP UNIVERSITY OF RIAU

Fakhri Ras,Syafri K.  
fakhriras@yahoo.com

**Jismulatif**

*English Lectures at University of Riau-Indonesia*

## **Abstract**

*This study aims at determining strategies used by the students quantitatively to solve the problems in the course of Writing. The population of the study are the students who are taking Writing 3 in which the sample are all students due to the homogeneous characteristics especially in the aspect of academic achievement. Research findings contribute to the various parties like: students, lecturers, an educational laboratory manager and curriculum designers of English Study Program. For quantitative data, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1989) is used. In addition, the needed data for processing skills chosen by the respondents, three approaches (Process Approach, Process-Genre Approach, and Product Approach) are investigated. The results are as the following: (1) Process Approach (students' experience to support the writing), (2) Process-Genre Approach (the model of the text should be known by the students), and (3) Product Approach (helping students write in structure, vocabulary, and transition signals). The implications of this study are that the preferred strategies used by the respondents should be well instructed to all students especially for those who are taking Writing 3.*

**Keywords:** *Language Learning Strategies and Writing*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Various problems were faced by the students in writing as subject. In general, the students who take English Department come from various majors at senior high school level (social science, exact science, religious major, and vocational major), in which they took a small portion of English in a large class (more or less 40 students in one class). Specifically, the students need more times to adjust to academic atmosphere of English Department in which English language is fully used as medium of instruction. Most of them are not so active in using the productive skills (speaking and writing) rather than the receptive skills (listening, reading, structure, and vocabulary items). In other words, they are not so strong in oral and written communication.



widely used in Australia than in Indonesia. Johari Afrizal (2005) concluded that most of the students prefer to learn strategies meta-cognitive and affective than strategies learning strategies memory. Gender and socioeconomic factors do not differ significantly in the use of language learning strategies. Kartika Naswantara (2010) concluded that both the ITS student has a different way of learning the language but both can work together for the advancement of learning.

Fakhri Ras (2011) concluded that use of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by senior high school students as the city of Pekanbaru is at a medium level, where social strategies were the highest among the various learning languages studied (memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social). Additionally, the use SILL positively correlated to the achievement of learning English are achieved by senior high school students as the city of Pekanbaru. And then, research of Fakhri Ras (2012) found that use of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by senior high school students as the cities of Dumai, Bengkalis, and Selatpanjang are at the medium level, where social strategies were the highest among the various learning languages studied (memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social). Additionally, the use SILL positively correlated to the achievement of learning English are achieved by senior high school students as the cities of Dumai, Bengkalis, and Selatpanjang.

### 3 RESEARCH FINDING IN WRITING

In the last several years, various studies have been done in writing skill by some researchers of English language. Rollinson (2005) states that social dimension in Peer Feedback can improve positive attitude of the respondents toward writing which increases motivation, creativity, and attractiveness. Kurt and Atay (2007) also conclude that in Peer Feedback can improve self confidence and decrease level of anxiety in writing.

Xianghua (2010) concludes that university students in China incline to consider reading aspect, judge the value of argumentative text, and make plan before writing. Tatabaci and Farzaneh (2012) define the students who are in group of experiment achieve higher score compared to those who are in control group in Iran. This matter occurred to sub-skill of writing such as focus, elaboration, organization, convince, and vocabulary items. In turn, the portofolio assessment can be regarded as strategy that can improve writing ability.

Diniyah (2013) found that the majority of the students have done mistakes in verbs, patterns, punctuation marks and spelling. Baliya (2013) concludes that the use of the method of cooperative learning is more effective to decrease the students learning difficulties in discussion, creativity, and thinking in group overall the whole class.

#### 3.1 Data Analysis and Discussion

##### 3.1.1 The Profile of the Respondents

The respondents of this research chosen based on gender and field of study. The information about the respondents' profile can be seen in table 1 and table 2.

*Table 1. Distribution of Respondents by Gender*

No	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
1	Male	9	45.0 %

2	Female	11	55.0 %
<b>Total</b>		20	100.0 %

From the above table shows that the respondents consist of 9 male students and 11 female students. The total number of the respondents is 20 students.

**Table 2. Distribution of Respondents by Field of Study**

No	Field of Study	Frequency	Percentage
1	Natural Science (IPA)	10	50.0%
2	Social Science (IPS)	10	50.0%
<b>Total</b>		20	100.0%

From the above table shows that the respondents are the students who come from two field of studies at senior high school (natural science – 8 students and social science - 10 students).

### 3.1.2 Analysis of Quantitative Data

This section describes the data of strategies used in writing skills based on gender and field of the study of the respondents. The data are as in table 3 and table 4.

**Table3. Use of Strategies in Writing Skill by Gender**

Variable	Strategies used Gender	
	Male	Female
Writing	<p>Writing Diary by using English</p> <p>Making an article of fun story using English</p> <p>Writing English sentences everyday</p> <p>Correcting errors of essay writing</p> <p>Writing short story in English</p>	<p>Enriching vocabulary mastery</p> <p>Learning how to make good sentences, paragraphs, and essays</p> <p>Writing Diary by using English</p> <p>Making an article of fun story using English</p> <p>Writing English sentences everyday</p>

In the above table, the respondents (male students and female students) use some prominent strategies that suit to them to do writing. For example, the male students tend to use the following ways such as, *writing Diary by using English, making an article of fun story using English, writing English sentences everyday, correcting errors of essay writing, and writing short story in English.*

While the female students also use various strategies in writing like enriching vocabulary mastery, learning how to make good sentences, paragraphs, and essays, writing diary by using English, making an article of fun story using English, and writing English sentences everyday.

**Table4. The Use of Strategies in Writing Skill by Field of the Study of the Respondents**

Variable	Strategies used by Field of the Study of Respondents	
	Natural Science	Social Science
Writing	Writing Diary by using English Making an article of fun story using English Writing English sentences everyday	Writing short story of English Enriching vocabulary mastery Learning how to make good sentences, paragraphs and essays

From the above table, the respondents (Natural Science and Social Science) use some different strategies that suit to them to do writing. For example, Natural Science students tend to use the following ways such as, *writing diary by using English, making an article of fun story using English,* and *writing English sentences everyday.* Although respondents from Social Science students also use various strategies in writing like *writing short story of English, enriching vocabulary mastery,* and *learning how to make good sentences, paragraphs, and essays.*

### 3.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data

The research findings in the part of qualitative data are those strategies selected by respondents in 3 aspects of writing skills. The explanation of each component of writings method can be seen in the following tables.

#### 3.2.1 Process Approach

Table 5. Process Approach

No.	Statement	SD	D	UN	A	SA
1	Students need to discuss with peers about the ideas (such as topic, thesis statement, and supporting details) of what they are writing.				16	4
2	Students need to collect as many Supporting ideas as possible about the topic that they write.			1	12	7
3	Students should make a plan or an outline before they start writing.			4	11	5
4	Students' experience/knowledge is important for them to find things to write.		1	2	6	11
5	Students have to write down as many ideas as possible for their first rough draft.			7	10	3
6	Students also need to consider peers' various ideas about the topic they write.				14	6
7	Students have to consider the purpose and the readers such as peers and the lecturer for their writing.			4	12	4
8	Students have to consider about the organization of their writing.			5	10	5
9	Students need to use dictionary to check unknown words when they write.			2	11	7

10	Students need to talk with peers about unknown words when they write.			4	10	6
11	Students have to produce subsequent drafts.			7	12	1
12	Students have to revise the draft for content and clarity meaning.	1	3	14	2	
13	After individual revising, students need to confer their writing with peers and with the lecturer.	2	4	12	2	
14	Students have to edit the draft individually and collaboratively with peers and the lecturer.	1	4	12	3	
15	After getting feedback from peers and the lecturer, students need to rewrite the final, polished draft.	1	2	10	7	
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>0</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>172</b>	<b>73</b>

As seen from the table 5, there are 15 statements that describe the Process Approach. Among them, there is a statement (number 4) that can be said as the most preferable strategy used by the respondents, that is *the students' experience/knowledge is important for them to find things to write*. This strategy is followed by some more strategies like in the statement number 2 "*supporting ideas as possible about the topic that they write*", in the statement number 9 "*students need to use dictionary to check unknown words when they write*" and in the statement number 15 "*after getting feedback from peers and the lecturer, students need to rewrite the final, polished draft*". It does not mean that the rest statements in the category of "strongly agree" (SA) are not so crucial. In the same sense, there are also several strategies trend to be used by the respondents in the category of "agree" (A) to support the strategies use in the category of "strongly agree" (SA).

### 3.2.2 Process-Genre Approach

*Table 6. Process-Genre Approach*

No.	Statement	SD	D	UN	A	SA
1	At the beginning of the lesson, students need to pay attention to the particular pattern of essay organization being discussed.			1	16	3
2	Students also need to pay attention to thesis statement for each organization.				15	5
3	The model text is very important for students to know.			1	10	9
4	Students need to pay attention on how text organization developed to accomplish its purpose.				13	7
5	Students have to pay attention on the type of brainstorming activity applied by their lecturer.			3	14	3
6	Students have to contribute ideas in brainstorming activities.		1	4	14	1
7	Students also need to participate in making plan/outline for the model essay.			3	13	4
8	Students need to contribute information and ideas for the first rough draft of the model			5	14	1

	essay together with the lecturer.					
9	Students also need to pay attention to the use of transition signals.		1	4	14	1
10	After the draft of the model essay is finished, students, together with the lecturer edit the writing first in terms of content and the clarity of meaning.			1	17	2
11	Students need to apply one of the brainstorming techniques (free-writing, listing, or clustering) to generate ideas of their writing.			3	13	4
12	Students have to make a plan or an outline before they start writing an essay.			1	16	3
13	Students need to depend on their own experiences/knowledge to find things to write.		2		10	8
14	Students need to consider the purpose and the audience (peers and lecturer) for their writing.			4	12	4
15	Students need to write down as many ideas as possible for the first rough draft.		1	9	8	2
16	Students may refer to the model essay when they write an essay individually.				18	2
17	Students need to use dictionary to check unknown words when they write.			2	12	6
18	Students need to talk with peers about unknown words when they write.			2	16	2
19	Students produce subsequent drafts.		1	4	14	1
20	Students revise the draft for content and clarity of meaning.			3	13	4
21	After revising the draft individually, students confer their writing with peers and with the lecturer.			3	15	2
22	Students need to consider peers' various ideas about the topic they write.			4	13	3
23	Students have to edit the draft individually and collaboratively with peers and the lecturer.		1	2	14	3
24	After getting feedback from peers and the lecturer, students have to rewrite the final polished draft.			5	11	4
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>0</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>325</b>	<b>84</b>

As can be seen above, there are 24 statements that describe the Process-Gender Approach. Among them, there is a statement (number 3) that can be said as the most preferable strategy used by the respondents, that is *the model text is very important for students to know*. This strategy is followed by some more strategies like in the statement number 4 "*students need to pay attention on how text organization developed to accomplish its purpose*", in the statement number 13 "*students need to depend on their own experiences/knowledge to find things to write*" and in the statement number 17 "*students need to use dictionary to check unknown words when they write*". It does not mean that the other statements in the category of "strongly agree" (SA) are not so necessary. In line with them, there are also several strategies trend to be used by the

respondents in the category of “agree” (A) to support the strategies use in the category of “strongly agree” (SA).

### 3.2.3 *Product Approach*

**Table 7. *Product Approach***

No.	Statement	SD	D	UN	A	SA
1	Model essays are very important for students to learn before they write.			1	12	7
2	Students need to learn model essays in term of highlighted features, such as sentence structure and vocabulary.		1		14	5
3	Students also need to study model essays in term of essay organization.			4	13	3
4	Students need to pay attention on the thesis statement and topic sentences of each body paragraph of the model essay.		1	1	14	4
5	The highlighted features of the essays need to be discussed and practiced in detail.		1		13	6
6	Students have to participate in the practice of highlighted features: sentence structure, vocabulary, and transition signals.			1	13	6
7	The practice of sentence structures, vocabulary, and the transition signals helps students a lot when writing individual essay.			1	10	9
8	When writing an essay, students need to apply one of the brainstorming techniques: free-writing, listing, or clustering to generate ideas.			3	15	2
9	Organization of ideas is very important and even more important than the ideas themselves.		2	6	12	
10	Students need to make a plan or an outline before they start writing.		1	1	16	2
11	Students have to use their own experiences/knowledge to find things to write.		1	1	12	6
12	Students have to write down as many ideas as possible for their essay.			5	14	1
13	Students have to use various transition signals when writing individual essay.			5	14	1
14	Students need to use dictionary to check unknown words when they write.		1	1	13	5
15	Students need to talk with friends about			2	13	5

	unknown words when they write.					
16	Students need to refer to the model essay when they write an essay.			4	13	3
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>0</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>211</b>	<b>65</b>

Based on the above table, there are 16 statements that describe the Product Approach. Among other things, there is a statement (number 7) that can be said as the most preferable strategy used by the respondent, that is *“the practice of sentence structures, vocabulary, and the transition signals helps students a lot when writing individual essay”*. This strategy is followed by some more strategies like in the statement number 1 *“model essays are very important for students to learn before they write”*, in the statement number 5 *“the highlighted features of the essays need to be discussed and practiced in detail”*, in the statement number 6 *“students have to participate in the practice of highlighted features: sentence structure, vocabulary, and transition signals”* and in the statement number 11 *“students have to use their own experiences/knowledge to find things to write”*. It does not mean that the rest statements in the category of “strongly agree” (SA) are not so important. Accordingly, there are also several strategies trend to be used by respondents in the category of “agree” (A) to support the strategies use in the category of “strongly agree” (SA).

#### **4 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION**

##### **4.1 Conclusions**

After this research has been conducted, there are some conclusions can be taken as follow:

There are some preferred strategies used by respondents to do writing skill based on gender are writing diary in English, writing fun stories in English, and enriching vocabulary mastery.

Preferred strategies used by respondents to do writing skill based on field of study are writing diary in English, writing short stories in English, and learning how to make good sentences, paragraph, and essays.

In the process approach, there is a statement (number 4) in the category of “strongly agree” (SA) that can be said as the most preferable strategy used by the respondent, that is *“the students’ experience/knowledge is important for them to find things to write”*.

While in the process-genre approach, there is also the most preferable statement in the category of “strongly agree” (SA) chosen by respondents. The statement is number 9 *“the model text is very important for students to know”*.

Then, in the product approach, there is a statement (number 7) that can be said as the most preferable strategy used by the respondent, that is *“the practice of sentence structures, vocabulary, and the transition signals helps students a lot when writing individual essay”*.

##### **4.2 Recommendation**

Based on the above research findings, there are two methods that need to be recommended. The recommendations are as follows.

The use of language learning strategy should be maximized to do writing skill in order to achieve as satisfactory result.

The strategies that have been applied before should be developed by the students and lectures as well in order to get very suitable writing strategies in the new future.

## REFERENCES

- Baliya, R., (2013). Enhancing writing abilities of primary class students through Cooperative learning strategies: An experimental study. *International Journal of Behavioral Social and Movement Science*. Vol. 02 ISSN:22777547.
- Bennui, P., (2008). A study of interference in the writing of Thai EFL students. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research*, Vol. 4, pp.72-102.
- Chamot, A.U., (1987). The cognitive academic language approach: a bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly* 21: 13-24.
- Chaney, A.L., & T.L. Burk, (1998). *Teaching oral communication in grades K-8*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Diniya, T.G., (2013). *An analysis on students' ability and difficulty in writing narrativetext: A research study concerning on writing skill of eleventh grade student*. Aresearch paper. Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.
- Eliwarti, (2014). *The Effects of Types of Writing Approaches on EFL Students' Writing Performance*. Thesis. Bangi; Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Ellis, R., (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fakhri Ras, (2011). *Language learning strategies used by Pekanbaru senior high school students based on socio-economic, academic, and situational factors*. Bangi: Faculty of education Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Fakhri Ras, (2012). *Language learning strategies used by the students of English Department based on socio-economic, academic, and situational factors*. Pekanbaru: Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Riau.
- Fakhri Ras, (2013). *Penggunaan strategi belajar oleh siswa cemerlang SLTA kota Dumai, Selat Panjang, dan Bengkalis*: Pekanbaru: Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Riau.
- Johary Afrizal, (2005). *Language learning strategies of EFL university students at Indonesian private university*. Bangi: Fakulti Pendidikan Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Kadenge, M., (2009). African Englishes: the indigenization of English novels by Zimbabwean native Shona speakers. *The Journal of pan African Studies* (3) 156-173.
- Kartika Nuswantara (2010). English language learning strategies of two successful learners of different learning styles. Institut Teknologi Sepuluh November (ITS) Surabaya. *Leksika* 4 (1): 73-83.
- Lan, Rae L., (2005). *Language learning strategies profiles of EFL elementary school students in Taiwan*. Maryland: Department of Curriculum and instruction. Univesity of Maryland.
- Nenden Sri Lengkanawati, (2004). How learners from different cultural backgrounds learn a foreign language? *Asian ELT Journal* 1-8.

- Reid, J., (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. New Jersey. Regents.
- Roolinson, P., (2005). Using Peer Feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal*, 59 (1), 23-30.
- Rubin, J., (1987). Learners' strategies: theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.) *Learners strategies in language learning*. pp 15-29. New York: Printice Hall.
- Tatabaci, O., and Farzaneh, (2012). The effect of portofolio assessment technique on writing performance of EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, Vol. 5 No. 5 ISSN 19164750.
- Xianhua, Liu, (2010). An investigation of Chinese University EFL learners' knowledge about writing. *Language Studies Working Pappers*, Vol.2, 51-63.
- Wenden, A., & Rubin, J., (1987)(Eds.). *Learner strategies in language learning*. Englewood Cliffs. New Jersey: Prentice hall.
- Yi, Jyi-yeon. (2009). Defining writing ability for classroom writing assessment in high schools. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 13(1), 53-69.

## IMPLEMENTING LISTENING STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSROOM

**Angga Rosma Pramodhawardhani**  
angga.rosma@yahoo.com

**Esa Yolanda Putri**  
esaayolanda@gmail.com

*Linguistics Department, University of Indonesia*

### **Abstract**

*Listening is a basic skill for learning a new language. In classroom, besides acquiring the language system, the main purpose of listening task is to get information. How much information you get will depend on listening strategies that you use. In this case, teachers need to introduce and teach listening strategies so that learners can get more information needed to enhance their listening comprehension. Thus, this paper intends to describe listening strategies and purpose several possible activities to implement listening strategies in English as Foreign Language classroom. Recognizing type of text, going for gist, guessing on the basis of knowledge of the world, using tone of speakers' voices for clues, picking out cognates, identifying unfamiliar phrases and playing relevant section of the tape, holding unfamiliar sounds in head and saying them, trying to break down the stream of sound into individual words, trying to write the sounds down and to relate them to written words previously learn and listening out for clues from the tense and word order are listening strategies that can be used in the classroom. By implementing the strategies, learners can extract the information needed in order to have better comprehension.*

**Keywords:** *listening, listening strategy, learning strategy*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

Listening is a major component of language learning (Brown, 2007; Bozorgian & Pillay, 2013; Harmer, 2012; Peterson, 2001). In first language acquisition process, babies acquire language through listening. Listening to other people talks is how they acquire the language. Therefore, listening is the basis for learning a language.

In EFL context, listening is one of the skills that need to be developed. In the classroom, learners require the ability to listen to process all the input given by the teacher. In addition, learners can form productive skills through listening (Nation & Jonathan 2009). Harmer (2007) said that learners could practice their pronunciation by listening. The more they listen and understand the words in the English, the more they absorb the tone, intonation, stress and speed sound. Moreover, Harmer (2007) affirmed that the success of a communication depends not only on the ability to speak but also on the ability to listen effectively.

Moreover, listening is also useful in learners' everyday life. Most learners want to be able to understand English when interacting in English, or at the time of hearing talk on television or radio, movies, songs, social media and so forth. Here, the role of teachers is needed to improve listening skills learners.

Basically, the main purpose of listening is to obtain information. How much information is obtained depends on the listening strategy used. Therefore, teachers need to introduce and teach listening strategies so that learners can obtain the information they need as optimal as possible. Thus, this paper intends to describe listening strategies and purpose several possible activities to implement listening strategies in English as Foreign Language classroom

## 2 LISTENING

Listening is one of the receptive skills that is often compared to reading. Nunan (2003) explained that there are two things that must be considered to distinguish these two receptive skills. The first is listening occurs in real time. In the interaction, the information received need to be processed fast so that the interaction can go smoothly. Moreover, people could not review or look for difficult words in listening. The second is listening frequently occurs in the middle of interaction and requires a productive response. During the interaction, people should not only listen carefully but also give a response so that the communication can be meaningful.

Basically, listening is an activity of paying attention to others talks. In other words, listening is an active process that occurs in the human mind to make sense of what listener had heard (Nunan, 2003; Nation & Jonathan, 2009; Underwood, 1989). Moreover, listening is not only process what is heard, but also connect it with any information or knowledge that has been known in advance so that the meaning can be formed as a whole. Thus, in listening, meaning is shaped by the context.

In listening process, the same as reading, the term 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' is also used to distinguish the process of listening. The process of 'bottom-up' emphasizes on the decomposition of the smallest units (syllables and phonemes) to form meaning (Wilson, 2008). While the 'top-down' more emphasizes on the use of the prior knowledge to predict the content. Wilson (2008) found that the comprehension that is formed from the 'top-down' will depend on what happens before listening activities take place, while on the 'bottom-up' meanings are formed depends on the linguistics aspect on the text. Here is more detail about these two processes.

(i) The process of "bottom-up"

In this process, the meaning will be formed from the smallest component to most major components. Starting from the phoneme, syllabic, lexical, syntax, semantics, propositional, pragmatic, and interpretive (Field, 2003). Thus, the information contained in the text is used as a guide to understand the meaning of the text.

(ii) The process of "top-down"

The 'top-down' is used to process the message as a whole by linking it with knowledge beyond discourse. Actually, the meaning, which is formed through this process, also comes from the linguistics aspect on the text but the process will not only use linguistic knowledge but also it will be integrated with other readers' knowledge. In short, this process

uses readers' prior knowledge, context and schemata to predict the meaning in the text (Nation & Jonathan, 2009; Hedge, 2000; Wilson, 2008).

Basically, both 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' are complement each other. Moreover, readers tend to use both processes simultaneously. This is known as Interactive models (Wilson, 2008). In addition, Van Duzer (1997) said that learners should be aware that both of these processes will affect their listening comprehension; therefore they have to learn to use both at a time.

## 2.2 The Principles of Listening

Brown (2007) found six principles that should be applied in the teaching listening skill. These principles can be developed to make techniques and listening activities become more effective and efficient. The principles are as follows:

- (i) Include a focus on listening in an integrated-skills course

If the curriculum implements the integration of the four language skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking), then we need to realize that every skill should have the same portion. There is no exception for listening because students are able to gain a lot of benefits through listening.
- (ii) Use techniques that are intrinsically motivating

Knowing the background of the learners is important in the process of language learning. This information can be used to design more interesting listening activities that are able to motivate learners.
- (iii) Utilize authentic language and context

The use of authentic language and context is surely be beneficial for the learners because they are able to acquire the language used in real life. Moreover, learners' motivation will certainly increase because they are able to see that the activities are meaningful.
- (iv) Carefully consider the form of the learners' responses

Comprehension is something that is invisible. Therefore, teachers must design the activities that can confirm learners' responds whether the comprehension has been correct.
- (v) Encourage the development of listening strategies

Most learners are not aware of how to listen. Thus, teachers need to introduce and teach strategies that can be used to listen so that the learners can process information effectively and efficiently.
- (vi) Include both bottom-up and top-down listening techniques

It is important to introduce these processes to the learners because these processes provide direction on how to process information and deduce the meaning of spoken discourse.

### 2.3 Purposes and Types of Listening

Each activity always has a purpose or goal, as well as listening. Listening happens because the information in the discourse is important to be known. Wilson (2008) stated that we learn to listen and we listen to learn. So, one of the main goals of listening is to get the information. However, it is undeniable that people also do listening activities only for entertaining themselves. Therefore, another goal of listening is for pleasure. Furthermore, Brown and Yule (1983) use the term "Transactional" to describe the objectives relating to the exchange of information and "Interactional" to describe a social purpose in communication.

According to Nation and Jonathan (2009), listening can be distinguished by two main types, namely One-way and Two-way listening. One-way listening is typically associated with transferring information. This type is known as transactional listening. In contrast, two-way listening is associated with maintaining social relationships; the term is commonly known as interactional listening.

Rost (2011) described six types of listening in the classroom. The types are as follow:

#### Intensive

In this type, the learning focus is on the aspects of phonology, syntax, and word. Learners pay attention to what is actually said and teacher provides feedback that is focused on accuracy.

#### Selective

The main focus lies on the main idea or gist. In practice, learners try to extract important information and build the information into more meaningful information. Here, teacher plays an active role during the activity and provide feedback on task completion.

#### Interactive

In this type, becoming an active listener is the main goal. Here, learners try to explain the meaning or form of what they have listened to. Learning activities can be a question and answer session between the learners and learners or learners and teacher to seek information or negotiate to find a solution. In this case, the feedback given is focused on the shape and outcome of the interaction.

#### Extensive

This type of listening is focused on a sustainable basis. Thus, learners listen to longer texts and the activities mostly focus on meaning. Here, the teacher gives feedback globally and emphasize the activities on strategies to comprehend the speech.

#### Responsive

In responsive type, the focus is on the response to a given input. Learners look for an opportunity to respond and prove their opinions and ideas. In these activities, the teacher's role is to motivate the learners so that they are able to express the ideas and opinions.

#### Independent

The main focus of this type of listening is the management of the learners' progress. Here, the learners do their own learning as choose their own tasks, monitor their own progress and choose their own patterns of interaction. The teacher's role is to provide global feedback on learning patterns that the learners do.

### 3 LISTENING STRATEGIES AND THE IMPLEMENTATION IN EFL CLASSROOM

Strategy is an attitude or behavior, which is done deliberately and consciously to improve the learning process so that the information received can be processed effectively and efficiently (Wilson, 2008). A good listener uses some strategies that are tailored to the purpose of listening. Therefore, listening strategies need to be taught to learners.

Input received through listening is the key to language acquisition. Therefore, effective listening strategies are important not only to produce but also to acquire a language (Hedge, 2000). Here are ten listening strategies proposed by Granfell and Vee (1999) and its application in the EFL classroom:

- (i) Recognizing type of text
  - Learners listen to some types of short text and asked to guess the type of the text by considering the speaker's tone of voice, speed, and other sounds.
- (ii) Going for the gist
  - Learners are asked to identify the topic of a piece of text that is listened.
  - Learners listen to the dialogue and determine what topics are being discussed. After that, they match the topics discussed with images that have been provided.
- (iii) Guessing in the basic knowledge of the world
  - Prior to listen, teacher and learners discuss the topic and predict the speaker's perception on the topic. Use the scheme KWL (Know / Want to Know / Learnt) to attract knowledge on the topic. Provide guidance to learners by giving headlines and titles. Let them predict additional content before listening to the recording.
- (iv) Using tone of speakers' voices for clues
  - Learners listening to a few sentences with a different intonation and give punctuation to the statement (.), Question (?), Sentence or order (!).
  - Learners listen to a dialogue between two people and determine whether the speech uttered is a question, statement, or command.
- (v) Picking out cognates

- Learners and teachers brainstorm to predict a list of words and phrases that might appear in the recording. Then, learners listen to recordings and mark the words that appear.
- (vi) Identifying unfamiliar phrases and playing relevant section of the recording
- Learners are asked to guess the words or phrases that are unfamiliar or difficult by using their reasoning. Then, the learners guessed by considering the context and grammatical signs that exist in the discourse.
- (vii) Holding unfamiliar sounds in head and saying them
- When the learners identify the sounds that they do not know, teachers play the recording again. Learners are asked to pronounce the sound repetitive and write it down on paper.
- (viii) Trying to break down the stream of sound into individual words
- Learners try to extract sounds listened and write it on the paper.
- (ix) Trying to write the sounds down and to relate them to written words previously learned the sound listened to
- Learners write down what they have listened and compare the results of their writing with the actual text.
- (x) Listening out for clues from the tense and word order
- Learners are asked to use a grammar and word category to identify both words and context in which oral discourse is heard.

#### **4 CONCLUSION**

Listening is a skill that is sometimes underestimated and neglected compared with other language skills. However, it is important to realize that listening is the basic skill that needs to be sharpened in order to learn a language. To develop learners' listening skills, teacher needs to introduce listening strategies to the learners. There are ten listening strategies that can be introduced and applied in the classroom, namely: (1) Recognizing type of text, (2) going for gist, (3) guessing on the basis of knowledge of the world, (4) using tone of speakers' voices for clues, (5) picking out cognates, (7) identifying unfamiliar phrases and playing relevant section of the tape, (7) holding unfamiliar sounds in head and saying them, (8) trying to break down the stream of sound into individual words, (9) trying to write the sounds down and to relate them to written words previously learned and (10) listening out for clues from the tense and word order. Teachers should be more focus on developing listening strategies primarily on learners with a low level so that they can become independent learners and confident. In short, by applying listening strategies appropriately, learners can be good listeners which are able to listen effectively and efficiently in the future.

## REFERENCES

- Alwi, Hasan. 2007. *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Balai Pustaka.
- Brown, G. & G. Yule. 1983. *Teaching the Spoken Language*. Cambridge: CUP
- Brown, H. D. 2007. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (3rd ed.). White Plains, New York: Pearson Longman.
- Bozorgian, H., & Pillay, H. 2013. Enhancing Foreign Language Learning through Listening Strategies Delivered in L1: An Experimental Study. *International Journal of Instruction*, 6 (1).
- Field, J. 2003. Promoting perception: lexical segmentation in L2 learning. *ELT Journal* 57, 4: 325-334
- Harmer, J. 2007. *How to teach English*. England: Pearson Longman.
- Harmer, J. 2012. *Teacher Knowledge: Core Concepts in English Language Teaching*. England: Pearson Longman.
- Hedge, Tricia. 2000. *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: OUP
- Nunan, David. 2003. *Practical English Language Teaching*. NY: McGrawHill
- Nation, I.S.P., & Jonathan Newton. 2009. *Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking*. UK: Routledge
- Peterson, P.W. 2001. Skills and Strategies for Proficient Listening. In Marianne Celce-Murcia (Eds). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition*. USA: Heinle&Heinle
- Rost, Michael. 2011. *Teaching and Researching Listening*. UK: Pearson
- Underwood, M. 1989. *Teaching Listening*. NY: Longman
- Van Duzer, C. 1997. *Improvign ESL learner' listening skill: At the workplace and beyond*. Retrieved May 1<sup>st</sup>, 2015 form <http://marshalladulthoodeducation.org>
- Wilson, J.J. 2008. *How to Teach Listening*. England: Pearson Longman

## CULTURAL VALUES AS CATALYSTS IN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

**I WayanSidhaKarya**  
wsidhakarya@yahoo.co.id

**Desak Putu Eka Pratiwi**  
eka\_mambal@yahoo.co.id

*STIBA Saraswati Denpasar*

### **Abstract**

*A culture if it is to maintain its existence must have values by which its people identify themselves, how they should act and what they think is important. It is very often mentioned that the success of foreign language learning must be an integrative one since language and culture are two intertwining aspects, the missing of one would cripple its speaker. While it is true that in intercultural communication one needs to understand the culture whose language he is learning, immersing the learner just in the foreign culture could, at best, devalue his own cultural identity. Learning a foreign language and culture may also be viewed as a reflection to how well we are consciously aware of our own. The one component aspect a foreign language learner often suffers from is his inability to recognize or say what values he adheres. The writer's point here is that in order for the learner to be equally balanced in his understanding of the target language and maintain his own cultural values, it is necessary for the teacher of English to juxtapose values from both cultures in the materials that he is using. One way this could be done is by introducing value concepts of both cultures through reading materials. A true cross-cultural understanding is when the foreign language learner is consciously aware of values from both cultures; then, a growth toward a mature individual could be expected as he constantly masters both values and has choices as to which or what values he feels fit to identify himself with.*

**Keywords:** *cultural values, cross-cultural understanding, intercultural communication*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

In the area of English language teaching it is often cited that the best way of mastering it is to learn it where that language is being spoken as native language, such as in America, England, or Australia. This is, no doubt, giving the opportunity for the learners to get immersed with the native speakers both inside and outside of the classroom situation. The question is what strategy or strategies one should apply when the learning takes place in the learners' own native country, like in Bali, Indonesia, where English is not used in daily conversational communication. In spite of the fact that English is taught starting

*Proceedings*  
**The 62<sup>nd</sup> TEFLIN International Conference 2015**  
**ISBN: 970-602-294-066-1**

from junior high school up to the university, and for the last decade even many elementary schools have included English in their curricula, the teaching of English is far from being communicatively engaged. In so far as English is concerned it is still considered as a foreign language, the teaching of which has been focused mainly on grammar and reading comprehension rather than on communicative skills.

Consciously or not the teaching of English often highlight aspects of cultural values that would overshadow the learners' future identity. The much over-stated aspect of teaching English is that teachers of English must integrate his class in the native speaker's model of the English language, since in this case English is viewed as conveying with it the whole cultural aspects of the native speakers. So, one of the best materials to be used in the classroom is authentic materials depicting how native speakers act and talk in their own social setting and environments with values all associated with their culture. Some of these values are individuality, independence, autonomy, privacy, informality, equality, fairness, directness, etc. It is not that these values are bad; rather, how they are manifested in real social life would be in contradiction with some aspects of the cultural values from where the language learners come from. Aspects of these values taught at schools through English as the target language (TL) without consciously comparing them with the learners' native language-cultural values could be mistaken as having originated from their own culture thus in their future life anything local could be viewed as being too traditional, un-modern, not independent, etc. In his article entitled *Tourism, Language, and Culture: Toward an Autonomous Learning*, published in ICSD (International Conference on Sustainable Development) 2012, exploring the conflicting values that language learners have to face, the writer mentions that

*In Bali meals are generally eaten three times a day. Visiting a Balinese house, a guest could expect that his host would offer him a meal or something to eat, regardless of whether his host has the food or not, being aware that his guest would give a negative response. Depending on the time of the day, the host may insist that the guest join him/her for the meal. The guest then has, hypothetically, to resume his/her strategy whether to accept the offer or not. This ritual between host and guest, which follows certain formulas, may end with the guest having had to, whether s/he wants it or not, comply to accept a cup of sweet coffee. (p.577)*

In a similar situation directness is being expected in the American English culture. The writer cited Livine and Adelman (1982, p. 21) that

*at a dinner party, for example, "it would not be unusual to find that the host does not repeat an offer more than once. (Hosts may offer food twice but usually not more than that.) If guests are hungry, they need to say directly, "yes, I'd like some more, thank you." If they hungry but say, "No, thank you," out of politeness, they may remain hungry for the rest of the evening. A host will assume that a guest's refusal is honest and direct. (p.578)*

Looking at the two examples above it is easy to see how far apart the difference is between the Balinese manner and that of the English. It is obvious that when the Balinese is engaged in an interaction of whether to accept an offer, politeness is the value that needs to be observed. It works like a tug-of-war, pulling and ceding several times before one side is completely ceding to the other side in order to celebrate. On the other hand, in English directness is being valued. The assumption goes that we are to be honest

with our own state of affairs. Both sides are working on the basis of trust. The person giving an offer trusts that the person given an offer gives an honest answer, and vice versa, that the person given the offer trusts that the offer is an honest offer. We cannot argue for one over the other as both ways have grown out of the mould of their cultural customs. In one culture the people emphasize on being polite while in the other culture emphasizes on being direct. The one often-misrepresented in the cross-cultural discussion is that the differences are being ram-battered in which if, for example, one culture values politeness the other must be impolite for doing the opposite way; and, if another culture values directness the other must be indirect. As seen above, the emergence of values is a matter of perspective which is imposed by many cultural factors that exist in that particular culture. The differences between/among cultures are not a matter of opposites. They must be seen as bodies of living entities whose growths are very much contingent upon the intakes of food from their respective environments.

Communication is not a matter of language only. It involves non-verbal gestures as well. When two people from two different cultural backgrounds are communicating they might use parts of their bodies to accompany their verbal utterances. Using either the right hand or the left hand to hand something to another and looking straight into eyes from time to time while speaking to another is the norm in the English culture, but it is not so the many parts of the world such as Indonesia. Using the left-hand to hand something to another and looking straight into eyes frequently are considered impolite in Indonesia.

The importance of collaborating values in the foreign language teaching becomes more urgently taken into consideration as the writer thinks that here in Bali some of the cultural values such as 'honesty' that the people have cherished so dearly seemed to have undergone steep erosion. As the recent news in the Bali Post (21 Mei 2015, p.9 and 22 Mei 2015, p. 9) has exposed that Bali's integrity index in the national examination (IIUN) was among the lowest in spite of its highest score achievement average. In part of its introductory paragraph the Bali Post (22 Mei 2015) commented that,

*“Hal ini membuktikan pihak sekolah masih mengutamakan mengejar nilai tinggi, ketimbang mengedepankan proses pelaksanaan UN yang jujur (the writer's emphasis) dan berintegritas. Di sisi lain, Bali menjadi daerah dengan peringkat rata-rata nilai UN tertingggi menjadi tidak bermakna ketika nilai IIUN in rendah. (This was to prove that schools still gave priority to high grades rather than the process of conducting the NE (National Examination) honestly and with integrity. On the other hand, Bali's prestige as a region with the highest rank in the NE grade average became meaningless when its IIUN was low.*

As one strategy of teaching the English language focusing on the intercultural values would be an excellent way to reverse the condition or to reaffirm this value of honesty together with other values that the people adhere to.

## **2 METHOD**

This article was written based on some literatures of teaching and learning researches available at the present time. This is then very much a library research collaborated with the writer's teaching experience in teaching Cross Cultural Understanding in the last six years. The two books, "Beyond Language" and "Face to Face", that the writer has used have given a lot of ideas as how to work on intercultural values that the writer has been working on. The current state of education is leaning toward adhering intercultural

approach to teaching foreign languages. This is in conjunction with the two text books that the writer has been using in Cross Cultural Understanding class, especially the "Face to Face" by Janger (1976) is very helpful in delineating what cultural values are. In the case study he discusses about conflict between the host culture (i.e the English cultural value) and the foreign language learner's culture. By building up the theoretical knowledge and teaching experience, the writer comes to this proposal of teaching cultural values of both the target language culture and the foreign language culture, especially in comprehension classes would help learners to be an efficient language learner.

### 3 DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 An Integrative Approach vs. an Intercultural Approach in the English Language Teaching

An ideal teacher in an integrative approach of language teaching was to cultivate a native speaker-like linguistic competence to the FLL (foreign language learner) of the English language. In a way that the learner was expected to act and speak according to values of the TL (target language) culture. This article on the other hand is trying to give a different perspective. We are aware that for a learner to be able to speak close to a native speaker s/he needs be immersed in the TL culture like those immigrants who study English in the United States, but those who learn it in the environment of his or her native culture and whose every life is in constant contact with her/his country men who speak yet in differing vernaculars, immersing them in TL culture could mean a way of, as the result of that customization and distancing them from their own, aggrandizing that foreign cultural values and putting away their own. If the language learning is to benefit the FLLs, they should be given a fair chance to discuss in this foreign language about their native cultural values in the expense of going native.

The native speaker model got a harsh criticism from Byram (1995) for its only concern was "the competence of native speakers in interaction with other native speakers, as a basis for teaching a foreign language." (p.24) He was of the opinion that foreign learners might be able to master the grammar of the language in reading and writing near native speaker-like; but when the spoken language performance in the real time production is being questioned it is obvious that "the native speaker model is an impossible target, and therefore condemns all learners and their teachers to failure." (p.24)

A lot of time the cultural aspects of the TL are difficult accommodate in the language teaching practice to the effect that they ignored altogether from the curriculum. Practitioners focus on language as a means of communication and integrate these cultural aspects in the language and thus they are unconsciously absorbing that foreign culture's values. The ability to communicate then was more important regardless of the cultural content. Citing Pulverness (1996:7), Corbett (2003) mentions that "..... Throughout the 1970's and much of the 1980s, syllabus design and material writings were driven by needs analysis, and 'culture' was subordinated to performance objectives." (p.2) He further says that recently there has been a movement to integrate 'culture' into the curriculum. He contends that the word 'culture' here is to be understood as not only the TL culture but also the FLLs own culture:

*"....., as learners come to a deeper understanding of how the target language is used to achieve the explicit and implicit cultural goals of the foreign language community, they should be prompted to reflect on the ways in which their own language and community function. The*

*intercultural learner ultimately serves as a mediator between different social groups that use different languages and language varieties.” (p.2)*

As culture is understood generally as both the TL culture and the LLs own culture it is well-worth it to see how foreign speakers are different from native speakers. According to Byram, there are three essential differences between the two. First and foremost important is that they have different cultural identities as internalized dimensions of the personality. When these FLL speak with others—whether native or non-native speakers—they would react according to their own specific internalized perceptions of the particular persons they are dealing with. Based on the two differences, then it is “quite inappropriate to set as a target a native speaker model of communicative and cultural competence.” To him it is more important that the FLL to be able to “manage interaction across cultural boundaries, to anticipate misunderstanding caused by difference in values, meaning and beliefs and .....” (p. 25). He emphasizes that “intercultural competence involves comprehension not only of how we understand others but also of how others perceive us.” And the FLLs “... need to be aware of their own culture, of what they take for granted, of the cultural relativity of what they hitherto believed was natural and normal.” (p.27) Citing McLeod (TESOL QUARTERLY, 1976, p. 211), SidhaKarya (2012) mentions that cultural relativity is “a concept which says that there is a theoretical equality among cultures of the world; no one culture is worse or better than the other, each should be viewed as a complete system having an integrity of its own and as appropriate for its own members.” (p.583) The FLLs, together with the teacher, could explore the value systems of both cultures with open manners, appreciating both cultural value systems without feeling that either system is worse or more superior than the other. In this manner the FLL can go a step further that the FLLs, with the help of the teacher, can grow from within so that they can take control of their own learning, cultivate self-confidence by making use of their own resources of potentiality, develop it in a way that conforms to their moment-to-moment living values as they grow. This kind of learning is hoped to produce individuals with the right to author and control their own lives. (Benson, 2001, p. 55)

### **3.2 Teaching Values as an Intercultural Subject**

In the next few pages we are going to look at some of the TL cultural values as well as the FLLs own cultural values. This is based on the writer’s own experience in teaching cross-cultural understanding or misunderstanding in that matter. What are values then? Taking a philosophical outlook in his book *Values as integrating forces in personality , society, and culture*, S. TakdirAlisjahbana (1974) speaks of value as a theory of ethics, which “attempts to clarify the super-value or the ethical value called goodness, from which the norms of good and bad behavior in relation to the totality of life are derived.” (p.5) Thus, talking about values is talking about how good or bad one behaves in his/her society, how s/he acts in terms of what people believes to be good, whether what s/he says is already in accordance with the norms in the society or not. Basically values are the guiding principles that someone who belongs to a particular society need to observe.

In the discussion on proverbs, Zanger (1993) expresses a similar view, that “values tell people how they should act and what their culture thinks is important. They teach what is right and wrong, according to a culture’s way of thinking.” (p. 61) Cultures of the world adhere different values, but many of them are similar. How these values are being used still depend on the customs of the people in that particular culture. “Though proverbs are part of the oral culture in the United States, good writers do not use them much. Famous Chinese essays, on the other hand, often begin with a Chinese proverb.” (p. 62) For a Chinese writer quoting a proverb shows how importantly they value

knowledge of the past. It is not so with the Americans. For them originality is more important, for their life is more focused toward the future. By inventing something new they expect to have a better life in the future. That we in Indonesia may agree with Zanger what he says in his Background Reading of the Case Study about time, that an Indonesian person would not plan his/her day but wait until later what s/he feels like doing, is a matter of a present orientation. (p.166)

A teacher of English can take benefits from focusing on teaching values. Values here, as already been mentioned above are to be understood as those of the TL culture and the FLLs culture. Comparing the cultural values through reading comprehension, vocabulary exercises, case studies and background reading of the case studies, interviewing native speakers, and finding out what cultural values people in their society uphold and what personal values they themselves uphold is a way of activities that a teacher may want to do in or outside of her/his English class. During his placement as lecturer at STIBA Saraswati Denpasar, the writer has made use of two different textbooks: *Face to Face*, by Virginia Vogel Zanger (1993) and *Beyond Language: Intercultural communication for English as a second language*, by Levine Deena R. and Adelman Mara B (1982), which have been very helpful in clarifying some crucial points, firstly, cultural differences such as what is polite in one culture is impolite in another. Secondly, in communication what we do not say verbally could mean a great deal. Zanger mentions that "It is believed that 65% of communication happens nonverbally, or without words. Our face, hands, tone of voice, eyes, and other body movements often tell the real story." (pp. 24-25) This is where the expression "... our own body language .... speaks louder than our words" comes from. More surprisingly is that in a more specific study in communicating attitudes and emotions in the United States, as mentioned by Levine, et al. (1982) it was found that "... 93% of the message was transmitted by the tone of the voice and by facial expressions. Again, looking at the percentages of the studies it is the more importantly to talk about values. Non-verbal communication is not universal. "What is acceptable in one culture may be completely unacceptable in another." (p.44)

Some of the American values the two textbooks mention are: independence, individuality, autonomy, dependability, reliability, privacy, informality, equality, fairness, punctuality, respect, directness, honesty, hard-working, work ethic, trust, assertiveness, efficiency, etc. Whereas in other countries such as Latin American countries, Arabian countries, and Asian countries, the following values might be the norms: politeness, indirectness, respect, generosity, social life, mutual help, inter-dependent, family, formality, friendliness, hospitality, religiosity, social hierarchy, patience, morality, tolerance, humility, etc.

Students learning the TL cultural values like those of the American should be able to reflect on their own cultural values and his or her personal values. This is where values work as a catalyst. When the learner finds differences in the way his partner-communicator speaks or acts which are not relevant or appropriate in his own culture he could respect or at least tolerate them without feeling offended. A well-learned intercultural communicator would be able to respond in an appropriate way by saying 'yes, thank you' or 'No, thank you' immediately (**directness** is being expected) when offered something in the TL culture without forgetting that in her/his own culture s/he might have to wait until the third or fourth offer is being extended before accepting it (**politeness** is being expected).

In English saying 'thank you' is almost imperative no matter how insignificant a compliment or the favour is given by someone. While in other cultures like in Bali, a smile is enough to do it. In English asking how old someone is or if s/he has gotten married is considered to be impolite (understanding the idea of **privacy** is expected),

while in Indonesia this kind of questions is quite common. This same intercultural LL would be able to tolerate when a foreigner is handing something with his left hand or pointing with his foot for something on the ground (as an expression of **efficiency**), and s/he would for the same activities of handing and pointing do them in accordance with her/his own cultural values, i.e. handing or pointing with the right hand (**politeness/respect** is being expected). Invited to a potluck party this FLL should be able to respond appropriately by bringing food or drink to share (**fairness** is being expected) as that is the custom in America without forgetting that when the invitation comes from his own countrymen bringing food could insult the host (**generosity** in the part of the host is being expected).

This kind of cultural values needs to be taught explicitly and language materials do not need to be authentic. English teachers should be prepared to produce materials appropriate for intercultural communication rather than communication with native speakers of English only. As mentioned by Tickoo (1995) in his discussion on the irrelevancy of authentic materials in the Asian schools that

*“Although learning about English speaking cultures should form an integral part of a well-informed programme of English language teaching, English in Asia is no longer taught and learned merely (even primarily) for interacting with its native speakers. The English language is highly valued as a medium of modern knowledge, as a link language between different countries of multilingual Asia and with the rest of the world, ...” (p.108)*

He further concludes that

*“..., the processes and products used to teach ... should reflect awareness of all the forces and factors that operate in the teaching-learning environment, contribute to each major goal, and most important of all, work towards a system in which languages and cultures live cooperate and live in harmony.” (p. 108)*

#### **4 CONCLUSION**

Foreign visitors in Bali are from many different cultural language backgrounds. Many of them are non-native speakers of English who would not speak English like a native speaker of English. Understanding cultural values would strengthen the FLLs strategy in communication as he would be able to see the situation inter-culturally what to say in what context and at the same time maintain a strong hold on their own cultural values as they are able to see them as part of their identity, culturally and personally. At the personal level they should be able to see how understanding these values be a good way of avoiding misunderstanding, avoiding the possible over-identification with the new culture as was imposed by the integrative teaching/learning approach, and avoiding the glorification and exaggeration of one’s cultural positive aspects as the result of ethnocentrism. The language teacher then does not need to be a native speaker but someone who can understand both the TL culture and the FLL’s culture. The language program should, as mentioned by Corbett (2003),

*... encourage learners to be critically aware of the roles that different languages play in their lives. The intercultural elements of this kind of second language education also require teachers and learners to pay attention to and respect the home culture and the home language.*

*Learning materials have to incorporate aspect of the home culture, and non native teachers become particularly valued for their own ability to move between the home and the target culture. (p.4)*

Language learning through intercultural approach inevitably requires the discussion of values of both the TL culture and FLL's home culture. This "trains learners to be 'diplomats,' cultural diplomats, able to view different cultures from a perspective of informed understanding." (p.2) In this way they become the bridge between the TL culture and their community, being able to be engaged in the foreign culture and to conduct themselves appropriately in their own community as well as to bring new light as the result of their learning new cultural values. For the individual FLLs themselves they should know by then what cultural values to maintain for themselves (while not opposing values held by the society in general) and what to adopt and adapt to and develop. This kind of transformation would be an asset invaluable to their communities.

## REFERENCES

- Alisjahbana, S. Takdir. 1974. *Values as integrating forces in personality , society, and culture*. Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press.
- Benson, Phil. 2001. *Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in Language Learning*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Byram, Michael. 1995. *International competence and mobility in multinational contexts: a European view* (pp.21-36), in *Language and Culture in Multilingual Societies*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Corbett, John. 2003. *An intercultural approach to English language teaching*. Sydney: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- IndeksIntegritas UN Rendah: JanganKejarNilaiTinggidenganAbaikanKejujuran*. Bali Post, Friday, 22 Mei 2015, page 9.
- Levine, Deenar R and Adelman Mara B. 1982.*Beyond Language: intercultural communication for English as a second language*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- McLeod, Beverly. 1976. *The Relevance of Anthropology to Language Teaching*; in *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 10, No. 2. Washington, D.C.: TESOL Publication.
- NilaiIndeksIntegritas UN SMA/SMK di Bali Rendah*.Bali post, Thursday, 21 Mei 2015, page 9.
- SidhaKarya, I Wayan, and I Made Sukamerta. 2012. *Tourism, language, and culture: toward an autonomous learning*, In *International Conference on Sustainable Development (ICSD)*. Denpasar: UniversitasMaharaswati Denpasar, in collaboration with cv. Sastrautama.
- Tickoo, Makhan L. 1995. *Authenticity as a cultural concern: a view from the Asian English-language classroom* (pp.95-111), in *Language and Culture in Multilingual Societies*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Zanger, Virginia Vogel. 1993. *Face to Face*. Boston: Heinle&Heinle Publishers.

## TEACHERS' DIFFICULTIES IN LESSON PLANNING: DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING

**Srihidayanti**

srihidayantif@yahoo.co.id

**Desi Wijayanti Ma'rufah**

desiwijyantim@gmail.com

**Khainur Jannah**

khainurjannah@gmail.com

*Indonesia University of Education*

### **Abstract**

*This study aims to investigate teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing 2013 Curriculum. To do so, seven English teachers of Senior and Vocational High School were involved as respondents in this study. The data were revealed through two data collection techniques; interview and open response items of questionnaire. The results shows that the teachers have difficulties in the area of the components of lesson plan, basic principles of lesson plan and implementing lesson plan. Regarding to components of lesson plan, the teachers get difficulties in determining time allotment, determining learning objectives, determining teaching method, and determining assessment. In basic principles of lesson plan, the teachers get difficulties in designing lesson plan related to students' differences; designing lesson plan related to students' interests and needs; developing reading and writing behavior; and using cohesiveness of themes, subject matter, learning aspects and cultural variety. Meanwhile, in implementing lesson plan, the teachers get difficulties in implementing steps of learning activities, preparing students' readiness, and giving learning activities which are attitude competence oriented. With respect to the findings, it is suggested for the teachers to improve their understanding about 2013 Curriculum. For stakeholder of education, it is suggested to enhance the teacher's competence by providing seminars, workshops, or trainings more frequently in order to improve competence of the English teacher. For further researchers, it is recommended to conduct research for more than one unit of lessons in a longer period of time.*

**Key words:** *designing lesson plan, implementing lesson plan, teachers' difficulties*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Indonesia has experienced curriculum changes for more than five times since the independence of Indonesia in 1945 (Hamied, 2014) which has changed the elements of each of the curriculum. Obviously, the elements of 2013 Curriculum differ quite a lot from the previous curriculum in the objective, the content, the teaching and learning process, and the assessment.

---

*Proceedings*

*The 62<sup>nd</sup> TEFLIN International Conference 2015*

**ISBN: 970-602-294-066-1**

Every teacher has responsibility to design lesson plan which is related to the elements of 2013 Curriculum. Lesson planning include composing learning activities, preparing learning media and learning sources, determining assessment tool, and learning scenario (Ministry of Education and Culture, no 65, 2013). However, teachers sometimes feel difficult in designing lesson plan. Mulyani (2013) reported that teacher of Senior High School in Banda Aceh has some difficulties in designing KTSP: lack of time, lack of ability in matching between students' aptitude/ability and the appropriate method of teaching, difficulty in developing lesson plan based on *KTSP* in relation with students' individual differences and students' encouragement to be active learners, and lack of ability in matching between technique of teaching and students' learning styles. In addition, Jasmi (2014) also found that the teacher of Senior High School in Cipatat got some difficulties in determining assessment, particularly in assessing students' attitude. Lastly, Nissa and Jayadi (2014) revealed that a teacher of Vocational High School in Cimahi did not understand about 2013 Curriculum design, confused in designing some elements of lesson plan in terms of phases of Scientific Approach, was difficult to make the students pose questions and to determine the time allotment for each of the activity.

Besides, there are a number of reasons why designing the lesson plans is important. A Brown (2001) state that a lesson plans is very useful to help teachers to be more specific in their planning and it can help them to prevent classroom difficulties when they get confuse in explaining something. Then, Harmer (2007) also explains that a lesson plan gives framework for teachers of an overall shape of the lesson and gives students confidence in the teacher. In addition, Wong (2009) says that an effective teacher is able to design lessons for student mastery; which is reflected in lesson plan. Moreover, Gafoor and Farooque (2010) assume that lesson plans could help inexperienced teachers organize content, materials, and methods. Lastly, Ganta (2014) also reveals that students find the lesson interesting when the teachers follow the lesson plan format. Regarding to 2013 Curriculum, the teacher should make coherency among outcome standard, content standard, process standard and assessment standard. Therefore, lesson plan is one of significant aspects that should be considered by teachers to achieve successful learning.

### **1.1 The Components of the Lesson Plan**

In 2013 Curriculum, designing the lesson plan should refer to the Regulation of Ministry of Education and Culture, number 65, 2013 which stated that the lesson plan should at least cover the learning objective, the learning material, the learning method, the learning source, and the assessment of students' achievement<sup>7</sup>. Particularly, the components of the lesson plan are

- a. Identity (school name, subject, class/semester, major content, and time allotment)
- b. Core competence (aspects of attitude, knowledge, and skill that should be learned by students in certain school level, class, and subject)
- c. Basic competence and indicator of competence achievement
- d. Learning objective
- e. Learning materials
- f. Teaching method
- g. Resources (tools and media)
- h. Teaching activities
- i. Assessment.

### **1.2 Basic Principles of 2013 Curriculum**

Basic principles which are considered in designing lesson plan based on the regulation of Ministry of Education and Culture number 65, 2013 are individual differences of learners, participation of learners, learners' center activities, literacy activities, feedback and follow up of lesson plan, cohesiveness among the components of lesson plan, and integrated implementation of Information Communication and Technology (ICT) based on the context. Therefore, in implementing 2013 curriculum teachers should consider the basic principles in designing lesson plan, and implement it in teaching and learning process.

### **1.3 Implementation of Teaching Learning Process**

Conducting teaching learning process means to implement the lesson plan which involves pre- teaching activities, whilst teaching activities, and post- teaching activities. Pre-teaching activities involve preparing students physically and psychologically to participate in teaching and learning process, to give motivation contextually, to address questions to review previous material, to explain learning objective and indicators, and to state explicitly topic of lesson materials. Besides, whilst teaching activities uses learning model, learning method, learning media, and learning sources that are related to students' characteristics and subject matter. Teacher should select teaching approaches that are related to learning competence and level of education. Those competences are attitude competence, knowledge competence and skill competence. Meanwhile, in post-teaching activities, teachers and students conduct the reflection activity to evaluate: learning activities, giving feedback, conducting follow up activity, and informing lesson material of next meeting.

Some previous research dealing with designing lesson plan were conducted by some researchers (Nurichsania and Rachmajanti, 2012; Mulyani, 2013; Jasmi, 2014; Utari, 2014; Nisa and Jayadi, 2014; and Cicek and Tok, 2014), but the previous research only discussed teacher's difficulties in designing lesson plan especially in KTSP Curriculum. Thus, this present study is an attempt to fill this gap by investigating the teachers both in designing and implementing the lesson plan. In details, this study seek to provide the answers for this question, 'What are teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum?'. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing lesson plan in context of 2013 Curriculum.

The results of this study are expected to give a portrayal of designing and implementing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum about the difficulties of them. Thus, the stake holder of education will concern to the problems and give the solutions.

## **2 METHODOLOGY**

This qualitative design study employed open-response items questionnaire, and interview to collect the data about teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing lesson plan in 2013 Curriculum. These open-response items and interview guide were generated from the national process standard and content standard of Regulation of Ministry of Education and Culture, number 65, 2013 about designing and implementing lesson plan. The questionnaire are divided into three parts, namely part A was about component of lesson plan, plan B was about principles of designing lesson plan, and plan C was about implementing lesson plan. In particular, this questionnaire consists of 10 questions/items for each part. Semi-structure interview used interview guide and audio recorder as protocol during the interview session. Seven English teachers of Secondary School in

Bandung, West Java are respondents of this study. The participants of study were selected according to purposive sampling considering that they are Secondary School teachers who have implemented 2013 Curriculum in their teaching learning process. In other words, they have experienced in designing and implementing lesson plan according to 2013 Curriculum.

The collected data were analyzed by using Miles & Huberman model (Miles & Huberman, 1994) which consists of data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. In the first place, the collected data of open-response items questionnaire were reviewed and organized, while the recorded audio of interview were transcribed. Then, the data were coded and categorized into three working area that are about lesson plan component, basic principles of lesson planning, and implementation of teaching learning process. Then, the responses of respondents were sorted to select which the most difficult activities in designing and implementing lesson plan in 2013 Curriculum. After that, responses that were not involved to the difficulties of these were reduced. Finally, the data were displayed in the discussion.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Two data collection techniques reveal teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum. Seven teachers have difficulties in the area of the components of lesson plan, basic principles of lesson plan and implementing lesson plan.

#### 3.1 The Components of Lesson Plan

Teachers should design lesson plan involving nine components of lesson plan. They are

- Identity (school name, subject, class/semester, major content, and time allotment)
- Core competence (aspects of attitude, knowledge, and skill that should be learned by students in certain school level, class, and subject)
- Basic competence and indicator of competence achievement
- Learning objective
- Learning materials
- Teaching method
- Resources (tools and media)
- Teaching activities
- Assessment (Ministry of Education and Culture, No 65, 2013).

However, results of open response questionnaire and interview revealed that almost respondents have difficulties in designing lesson plan in the matter of determining time allotment, determining learning objectives, determining teaching method and determining assessment.

#### 3.2 Determining Time Allotment

The findings revealed that some teachers felt difficult in deciding time allotment of each learning activities in designing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum. There are several reasons that make teachers face difficulties in determining time allotment. Some teachers said that time allotment of English subject per week is limited; specifically English teachers only teach ninety minutes per week. Whereas, the teachers believe that scientific approach takes much time to be implemented in the classroom so that they felt difficult to manage the time allotment for the lesson. In addition, some teachers said that sometimes their time allotment planning is not appropriate with classroom situation for certain time.

These difficulties are in line with Brown (2001, p.153), ‘timing is one of the most difficult aspects of lesson planning to control’. Brown also adds that teachers usually do not complete their lessons within the planned time allotment. Since scientific approach need a lot of time to be implemented, the teachers felt difficult in determining time allotment are in line with (Nissa & Jayadi, 2015) who revealed that a teacher of Vocational High School in Cimahi did not understand about 2013 Curriculum matters, and felt confuse in designing some elements of lesson plan in terms of phases of Scientific Approach especially in allotting time of the activities.

### 3.3 Determining Learning Objectives

Results of data collection shows that some teachers have difficulties in determining learning objective according to 2013 Curriculum demands. In particular, teachers felt difficult in determining learning objectives that should be formulated according to basic competence using operational verbs that are observable and measurable and should cover attitude competence, knowledge competence, and skill competence. Some teachers said that it is so complicated to formulate learning objectives according to 2013 Curriculum demands that should cover three competences mentioned. A teacher also said that to make learning objective which involve attitude, knowledge and skill to be coherent is difficult to do. Another teacher said that she felt difficult to put basic competence on syllabus of 2013 curriculum to be specific learning objective.

Teachers’ difficulties in determining learning objectives are in line with previous research of Badriah (2013) and Utari (2014). Particularly, Badriah (2013) revealed that a teacher of Senior High School in Cianjur faced difficulties in determining objectives in developing lesson plan in KTSP Curriculum. Besides, Utari (2014) who revealed that two teachers of Vocational High School in Majalengka constrained some problems dealing with formulating learning indicators and objectives in 2013 Curriculum which meant that the teachers needed more enhancement.

### 3.4 Determining Teaching Method

An interview results also revealed that a teacher felt difficult in determining teaching method in the lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum. Particularly, teacher has difficulties in selecting teaching techniques and methods that are appropriate with learning materials and basic competence. It can be seen in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 1

*It is difficult to choose appropriate methods that are related to the learning material which are really facilitating students’ opportunities to develop their English proficiency. For example, there are some students who are dominant in writing, but they are not dominant in speaking.*

Teacher explained that in facilitating students’ opportunities to develop English proficiency, it should use appropriate method. However, she felt difficult in selecting appropriate method in lesson plan. She also added that she needs to read and learn more about teaching methods which are appropriate with EFL classroom.

This issue is supported by Ministry of Education and Culture (2013), ‘teaching methods used by the teachers should develop learning process to achieve basic competences that are appropriate with students’ characteristics’. In addition, the teachers’ difficulties in determining teaching method are also in line with Mulyani (2013) who revealed that a teacher of Senior High School in Banda Aceh using KTSP Curriculum have difficulty in selecting appropriate teaching method with students’ ability.

### 3.5 Determining Assessment

The next difficulty in accordance with lesson plan component is that some teachers face difficulty in determining assessment that are based on appropriate core competence, basic competence and indicator. Some reasons of this difficulty were revealed. First, a teacher said that the main difficulty in determining assessment in lesson plan is in the term of attitude competence. She added that the rubric of attitude assessment is complicated because it has a lot of description in each aspect. Second, other teachers said that it is difficult to determine attitude assessment because the students are in the big number in each class. Third, a teacher also seemed that she does not understand much in assessment so that she felt difficult in determining assessment that are according to core competence, basic competence and indicator. Then, a teacher also stated that he felt difficult in constructing the attitude assessment because there is no specific criterion stated in the national assessment standard.

These findings are in line with Jasmi (2014) who found that determining assessment of 2013 Curriculum is difficult for a teacher, especially when the teacher determines assessment of students' attitude. Jasmi found that the teacher got difficulties because there are so many aspects which have to be assessed based on 2013 Curriculum and the teacher have not got any training and seminar. Syahmadi (2014) suggests that attitude assessment should be integrated with knowledge assessment and skill assessment; particularly it cannot be an independent assessment.

### 3.6 Basic Principles of Lesson Plan in 2013 Curriculum

The data collection techniques also revealed that there are some teachers' difficulties in designing lesson plan in terms of basic principles of lesson plan in 2013 Curriculum. Those difficulties are about teachers' difficulties in designing lesson plan related to students' differences, students' interests and needs, developing reading and writing behavior, and using thematic integrated, cohesiveness of across subject matter, across learning aspects and cultural variety.

### 3.7 Designing Lesson Plan Related to Students' Differences

It is revealed that most of respondents said that it is difficult to design lesson plan that are related to students' differences i.e. proficiency, learning style, motivation and ability. Some reasons were revealed from the teachers in affecting their difficulties. First, a teacher said that a number of students in a class are in a large number in which they have different culture. In particular, she explained that every student is unique and they have different learning styles. In addition, the next teacher also said that this difficulty appears because there are many various factors underlying students' differences. So, it is difficult to design lesson plan which can facilitate all of different students' culture and learning styles. Also, the next teacher said that every student has different proficiency so that it is difficult in designing lesson plan. Then, another teacher said that it is difficult to design the lesson which can support the students' who do not have interest to involve in the teaching learning process and make it a need for them. Indeed, because of the difficulties and lack of time, there is a teacher who only designs a lesson plan for overall classes and implements it according to the classroom situation concerning students' differences.

These findings are in line with Mulyani (2013) who reported that the teacher felt difficult in developing KTSP lesson plan related to students' individual differences and students' learning styles. Brown (2007, p.368) also stated that it is more difficult to ascertain what all the different individuals in a class or indeed a whole student population want.

### **3.8 Designing Lesson Plan Related to Students’ Interests and Needs**

Another difficulty faced by the teachers are designing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum related to students’ interest and needs. There are a number of reasons the teachers said in their response of questionnaire. Specifically, teachers have a lot of learning load so that they cannot concern to each individual who are involved in the classroom. In other words, a number of students in each class are too large, so it is too difficult to understand every student’s interests and needs. Because of too large amount of students, the students’ interests and needs are also different in which the teachers can not cover all of them in designing lesson plan.

However, according to Brown (2001, p.154), your lesson plan should also take into account the variation of ability in your students, especially those who are well below or well above the classroom norm. In specifically, teachers should design lesson plan which consider students’ abilities, interests, and needs.

### **3.9 Developing Reading and Writing Behaviour**

According to interview, it is revealed that a teacher felt difficult in designing lesson plan of 2013 Curriculum that can develop reading habits, understanding various reading text, and expressing various written form. The teacher felt it is difficult because of a number of reasons that were expressed in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 2

*I feel difficult in developing reading and writing behaviour in a lesson because I am teaching at Vocational High School which previously focuses on communicative approach. I have never got experiences and training about genre-based approach. I also have lack of ability in teaching text based.*

The excerpt shows that the teacher has lack understanding in genre based or text based approach because she is teaching in Vocational High School which focuses on communicative approach. She also said that she needs training about those subjects. Those are the factors affecting the teacher’s difficulties in designing lesson plan that develop reading and writing behaviour.

### **3.10 Using Cohesiveness of Themes, Subject Matter, Learning Aspects and Cultural Variety**

The last difficulty of designing lesson plan related to basic principles of lesson plan in 2013 Curriculum is the teachers have difficulties in designing lesson plan to use thematically integrated, and cohesiveness among subject matter, learning aspects, and cultural variety. The reasons of this teachers’ difficulty are they have lack of cultural knowledge. Teachers do not understand every individual culture in the classroom. It means that most of them do not recognize their learners. ‘This problem is because of students’ cultures are so various’, a teacher said. It gives the teachers impact in designing lesson plan to integrate the subject matter and cultural variety in accordance with Ministry of Education and Culture (2013) who said that one of the principles in 2013 Curriculum is to accommodate thematic integrated learning, cohesiveness crossing subject matter, crossing learning aspects and cultural variety. Particularly, cultural variety should be considered in designing lesson plan to create the lesson related with learners’ culture.

### **3.11 Implementing Lesson Plan**

Beside the teachers have difficulties in designing lesson plan; they also have difficulties in implementing lesson plan in the classroom. Those difficulties are in the term of implementing steps of learning activities, preparing students' readiness, and giving learning activities which are attitude competence oriented.

### **3.12 Implementing Steps of Learning Activities**

The first difficulty that is encountered by the teachers is to implement steps of learning activities stated in lesson plan into the classroom. In other words, what they have written in the lesson plan is sometimes difficult to be implemented in the classroom. Some teachers said that they did not see the lesson plan when they were teaching so that they sometimes did not concern about what they have planned in the lesson plan in their teaching. Some teachers also said that teachers felt difficult in implementing steps of planned learning activities in the classroom because classroom condition are not always appropriate with their expectation in the lesson plan. A teacher also gave an opinion that sometimes classroom condition are too far from expected condition in the lesson plan, for example there are unplanned school event that are not included in school agenda such as a teacher meeting in which it takes few time in a lesson so that a whole planned learning activities cannot be implemented in such lesson completely.

Teachers' difficulty in implementing steps of learning activities are in line with previous research of Badriah (2013) who revealed that the teacher of Senior High School in Cianjur considered lesson planning found to be useless for she could follow textbook for engaging her students in learning English and she could rely on her imagination when she was about to teach a lesson.

### **3.13 Preparing Students' Readiness**

The results show that some teachers have difficulties when they were preparing students' readiness in the classroom. In particular, they felt difficult in preparing students physically and psychologically to involve in teaching learning process. This activity is involving in pre-teaching activities. A teacher mentioned his reasons that he felt difficult in presenting interesting activities in the beginning of the lesson because sometimes it did not work to attract students' attention in the class. Whereas, he believed that to prepare students' readiness, it can be through attracting students to give attention in the beginning of the lesson. Another teacher also said that students' conditions are sometimes difficult to be arranged because of their individual mood.

Teachers' difficulty in preparing students' readiness are in line with previous research of Utari (2014) who revealed that teachers of Vocational High School in Majalengka modified their lesson plans in their implementation because of adjusting the instruction to the class condition.

### **3.14 Giving Learning Activities Which Are Attitude Competence Oriented**

The last difficulty in implementing lesson plan that is faced by the teachers is giving learning activities which are attitude competence oriented. They felt difficult to integrate attitude competence in learning activities. The teachers said that this is difficult because there is no clear indicator of attitude competence in the syllabus. In the implementing 2013 Curriculum lesson plan, sometimes teachers felt difficult in concerning what appropriate attitude to be integrated in certain activity and make it sense for students. This issue is in line with Jasmi (2013) who revealed that the most teachers' difficult is integrating character building and how to assess attitude in the classroom.

#### 4 CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Reviewing the findings of this study, it can be concluded that those are some teachers' difficulties in designing and implementing lesson plan. In designing lesson plan, teachers felt difficult in determining some components in lesson plan such as time allotment, learning objectives, teaching method, and assessment. Besides, teachers also felt difficult in designing lesson plan related to basic principles of 2013 Curriculum, namely involving students' differences, students' interests and needs, developing reading and writing behaviour, and using cohesiveness among thematically integrated, subject matter, learning aspects and cultures.

With respects of the findings, it is suggested for the teachers to improve their understanding about 2013 Curriculum so that they can conduct teaching and learning process well based on the regulation of 2013 Curriculum. For Ministry of Education and Culture, it is suggested to enhance the teacher's competence by providing seminars, workshops, or trainings more frequently in order to improve competence of the English teacher. For further researchers, it is recommended to conduct research with more than one units of lessons in a longer period of time.

#### REFERENCES

- Badriah. (2013). Lesson planning: the development and implementation in the teaching of English: A Case Study in a senior high school in Cianjur, West Java. (Thesis, Indonesia University of Education, 2013, unpublished)
- Brown, H. D. (2001). Teaching by principles. An interactive approach to language pedagogy. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Cicek, V. & Tok, H. (2014). Effective use of lesson plans to enhance education in U.S. and Turkish kindergarten thru 12th grade public school system: A comparative study. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 2(2), pp. 10-20.
- Gafoor, K.A., & Farooque, U. (2010). Ways to improve lesson planning: A student teacher perspective. A paper presented at the International Seminar Cum Conference on Teacher Empowerment and Institutional Effectiveness. Chitradurga: Maharaja Mdakarinyaka University. November, 01-03, 2010.
- Ganta, T.G. (2014). The status of implementation and use of lesson plan in English language teaching in schools. *Global Journal for Research Analysis*, 3(12), pp. 37-38.
- Hamied, F. A. (2014). Curriculum Change: What Does It Mean to Indonesian TEFL? Surakarta: UNS Press. In Widodo, H. P. & Zacharias, N. T. (Eds.). *Recent issues in English language education: Challenges and direction*. Surakarta: UNS Press.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th ed). Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Jasmi. (2014). English Teacher's Difficulties in Designing Lesson Plan Based on 2013 Curriculum. In Nurkamto, et al. (eds) *The 61st TEFLIN International Conference*, pp. 189-191, Surakarta: SebelasMaret University.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publication, Inc.
- Mulyani. (2013). An analysis of English lesson plan academic year 2012/2013 at the first Semester of mas DarulUlum Banda Aceh (Thesis, Syiah Kuala University, 2013, Unpublished).
- Nissa, A.K., & Jayadi, B. (2015). Teacher's Difficulties in designing lesson plan of 2013 curriculum. The 13th KOLITA International Conference, pp.83-86, Jakarta: Atma Jaya University.

- Nurichsania, N.A. & Rachmajanti, S. (2012). A Study on the Implementation of An English Syllabus and Lesson Plan in Sman 3 Malang. Retrieved from <http://jurnal-online.um.ac.id/data/artikel/artikel12E07EFA444726A5CB3EA55F0F80B13B5.pdf>.
- Regulation of Ministry of Education and Culture Number 65, 2013 on Process Standard of Basic and High Education.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publication, Inc.
- Syahmadi, Hendi. 2013. *Bedah Curriculum 2013 Bagi Guru Bahasa Inggris*. Bandung: ADOYA Mitra Sejahtera
- Tashevskas, S. (2008). Some lesson planning problems for new teachers of English. *Bapha Journal*, pp. 424-429
- Utari, R. (2014). *An analysis of English lesson plans and their implementation in the teaching learning process*. (Thesis, Indonesia University of Education, 2014, Unpublished)
- Wong, H. K. & Wong, R. T. (2009) *The first days of school: How to be an effective teacher*. California: Wong Publications.

# **USING WEB-BASED SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY ANALYZER TO ANALYZE SENTENCE COMPLEXITY IN THE INTRODUCTIONS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' RESEARCH ARTICLES**

**Ratna Dewi**

*Muhammadiyah University of Makassar*

## ***Abstract***

*There has been no specific research related to syntactic complexity in the Indonesian context, especially those employed in the undergraduate students' research articles. Syntactic complexity characterizes sentences in academic written texts and delineates the writers overall development of sentence complexity use in the target language (Mukminatin, 1997; Lu, 2010) . This research paper aims to show the implementation of syntactic complexity in the intorduction of the undergraduate students' research articles. It employes a quantitative design through corpus based analysis using Web-based Syntactic Complexity Analyzer. The students' sentence complexity is shown through the values of mean length of production units, the amount of subordinations, the amount of coodinations, and the degree of phrasal sophistication employed in the introduction of the students' research articles. The findings show that the students employ the four categories of sentence complexity in their academic texts. Further analysis is also done to describe the patterns of the students' sentence complexity in each category, then compared to the patterns of syntactic complexity identified by uefap. The results of this research are expected to provide information about the syntactic complexity employed in undergraduate students' research articles and to show its resemblance to the patterns of syntactic complexity which have been previously identified. In addition, the results of this research would be beneficial in providing information for the lecturers in guiding their students and for undergraduate students to write academic texts.*

***Key words: Syntactic complexity, Introduction of undergraduate students' articles, Web-based syntactic complexity analyzer***

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Syntactic complexity characterizes academic written texts of advanced writers. Students of higher proficiency level tend to produce longer and complex sentences, longer clauses and T-units in the forms of complex phrases such as coordinate phrase and complex nominals (Mukminatin, 1997; Lu, 2010). Further, syntactic complexity use delineates the writer's overall sentence development in the target language (Lu, 2010; Lu, 2012; Ai & Lu, 2013). Due to the fact, the existence of syntactic complexity in students' academic texts sets forth the students' writing proficiency. Therefore, syntactic complexity proficiency in writing academic texts such as research articles is undoubtedly required.

The appearance of syntactic complexity in academic text is also the nature of the text itself that loads complex ideas, which need syntactic complexity to generate them meaningfully. Complex ideas are commonly written in complex sentences in order to accommodate the needs for describing and explaining specification. In short, academic texts which are characterized by longer sentences, syntactic modifiers or subordinate clauses, and complex nominal contribute to accommodate complex meaning.

So far, the studies done were mainly focused on the differences of syntactic complexity in the students' academic texts of different levels as a result of length of time in learning. Lu (2010, 2012) investigated the significance of fourteen syntactic complexity measurers in differentiating different language proficiency levels of different four-year colleges in China

through syntactic complexity analyzer. He reported that the syntactic complexity use increased along with the length of learning and experience in writing. Yau and Belanger (1984:66) who studied the expository and narrative texts of different level students of a secondary school in Hongkong found that the compositions written by the higher-grade levels are more syntactically complex than the lower ones. This is also in line with what is examined by Mukminatun (1997: 96-98) who stated that in the higher level students' expository composition, compound complex sentences were found. She also stated that the higher the course level, the more complex sentences they produced. It was shown by the number of complex sentences used by the students in writing I-IV, which increased progressively from 275 to 500 words. She explained that the ability to construct complex sentences also developed along the consecutive courses. Kitamura (2012) studied how EFL essays of various written skill levels were different in their use of subordinators. The result showed that the three groups of Japanese college students revealed different subordinators and varied their use of subordinators as their proficiency increased. Furthermore, the frequency was more often and the types of subordinators were larger used by the higher groups than the lower ones.

Other research, related to Test of Written English explained that syntactic complexity was one of the important constructs because it could gauge the L2 writers' writing scores (Fraser et al.: 1999 in Hinkle: 2003; Francis et al.: 2002). Hinkel (2003: 276) stated that the degree of sophistication of text determined by syntactic complexity was identified through the extensive use of subordinate clauses. The sentences employed by the writers in their writing which were described by syntactic complexity reflected the writer's proficiency.

Different research related to syntactic complexities were conducted by Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Naves (2007) who found that Learners who became older, more instructed, and more sophisticated, started neglecting accuracy and fluency and start to concentrate on accommodating syntactic variety. At that time, the learners became more challenged to perform their capacity to use more advanced language. They involved a greater willingness to take risks and to use fewer controlled language subsystems. They were more likely to use more adjective clauses, more modifiers, more complex nominal, as well as gerunds and infinitives.

Different with the researches that have been previously done, especially in the Indonesian context, this study firstly focuses on analyzing the syntactic complexity employed by undergraduate students in the introduction of their research articles then it is compared to the syntactic complexity employed by Chinese college learners' level 3 in WECCL (Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners) and American University Students in LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) (Ai & Lu, 2013). Then secondly this study compares the patterns or features of syntactic complexity implemented by the undergraduate students with those revealed by *UEfAP*. Based on the idea explained above, the research problems are formulated as "how is the syntactic complexity of the introduction of undergraduate students' research articles compared to those employed by Chinese college learners in their texts (NNS) and by American University students (NS) and how are the patterns of complexity compared to those revealed by *UEfAP*."

## **2 METHOD**

This research was a corpus study. It employed a web-based syntactic complexity analyzer developed by Prof. Xiofei Lu and Haiyang Ai from Pennsylvania State University, USA. This software is able to be accessed and implemented in <http://aihayang.com/software/synlex/syntactic>. The software analyzed, classified and counted the occurrence of syntactic complexity in written texts based on mean length of production units, amount of subordinations, amount of coordinations, and degree of phrasal sophistication (Lu, 2010, 2011; Ai and Lu, 2013). Mean length of production unit described syntactic complexity of the texts through measuring the mean of the total words in sentences (MLS), mean of total words in T-units (MLT), and mean of total words in clauses (MLC). The second criterion of syntactic complexity was shown by counting the occurrence of clauses in T-unit (C/T), complex T-units in T-units (CT/T), dependent clauses in clauses and in T-units (DC/C and DC/T). The third criterion was shown by counting the mean of total coordinate phrases in clauses and T-units (CP/C and CP/T), and mean of total T-units in sentences (T/S). The last

criterion was analyzed by counting the mean of total complex nominal in clauses and T-units (CN/C and CN/T) and mean of total verb phrases in T-units.

The software was validated by analyzing 3554 essays, written by English majors from nine different four-year colleges in China and compared the results with those produced by two trained annotators (Lu 2010). The software is designed to identify the patterns that match the set of production units and syntactic structures as follows. A sentence is characterized by a group of words delimited with one of the punctuation marks that signal the end of a sentence such as period, question mark, exclamation mark, quotation, ellipsis. While a *clause* is defined as a structure with a subject and a finite verb and includes independent clauses, adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, and nominal clauses, a *T-unit* consists of one main clause plus any subordinate clause or non-clausal structure that is attached to or embedded in it. A *dependent clause* is a finite adjective, adverbial, or nominal clause. A *complex T-unit* is one that contains a dependent clause. *Coordinate phrases* are adjective, adverb, noun, and verb phrase. *Complex nominals* comprise

nouns plus adjective, possessive, prepositional phrase, relative clause, participle, or appositive,  
nominal clauses, and  
gerunds and infinitives in subject position while verb phrase consists of both finite and non-finite verb phrases.

The corpus studied was the undergraduate students' research articles published on line at <http://jurnal-online.um.ac.id/article/7>. They comprised 134 research articles of the English Department alumni of State University of Malang in 2012 and 2013.

### 3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To know the level of complexity of the values revealed in the introduction, the data found were compared to other data, that was with the mean values of syntactic complexity of argumentative essays produced by Chinese learners level 3 in WECCL (Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners) and American University Students in LOCNESS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) (Ai & Lu, 2013). After the comparison presented, the mean values were exemplified by taking one sentence from the introduction that represented each indicator in order to be identified their patterns, then they were compared with the patterns revealed by UEfAP.

#### 3.1 Length of Production Units in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students' Research Articles

The first criterion of syntactic complexity was identified through the mean of number of words in sentences, clauses, and T-units. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The Length of Production Unit in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students' Research Articles

	Length of Production Unit Values		
	MLS	MLT	MLC
<b>Mean Values</b>	22.579	21.660	12.406
<b>Maximum Values</b>	41.143	38.417	21.333
<b>Minimum Values</b>	15.833	15.645	9.188

The values shown in Table 1 indicate the average, maximum, and minimum number of words found in sentences, T-units, and clauses in the introduction of undergraduate students' articles. Respectively, the mean values are compared with those of NNS-High (16.632; 14.815; 9.04), and NS (19.153; 17.072; 9.942) (Ai and Lu, 2013). This comparison shows that the sentences, T-units, and clauses of the undergraduate students are the longest following by NS, and NNS. This result explains that L2 writers as undergraduate students are now able to write complex sentences which are not in line with what Hinkel (2003, 2005, 2011) found that L2 writers employed simpler sentences, wrote prose that contained fewer syntactically complex constructions such as subordinate clause, adjective phrase, and used more coordinators, sentence transitions and pronouns.

### 3.2 Comparing the Patterns of Length of Production Units in the IUSRA and UEfAP

The examples of each category of syntactic complexity in the IUSRA in the following represent the mean values of measures. The sentence, T-unit, and clause which represent the average values in Table 1 are:

Example 1:

Ability grouping is defined as a group arrangement in which the students are differentiated in their class placement based on academic capacity (IUSRA No. 50).

The sentence above represents the average value of sentences produced in the introduction of undergraduate students' research articles. It is taken from IUSRA No. 50 which contains the closest number of words in a sentence, they are twenty two words.

Example 2:

In keeping up with the development of the English role internationally, the language teaching has shifted its principle from its initial goal (IUSRA No. 17).

The T-unit above is the closest length of the average value of MLT (21.660) of the introduction of undergraduate students' research articles. It contains 22 words and consists of one main clause and one prepositional phrase (or one non-clausal form).

Example 3:

One of them is by using multimedia program that can be used independently in learning how to write a descriptive paragraph (IRA No. 54).

The italicized and bolded words above are the clause which has the closest number of words (13) with the average value of MLC (12.406).

UEfAP (2015) explains that the patterns or features of academic text are grammatically complex and is characterized by having more subordinate clauses, more "that/to" complement clauses, more long sequences of prepositional phrases, more nominalizations, more noun based phrases, more attributive adjectives and more passive patterns. Because those features characterize the sentences of academic texts, the sentences consist of number of words and become longer sentences.

Comparing the patterns from UefAP above with the patterns found from the three examples above, the sentence length of example 1 is caused by the construction of sentence which consists of noun phrase as subject, verb phrase as predicate, noun phrase as object which is described by a relative clause. The length of example 2 is characterized by a main clause that consists of noun phrase as subject, complex verb phrase which consists of verb phrase as predicate, a noun phrases as object, and prepositional phrase as adverbial. The length of example 3 comprises a T-unit which consists of a main clause with one relative clause. This explains that the pattern identified by UefAP is in line with the pattern of syntactic complexity employed by undergraduate students' research articles

### 3.3 Amount of Subordinations in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students RAs

Other criterion of syntactic complexity was identified through the amount of subordinations. They were identified based on the mean number of clauses, complex T-units, and dependent clauses in T-units (C/T, CT/T, DC/T) as well as the mean number of dependent clauses in clauses (DC/C). The results are shown in Table 2.

*Table 2. The Amount of Subordinations in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students' Research Articles*

	C/T	CT/T	DC/C	DC/T
Mean Values	1.757	0.501	0.387	0.696
Maximum Values	2.28	0.800	0.540	1.177
Minimum Values	1.304	0.222	0.218	0.304

Table 2 shows that each T-unit in the students' research articles contains the average amount of about one clause. While each T-unit contains averagely less than one and not more than two complex T-unit, the amount of dependent clause are averagely found one in each clause. The last, each T-unit consists of less or not more than one dependent clause per T-unit.

The mean values of the IUSRAs using C/T and CT/T are 1.757 and 0.501. Compared with the values of Chinese learners level 3 in WECCL, the mean values produced are 1.514 and 0.386 (Lu, 2010: 490). Meanwhile, the mean values of the introduction of undergraduate students' research articles produced by DC/C and DC/T are 0.387 and 0.696. The mean values produced by NNS-High of the same measures are 0.346 and 0.568 while the mean values of NS are 0.404 and 0.726 (Ai & Lu, 2013: 258). Using C/T and CT/T, the amount of subordination of the IUSRAs are higher than those of Chinese learners. Using DC/C and DC/T, the amount of subordination of the undergraduate students' research articles are higher than those of NNS-High but are lower than those of NS. These results show that the amount of coordination of undergraduate students are higher than NNS Chinese learners but are still lower than NS. This result is line with Hinkel (2003, 2005, 2011) who stated that L2 learners' texts contained fewer subordinations.

### 3.4 Comparing the Patterns of Subordination between IUSRA and UefAP

The following examples are the criteria of complexity seeing from the pattern of subordination indicated by the values which are measured using C/T, CT/T, DC/T, DC/C.

Example 4:

Based on the observations, the students seem to be more attentive and interested when the listening activity involved completing song lyrics (IRA No. 32)

The above sentence represents the criteria of syntactic complexity which consists of one clause in one T-unit.

Example 5:

Despite the fact that textbooks are important, there are some weaknesses of textbooks (IUSRA No. 10).

The sentence from introduction of research article No. 10 represents a T-unit which contains one sub ordinate clause or in other name of complex T-unit per T-unit.

Example 6:

Pelton (2010) mentioned that students more easily recall and retain words after teaching each other. (IUSRA No. 79).

The sentence from IUSRA No. 79 contains one dependent clause in one main clause.

Example 7:

By using an interesting material, students will give attention to what they learn (IUSRA No. 4).

The above sentence taken from IUSRA No. 4 represents the sentence which contains a dependent clause in one T-unit.

According to UEFAP, some features or patterns related to the use of subordination in academic text are commonly found in the forms of subordinate clauses, complement clauses. The patterns used in this part are the use of subordinations and complement clauses. The example 4 above are complement clause (to-clause), participles; example 5 contains complementing clause (that-clause); example 6 comprises complement clause (that-clause), and participle; example 7 consists of participle, and complement clause (to-clause). Analyzing the examples, it reveals that the patterns of academic text related to the use of complex construction such as subordination and complement clauses have been performed by the undergraduate students' sentences.

**3.5 Amount of Coordination in the Introductions of Undergraduate Students' Research Articles**

The next component of syntactic complexity is the use of coordination implemented in the IUSRAs. The amount of coordinations implemented were identified by counting numbers of coordinate phrases in clause, numbers of coordinate phrases per T-unit, and numbers of T-units per sentence.

**Table 3. The Amount of Coordinations in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students' Research Articles**

	CP/C	CP/T	T/S
<b>Mean Values</b>	0.357	0.616	1.042
<b>Maximum Values</b>	0.721	1.167	1.455
<b>Minimum Values</b>	0.088	0.192	0.789

Table 3 reveals that the mean values of the IRAs' amount of coordination using CP/C, CP/T, and T/S are 0.357, 0.616, and 1.042. Using the same measures, the mean values of NNS-High amount of coordination are 0.231, 0.365, and 1.126 (Ai & Lu, 2013: 258), while the mean values of NS' amount of coordination are 0.254, 0.430, and 1.121(Ai & Lu, 2013: 258). Comparing the mean values of introductions of undergraduate students' research articles, NSS-High, and NS, the introduction of undergraduate students' research articles have higher amount of coordinate phrases in clause and in T-unit than NNS-High and NS. However, based on the amount of T-unit per sentence, NNS-High is the highest, then NS and the undergraduate students' research articles. If the NSs' amount of coordination to be the reference, the undergraduate students' coordinate phrases in clause and T-unit are needed to be decreased, and the number of T-unit in sentence are increased. The result is also in line with Hinkel (2003, 2005, 2011) who stated that L2 writers tended to use more coordinators.

### 3.6 Comparing the Patterns of Coordinations in the IUSRA and UeFAP

The measures used to identify amount of coordination as indicator of syntactic complexity were shown through the employment of coordinate phrase in clause and in T-unit, as well as T-unit in sentence. The examples of sentences which represent the mean value of each measure are as follows:

Example 8:

The teacher only asked the students to complete **dialogues, texts, and lyrics** (IUSRA No. 32).

The coordinate phrase is found in the bold words in the main clause above.

Example 9:

It is an operational curriculum that is **made and implemented** by each educational unit (IUSRA No. 27).

The bold words are considered as coordinate phrase in the T-unit above.

Example 10:

Grant (1991:13) argues that communicative textbooks create opportunities for the students to use the language in the classroom, as short of “halfway house” before using it in real life (IUSRA No. 18).

The bold words are the T-unit in a sentence.

In line with Hinkel, **UEfAP** does not categorize coordination into the complex construction of academic text. Coordination is defined by Hinkel (2003, 2005, 2011) that is more used by NNSs in their academic texts.

### 3.7 Degree of Phrasal Sophistication in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students’ Research Articles

Degree of phrasal sophistication was defined by computing the number of complex nominals per clause, complex nominals per T-unit, and verb phrases per T-unit. Table 4 describes the mean values of complex nominals per clause and per T-unit as well as verb phrase per T-unit.

*Table 4. The Amount of Subordinations in the Introduction of Undergraduate Students’ Research Articles*

	CN/C	CN/T	VP/T
<b>Mean Values</b>	1.640	2.873	2.604
<b>Maximum Values</b>	2.955	5.417	3.944
<b>Minimum Values</b>	0.081	1.750	1.613

Table 4 shows that the mean values of IUSRAs’ degree of phrasal sophistication are 1.640, 2.837, and 2.604. Using CN/C and CN/T, the undergraduate students’ degree of complex nominals per clause, complex nominals per T-unit are the highest followed by NS (1.222 and 2.089) and NNS-High (1.064 & 1.669) (Ai & Lu, 2013: 258). Using VP/T, the introduction of undergraduate students’ degree of verb phrase per T-unit is higher than Chinese Learners level 3 (Lu, 2010: 490). Referring to the NS writers, the complex nominals per clause and T-unit implemented by the undergraduate students are higher than NS. However, this result is different from what Hinkel found that L2 writers had severely limited syntactic repertoire.

### 3.8 Comparing Degree of Phrasal Sophistication in IUSRA and UeFAP

The appearance of complex nominal in clause and in T-unit, as well as T-units in sentence are indicators of syntactic complexity found in the following examples.

Example 11:

*In line with Carlston, research carried out by Indahyati (2008) in MAN 3 Malang also showed that the students were able to make **positive progress** after the implementation of SQ3R strategy (IRA No. 2).*

Complex nominal “positive progress” identified as noun plus adjective and “*positive progress after the implementation of SQ3R strategy*” identified as nominal plus prepositional phrase are found in a clause “*that the students were able to make positive progress after the implementation of SQ3R strategy*” in the sentence of IUSRA No. 2.

Example 12:

In Indonesia, English is taught as a compulsory subject for the students from the lower level secondary school up to the university level (IRA No. 39).

From the T-unit (one main clause plus non clausal structure) above, complex nominals found are “a compulsory subject”, “secondary school”, and “a compulsory subject for students”.

Example 13:

Wahono (2008) explained that multimedia is a “combination of text, graphic, animation, sound, and video which are used to deliver messages to the public (IUSRA No. 137).

From the T-unit above, some of the verb phrases found are “explained . . .”, “used to deliver message to the public”, and “deliver message to a public”.

UEfAP identifies degree of phrasal sophistication as modification of noun-phrase, and attribute adjectives. Modification of noun-phrase refers to noun as head with a modification such as addition of pre-modifier, ed-participle, ing-participle, post modifier, relative clause, to-clause, ing-clause, prepositional phrase, adverb phrase, or adjective phrase. Attribute adjective refers to adjective that functions to modify noun.

Compared with the above patterns, example 11 contains noun+prepositional phrase, noun+ed-participles, attribute adjective, modification of noun phrase. Example 12 comprises noun+prepositional phrase, attributive adjective, post modifier, etc. Example 13 consists of noun with pre-modifier, post modifier, clause modifier.

#### **4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION**

The result of this study have shown that the undergraduate students have been able to produce long sentences, even longer than NNS and NS. This finding denies the previous findings which explain that L2 writers employed simpler sentences, fewer syntactically complex construction. Related to the use of subordination, the uses of clauses, complex T-unit, and dependent clauses are higher than NNS but the employments are still lower than those of NS. Related to the use of coordinate phrases and T-unit, the IURASs implement higher coordination. Compared with NS, the undergraduate students should decrease the employment of coordination. Referring to the NS writers, the complex nominals per clause and T-unit implemented by the undergraduate students are higher than NS. However, this result is different from what Hinkel (2003, 2005, 2011) found that L2 writers had severely limited syntactic repertoire.

The sentence length, the use of subordination, and degree of phrasal sophistication produced by the undergraduate fulfills the patterns of sentence length revealed by uefap. Uefap and Hinkel do not categorized coordinate phrase as syntactic complexity of academic texts

The results of this research are expected to provide information about the syntactic complexity employed in undergraduate students’ research articles. In addition, the results of this research would be beneficial in providing information for the lecturers in guiding their students and for undergraduate students to write academic texts.

#### **REFERENCES**

Ai, Haiyang & Lu, Xiaofei (2013). A corpus-based Comparison of Syntactic Complexity in NNS and NS University Students' Writing. In Ana Díaz -Negrillo, Nicolas Ballier, and Paul Thompson (eds.), Automatic Treatment and Analysis of Learner Corpus Data, pp. 249-264. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

- Ai, Haiyang. 2015. Syntactic Complexity Analyzer. <http://aihaiyang.com/software/synlex/syntactic>. Accessed March 17, 2015.
- Francis, W.S., Romo, L.F. & Gelman, R. 2002. Syntactic Structure, Grammatical Accuracy, and Content in Second-Language Writing: An Analysis of Skill Learning and On-line Processing. *Bilingual Sentence Processing*, (Online) (academics.utep.edu/Portals/321/.../Francis/FrancisRomoGelman02.pdf), accessed March 01, 2013.
- Hinkel, E. (2003). Simplicity without Elegance: Features of Sentences in L2 and L1 Academic Texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37: 275-301. (Online), (<http://www.elihinkel.org/dowloads.htm>), accessed March 01, 2013.
- Hinkel, E. 2005. Analyses of second language (L2) Texts and What can be Learnt from them. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 615-628. (Online) (<http://www.elihinkel.org/dowloads.htm>), accessed March 01, 2013.
- Hinkel, E. 2011. What Research on Second Language Writing Tells us and What it doesn't. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*, 2: 523-538. New York: Routledge. (<http://www.elihinkel.org/dowloads.htm>), accessed March 01, 2013.
- Journal Online UM. <http://jurnal-online.um.ac.id/article/7>. Accessed February 23, 2013.
- Kitamura, M. 2012. Development of Japanese EFL College Students' English Writing Skills: An Examination of Subordinators in Essays. (Online), ([cblle.tufs.ac.jp/assets/files/publications/working\\_papers.../325-336.pdf](http://cblle.tufs.ac.jp/assets/files/publications/working_papers.../325-336.pdf)), accessed February, 28 2013.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. 2006. The Emergence of Complexity, Fluency, and Accuracy in the Oral and Written Production of Five Chinese Learners of English. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(4): 590-619. @Oxford University Press. (Online), ([www.pebc.org/.../Larsen-Freeman-Complexity-Fluency-Accracy-in-Oral-Wt...](http://www.pebc.org/.../Larsen-Freeman-Complexity-Fluency-Accracy-in-Oral-Wt...))
- Lu, Xiaofei (2010). Automatic analysis of syntactic complexity in second language writing. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 15(4):474-496.
- Lu, Xiaofei (2011). A corpus-based evaluation of syntactic complexity measures as indices of college-level ESL writers's language development. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(1):36-62.
- Mukminatun, N. 1997. The Differences of Students' Writing Achievements across Different Course Level. Unpublished Dissertation. Malang: PPs UM.
- Naves, T. 2007. Analytical Measures of Learners' Written Language. Barcelona: University of Barcelona, English Department. (Online), ([www.ub.edu/GRAL/pubs/Celaya&Naves2009Writing.pdf](http://www.ub.edu/GRAL/pubs/Celaya&Naves2009Writing.pdf)).
- UEfAP.com. 2015. Features of Academic Writing. <http://www.uefap.net/writing/writing-features/writing-features-complexity>. Accessed March 01, 2015.
- Yau, M.S.S. & Belanger, J. 1984. The Influence of Mode on the Syntactic Complexity of EFL Students at Three Grade Levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, (Online) 2 (1): 65-77, (<http://teslcanadajournal.ca/index.php/tesl/article>), accessed February 23, 2013.

# **E-JOURNALING AS A TOOL FOR TEACHER'S FEEDBACK IN EFL PAPER WRITING CLASSROOM**

**Rida Wahyuningrum**  
rida\_darmanto@yahoo.com

Wijaya Kusuma Surabaya University  
Dukuh Kupang XXV/56 Surabaya

## ***Abstract***

*Journals refer to permanent records of thoughts and ideas that an individual has processed and clarified through the act of writing or otherwise recording their experiences (Killion, 1999). E-journaling is writing in a journal as an online tool a teacher can apply as their useful teaching technique to promote students' critical thinking skills. In line with that, the purpose of this writing is to describe how EFL teachers can conduct their feedback towards students' works in their paper writing class by using e-journaling. In this way, teacher will apply an inquiry teaching-learning strategy by making use of online connection to build ties between online students with him via e-mails and blogs to enhance both reflection and understanding about writing a paper. 20 sixth semester undergraduate students are involved and they are encouraged to utilize e-mails to report their writing performance (finding a topic, writing the thesis, introduction, theoretical framework, method, results, discussion, and conclusion). In return, teacher will provide feedback digitally. Both students' work and teacher's note on the process of writing a paper are recorded in a such a way that they enable both sides to see the records of thoughts and ideas during the learning process via teacher's blog. The steps includes teacher's preparation, application, and evaluation. The records can help the students understand the rhetoric of a paper writing and build a critical thinking amongst them. This kind of e-communication between teacher and students will bring about learning autonomy and self-reflection.*

*Keywords: E-journaling, inquiry learning strategy, teacher's feed-back*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Today's advancement in various fields, especially the growing English language teaching learning (ELT) world has led ELT teachers to redefine their teaching strategies. Looking into 21st century learners' way of thinking can affect teachers' way of teaching. It goes without saying that today's ELT teachers need to develop their teaching approach, especially moving toward digital teaching and learning. Speaking of teaching-learning strategies, there are three crucial matters brought about in this paper, namely on-line teaching strategies, teacher's feedback, and students'critical thinking. The purpose of this writing is to describe how EFL teachers can conduct their feedback towards students' works in their paper writing class by using e-journaling.

### **1.1 E-Journaling**

One teaching strategy in the high-tech environment of online education is that of electronic journaling, or e-journaling. E-journaling is a teaching strategy that enhances face-to-face classrooms from a distance, providing opportunities for learners to express opinions, ideas and concerns about course materials that would not otherwise be shared through more traditional journaling methods (Phipps, 2005 in Hayes, 2011). The type of e-journaling used in this study was called interactive reading logs (Phipps, 2005), which provide an opportunity for recording reactions to materials being read as the learner progresses through a book, an article, or instructions. This type enables teacher and students to have imaginary conversations with the author of the material being read, even questioning the ideas presented. In other words, such strategy can play a role as a tool for teacher in developing students' understanding about the course material presented in the classroom. In this way, teacher might arouse students' critical thinking in classroom. To do this, teacher should provide feedback which evoke their capability of writing a scientific paper.

### **1.2 Teacher's Feedbacks**

In terms of education, feedback, according to Hattie & Timperley, (2007), refers to information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A further definition which focuses more on student teachers was given by Tower (1999, in Akkuzu, 2014) referring to information presented to an individual following a performance that reflects upon adequacy, quantity, or quality of the teaching performance. In short, feedback is generally identified as an important tool to enhance learning. From the two above, the concept of feedback in this paper leads to that which concerns with either teacher's or students' adequacy, quantity, or quality of their performance and understanding within the expectance of paper writing classroom. In other words, it is a kind of information given by the teacher concerning the performance or understanding of the student, with reference to a goal and aimed at improving learning (see Voerman *et al*, 2012).

Hattie & Timperley (2007) explained about the purpose of feedback: to reduce discrepancies between current understandings and performance and goal. It means effective feedback should offer information about these discrepancies. Concerning with this, there are three types of feedback, namely specific, positive, and negative (see Voerman *et al*, 2012). The first, specific feedback could be divided into two types, discrepancy feedback and progress feedback. The former was defined as what needs to be accomplished to get a desired level of performance, while the latter was about what has already been achieved. The second was positive feedback, which shows support, encouragement, or appreciation. The third, negative feedback shows disapproval, or even sarcasm (Losada, 1999 in Voerman *et al*, 2012).

### **1.3 EFL Paper Writing Classroom**

Paper writing is under the academic-writing umbrella and is organized to meet the needs of valid publication and should be highly stylized, with distinctive and clearly evident component parts (Day in G. G. & Bell,1987). The purpose of paper writing is, first, to communicate new scientific findings. Thus, it has to be clear, simple, and well-ordered communication. Second, it has to use proper English.

The organization of a paper is known as IMRAD (Introduction, Method, Results, And Discussion). Introduction poses what question/topic/problem is studied. Method describes how the problem is studied. Then, results shows the findings and discussion provides statements about what these findings mean.

However, the format recommended in paper writing class in question covers title, abstract, introduction, theories, method, results, discussion, and references. The title describes concisely the core contents of the paper. Abstract, in another, summarizes the major elements of the paper. Next, introduction provides context and rationales. Then, theories and method will provide theories to which the paper refers to and describes the ways of conducting the procedure. In results, the summary contains findings without interpretation while discussion interprets the findings. Finally, references displays a list of all scientific papers, books and websites cited.

Since paper writing is under the academic writing, it tells what the writer thinks and what evidence has contributed to that thinking. The standard for good academic writing is how logical or reasonable the writer's thinking is. Students' paper, therefore, should represent some characteristics of good academic writing. First, writing a paper needs good planning for the sake of being analytical and organized. Second is outlining. A proper outline is a must that it will help students aware of certain relationships between topics. Third, a formal tone is used. In other words, the use of slang words, jargons, abbreviations, etc. are not allowed. Fourth, the language in a paper needs to be clear, not flowery one. Fifth is the use of third-person point of view. The final characteristic is the use of deductive reasoning for the reader will have to follow the path brought to the conclusion (Irvin, 2010).

Another important matter in paper writing class is how to teach the students. There are some approaches focusing on how writing should be taught. One is called product approach. In this approach, students are encouraged to mimic a model text, which is usually presented and analysed at an early stage. The other one is process approach, that is focusing more on the varied classroom activities which promote the development of language use: brainstorming, group discussion, re-writing.

Based on the topic discussed in this paper, the writer refers to what is called project writing. According to what is stated in ELT Document (1988), project writing is a marriage of process and product approaches. The aspect of project writing is only the culmination of a series of related processes that involve both the receptive and productive use of language: reading, reference, discussion, summarizing, etc. Therefore, students of the class should finish the already mentioned step-by-step processes to accomplish their individual paper writing.

## **2 METHOD**

This study is descriptive in type and qualitative in design. 20 undergraduate students participated in this project and each of them worked with their paper writing and learned their feedbacks through e-mails and teacher's blog. After completing the paper identification phase, students were encouraged to create their own paper by following step-by-step instruction, which started from topic finding, outlining, introduction, theories and method, analysis/discussion, conclusion, and references. It means a student may not proceed to the next step unless he completes the previous one. The aim was to find out both benefits and drawbacks of such e-journal had created upon teacher's feedback in her paper writing class. The data were collected during the process of teaching via e-mails by taking notes on every single event. Each student had his own journal to keep with and teacher, too, had theirs. The data analysis was conducted by analysing the accumulated events, classifying them into categories and draw a conclusion.

## **3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The teacher's feedback towards students' writing progress in this Paper Writing classroom was kept in a journal in the form of electronic files. The files were arranged in a such a way that enabled both students and teacher to observe the writing progress and the last activity carried out. There were some important parts that make the journal evident, namely number, date, points of evaluation (topic, outline, introduction, theories, analysis/discussion, conclusion, and references), status (whether accepted or rejected), reason, and suggestion.

First, number tells the frequency of students activities upon the points of evaluation. Second, the date provides information about the length of time the student has spent over his work referred to certain point of evaluation. For example, a student might spend quite a short time working with finding his topic or creating an outline. On the other hand, another might need a longer time only to find an appropriate topic. Third, the heart of the journal is the points of evaluation. In this part, teacher should write every single detail of student's writing progress under the title like TOPIC, OUTLINE, INTRODUCTION, etc. Fourth is where teacher should mark either R for rejected or A for accepted. Fifth, teacher should give specific reasons why the topic is rejected or accepted. Finally, she has to write some suggestions as the upcoming activities to proceed. Accordingly, when a student sent an e-mail asking for teacher's approval toward her topic, for example "Using Round Table in Junior High EFL Writing Classroom", it

was necessary that the teacher consider the topic quickly whether it was approved or rejected by answering the email. Then, she started the journal for that student by putting number 1 on the first column and wrote the date on which the student sent the email. At the point of evaluation TOPIC, she wrote the topic and marked the status A (accepted) along with the reason: clear and specific. Finally, she wrote “You can go on writing your outline” in SUGGESTION part.

What kind of feedback did students get through this e-journaling? Teacher kept the record of the students’ writing progress in a folder of files (pdf format). Each folder identified each student’s record. Teacher applied what is known as specific feedback, that is the one which provides information pertaining to the accuracy of particular responses or behaviours (*see* Shute, 2008 in Voerman *et al*, 2012). In detail, teacher focused more on the clarification upon the goals and reduce or remove uncertainties in relation to how well the students were performing the tasks. This leads to what is called discrepancy feedback. The purpose is about what needs to be accomplished to achieve a desired level of performance in the task given. For example, in writing an introduction part, a student was discovered to be incapable of linking the first idea with that of the second to meet coherence. In this matter, teacher drew a big arrow, put it between the two paragraphs, and labelled NOT CONNECTED. Also, she used some colours to identify specific information: light blue for grammatical errors, light green for word-choice, and light yellow for stylesheet. Another colour like pinkish red was used to block some sentences or paragraph which were identified as being irrelevant or misleading by putting a message/note in a box right upon the blocked stences or paragraphs. Underlining, too, was used together with message/note arrow. A sentence might be found to be misleading or not supported with evidence and it would get this kind of notification. Sometimes, a map drawing or scheme drawing was required to help students get the point of what he did not understand. In other words, this type of feedback positioned itself as an indicator towards the desired level of performance in writing a paper by referring to a specific part after the current level of performance.

The next feedback applied in the classroom was progress feedback. In this kind of feedback, students were let to know about their progress they had made toward meeting goals. For example, a student was encouraged to see his journal to get any information about what he had already made as his writing progress before getting to the next meeting goals. In this case, he might learn that he had finished writing his rationales and thesis. He should be informed that what he wrote as rationales were relevant to his topic and that his thesis was what he was going to write about. Teacher, then, directed him to write an introduction part by referring to the points of rationales he had already prepared and ending the part with the thesis. In doing this, teacher usually drew some lines connecting the rationales to the incoming sentences that the student should write.

Another kind of feedback was positive feedback. In this way, teacher wrote some notes/messages, such as “You wrote your introduction excellently. You may go on writing your theories.” This kind of note was written both in the student’s file and in journal. This was also a sign for the student to proceed with the next level of writing and psychologically having good impact on his feeling of being capable.

However, teacher also applied what is called negative feedback by writing some notes/messages in student’s file. For example “Who says this?” note with arrow pointing to the underlined sentence (s)/paragraph indicated that the student did not provide any evidence to support the statement written. The more negative note was like “You just copied and pasted it, didn’t you?” The worst was “Wrong format of introduction. Check again your lecture book”.

By referring to students’ writing progress recorded in the journal, there were some crucial points to ponder during the process of teaching them how to write a scientific paper, known as paper writing. Those were categorized into both benefits and drawbacks.

The good things about keeping such journal for both teacher and students was that, first, they can both get quick response and enhance traditional face-to-face classroom. One thing about quick response was that both teacher and students could interact in sharing information without having to wait for face-to-face meeting classroom. It resulted in saving time mode. Another was that the quality of teacher-student interaction was significantly identified as more both frequently and intensively done for they had to “meet” each other discussing things which concerned with writing progress. Student would either individually and colaboratively work with his paper. In this way, he learned things from teacher’s questions arousing his thoughts

about the topic he was writing about. Another, he might be directed undeliberately to work with his friends for checking or comparing his work with the others'. In this way, he eventually had practiced collaborative learning: a situation in which the better student helped the low-achieving one.

Second, students had an opportunity to express opinions, ideas, and concerns about the materials of the course. Using e-mails, teacher would find out her student's ideas for writing his paper. She could see this from questions raised during the "conversation" between them. As a result, student felt he got helped to create his writing draft. Also, it was reported that students felt more relaxed in expressing their questions or opinions via emails than that of having a face-to-face meeting with the teacher. Some shy and withdrawn students found utilizing e-mails for questioning the teacher was quite helpful. They could express their ideas and ask questions more freely to the teacher.

Third, teacher could manage to help the students with problem solving and foster critical thinking. This always happened during the process of writing analysis and discussion parts. Most students found themselves blank. They did not know what to write and how to arrange their ideas to meet coherent writing. Teacher, several times, had to draw a diagram to help them mind-map what they would like to describe. Students had to arrive at teacher's questions which were aimed to direct them to arrange the flow of thoughts so that they could produce both coherence, unity, and logical reasoning.

Fourth, students were without fail directed to positive learning experience. From the activities performed during the process of writing and the journal they keep, students would surely experience the real step-by-step learning how to write a paper. They learned things from the very beginning to those at the end. For example, a student might have struggled so hard for creating an outline and that she or he would have labels such as NAME-outline 1-10. It means that this student took ten time e-mail consultation only for outlining process. Another student might only have once or twice. Not all students had the very same length of time finishing their outlining process. They varied and they individually put themselves into having a positive learning experience for they finally got what they needed to know and be capable of.

The final benefit is that e-journaling plays a role in successful course outcomes. The students, through this step-by-step process of writing a paper, was considered to be successful in writing their own paper individually when they accomplished the final step, posting their work in their blog they had to create themselves. Referring to this, teacher had already announced the deadline for submitting the final test (finishing their individual project with evidence of the posting of their work in a blog). Everyone in the classroom, of course, had to accomplish this task unless they failed their final term test. However, based on the data, out of 20 students taking this class, there were only 15 students who succeeded in completing the project on time. Three students were noted to fail their deadline. They could not finish writing their paper because of their poor ability in writing and being unable to race against time. One student did not return and stopped writing his teacher through e-mail after the third feedback sent to him. Finally, the rest left unknown after getting the first teacher's feedback to her topic. The most important thing in this final step was student might feel victorious and successful in doing his project and that his work was publicly recognized as the teacher uploaded her congratulating note through one social media.

Not only did e-journaling lead to such benefits, but also to some drawbacks which cannot be simply avoided. Using e-mails and blogs, both teacher and students experience some disadvantages. One, both students and teacher had to be exposed continuously to network connection since the concept of learning anywhere and anytime was being applied. The consequences were that teacher allowed herself to provide immediate response to the incoming e-mails from the students, unless deadline set up firsthand would become a burden for both of them. This undeniably made teacher busy during the months of individual writing project. Fatigueness was the case for both sides.

Another drawback was the case of being well-organized. This was the teacher's problem. Keeping e-journals based on e-mails was really time consuming despite its worth informing. Being thorough was badly required for the sake of the well-informing journals. Both teacher and students referred to every single information of writing progress written in the journal. Teacher should provide either neatly and completely written journal describing one student's details of paper writing progress, unless the next step recommended or which step to

proceed with remained unclear and misleading. This was proven to be difficult but not impossible to do.

Finally, some students might suffer psychologically, such as feeling frustrated (unable to get the teacher's points/message via e-mail) and that enabled them revise again and again. They might also feel fatigue and bored for they had to revise their work several times. But all students do this when they take writing subject. The worst was that they gave up. Some students could not stand the stress they experienced so they quit the project. It happened because they may have been used to the conventional writing class: they just wrote their task, submitted it, got some feedbacks, revised, and submitted it again, and finally got the score. It was reported that teacher rarely provided time for class discussion or question-answer session. Such a change might contribute to the stress. The change was that they should finish one step before getting to another based on their own capability of writing which was observed individually through a journal.

#### **4 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

In summary, as a tool, e-journaling utilized by teacher in her EFL Paper Writing classroom has arrived at some points to consider. For one thing, both teacher and students in general speaking should be network literate, which means knowing how to access the information and perspective flowing through network. Using this skill, working with e-journaling would provide a different perspective in teaching-learning strategies, especially in ELT field. ELT teachers are challenged to get into a new and different way of class management that enables them to provide tools to help students understand more about the course material through intensified face-to-face classroom in distant learning. Another, students would value their own work for they felt they had been working hard to achieve the learning goal and it surely led them to pride and self-appreciation. Then, teacher built a closer relationship with the students during the online conversation so that she could provide any helps to make the student get to the ideas for his writing. Since the conversation contained questioning and logical reasoning to comprehend, teacher had evoked a kind of critical thinking to the student. Consequently, student would have a positive learning experience.

However, patience had become the most important element which ties between those already mentioned points above. Both teacher and students should be aware of the "extended time" of learning in which learning-anywhere-and-anytime concept had been applied. Students are supposed to stay in touch with the teacher. It might be annoying for some students to keep waiting for the teacher's response/feed-back via e-mail. Teacher, in return, has to take any consequences of being bothered with inboxes from the students despite midnight time. It indicates that students may work quite hard accomplishing the assignment. Next is that teacher should keep herself busy with preparation for the course such as creating specific e-mail address, blogs, journals, rubric assessments, and ready-to-upload presentations, and giving feedbacks via e-mail. In the end, both teacher and students might have conflicts such as breaking the rules and misunderstanding.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Akkuzu, Nalan. (2014). "The Role of Different Types of Feedback in the Reciprocal Interaction of Teaching Performance and Self-efficacy Belief" in Australian Journal of Teacher Education Vol 39 Issue 3 Article 3. pdf. at <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2207&context=ajte>
- Day, Robert A., in G. G. & Bell, M. P. (1987) The World of Science: An Anthology for Writers. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston
- Hattie, John and Helen Timperley. (2007). "The Power of Feedback" in Review of Educational Research Vol 77 No 1 pp 81-112 DOI: 10.3102/003465430298487 pdf at <http://education.qld.gov.au/staff/development/performance/resources/readings/power-feedback.pdf>
- Hayes, Mary Denise. (2011). E-Journaling: Fostering Transformation through Interdependent Learning .Thesis. Unitec New Zealand at

<http://unitec.researchbank.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10652/1850/Mary%20Hayes%20MEd.pdf?sequence=1> pdf

Irvin, Lennie. L. (2010). "What is Academic Writing". An essay of a chapter in Writing Spaces: Readings on Writing Volume 1 2010. Parlor Press. Retrieved from <http://www.parlorpress.com/pdf/irvin--what-is-academic-writing.pdf>

Phipps, Jonnie Jill. (2005). "E-Journaling: Achieving Interactive Education Online" in Educause Quarterly No 1 at <https://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/eqm0519.pdf>

Voerman, Lia, Meijer, C. Paulien, Korthagen, Fread A.J., and Simons, Robert Jan. (2012). "Types and Frequencies of Feedback Interventions in Classroom Interaction in Secondary Education" in Teaching and Teacher Education XXX. at <http://www.vfconsult.nl/wp-content/uploads/2012/09/tatefrequencies-Voerman-et-al.pdf>

## THE EFL STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES AND MOTIVATIONS IN ANSWERING TOEFL EXAMINATION

Dian Kustyasari  
diankustya@yahoo.com

State University of Malang, Indonesia  
Jalan Semarang No. 5 Malang

### *Abstract*

*One consistent finding of academic research is that high motivations are the most reliable driver of high student achievement, even in students who do not have a history of successful achievement. This paper focuses on exploring the students' difficulties in answering the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) exam and their motivation in TOEFL preparation classes. This was a descriptive study based on in-depth structured interviews with 10 students, TOEFL preparation class observations and questionnaires assigned to 80 student test takers. A focus-group interview with the five teachers of the TOEFL preparation courses was conducted to reveal student weaknesses in English performance. The subjects are undergraduate students taking TOEFL preparation courses in English courses in Malang. Findings showed that the main difficulties of the students in answering the TOEFL test are related to the complexity of the test item, the duration of the test, fewer basic skills, and lack of practice and motivation. The study also provides insights about the role of motivations in TOEFL preparation classes and offers examples of TOEFL preparation practices that reflect high motivations. The findings reveal that the teaching of TOEFL for undergraduate students needs to focus on improving grammar and vocabulary abilities. The course, therefore, has to be set to help students improving their grammar and vocabulary competence and overcoming the dilemmatic problems they faced in learning TOEFL.*

**Keywords:** student problem, motivation, TOEFL

### 1 INTRODUCTION

The development of English use in many aspects of life requires nearly everyone to be able to understand English. The exigencies of graduate study in an English language institution require that students enter the universities with a basic level of competence in four distinct English language skills. The English language proficiency of incoming graduate students is therefore a critical determinant in predicting their success in graduate studies. To measure the students' proficiency in English, an assessment is required. According to Reynolds et al. (2006), to obtain, evaluate, and score a sample of individual behavior in standardized procedures, a test is used.

Moreover, the use of English in work environment forces job applicants to learn the language and furthermore to obtain a formal certificate of English proficiency as the proof of their English ability level. While no test is perfect, standardized tests are a proven means of determining students' English language abilities in all the competencies necessary for success in graduate studies and working world.

One of the types of standardized tests is TOEFL, 'Test of English as a Foreign Language'. TOEFL test that is commonly used as the requirement in applying for a job and joining university study is Paper-Based Test (PBT). In the test, the students are required to master three important skills in English, namely Listening Comprehension, Structure and Written Expression, and Reading Comprehension. There are also tests for Speaking and Writing. There is also a scoring system for the

TOEFL test. The minimum score is 216 whereas the highest score is 676 (Philips, 2001). This test is highly recognized as a standard language testing in English language and had been “internationally recognized and respected” (Warfield et al., 2013). The grade of the TOEFL is mostly used as indicator in academic life around the world. However, instead of bringing the TOEFL subjects into the academic material, many universities only require the students to submit their score results of TOEFL. Apart from that, the students often make many mistakes in answering the test items due to lack of knowledge on the test structure and low English skill ability. This common situation has led to the low scores and lack of motivation in studying TOEFL. Consequently, many test takers fail to fulfill the required TOEFL scores to either enter university or find a job.

Obviously, motivation plays an important role in education, especially learning language. Bialystok (1978) stated that motivation again has a key role in the transformation of explicit linguistic knowledge into more intuitive, spontaneous, and automatic implicit linguistic knowledge because such a transformation is intensified in motivated subjects. Furthermore, motivation involves the subjects’ degree of commitment to language acquisition (Gardner, 1985a). It integrates three basic components (Gardner (1985a) including desire to learn, effort towards a goal, and greater or lesser satisfaction in learning as the affective component. Therefore, boosting students’ motivation in learning is a vital activity. Teachers are a vital actor in building the students’ motivation. The teaching style that teachers implement determines the success or failure of encouraging the students’ mood and motivation. Grasha (1994, 1996) argues that there are five teaching styles: formal authority approach, demonstrator approach, facilitator approach, delegator approach and expert approach. These five styles are adopted by teachers to promote motivation in their class. This also applies in TOEFL preparation classes as a way to prepare students for standardized test.

Issues in standardized tests have been a major interest among researchers for many years. Fahim et al. (2010) focused their study on the test takers’ ability in reading test of the TOEFL in relation to critical thinking. In addition, another study Zareva (2005) examined the new format for the TOEFL test. Specifically, Arabsarhangi and Noroozi (2014) studied reading comprehension test types and their relation to self awareness and learners’ performance. Recently, a study done by Mahmud (2014) investigated the students’ problems in answering the TOEFL. The findings showed that the main problems of the students in answering the TOEFL test were due to several conflicting reasons, such as fewer basic skills, less practice, less motivation, and students’ individual differences such as age and social status. None of these previous studies, however, deals with motivation related to TOEFL test.

Therefore, this study focused on exploring the students’ difficulties in answering the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) PBT and their motivation in TOEFL preparation classes. Thus, it was formulating the research questions as follows: what difficulties do the students find in TOEFL test? and how do the teachers motivate the students to improve their English ability to prepare for the TOEFL PBT?

## 2 METHOD

This study was designed in descriptive mixed method approach. A mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study to understand better a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The quantitative method was used to find the common problems that the students faced in TOEFL test, while the qualitative one was to reveal the ideal TOEFL preparation class which promoted high motivation.

A survey questionnaire was administered to 80 TOEFL student test takers in an English course in Malang during the two month data collection and deep interviews were done to 10 of them to verify the answers. Moreover, 55 test answer sheet were analyzed to discover the most common items which the students gave wrong answers in TOEFL, especially in Structure and Written Expression and Reading Comprehension parts. The number was chosen purposively with the consideration of the test takers who had made preparation before taking the test. To find out the ideal TOEFL preparation class which promoted high motivation, interviews to 5 TOEFL preparation class instructors were conducted after direct observations on the classroom practices. The data collection process took 2 month long from the beginning of April to the end of May 2015.

Following the step of data collection is analyzing the collected data. The results of the 55 test takers were categorized and coded to find the patterns of the most common wrong answers. The difficult items were defined as the items on which above 75% of the test takers had wrong answers. The used percentage was based on the university and company requirement of TOEFL scores which show a result of 75% and above correct answers. This analysis revealed the item types which were considered difficult for the students. Together with that, responses of the questionnaires were analyzed to show the majority problems faced by the test takers during TOEFL tests. The finding was then tabulated into tables to be transformed into graphs. Finally, the observation and interview results were investigated to depict the ideal class of TOEFL preparation which promoted high motivation. The findings of all analyses had been integrated into tables and figures to be discussed in findings and discussion part.

### **3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Based on the analysis on the questionnaire results and the test answer sheet, it was found that most of the students found difficulties in answering the TOEFL Test thereby making them failed to fulfill the required scores. The results show the most common problems faced by the test takers and the most difficult items for them.

#### **3.1 Reasons of Taking TOEFL Test**

The results of the questionnaires reveal the reasons why the students take TOEFL Test as shown in the appendix (see figure 1). The results show that overwhelming majority of the students took the test because they needed the score for applying for a job. About 38% of the test takers mentioned job requirement as the reason why they took TOEFL test. Moreover, nearly quarter stated that they took the test because they needed the certificate and high score for applying for scholarships. To add, 20% of them took the test because they needed to fulfill the document requirement to study in Indonesia. Small number has shown that studying overseas had made the test takers obtain the score. However, none of them mentioned the reason of measuring their ability in English. The result is summarized and shows that the test takers need TOEFL certificate for searching for a job which suits them and requires high TOEFL score. Besides, as one of the university admission procedures is providing a proof of English proficiency level, the test takers have to take TOEFL test to obtain the certificate of their proficiency level.

In addition, there are many efforts that have been done by the test takers. According to the deep structured interview results, before taking the TOEFL test, the test takers had reviewed their previous school English materials to refresh their knowledge in English. Besides, some of them also bought preparation to TEFL books and did some exercises on the books. The majority of them, however, preferred to take courses on TOEFL preparation. They believed that this would help them in concentration and bring more inputs and knowledge on grammar. This also could motivate them to learn as most of the classes were taught in group of people. Alternatively, some of them had tried TOEFL online simulation to predict their ability before taking the test.

#### **3.2 Problems Faced in TOEFL Test**

##### ***3.2.1 Problems in Reading Comprehension***

The findings depict the problems mostly faced by the test takers in TOEFL test. According to the analysis on the test takers' answer sheet and questionnaire responses, it is revealed that majority of the students found Reading Comprehension part difficult. Those who answered this choice mentioned that they had lack vocabulary and the vocabulary found in reading comprehension passages is mostly difficult. They dictions used in the standardized test were seen as sophisticated and difficult to understand by the test takers. Thus, they believe that reading is the most difficult part in TOEFL test.

Furthermore, based on the analysis of test taker results in table 1 (see table 1 in appendix) showing level of difficulties, the items in the implied information indicator were not answered correctly. It means the test takers have some difficulties in comprehend reading TOEFL passages in finding the implied information from the text. While the major mistakes in the reading TOEFL test were found in the answers of the main ideas. Finding main ideas are considered difficult because

nearly 70% of the test takers chose the wrong answer. Other difficult items are those which belong to word meaning. This happens because the answers given by test takers in vocabulary choice were mostly wrong. Approximately half of the answers were wrong in this particular type of question in reading comprehension. It can be concluded that difficulties in comprehending reading TOEFL text faced by test takers were in finding the main ideas, implied information, and words meaning.

### **3.2.2 Problems in Listening Comprehension**

On the other hand, some respondents believed that Listening Comprehension was difficult part in TOEFL test. This is caused by inability to easily catch the native speakers' words. Besides, the test takers did not have a chance to translate the meaning into their mother tongue.

According to the questionnaire results, among the three parts of the listening comprehension, the long talk was believed as the most difficult part. It is because the long content is difficult to remember. Moreover, the longer dialogue was put as the second difficult part. Those who chose this option believed that it was not easy to distinguish the sound between male and female and they sometimes could not hear both sounds. However, these findings do not show consistency with the analysis result of test takers' answers. The majority of test takers had most wrong answers in short dialogue rather than long dialogue. The second higher mistakes they made were in long talk. This item type proves difficult as the majority of given answers were wrong. According to the interview, this happened due to the longer talk which was not easy to remember. Additionally, the reason behind bad performance in short dialogue was the limited time to think about the meaning and choose the correct answer before the next number came out.

### **3.2.3 Problems in Structure and Written Expression**

Similarly, Structure and Written Expression was considered difficult for the test takers. The results as seen in the appendix (see figure 2) reveal the items which were difficult for them. The majority of the test takers failed in answering inversion type questions. This has been shown by the major wrong answers obtained after analyzing the test takers' answer sheet. In line with that, the questionnaire result reveals similar finding. The majority of the test takers mentioned inversion as the difficult item in structure and written expression in TOEFL test.

The second difficult item type is part of speech. Word class has been seen as difficult item not only in TOEFL test but also in English subject as general. The interview discovers the reason of why the test takers could not answer this particular type of items in structure. Most of the interviewees stated that their lack of vocabulary knowledge had led to the mistakenly understood different part of speech. Besides, they found it difficult to differentiate adjective and adverb and how to identify noun. The limited range of vocabulary and incapability to define noun or verb caused wrong choices. They did not know most suffixes for noun. Thus, they chose the wrong answers in the test.

*"I don't have wide range of vocabulary and there are words that I don't understand." (The interview answer from test taker 1)*

*"Sometimes, I cannot differentiate which word is noun and which word is verb. I don't know the clear distinction of them. This makes me choose the wrong answer." (The interview result from test taker 3)*

Moreover, reduced clause item type is another problem shown from the analysis. The major answers for this type of item were wrong. This indicates that the test takers have low competence in reduced clause structure. They often mistakenly picked the complete clause which was not suitable to fulfill the missing part in the sentence. This happened for nearly 70% of the test takers. However, during the interview they stated that they believed in what they gave and they were sure that the answers were correct although in the questionnaire they mentioned reduced clause as one of the difficult items in structure and written expression in TOEFL exam.

The other difficult items are subject and verb agreement and countable-uncountable nouns. Both analyses of test result and questionnaires show similar results for the two item types. Although not proven as the most difficult item type, subject and verb agreement is still considered as difficult items. The answers given to this type of questions by more than half of the test takers failed to show

the correct answer. Similarly, the test takers found difficulty in differentiating countable and uncountable nouns. The result of the interview mentioned this problem.

*“I don't know that the noun is countable or uncountable because I cannot memorize most words in English.” (The interview answer from test taker 3)*

*“The words are difficult and I am lack of vocabulary. I do not know that there are differences in rule between countable and uncountable noun. I do not understand how to add -s or -es on the noun. This makes me frustrated in answering the questions.”*

Furthermore, there other difficult item types which make the test takers' score low. The types include complete clause, parallel structure, word order, determiner, pronoun, singular vs plural noun, and comparison which constitute the small number of mistakes the test takers made.

Beside the above difficult items, there still many other difficulties faced by the test takers. Based on the interview result, the test takers stated that the duration of the test is very short that they most probably could not answer the whole questions, leaving some numbers uncompleted or answered by feeling. Obviously, most interviewed test takers agreed with these reasons. They mentioned that the limited time gave additional burden to them mentally in doing the test. They felt much pressure and nervous when the time was nearly up. Similarly, lack of motivation and limited knowledge on the English skills and components put the test takers in difficulty while doing the test because they were not familiar with the test items. Because of the lack of grammar competence, the test takers felt that TOEFL test was difficult. This indicates that variation of the test items has brought a situation where the test takers cannot easily understand what type of question is the test item. The unfamiliar words are the major problem caused by the lack of knowledge in grammar. They also revealed that their lack of practice and unfamiliarity with the test structure consume the test takers' time in doing the test.

These findings illustrate the problems faced by the test takers. The most difficulty is dealing with the complexity of the test items. This ranges from the reading passage difficulty, structure problems to listening comprehension obstacles. In addition, time limit and lack of knowledge in English add their problem in doing the test. Consequently, some respondents had to repeat the tests for many times but failed to fulfill the required scores.

### **3.3 Motivation in TOEFL Preparation**

Bialystok (1978) mentioned that a key role in the transformation of explicit linguistic knowledge into more intuitive, spontaneous, and automatic implicit linguistic knowledge is found in motivation. Motivated students will show intensified transformation.

#### **3.3.1 Motivation to Study TOEFL**

It is obvious that motivation plays a vital role in learning. The findings of this study reveal some motivations that the students have in joining TOEFL preparation classes or studying TOEFL at home.

Finding of the interview shows that there are four major motivations which encourage the test takers to study and prepare for their TOEFL test. Most of the test takers prepared themselves for the test by joining TOEFL preparation classes. The motivations behind such action involve helping them understand the test items, helping them prepare for the test by doing exercises, getting some tips to pass the test, and boosting their motivation and confidence.

Based on their opinion, the TOEFL preparation classes that they joined help them to understand the test items. It is believed that the teachers in the TOEFL preparation classes help them to identify the items in the test and show how to find the possible answers. From this, the students understand the test items in TOEFL and the structure of the test. This motivation brings them to study TOEFL. Moreover, they want to study TOEFL because they can practice doing the TOEFL exercises with which they can prepare themselves for the test. The more they practice doing the exercises, the better their understanding will be. Moreover, in the TOEFL preparation classes the teachers will provide some tips to pass the test. The tips can be the knowledge to answer the questions. It can also be the tips to manage their confident while having the test. Reviewing the material is their reason in joining TOEFL preparation classes as from the class they will understand how to solve the problems. Besides, they also believe that studying TOEFL will make them ready mentally. An interview with

one test taker shows that studying TOEFL will help to build the confidence and motivation to prepare for the possible result.

*“If I study TOEFL, I will be more confident and I will be ready mentally. It means I will know my capacity and be able to predict the score that I will obtain. I will feel motivated if I know what I am doing.”*

This findings support Gardner (1985a) who mentioned three basic components of motivation including desire to learn, effort towards a goal, and greater or lesser satisfaction in learning as the affective component.

Apart from that, according to the questionnaire result as seen in Figure 3 (see appendix), the test takers had some consideration in joining TOEFL preparation classes or studying TOEFL. Most of the responses show that the motivation of obtaining high score is behind nearly 80% of the students. This is due to the high demand of TOEFL requirement in finding a scholarship or entering a university locally. The students need to achieve high score to be able to compete with other candidates to be accepted in a higher degree of education or to be granted a scholarship. With the high score, they can easily pass the requirement. However, merely 10% of them took preparation only to know what TOEFL is and how it differs from other proficiency tests. Out of academic world or job environment, TOEFL is still new term for some people. Finally, the last reason of joining TOEFL preparation class is to obtain certificate. In the work environment, more experiences are very crucial to win competition of finding high position in a company. Job applicants are required to prove their English ability by providing certificate of English proficiency such as TOEFL or a proof of attending formal English education. This is related to the students’ reason of joining TOEFL preparation classes to obtain certificate, given by just over a quarter of the respondents.

### 3.3.2 *Benefits of Motivation to Study TOEFL*

As in educational context, motivation refers to a student’s energy and drive to learn, work effectively and achieve to their potential (Martin, 2003), motivation is seen as having dominant advantages on the learning process. The finding from the interview results shows the benefits of motivation to study TOEFL. The interview with the students discovers some benefits of motivation in studying TOEFL.

The finding reveals that high motivation can help the students in build their self confidence in answering the TOEFL items. Furthermore, motivated students will be able achieve the target score. The increase of willingness to learn English is another advantage of the motivation they have. The more motivated students are more willing to come to the next sessions since they feel happier and comfortable in joining the classes.

### 3.3.3 *High Motivation TOEFL Preparation Classes*

Based on the observation on the five classes of TOEFL Preparation and the interview among the five instructors from TOEFL Preparation classes, the ideal TOEFL preparation classes have been found.

The effective TOEFL preparation classes should be intensive and managed by highly professional tutors. Tutors should be able to equip the students with strategies needed to successfully pass the exam, such as through problem solving strategies, stress and time management. Besides, the classes should have adequate and updated materials to be presented to the students.

Moreover, a class where teachers explain the materials, give the example in the TOEFL items, and ask the students to do some exercises is also effective to bring motivation to the class. Furthermore, the teachers can assign the students to do the task and discuss the results with giving reward or praise for their progress.

This supports Gilakjani, Leong, & Sabouri (2012) who mentioned that motivation is considered influential factors in the learning situation. This includes intrinsic and extrinsic motives such as affiliation, group-specific motives, teacher’s personality, teaching style, course syllabus, teaching materials, learning tasks, and teaching methods. Further, studies of motivation have also extended to include teachers’ motivational practices (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011) as the determinant of successful learning.

In a relation to the high motivation classes, Shepard (1990) identified additional issues which contribute to score inflation, among them the practice of using the same test forms year after year, the

practice of having classroom teachers administer the tests, questionable test preparation practices, and the pressure on teachers to raise test scores.

#### **4 CONCLUSION**

To summarize, reading comprehension of TOEFL PBT is considered as the most difficult part among the three. Students' difficulties in TOEFL test are related to the complexity of the test items such as main idea and implied information in reading comprehension, inversion and reduced clause in structure, and long talks in listening comprehension.

The students need to take TOEFL test to get the score for finding a job and entering university. As they need to obtain high score, TOEFL preparation class can familiarize students with the types of questions found in the real formal test, provide guidance or some tips on how to approach certain types of questions correctly put the students in a high-stake test environment, so they can better adjust themselves with test-time conditions, pressure, and other cognitive factors during the test. In sum, TOEFL preparation classes usually aim at assisting students to fully prepare for the TOEFL exam.

#### **5 SUGGESTION**

Due to the problems faced by the students or test takers, it is suggested that the TOEFL preparation class will be focused more on the grammar mastery and reading comprehension. Besides, high motivation classes should be promoted to encourage the students to learn English.

This study focused mainly in the students' difficulties and motivation in doing TOEFL test. Thus, it is suggested for the next research to conduct further research on the impact of motivation on the achievement of the score and on the solution to overcome the problems.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Arabsarhangi, M & Noroozi, I. (2014). The relationship between self-awareness and learners' performance on different reading comprehension test types among Iranian EFL Elementary learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4, 4:675-685.
- Bialystok, E. (1978). A theoretical model of second language learning. *Language Learning*, 28, 69-83.
- Creswell, J. W. & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fahim, M., Bagherkazemi, M, & Alemi, M. (2010). The relationship between test takers' critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading section of TOEFL. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1, 6:830-837.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985a). *Social Psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gilakjani, A. P., Leong, L.-M., & Sabouri, N. B. (2012). A Study on the role of motivation in foreign language learning and teaching. *IJ.Modern Education and Computer Science*, 7(1), 9- 16.
- Grasha, A. F. (1994). A matter of style: The teacher as expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. *College Teaching*, 42(4), 142- 149.
- Grasha, A. F. (1996). Teaching with style: A practical guide to enhance learning by understanding learning and teaching style. *College Teaching*, 48(1), 2- 15.
- Mahmud, M. (2014). The EFL Students' Problems in answering the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): A study in Indonesian context. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4 (12), 2581-2587.
- Martin, A. J. (2003). The Student Motivation Scale: Further testing of an instrument that measures school students' motivation. *Australian Journal of Education*, 47(1), 88-106.
- Papi, M., & Abdollahzadeh, E. (2011). Teacher Motivational Practice, Student Motivation, and Possible L2 Selves: An Examination in the Iranian EFL Context. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 571- 594.

- Philips, D. (2001). Longman Introductory Course for the TOEFL Test (2nd ed). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Reynolds, C. R, Livingston, R. B, & Wilson, V. (2006). Measurement and Assessment in Education (2nded). New Jersey: Pearson Education International.
- Shepard, L.A. (1990). Inflated test score gains: Is it old norms or teaching the test? *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practices*, 9(3), 15-22.
- Warfield, W., Larabee, R., & Geyer, R.W. (2013). Examining Results and Establishing Benchmark Data from the TOEFL ITP Test. *American Academic & Scholarly Research Journal*, 5, 3:191-198.
- Zareva, A. (2005). What is new in the new TOEFL-IBt 2006 test format? *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 2, 2:45-57.

# **THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SPELLING BEE GAME TO IMPROVE OF STUDENTS' VOCABULARY MASTERY AT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL**

**Siti Hikmah**  
[shikmah92@yahoo.co.id](mailto:shikmah92@yahoo.co.id)

**Tri Septiarini**  
[ganindutzz@yahoo.co.id](mailto:ganindutzz@yahoo.co.id)

*SiltanAgengTirtayasa University*  
BANTEN PROVINCE

## **Abstract**

*Vocabulary knows as a thing that should be learned by people who want to know, use and understand about a certain language. Nowadays, learning English vocabulary taught from low to high education level. Helping students to improve their vocabulary mastery is an important part of English teacher's job. The teacher should be creative in preparing and conducting teaching and learning process. Therefore, spelling bee game is one of technique to make the students interested in learning vocabulary. There are two objectives of this research. There are to know the process and to find out the improvement of the students' vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game in the class VIII/F at SMPN 17 Kota Serang. This research used Classroom Action Research (CAR). It was conducted in two cycles which each cycle consisted of three meetings. The researcher gave pre-test and two post-tests to know the students' score. The sample of this research was VIII-F class in SMPN 17 Kota Serang which consists of 40 students. Based on the result of the research, cycle 1 and 2 have been implemented and the improvement of each cycle were proven from the test. The score of post-test in cycle 1 was 61,25 and the score of post-test in cycle 2 was 77,125. So, the students score percentage from cycle 1 to cycle 2 improved 15,875. It means that students' vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game improved from the target. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the used of spelling bee game is able to improve students' vocabulary mastery.*

*Key words: Vocabulary, Classroom Action Research (CAR), Spelling Bee Game,*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Nowadays, learning English vocabulary taught from low to high education level. However, the result is unsatisfactory. It is also faced by English teacher of SMPN 17 KOTA SERANG. Based on the pre-interview that the researchers conducted, the English teacher in the eighth grade said that the students in the eighth grade have some problems in vocabulary mastery. There are three cases of this unsatisfactory result. First, students cannot speak English fluently. When teachers ask them to respond the text by using English, they are anxious. Actually, they know what they want to say but they are confused how to say in English. It is because they are hesitant about words choice and do not know how to say words in English. In brief, they have been translating from Indonesian to English, when they are going to say in English language. Second, students have problems in facing the English examination. Because students have lack of vocabulary, they cannot answer the test. And the last, students feel burdened when learning vocabulary in class. They have to memorize a lot of words and meaning in order to build up their vocabulary mastery. This memorization makes students feel bored

when learning vocabulary because the teacher does not provide them with a good technique to memorize the words.

Furthermore, in order to solve these problems, the researchers suggest the students have better vocabulary mastery, but in the way that students are interested in it. The researchers would like to propose the technique for teaching English vocabulary by using Spelling Bee game. It is because this game can make students increase their vocabulary mastery and make students still have fun while learning vocabulary. The questions of the research are stated as follows: (1) how is the process of the students' vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game in the class VIII/Fat SMPN 17 Kota Serang? and (2) how is the improvement of the students' vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game in the class VIII/Fat SMPN 17 Kota Serang?

According to Urunga (2003), spelling bee is a contest in which competitors are eliminated as they fail to spell a given word correctly. It is also called *spelldown*. It started a decade ago as a way to improve children reading and comprehension skills. Spelling bee is more than memorizing words or letters which form a word, but it is a complicated thinking process. Students receive several clues to answer or to spell the words correctly, such as definition, alternative pronunciation, kinds of words (noun, adjective, verb, etc), until the example of sentence which uses those words. It explains that spelling bee is not only about memorizing the words but also learning how to spell the words. Spelling bee is an complete package of games which used in language teaching and learning. Because of that spelling bee covers how to spell, how to memorize the words and meaning, and how to write it. In this research, the researchers focused on action verb as a main material in the spelling bee game. It is also supported by Kichura (2008). He defined that a spelling bee is a competition, usually among children, where contestants are eliminated for misspelling a word. However, spelling bees can be conducted anywhere and anytime. Even adults have their own spelling bee, with the list of words that more difficult to learn. It means that spelling bee can be used in every level such as elementary, junior high school, senior high school and college.

According to Urunga (2003), spelling bee is a very important part of education, and it's often part of class work and homework as a subject. Organizing spelling bee in the classroom is a fun way to get the children to brush up on their spelling skills and get everyone involved in the learning fun. It can be interpreted that spelling bee can be one of the techniques to learn the words. Spelling is basic form of language learning. Based on spelling, students can learn how to write, speak, and listen. In brief, spelling bee is one way to improve those learning. It is also strengthened by Kichura (2008). He explained that spelling bee encourages students to research their spelling words, as well as to learn how to compete with one another. If students are encouraged to research their spelling words, it means that they will increase their vocabulary which soon will be to raise their understanding on a certain topic.

According to Rahayu (2009), students thought that their spelling and vocabulary skills had improved because of spelling bee. However, they still found the disadvantages of this game.

The advantages of using spelling bee as follows:

- a. Exciting game that could gratifying the lesson.
- b. Improvement of students' spelling skill.
- c. Improvement in students' vocabulary skill.
- d. Improvement of students' comprehension on the text given.
- e. Practice on students' concentration and their memory ability.

It can be drawn that improving students' spelling skill and improvement students' vocabulary skill were the advantages that mostly faced by the students.

The disadvantages of using spelling bee as follows:

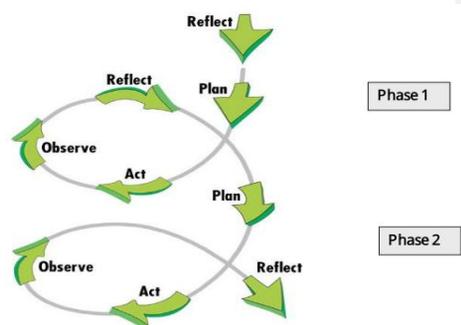
- a. Different level of difficulty in the words given.
- b. Inability in spelling an English alphabet.
- c. Limitation of interaction between the students.
- d. Limitation of time.

It can be drawn that different level of difficulty in the words given and limitation of time were the disadvantages that mostly faced by the students.

## 2 METHOD

According to Sanapiah (1977) cited in Wulandika (2011), research is defined as an activity or thinking method that is conducted systematically to find the answer of certain problems. It means that research is the scientific process to get the answer of a problem. In this research paper, the researchers used classroom action research method. The researchers used classroom action research by using cycle. The researchers did at least two cycles and each cycle consist or three meetings and to improve students' vocabulary mastery followed by lesson plan.

Picture 3.1 Classroom Action Research's Cycle



The research subject of this research was VIII-F class of SMPN 17 Kota Serang. It is located at Jl. Kesawon, Kelurahan Kaligandu, Kecamatan Serang, Kota Serang. VIII-F class consisted of 20 males and 20 females. Based on the interview, the teacher asked the researchers to apply spelling bee technique in the VIII-F class. It was because the students got difficulties and low score in vocabulary than the other class. Therefore, it is one of the efforts to improve their vocabulary. In this research, the researchers used test and non-test. The test consisted of pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. Besides that, the non-test consisted of interview, observation and documentation. The test consists of:

The researchers used descriptive analysis as qualitative analysis. Descriptive analysis used to find out how is the process of the students' vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game in the class VIII/F at SMPN 17 Kota Serang. For the quantitative analysis, the researchers used two formulas to find out the improving students' vocabulary through spelling bee game.

1. To find out the mean score of pre-test and post-test, the researchers calculated the average score by using the formula as follow:

$$X = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

Notes:

X = The mean of a sample

$\sum X$  = The sum of all the individual observations x

N = The total number of observations

(Hatch and Farhady (1982) cited in Sugiyono (2010))

## 2. Percentage of students' frequency

The researchers calculated the students' frequency by using formula as follow:

$$P = \frac{\sum P}{S} \times 100 \%$$

Notes:

**P** = The percentage of the students who made right answer

$\sum P$  = The total of the students who made right answer

**S** = The number of students who do the test (pre-test/ post-test)

(Hatch and Farhady (1982) cited in Sugiyono (2010))

### 3 FINDING AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Students' Activity

For the first meeting in cycle 1, the students were given pre-test to know their ability in vocabulary mastery. The total of pre-test was twenty numbers. The type of pre-test was multiple choices. It talked about meaning, synonym and antonym of verbs. According to the result of pre-test, the average score of students is 47,375. That average score is under the minimum score of 70. So that is why, the researcher categorized that the students of VIII-F class got low average score. It means that students at VIII-F class were lack of vocabulary mastery. There are some causes that make students of VIII-F class got low average score. One of them are they were never had a good technique to learn vocabulary. Because of that, the researcher treated the students with a good technique that is spelling bee technique.

For the second meeting in cycle 1, the students were given a treatment of spelling bee game technique. When teaching and learning started, the students of VIII-F class began to pray. After that, they responded the teacher's asking about their attendance list. Then, in the pre-teaching and learning activity, the students answered teacher's questions about what daily activity is, what is the meaning of sweeping, what you call "*belajar*" in English, etc. Next, in the main teaching and learning activity, the students listened teacher's explanation about some English verbs about daily activity or doing something based on the power point's slides. They practiced how to spell, pronounce, and say English verbs. They were not only know how to say English verbs related to daily activity or doing something but also know the meaning of them. Finally, in the end of teaching and learning activity, the students played spelling bee game. According to Uranga (2003), spelling bee is a very important part of education, and it's often part of class work and homework as a subject. Organizing spelling bee in the classroom is a fun way to get the children to brush up on their spelling skills and get everyone involved in the learning fun. It can be interpreted that spelling bee can be one of the techniques to learn the words. Spelling is base form of language learning. Based on spelling, students can learn how to write, speak, and listen. In brief, spelling bee is one way to improve those learning.

In the spelling bee game, the students divided into six groups consists of six to seven students. Before paying the game, the students listened teacher's explanation about rules of how to play this game. In the slides, there were some pictures which doing something. The students in groups should guess what the pictures were doing by spelling the verbs. When answering the questions, the students should raise their hands, spell the verb, reading the sentence and write it the blackboard. The group who could raise their hands quickly then this group can answer it firstly. If this group could not answer it correctly, the reseracher as a teacher gave to other group. The answer of the questions was also in the slides so the students could see, read and comprehend the letter of each word. The students were interested and they enthusiastic as long as the game progresses, they guess the picture and they forward in front of the classroom.

Furthermore, It is also supported Nguyen and Khuat (2003) who stated that games have been shown to have advantages and effectiveness in learning vocabulary in various ways. First, games bring in relaxation and fun for students, thus help them learn and retain new words easier. Second, games usually involve friendly competition and they keep learners interested. These create the motivation for learners of English to get involved and participate actively in the learning activities. Third, vocabulary games bring real world context into the classroom and enhance students' use of

English in a flexible and communicative way. This theory also strengthened by Wright (2006) who stated that game is an activity which is entertaining and engaging, often challenging and an activity in which the learners play and usually interact with others.

For the third meeting in cycle 1, the students were given post-test 1 to know their improvement in vocabulary mastery. The total of post-test 1 was twenty numbers. The type of pre-test was multiple choices. It talked about meaning, synonym and antonym of verbs. According to the result of post-test 1, the average score of students is 61,25. Based on the average score, the students showed their understanding about vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game. Even there is an improvement of students' average score that is 13, 875, the average score of post-test 1 is still under the minimum score of 70. So that is why, the researcher continued to the next cycle.

For the first meeting in cycle 2, the students were given a second treatment of spelling bee game. When teaching and learning started, the students of VIII-F class began to pray. After that, they responded the teacher's asking about their attendance list. Then, in the pre-teaching and learning activity, the students answered teacher's questions about what present continuous tense is, what the function of present continuous tense is and what the structure of present continuous tense is. Next, in the main teaching and learning activity, the students listened teacher's explanation all about present continuous tense based on the power point's slides. They practiced how to write a complete sentence of present continuous tense, spell the sentence, pronounce the sentence, and say the complete sentence. Finally, in the end of teaching and learning activity, the students played spelling bee game with the same rules and different pictures and vocabularies.

For the second meeting in cycle 2, the students were given a third treatment of spelling bee game. When teaching and learning started, the students of VIII-F class began to pray. After that, they responded the teacher's asking about their attendance list. Then, in the pre-teaching and learning activity, the students answered teacher's questions about recalling the material of what daily activity is, what present continuous tense is, what the correlation between daily activity and present continuous tense is, etc. Next, in the main teaching and learning activity, the students recalled their memory about the material of daily activity and present continuous tense based on the power point's slides. They practiced how to write a complete sentence of present continuous tense, spell the sentence, pronounce the sentence, and say the complete sentence. Finally, in the end of teaching and learning activity, the students played spelling bee game with the same rules and different pictures and vocabularies.

For the third meeting in cycle 2, the students were given post-test 2 to know their improvement in vocabulary mastery. The total of post-test 2 was twenty numbers. The type of pre-test was multiple choices. It talked about meaning, synonym and antonym of verbs. According to the result of post-test 2, the average score of students is 77,125. This average score proved that the students of VIII-F class got more than the minimum score of 75. Based on the average score, the students showed their more understanding about vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game. It is because they got to be improved their vocabulary mastery as seen as in the improvement score that is 15,875. It means that spelling bee game can effectively improve students' vocabulary mastery.

### **3.2 Teacher's Activity**

In the cycle 1, there were three meetings. For the first meeting, teacher gave pre-test for the students. This test aimed to know students' understanding about English verbs such as meaning, synonym and antonym. Total of this test was twenty numbers with multiple choices' form. For the second meeting, teacher asked students to pray and check the attendance list. Then, the teacher gave the material about daily activity or doing something. Here, the teacher only focused on the English verbs that used in daily activity or doing something. At the end of second meeting, the teacher asked students to work in group which of six to seven students each group. The teacher gave introduction and some rules of doing spelling bee game. The last, teacher asked students to answer the questions based on the power point's slides. For the third meeting, the teacher gave post-test 1. This test aimed to know the improvement of students' vocabulary mastery after getting treatment of spelling bee game. Total of this test was twenty numbers with multiple choices' form. It talked about meaning, synonym and antonym of verbs.

In the cycle 2, there were three meetings. For the first meeting, teacher asked students to pray and check the attendance list. Then, the teacher gave the material of present continuous tense. The

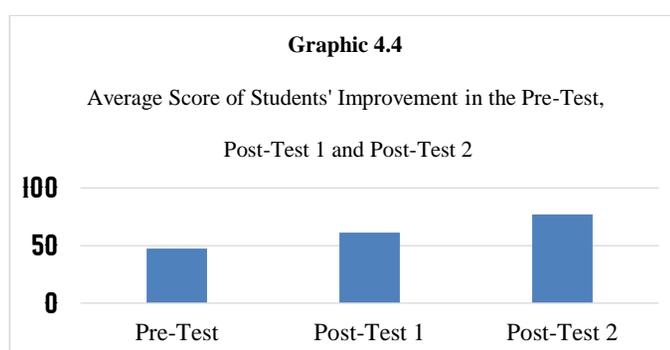
teacher explained what present continuous tense is, what the function is, what the structure is, and what the form is. After all students understood about the material, the teacher asked students to play the spelling bee game again with the same rules and questions but different pictures and vocabularies. For the second meeting, teacher asked students to pray and check the attendance list. Then, the teacher asked students to recall their memory of material about daily activity and present continuous. Here, the teacher gave some questions about the materials such as what is daily activity? What is present continuous tense? What is the function of this tense? What is the correlation between daily activity and present continuous tense? etc. At the end of class, the teacher asked students to play the spelling bee game again with the same rules and questions but different pictures and vocabularies. For the third meeting, the teacher gave post-test 2 to the students. This test aimed to know the improvement of students' vocabulary mastery after getting three times of treatments of spelling bee game. Total of this test was twenty numbers with multiple choices' form. It talked about meaning, synonym and antonym of verbs.

### 3.3 The Students' Improvement

Based on the data from students' score, the researcher made the average from pre-test, post-test 1 and cycle 2. The researcher found average score below:

*The Average Score of Students' Improvement in Pre-Test, Post-Test1 and Post-Test 2*

Test	Score
Pre-Test	47,375
Post-Test 1	61,25
Pre-Test to Post-Test 1	13,875
Post-Test 2	77,125
Post-Test 1 to Post-Test 2	15,875
Pre-Test to Post-Test 2	29,75



Based on the data of the research above, it showed that the improvement of students' vocabulary mastery. It meant that spelling bee game as a technique had given improvement in pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. Students' ability in English vocabulary mastery improved and it showed by the average score in pre-test was **47,375**, after the researchers gave treatment 1 in cycle 1 the students' score became **61,25** in the post-test 1 and post-test 2 became **77,125**.

In summary, teaching and learning vocabulary in English subject by using spelling bee game could help the students to remember and memorize English vocabulary. Spelling bee game as a technique could be used in teaching English because it is an interesting technique. It can make the classroom more active and make the students enjoy the study. On the other hand, spelling bee game could improve students vocabulary mastery.

#### 4 CONCLUSION

Based on the result and discussion of the research, spelling bee game was more effective than memorization technique and was able to improve the students' vocabulary mastery at the eighth grade of SMPN 17 Kota Serang especially VIII-F class. The students enjoyed and were enthusiastic in following teaching and learning process. When they were discussing the vocabulary using spelling bee game as a technique in teaching and learning process, the students were more comfortable and creative to express their ideas to be more active in teaching and learning process. In the main teaching and learning activity, the students listened teacher's explanation about certain materials of some English verbs about daily activity or doing something and present continuous tense based on the power point's slides. They practiced how to spell, pronounce, and say English verbs. They were not only know how to say English verbs related to daily activity or present continuous but also know the meaning of them. Finally, in the end of teaching and learning activity, the students played spelling bee game.

According to the result of pre-test, the average score of students is 47,375. That average score is under the minimum score of 70. The score of post-test in cycle 1 was 61,25 and the score of post-test in cycle 2 was 77,125. It was improved from the standard minimum score 70. According to the result of post-test 1, the average score of students is 61,25. Based on the average score, the students showed their understanding about vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game. Even there is an improvement of students' average score that is 13, 875, the average score of post-test 1 is still under the minimum score of 70. According to the result of post-test 2, the average score of students is 77,125. This average score proved that the students of VIII-F class got more than the minimum score of 75. Based on the average score, the students showed their more understanding about vocabulary mastery through spelling bee game. It is because they got to be improved their vocabulary mastery as seen as in the improvement score that is 15,875. It can be concluded that the students of VIII-F class can get good score after getting treatment of spelling bee game. So the spelling bee game can effectively improve students' vocabulary mastery.

#### REFERENCES

- Kichura, Venice. (2008). About Spelling Bees. Available at: [http://www.ehow.com/about\\_4913528\\_spelling-bees.html](http://www.ehow.com/about_4913528_spelling-bees.html). Accessed on Sunday, October 12th, 2014.
- Rahayu, Jeani Shinta. (2009). Spelling Bee Game in Teaching Narrative Text. FPBS UPI. Bandung: Unpublished Work. 61-63
- Wulandika, Nyai Mas. (2011). Improving Students' Vocabulary by Using Find and the Meaning (FUM) Technique (an Action Research at Social XI-3 of SMA NEGERI 1 RANGKASBITUNG). DEALT Journal Vol. 02, No. 01. 54-55
- Sugiyono. (2010). Metode Penelitian Pendidikan: Pendekatan Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, dan R & D. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- Uranga, Rachel. (2003) The Word is 'Opportunity' Spelling Bee Helping Kids Bound by Disadvantages. Available at: <http://www.thefreelibrary.com/THE+WORD+IS+%27OPPORTUNITY%27+SPELLING+BEE+HELPING+KIDS+BOUND+BY+...-a0100772396>. Accessed on Tuesday, October 28th, 2014.
- Nguyen, and Khuat, (2003). Learning Vocabulary through Games: the Effectiveness of Learning Vocabulary through Games. Available at: [http://www.asian\\_efl\\_journal.com/dec\\_03\\_sub.vn.php](http://www.asian_efl_journal.com/dec_03_sub.vn.php). Accessed on Wednesday, July 23th, 2014.
- Wright, Andrew, et al. (2006). Games for Language Learning. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press

# **ENCOURAGING STUDENTS TO THINK CRITICALLY THROUGH QUESTIONING**

**Ersy Laksita Rini**

*Wijaya Kusuma Surabaya University*

## **Abstract**

*Critical thinking is a thinking skill. It is the process of evaluating what other people say or write to determine whether to believe their statements. A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable one to live and act successfully in it. Therefore, everyone who wants to succeed in his/her life needs this mental skill, particularly college students. By having critical thinking skill, they can succeed in encountering not only academic problems, but also others in their lives. To produce critical students teachers are suggested to engage the pedagogy of question which requires posing questions to students and listening to students' questions. Teachers should also reconsider their beliefs and attitudes about themselves, and their functions in classrooms which are supposed to have significant implications for students' ability to think critically. They need to believe that their major roles are to think, guide, initiate, facilitate and encourage the students. The best thing one can do to develop their ability to think critically is to become conscious of applying a series of questions to whatever they read. The questions that can enhance students' critical thinking are categorized into some inter-related parts, as suggested by Devine (1998): recognizing the writer's purpose, noting special points of view, being aware of the writer's choice of language, evaluating the writer's argument, and evaluating inferences. Those questions can be posed by teachers during reading class. This paper is written to describe the importance of having critical thinking skill for the students and the suggested way to encourage them to think critically through questioning.*

**Key words:** *Critical thinking, questioning, critical questions.*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Critical thinking is an important and vital in modern education as it is needed by our students in this challenging era. It is obviously that students need to have critical thinking skill since this mental skill is very useful to help them analyze and find a solution of their academic problems as well as problems that they will encounter in their lives. This is in line with the Indonesian National curriculum which intends to enhance students' critical thinking. It is explicitly stated by suggesting "whole education" and "life-long education" in which learners should learn not only academic skills but also life skills and the vocational skills, and have the spirit of learning for the whole of their lives.

Critical thinking means correct thinking in the pursuit of relevant and reliable knowledge about the world (Schafersman, 1991:3). Another way to describe it is reasonable, reflective, responsible, and skillful thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do. A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather

information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable one to live and act successfully in it.

Critical thinking is expected of students, but it doesn't automatically and quickly develop. As stated by Devine (1981:98)critical thinking is not innate. Children are not born with the power to think critically, nor do they develop this ability naturally beyond survival-level thinking. Critical thinking is a learned ability that can be taught. One can learn how to continually improve the quality of his or her thinking, but most individuals never learn it by themselves.Only trained and knowledgeable teachers or instructors are able to impart this skill.

This skill must be developed, however; and it requires a great deal of effort on the part of teachers to help students learn to think critically. In order to develop this skill, teachers must learn to incorporate critical questioning into their classes. The responsibility for developing this skill then shifts from the students to the teacher as questioning becomes the guiding force. It is the teachers, not textbooks that have power to shape students' ability to think, which means that teachers must be prepared to lead the students toward critical thinking skill.

Being totally aware of the importance of students to have critical thinking skill, this paper attempts to elaborate how to encourage students to think critically. This paper is written based on the writer's experience in applying this technique in her reading classes. Actually there are many various of questions that can be used to encourage students to think critically, but the writer decided to choosethe category of questions proposed by Devine (1981) since she applied it in her reading classes. Thewriter hopes that this paper can give a contribution to education practitioners(especially language teachers) in all levels of education.

## 2 PURPOSE AND RATIONALE OF TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING

As stated in the background of this paper, the purpose of specifically teaching critical thinking in any disciplines is to improve the thinking skills of students and thus prepare them to succeed in the world. It means that we do not automatically teach critical thinking when we teach our subjects as it is reflected on these two quotations:

*"It is strange that we expect students to learn, yet seldom teach them anything about learning." Donald Norman, 1980, "Cognitive engineering and education," in Problem Solving and Education: Issues in Teaching and Research, edited by D.T. Tuna and F. Reif, Erlbaum Publishers.*

*"We should be teaching students how to think. Instead, we are teaching them what to think." Clement and Lochhead, 1980, Cognitive Process Instruction.*

According to Schafersman (1991:1) all education consists of transmitting to students two different things:

the subject matter or discipline content of the course ("what to think")

the correct way to understand and evaluate this subject matter ("how to think").

We do an excellent job of transmitting the content of our respective academic disciplines, but we often fail to teach students how to think effectively about this subject matter, that is, how to properly understand and evaluate it, and as a result, the students

never develop critical thinking skills. There are number of underlying reasons. Schafersman (1991:2) argues that the first goal of education, "what to think," is so traditionally obvious that instructors and students may focus all their energies and efforts on the task of transmitting and acquiring basic knowledge. Indeed, many students find that this goal alone is so overwhelming that they have time for little else. On the other hand, the second goal of education, "how to think" or critical thinking, is often so subtle that instructors fail to recognize it and students fail to realize its absence (Schafersman, 1991:2).

As the information content of any disciplines has become enormous, educators and textbook writers came to believe that they must seek to transmit as much factual information as possible in the time available. Textbooks grew larger and curricula became more concentrated; students were expected to memorize and learn increasingly more materials. Teachers tend to put the spread of facts and information in the first priority instead of teaching methods and concepts. Inevitably, the essential accompanying task of transmitting the methods of correct investigation, understanding, and evaluation of all this data (that is, critical thinking) was left behind. In retrospect, it seems obvious that when the information content of a discipline increases, it becomes even more vital to spend time, not learning more information, but learning methods to acquire, understand, and evaluate this information that is not known now but will surely follow. Frankly, it is counterproductive to simply memorize and learn more new and isolated facts when future facts may eventually displace these. Thus, our education policy has been completely backward, teaching more facts and less methods rather than the converse.

The final rationale for critical thinking is the business community's need to compete in a global economy. The general skill levels needed in the work force are growing up while the skill levels of potential employees are going down. As a result, this particular educational reform movement will remain crucial to the education of the work force and the economy's performance in the global arena. This economic pressure to teach critical thinking skills will fall in educational institutions because these skills, for the most part, are rarely taught or reinforced outside formal educational institutions. Unfortunately, at the moment, they are also rarely taught inside educational institutions.

### 3 DEFINING CRITICAL THINKING

Critical thinking means correct thinking in the pursuit of relevant and reliable knowledge about the world (Schafersman, 1991). Another way to describe it is reasonable, reflective, responsible, and skillful thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do. A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable one to live and act successfully in it.

Critical thinking is scientific thinking. Many books and papers describing critical thinking present its goals and methods as identical or similar to the goals and methods of science. A scientifically-literate person, such as a math or science instructor, has learned to think critically to achieve that level of scientific awareness. But any individual with an advanced degree in any university discipline has almost certainly learned the techniques of critical thinking.

In addition, Schafersman (1991) states that critical thinking is the ability to think for one's self and reliably and responsibly make those decisions that affect one's life. Critical thinking is also critical inquiry, so such critical thinkers investigate problems, ask questions, pose new answers that challenge the status quo, discover new information that

can be used for good or ill, question authorities and traditional beliefs, challenge received dogmas and doctrines, and often end up possessing power in society greater than their numbers.

Critical thinking has many components. Life can be described as a sequence of problems that each individual must solve for one's self. Critical thinking skills are nothing more than problem solving skills that result in reliable knowledge (Schafersman, 1991). Humans constantly process information. Critical thinking is the practice of processing this information in the most skillful, accurate, and rigorous manner possible, in such a way that it leads to the most reliable, logical, and trustworthy conclusions, upon which one can make responsible decisions about one's life, behavior, and actions with full knowledge of assumptions and consequences of those decisions.

Huitt (1998:4) proposes another definition of critical thinking. He states that critical thinking is the disciplined mental activity of evaluating arguments or propositions and making judgments that can guide the development of beliefs and taking action. He offers the definition to more closely align the concept to the evaluation level as defined by Bloom who divided cognitive domain into six levels starting from the simplest level, such as knowledge ("the remembering, either by recognition or recall of ideas, materials, and phenomena") to the most complex, evaluation ("the making judgments about the value, for some purpose, of ideas, works, solutions, methods, materials, etc").

From the whole definitions and explanations of critical thinking, we may conclude that critical thinking consists of a mental process of analyzing or evaluating information and ideas that people have offered as true for deciding what to accept and believe. It forms a process of reflecting upon the meaning of statements, examining the offered evidence and reasoning, and forming judgments about the facts.

#### **4 CRITICAL THINKING AND QUESTIONS**

Thinking is not driven by answers but by questions. If there had no been questions asked by those who laid foundation for a field, it would never have been developed in the first place. Furthermore, every field stays alive only to the extent that fresh questions are generated and taken seriously as the driving force in a process of thinking (Paul, 2004). To think through or rethink anything, one must ask questions that stimulate his thought. Critical thinking helps us question and explore power relationships in communities, schools, workplaces and the wider world. It helps individuals and groups to question the motivations behind the hierarchies and leadership, and to understand the decisions that affect people's lives through such questions as:

- Who makes such decisions?
- Why are they made? According to what criteria?
- Whose interests do they serve?
- What are the long-term consequences of the decisions?

By asking these questions, participants can better understand how others operate and can begin to break down relationships that provide barriers and build new partnerships for sustainability.

Questions define tasks, express problems and delineate issues. Answers on the other hand, often signal a full stop in thought. Only when an answer generates a further question does thought continue its life as such (Thoms, 2001). This is why it is true that only students who have questions are really thinking and learning. It is possible to give students an examination on any subject by just asking them to list all of the questions that they have about a subject, including all questions generated by their first list of questions.

Students need questions to turn on their intellectual engines and they need to generate questions from our questions to get their thinking to go somewhere. Thinking is of no use unless it goes somewhere, and again, the questions we ask determine where our thinking goes. According to Richard Paul (2004), deep questions drive our thought underneath the surface of things, force us to deal with complexity. He elaborates those questions into several kinds: questions of purpose force us to define our task, questions of information force us to look at our sources of information as well as at the quality of our information, questions of interpretation force us to examine how we are organizing or giving meaning to information, questions of assumption force us to examine what we are taking for granted, questions of implication force us to follow out where our thinking is going, questions of point of view force us to examine our point of view and to consider other relevant points of view, questions of relevance force us to discriminate what does and what does not bear on a question, questions of accuracy force us to evaluate and test for truth and correctness, questions of precision force us to give details and be specific, questions of consistency force us to examine our thinking for contradictions, and questions of logic force us to consider how we are putting the whole of our thought together, to make sure that it all adds up and makes sense within a reasonable system of some kind.

## 5 THE CATEGORY OF QUESTIONS

Critical thinking is needed to process information whether it is in written or oral form. Many reading theorists believe in the importance of critical thinking skill. According to McWhorter (1992:243), people tend to be much more tolerant and accepting in reading. Many readers readily accept information and ideas presented in written form without careful evaluation. Obviously, this passive attitude harms the readers themselves. She suggests that the readers must be critical in reading starting with the full awareness that everything they read must be written from a particular perspective; thus the writer's subjective opinion, value, attitude and ideology are implicitly and explicitly recorded in it. For there are always chances for a writer to be biased, Milan (1983:185) also strongly argues that it is not enough for the readers to have only a good fundamental ability to comprehend well without having the ability to develop critical sense, that is a means of judging the worth of what is being read. In addition, Goatly (2000:159) emphasizes that only by having self-resistance and challenging the writer's beliefs and assumptions all the time in reading, the readers could maintain enough sense of belonging to remain mentally healthy.

Based on critical thinking process proposed by Devine (1981:103-110), the questions that can enhance students' critical thinking are categorized into some inter-related parts: recognizing the writer's purpose, noting special points of view, being aware of the writer's choice of language, evaluating the writer's argument, and evaluating inferences.

### 5.1 Recognizing the Writer's Purpose

Before reading, readers must be critical to question the author's credentials whether he has the right qualifications including the appropriate educational background and the wide experiences in the field he is writing (Devine, 1981:104). Readers need to realize that not all authors are necessarily competent to write about their chosen topics. Therefore, readers must be aware all the time that the printed texts they read are not sacred documents, and they are written by human beings and consequently, are sometimes biased and sometimes deceitful.

The first thing of being critical in reading a text is able to recognize the author's purpose of writing in such a way. It is very important for readers to know the reasons the author writes his composition, whether it is merely to inform the reader, to influence the reader to change his attitude or opinion, or to persuade the reader to do something. As it is stated by Devine (1981:103) and Heilman, Blair & Rupley (1981:292) that an author may also have "hidden" purpose. Readers need to be aware of the possibility if the writer has a secret reason or controlling motive behind his article. They should also be conscious of the main points the writer tries to get across him.

## **5.2 Noting Special Point of View**

What should be clearly understood by readers is the fact that every writer has his own point of view or perspective in understanding the reality, on which, then, he bases his text. The readers must be fully aware of possibility that they may unconsciously interpret a text from the writer's point of view, which may not be the right angle in seeing that particular event. The writer's special point of view can be revealed from how he selects the information for his text and how he gives his opinion on it.

Devine (1981:104) states that the readers need to distinguish between ideas and information that truly belong to the topic and those that creep in because of the writer's careless preparation, sloppy thinking or deliberate intention to mislead. The writer sometimes leaves out some relevant information and asserts the irrelevant ones because of his point of view. The intention is to influence the readers' interpretation and judgments. This process of selecting details favorable or unfavorable to the subject being described may be termed slanting. One sided or biased slanting of this kind is not uncommon in private gossip and backbiting and all too common in the "interpretative reporting" of newspapers and magazines.

The readers also need to be able to distinguish between factual statements and statements expressing opinions, feelings and preferences. Factual statements contain facts and evidences. However, often a writer also implicitly or explicitly inserts his opinion about those facts and evidences. It is through his opinion that actually the writer also expresses his assumption and values. Readers must not mix up between facts and opinions in order to see clearly through the truth. As argued by Devine (1981:110) and Heilman, Blair & Rupley (1981:292), the ability to distinguish fact and opinion enables the readers to look twice, evaluate, judge, critique and think about incoming ideas and information.

## **5.3 Being Aware of the Writer's choice of language**

It is a fact that some words carry emotional "charge" (Devine, 1981, Goatly, 2000). Certain words may sound favorable while others are unfavorable. This is because those particular words have emotive "spin", meaning that they share the same conceptual meaning but differing in emotive meaning. These words can spin positively, neutrally and negatively (example: slim, thin, and skinny). Another kind of words called affective words is the words, which are empty of conceptual meaning. The words of this kind simply express strong emotions, either positive (example: great, fabulous, smashing, etc) or negative (example: horrible, awful, pathetic and so on). Because these are evaluative terms expressing individual taste, likes and dislikes, they are subjective can not be verified or challenged. As Goatly (2000:109) notices that certain words may unintentionally cause negative emotion and offence (example: nigger, poor, crippled, etc). In fact, sometimes neutral or positive words are deliberately replaced with the negatively emotive ones (example: economic growth vs. economic cancer). Therefore, readers must realize that the language they read is not always neutral and clear window through which

the writer presents idea and information. Words that have connotations or emotional overtones can be deliberately or unconsciously used by the writer in print to generate certain impression on the readers.

Besides, the uses of allusion, satire, humor, irony and the like in a text also require the readers' special attention and critical thinking (Heilman, Blair & Rupley, 1981:294). Through his choices of language in writing the text, the writer often either expresses his own emotions along with the ideas and information or tries to arouse certain emotions in readers in order to influence them (Devine, 1981:106).

#### **5.4 Evaluating the Writer's Argument**

All writers make assertion or argument that wants the readers to accept as true. According to Milan (1983), argument is a specific proposition that the writer is putting forth, the subject for discussion or analysis about which there may be a difference of opinion. Therefore, readers should not accept anything on face value but they must recognize every assertion as an argument that must be carefully evaluated before making any decision. Hardcastle (1952) explains that an argument has two essential parts: a claim and support. The claim asserts a conclusion –an idea, an opinion, a judgment, or point of view- that the writer wants the readers to accept. The support includes reasons (shared beliefs, assumptions, and values) and evidence (facts, examples, statistics, and authorities, etc) that give readers the basis for accepting the conclusion. When the readers assess an argument, they are concerned with the process of reasoning as well as its truthfulness. The readers must check whether the support is appropriate to the claim and whether the statements are consistent with one another in order to determine if an argument is acceptable. As it is stated by Kurland (2000) that to assess the validity of remarks within a text, the readers must evaluate what they have read and integrate that understanding with their prior understanding of the world.

#### **5.5 Evaluating Inferences**

Making inferences is the end of a reading act. It is what the readers conclude after reading a particular text. According to Hayawaka (1978:35), an inference is a statement about the unknown made on the basis of what has been observed and known. It may be carefully or carelessly made. A careful inference is made on the basis of a broad background of previous experience with the subject matter, whereas a careless one is made with no experience at all and might be entirely wrong. However, as it is suggested by Hayakawa (1978:36), it is not easy to make a careful and accurate inference, even with a lot of exercises to report only what is seen and experienced because making inference a quick, also automatic process. Hence, the problem is not on the making of inferences but in the awareness of the quality of the inferences made. Critical reading sees inferences as how to think about what are found in the reading that involves the interpretation of data from within the text (Kurland, 2000:2). Making inferences out of a piece of text, thus, needs a deep thought and careful examination of the good performances on the abilities previously discussed. On the other side, readers must also have critical attitude toward the inferences made by the writer (Devine, 1981:110). They should critically question themselves whenever they feel their attitudes, beliefs and status are challenged (Hardcastle, 1995:1)

### **6 THE PROCEDURES AND STRATEGIES**

Teachers, as educational practitioners, have a crucial role in helping to improve students' critical thinking abilities. And discussion of the teacher's role in fostering critical thinking

must begin from a recognition of the teacher as a person whose unique character, interests and desires can not be separated out from the idea of the teacher's role. Good teachers are doing more when they teach than acting according to prescribed roles. Their desire to nurture a love for learning, to help students recognize and act upon their capabilities, and to establish a classroom climate which is based upon mutual regard and respect gives their teaching purpose and meaning beyond any technical description of the teacher's role (Elder, 2004:2). What is required is that teachers be authentic individuals who are striving to improve their practice through the use of critical and creative thought. As stated by Lamb (2006:3), acting upon their belief in the importance of critical and creative reflection, teachers would attempt to analyze their own thinking process and classroom practices, be open-minded and encourage students to follow their own thinking, and consistently provide opportunities for students to develop their potential.

More specific activities and strategies for the improvement of thinking abilities will also be proposed, with the qualification that the best ways to foster critical and creative thinking will continue to be developed by reflective practitioners as they come to know their students. What is needed are teachers who engage their students in meaningful activities - ones which incorporate students' unique interests, abilities, backgrounds and community needs. The ideas presented here are only intended as starting points for further reflection, and like all good ideas will be improved by critically appraising their application to individual situations.

Here are some procedures and strategies that can be applied in fostering critical thinking to our students through questioning.

1. Define unfamiliar vocabulary or key terms
2. Be mindful of engaging the entire class
  - Build a chain of contribution, responses, reactions, alternative
  - Randomize questioning in order to keep all students engaged)
3. Create a non-judgemental environment
  - Build confidence and logic
  - Keep a conversational tone
  - Direct "big picture" questions to the whole class; detail questions to individual students
  - Give space to introverts: they prefer listening and digesting but can summarize, often with insight
4. "Set the stage": ask questions with elementary or known content
  - Use establish facts and opinions as advanced organizers
  - Build on issues and examples they can identify with
  - Keep questions that test recall of facts (who, what, where, ect)
5. Build an argument
6. Prioritize questions that challenge them to think (c.f. Proposed by Devine)
  1. What is the writer's purpose?
    - a. Is there any irrelevant information? (Identify it)
    - b. Identify the writer's opinion (not factual statements) on the passage!
  2. What is the author's tone on the passage? (The writer's emotion that is reflected on the text)
  3. Are the ideas developed logically or convincingly? Explain it!
  4. What is the writer's conclusion on the problem? Do you agree? Give your opinion!
7. Model active listening to student responses

By summarizing the content or gist of their answers

Expand on the exercise by calling on other students to do the same

8. Allow students intentional time for thought processing in answering  
Create the pause for a thoughtful response rather than expect an immediate reply
9. Allow for unexpected turns that suit the purpose and invite gestalt!
10. Balance the need for breaks (for couple minutes) with keeping momentum and arriving at breakthroughs

Devine (1981) also proposes some questions that can be structured into pre-reading activities and/or into follow-up activities for lectures and readings. Those questions are:

1. Has the writer used loaded or emotionally –charged words? What are they?
2. Is he or she a good source of ideas and information on this subject? Have you checked his/her credentials? What are they?
3. Which statements are clearly factual? Clearly opinion? How can you tell?
4. Does the writer seem to be deliberately trying to arouse your emotions? What are some examples of his or her emotive language?
5. Which statements are clearly inferential? Is there evidence in the writing to support these inferences?
6. Has the writer referred to experts by name or are the references based on hear-say evidence (“They say” or “Research proves”)?
7. Is the writer biased? How do you know?
8. What assumptions are implied by his or her statements? What are they?

## **7 SUGGESTIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PRACTITIONERS**

The students’ inability to think critically on the text causes a deep concern especially to all educational practitioners. As educational practitioners, we are responsible for the quality of our students. The findings of this study show that our students were unable to summarize, analyze, hypothesize, and evaluate the ideas they encountered in the reading passage. Since university students are intellectual people and the future of nation, this situation harm Indonesia. Based on this consideration, teaching critical thinking to the students is a must. Thus, the curriculum makers need to realize the importance of teaching critical thinking to the students. The students must be taught critical thinking skills as early as possible. Practically, the teaching critical thinking must be included in all levels of education and should be inserted in syllabuses.

Teachers hold a strategic position in determining the quality of students’ critical thinking skills. They are the persons who know their students’ weaknesses best. Therefore, they must know the best strategies to teach their students how to think critically according to the students’ characteristics. Teachers must develop the students’ awareness that everything they see, hear, and read is very possible to contain biases.

Before resolving to nurture critical learners, teachers should take into account the important element needed to accomplish the purpose, and that is the change of teachers’ attitudes towards students, pedagogy, and themselves as teachers. Students are not empty vessels which need to be filled with knowledge so that teachers should not assume that the students do not have or little prior knowledge and experiences regarding the subject matter that is going to be taught in the classrooms. If teachers ignore the individuality of the students, they fail to understand and appreciate the students’ unique experiences, and concepts, notions and view of the world. This attitude will lead a boring and unimaginative classroom because of the minimal participation and involvement of

students. The students will feel left out and assume their opinions and beliefs as not important enough to be heard in the classroom. Eventually, this would lead them to be passive students, and be a detriment to critical thinking. Teachers could gain much by listening to the students' opinions and beliefs. It obviously becomes the enrichment of experiences, ideas and thoughts in a discussion of an issue. To make this discussion flow without hindrance, teachers should develop a mutual relationship with their students. Besides creating a situation of two-way communication, teachers must also involve respect and provide collaborative learning. Thus, the students

Producing critical students is not an easy task, but it can be achieved by engaging the Pedagogy of Question which requires posing questions to students and listening to students' questions. This is a practice that forces and challenges the students to think critically. Teachers should also avoid spoon-feeding teaching learning process which does not challenge and stimulate the students' thoughts. They must create atmosphere that can encourage the students to give their opinions, to think alternatives and to take initiatives instead.

## **8 CONCLUSION**

A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable one to live and act successfully in it. The best thing one can do to develop his/her ability to think critically is to become conscious of applying a series of questions to whatever he/she reads or listens. Thus, teachers should teach their students this mental ability by posing critical questions, as suggested by Devine. In addition, teachers' beliefs and attitudes about themselves, and their functions in classrooms have significant implications for students' ability to think critically. If the teachers think that their primary roles are to teach and provide answers and information, then the students are exposed to the culture of "spoon-feeding". Consequently, the students' ability to look for answers and solutions, and to inquire, to decide, to question, to reject and accept ideas will diminish. Teachers need to believe that their major roles are to think, guide, initiate, facilitate and encourage the students. This will put them in a right frame of mind and lead the students to become critical thinkers.

## **REFERENCES**

- Devine, T G. 1981. *Teaching Study Skills: A Guide for Teachers*. Boston: Allyn&Bacon
- Elder, T. (1975). "Predicting students' use of evidence." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 3(1): 63-72.
- Fowler, R. 1996. *Language in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press*. London: Routledge.
- Goatly, A. 1997. *The Language of Metaphors*. London: Routledge.
- Hayawaka, S. *Asian Philosophy and Critical Thinking: Divergent or Convergent?*. Online Internet: November 29th, 2006. <http://homepage.mac.com.soraj/web/APPEND.html>
- Heilman, J. (1970). *The construction and evaluation of a test of critical thinking ability, grades 7-8*. Boston, Boston University School of Education.
- Hardcastle, W. 2004. *Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain*. Online Internet: November 11th, 2006. <http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/cogsys/bloom.html>

- Klenz, Marzand, Paul. Creative and Critical Thinking in Language Classrooms. The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. VI, No. 6, June 2000.  
<http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kabilan-CriticalThinking.html>
- Kurland, D J. 2000. Critical Reading vs Critical Thinking. Online Internet: November 19th, 2006. <http://www.criticalreading.com>
- Lamb, A. Critical and Creative Thinking. Online Internet: November 21st, 2006. [www.eduscapes.com/tap/topic69.htm](http://www.eduscapes.com/tap/topic69.htm)
- McWhorter, K T. 1992. Study and Thinking Skills in College. New York: Harper Collins
- Milan, D. 1991. Developing Reading Skills. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Paul, R. and Elder, L. The Role of Questions in Teaching, Thinking and Learning. Online Internet: December 10th, 2006.  
[www.criticalthinking.org/resources/articles/the-role-of-questions.shtml](http://www.criticalthinking.org/resources/articles/the-role-of-questions.shtml)
- Randal, C. (1996). The motivation to think in working and learning. Defining Expectations for Students Learning. E. Jones (ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Base Inc. Forthcoming.
- Schafersman, S.D. (1991). An Introduction to Critical Thinking. Online Internet: November 20th, 2006. <http://www.freeinquiry.com/critical-thinking.html>
- Thoms, K.J. Critical Thinking Requires Critical Questioning. Online Internet: December 9th, 2006. <http://teaching.uchicago.edu/pod/thoms.html>

## **THE APPLICATION OF COLLABORATIVE LEARNING USING PROBLEM BASED LEARNING (PBL)**

**Elli Setiyo Wahyuni, S.Pd., M.Pd**  
**Hang Tuah University Surabaya**  
ellisetiowahyuni@gmail.com

### **ABSTRACT**

*The practice of English theory should be improved along with the use of new technique. Grammatical order has various patterns in different time signal. Teaching grammar for adult learner as SLA needs some efforts as the curriculum expects the students are able to speak fluently using sentence order and appropriate structure. Collaborating Grammar mastery and Speaking ability improve the confidence and fluency. There are some steps in collaborative learning using PBL technique: (1). Grammar Dictation (2). Analysis (3). Group Presentation. The results show that using PBL technique for 16 meetings enrich the knowledge, confidence, and student participation. There are 8 groups who have different opinions towards the problem which is analyzed. During dictation, students learn the theory of grammar, repeat the pattern, and create sentences using correct order. Meanwhile, analysis gives the opportunity in understanding the problem-solution and putting the ideas in written form of English patterns. In addition, group presentation allows them to use greeting expression, formal conversation, question and answer, and debating technique. The findings indicate that adult learners could easily master grammar and speaking skills as collaborative learning which aims to be able to speak English using grammatical order as it is essential for the presentation material related to the subject of the study.*

**Keywords: Analysis, Grammar Dictation, Group Presentation, PBL, Speaking**

## SUMMARIZING JOURNAL ARTICLES AND ITS CHALLENGES

**Dyah Sunggingwati**  
sunggingwati@gmail.com

*Universitas Mulawarman*  
Kampus Gunung Kelua Jalan Kuaro Samarinda

### *Abstract*

*In this paper I would like to explore how the students were able to accomplish summaries of research articles from open access journal including the challenges encountered by the master students of English department of Mulawarman University in the academic writing course. It is expected they are able to use the summarized articles for their thesis proposal.*

*The students are experienced English teachers, novice teachers, and graduated students from undergraduate program who are unfamiliar with reading academic texts especially the journal articles. The data of this study were gathered from self-report of during each process of skimming and scanning, skimming and scanning, highlighting and noting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.*

*The students have to select their own research topic, find main ideas or key words, highlight and note important points of each paragraph of the articles gathered from the credible open access journals. Paraphrasing and summarizing were the following steps to be completed.*

*The results revealed that the students encountered difficulties in reading in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure, and unfamiliarity with the article topics. Reading journal articles was uncommon for them leading to confusion. Furthermore, they lack of knowledge which part of the articles should be underlined. This provides some suggestion that strengthening students reading of journal articles should receive more attention. This could be done by teaching them to read journal article from the undergraduate program.*

**Keywords:** *summarizing, journal articles, challenges*

### **1 INTRODUCTION**

One of the requirement for postgraduate students particularly in the master program at Mulawarman University is completing a thesis. They have to conduct research based on their interest. Meanwhile, the Internet has provided more access for foreign language/second languagereaders since online reading serves as the source of input for them (Anderson, 2003). Leu (2002) emphasized that the Internet offers time-saving for gathering information and communication comparing to other media such as books or computers. In addition, credible open access journals could be easily downloaded for students to enrich their research knowledge

As the credible open journal articles could be accessed and the requirement of research thesis for the master students, it is expected that they could take the advantages of this condition. The question appears here is how they could use the articles for the benefits of their thesis. Therefore in this study I would like to explore what I have done with my students in the academic writing course to summarize journal articles throughout four various major phases namely, skimming and scanning, highlighting and noting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

Literature in the second reading or writing has indicated that summarizing is hard and difficult task. It is perceived as a very beneficial but complicated skills in the academic field. This requires students to reconceptualize material in order to articulate similar ideas to the original source but different way of expression (Chen & Su, 2011; Johns 1985, Nambiar, 2007). This strategy also requires students to integrate reading and writing abilities (Grabe and Zhang, 2013). Students need to engage in a variety of complex reading and writing activities and make contextualized decisions as they interact with the reading materials and the assigned writing tasks (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Grabe and Zhang, 2013; McGinley 1992; Spivey 1990).

Grabe and Zhang (2013) reported major factor that contribute to be effective how to summarize in their critical review of the integration of reading and writing with the implications for L2 learners which could be summarized that lack of academic vocabulary knowledge impaired students for better reading abilities or writing task.

## **2 METHOD**

The methodology comprises three sections; participants, procedures, data and data analysis.

### **2.1 Participants**

The participants of this study were 18 master students in the second semester of Mulawarman University who learned academic writing course and were expected to complete research proposal at the end of the third semester.

### **2.2 Procedure**

#### ***2.2.1 The students were taught in four several diverse phases; skimming and scanning, highlighting and noting, paraphrasing, and summarizing.***

##### ***2.2.1.1 Data and Data Analysis***

The data were gathered from the self- reports of what students experience form each of those four steps; skimming and scanning, highlighting and noting, paraphrasing, and summarizing. The self-reports were only from experiences of summarizing of three journal articles, therefore the reports were completed in the sixth meeting of the academic writing course focusing on the students' experiences during completing the tasks including the difficulties they encountered in each phase, the benefits of each phases and reflections of the process. They were analyzed based on the themes emerged from the responses.

### 3 FINDINGS

#### 3.1 Skimming and Scanning

Most of the participants encountered difficulties in this stage because of complicated vocabularies. There were many new terms for them. They were confused and some of them got headache because this required them to read more than three times. One student reported that she had to read four-seven times just to enable them to get general ideas of the article content as follows 'In this stage I still could not understand all new vocabulary. But practicing this skimming bit by bit enabled me outline each paragraph and the article. I needed to read 4-7 times for skimming to allow to paraphrase (S2).

In order to understand the article the student needs to practice the skimming progressively which should be done many times. Moreover in these phases lack of vocabulary also distracted them to focus on the gist of the article therefore they concentrated on the new vocabulary which were mostly related to the articles terminology

In the scanning phase the students experienced difficulties due to unfamiliar technical vocabularies and complicated sentence construction that hindered them to understand the articles. Therefore, they necessitate to read any times.

Similar to the skimming stage, the scanning process was challenging for students, limited vocabulary was the burden to understand the detail of the article. Some students need a dictionary to get the meaning of the new vocabulary

Other reported that scanning takes time, she needed to put more effort and patience to do this.

Therefore, the students focused on the new vocabulary in the scanning phase. They searched for meaning to allow them to understand the article. This shows that vocabulary impeded comprehension of the article.

#### 3.2 Highlighting

In the highlighting phase two students wrote that they found highlighting was not really difficult as one student informed 'Highlighting was not really complicated because I already know the main ideas of the paragraphs. I highlighted every important word or sentences that I liked (S8). Highlighting the main ideas and their supporting sentences assist the students to comprehend the article Therefore, the student was able to highlight the key words but linking the ones have been emphasized is the challenge that forced him to read many times. In the highlighting process, therefore, the students were able to highlight the words they thought the vital ones but sometimes they were unsure whether the words they have noted were the essential ones.

#### 3.3 Note Taking

The reports in the noting phase were varied. Taking notes during reading the article made the students confused as one student wrote that 'I have to read and reread to make notes I needed. Sometimes the notes I have made were confusing (S11). Meanwhile other student commented that making notes is relatively less difficult.

Even though some students experienced that making notes of what is being read was not too complicated but for most students this process was still complicated such as dissimilarity of the notes and the source, taking times, and selection of the words should be noted.

#### 3.4 Paraphrasing

In the paraphrasing phase some themes appeared especially confusion of how to paraphrase that obligate the students to open dictionaries, review grammar books, and

time. They tend to copy-paste the original source in the paraphrasing process. She tried to do paraphrasing but only some of the paragraphs. Therefore in this phase the students met some difficulties in terms of the process of paraphrasing itself such as grammar, vocabulary, active-passive voice, direct-indirect sentences that ask for more time to complete it.

### **3.5 Summarizing**

More than half of the total students in this phase stated that less complicated than the previous phase that is paraphrasing. S6 – after paraphrasing each paragraph the last step is summarizing and this tends to be easier. I just needed to link all the paraphrases I made to represent the content of the article. Making into a cohesive summary from all paraphrases is another challenge in the summarizing as the students needed to review their notes but however, she could do it gradually. Familiarity of the article topic also contributes to the understanding.

## **4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The findings in this study have revealed some conclusions. First, the students were familiar with all the phases given in this course however, they encountered some difficulties in each phase. New technical vocabulary that were mostly related to research and particular terms of the topic. The students found that new vocabulary was an obstacle in these phases. They had to open dictionary regularly and it took time to understand the texts. They had to search for meaning and tried to understand the whole texts. These findings support the review of previous studies by Grabe and Zhang (2013) that vocabularies is the most challenging for students in the second language context to comprehend texts.

Students claimed that paraphrasing is the most difficult step to do. The problem was how to do the paraphrasing itself, such as active-passive voice, direct-indirect sentences that ask for more time to complete it. They had to use their own words but similar meaning with the source (Bean, 1986).

Summarizing was less frustrating for students predominantly for those who were able to do paraphrasing, while for others, they could do it with more time and progressively. In the reflection, they found that the phases given in the academic writing was useful for them for improving reading comprehension (Cordero-Ponce, 2000) and writing proficiency (Garner & McCaleb, 1985; Spack, 1988), although it was painful.

The findings implied that the students in this study were required to have appropriate reading and writing skills to do summarizing which is hard and complex (Grabe and Zhang, 2013). Teaching students for each stage should be given at the beginning of their study in the tertiary level.

Since this study investigated only small number of participants therefore future research with similar interest could include more participants in order to have broader understanding of students' challenges in summarizing including how to overcome those complexities.

## **REFERENCES**

- Anderson, N. J. (2003). Scrolling, clicking, and reading English: Online reading strategies in a second/foreign language. Retrieved 9 April 2013 from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/sci-hub.org/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.110.2782&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

- Bean, J.C. (1986). Summary writing, Rogerian listening, and dialectic thinking. *College Composition and Communication*, 37(3), 343-346.
- Chen, Y.S. & Su, W.S. (2011). A genre-based approach to teaching ESL summary writing. *ELT Journal*, 66(2), 184-192.
- Coffin, C. (2006). Learning the language of school history. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(4), 413-429.
- Cordero-Ponce, W. L. (2000). Summarization instruction: Effects on foreign language comprehension and summarization of expository texts. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 39(4), 329-350.
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process, and practice* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
- Friend, R. (2002). Summing it up—Teaching summary writing to enhance science learning. *The Science Teacher*, 69(4), 40-43.
- Garner, R., & McCaleb, J. L. (1985). Effects of text manipulations on quality of written summaries. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 10(2), 139-149.
- Grabe, W., & Zhang, C. (2013). Reading and writing together: A critical component of English for academic purposes teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal* 4(1), 9-24
- Hood, S. (2004). Managing attitude in undergraduate academic writing: A focus on the introductions to research reports. In L. Ravelli & R. Ellis (Eds.), *Analysing academic writing: Contextualised frameworks* (pp. 24-44). London, UK: Continuum.
- Kirkland, M.R. & Saunders, M.A.P. (1991). Maximizing student performance in summary writing: managing cognitive load. *Tesol Quarterly*, 25(1), 105-122.
- Leu, D. J., Jr. (2013). The new literacies: Research on reading instruction with the Internet and other digital technologies. Retrieved 6 June 2013, from <http://www.sp.uconn.edu/~djleu/newlit.html>
- McGinley, W. (1992). The role of reading and writing while composing from sources. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27, 227-248.
- Nambiar, R.M.K. (2007). Enhancing academic literacy among tertiary learners: A Malaysian experience. *3L Journal of Language Teaching, Linguistics and Literature*, 13. Retrieved from <http://ejournal.ukm.my/3l/article/view/1030/942>.

# A MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION ANALYSIS EMPLOYED TO INVESTIGATE FACTORS AFFECTING INSTITUT TEKNOLOGI SEPULUH NOPEMBER (ITS) STUDENTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

**Kartika Nuswantara**  
**Isnaeni Zain**  
kartika\_bahasa@its.ac.id

*Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS) Surabaya*

## **Abstract**

*An issue about a global market, integrations among different countries, or other issue related to common interests for making the border among nations permeable is currently becoming a lively topic of discussion. Among other points being discussed is the language, particularly on how to cope with global communication using one globally understandable language. English is the lingua franca that has so far enabled global communication find an ease. Therefore, it is the right reason for ITS to promote the capacity to master the language as one of the requirements to graduate from the institute. A proficiency test, Test of English Proficiency, has been developed and distributed to measure students' capacity. In practice, the test has invited controversies as many of the students fail to meet the threshold level determined by the institute; however, there, at the same time, are many who can successfully attain the level. The present study is aimed at figuring out some internal and external factors affecting the success and those would become an inventory that can be used as a model for students to succeed the attempt for arriving at, at least, the threshold level.*

**Key words:** *internal factors, external factors, TEFL, Language Proficiency.*

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

Indonesian people today start to realize that they are now living in the global era where people all over the world are interconnected by sharing and understanding global perspectives. Other popular term like global village introduced by McLuhan (1962) might be well understood. The era where electric technology and instantaneous movement of information flow rapidly then bring all social, political, or many aspects of lives freely permeating from one to other villages. At this era, people need to be aware of having the capacity to communicate and interact globally and adjust with the running technology development. Therefore, no one now can deny the need to cope with a language spoken by many other people in the other part of the hemisphere. The idea of global world, free trade, and remarkably imply that there is a need for every single person to cease the capacity for being accepted in the global world. Until today, English is by all means still selected to be the language of global communication, as it is stated in the statistics portal 2015, it is found that 1,500 million people worldwide speak the language of whom only 375 million of native speakers. It means English has already been spoken by most people in the world and therefore, there is no reason for those living in this world not to cease the capacity to use the language.

Universities or other higher education institutions become the party who need to put the priority to give students skill to cope with the language. Those who are not majoring in English have to take at least 2 credits during the study in university. Language Centre is established in universities in Indonesia to accommodate the need for learning the languages, especially English. Varied programs are developed as the attempt to help students to cope with the language learning process. Then, it becomes very common that each university develops varied test of Language Proficiency to measure students' skills in the language. Many of those universities adapt and adjust the popular proficiency test like TOEFL for the sake of getting closer picture of the students capacity to the standardize test. In Indonesia, this kind of test is labelled in some different brands such as Institutional TOEFL, TOEFL-like, TOEFL prediction test and the like. Although using different names but the essence is absolutely the same. Therefore, this kind of test is very popular in Indonesia and used for varied purposes. Some use it for one of the requirement to graduate from universities, other uses for eligibility to pursue higher degree, even some other uses for promoting certain level of position in the career.

In Surabaya, Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS) promotes its graduates to have an additional value besides the major they have. The institute encourages the students to empower themselves with maximising their soft skills, one of them is an ability to have a good interpersonal interaction. Due to this, then the graduate candidates must have acquired certain level of proficiency in foreign language, especially English. At the same vein, in Makasar the TOEFL test is highly recommended for students who want to continue their education to higher level, for example, from undergraduate level to graduate level. The test is also used for public usages such as to get promotion to higher level of job.

From the picture taken from both universities, it is figured out that there is a similar problem encountered. Students learn the language with varied success, and some are found to have difficulties to gain the determined passing grade. By studying from those two studies conducted by prior researchers, the present study aims at figuring out the factors seen from both sides: internal and external factors. In the side of internal factors, the present study would focus on the strategy and motivation, while from the external side, learning experience would be traced. Pertinent to this, the questions are emerged: 1) how are the students different concerning to the use of learning strategies?; and 2) what are possible factors affecting the choices of the learning strategies?. Relevant to these two questions, the present research is directed to: 1) determine three factors: how gender, motivation, and experience in studying English affect choices of language learning strategies; and 2) compare the effects of these factors on their language learning strategy use. The result of this study is expected to be beneficial to universities in Indonesia who are still having the classical problems for enhancing the capacity for learning this language, and for the teachers, this would contribute information about how gender, motivation, and learning strategies are intricately correlated.

## **2 LITERATURE REVIEW**

This section provides a review of prior studies that have conducted in universities in Makasar and in Surabaya. Subsequently, a definition of language learning strategies is presented, then followed by a review on the roles of learningg strategies on gender, motivation, and experience in studying the language.

## 2.1 Prior Researches Review

First, a study has been conducted in Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS) by Heny Kartikasari (2014) who is completing her graduate program. The primary data are derived from the result of a survey to a group of students from 2010/2011 academic year representing five faculties in ITS, and secondary data are taken from students of ITS of the same academic year who have not yet been able to complete the passing grade of EFL test (i.e. the name of proficiency test developed by the institution), or at least have already taken once but fail. By using random sampling, 86 students are finally selected to involve in the study. Some variables employed in the study include student demography, and their learning history, and the response variable is derived from the score of EFL test that is comprised from three parts, namely, Listening (Y1), Structure (Y2), and Reading (Y3). Another variable called predictor variable involves the overall GPA, semester GPA, Score of English Course, Time span for studying English, each component Scores of EFL Test. The study uncovers several facts:

- (a) From the sample of the study, the researchers can figure out that 53% or 46 male and the rest 47% or 40 female students have not yet pass the passing grade of the EFL test distributed by ITS Language Centre. The percentage is still somewhat equal or not significantly different so that genders seem not eliciting any different in learning the language between male and female students.
- (b) In terms of students demography data, it is revealed that 56% students are from out of Surabaya, but towns surrounding East Java; 24% from Surabaya, and 20% from other provinces. From those percentage, 74% living in dorms and the rest 26% living with the family or relatives. Unfortunately, there is no discussion made to see how this factor correlate to the proficiency of the students.
- (c) From education background, it is identified that students are coming from different enrolment mechanism, 39% from Regular SNMPTN/PMDK, 35 % from SBMPTN, and 26% dari jalur masuk Kemitraan/Mandiri. Then, 86% students are from High School, 8% from Islamic High School, and 6% from vocational high school. Also, 79% is from state school while 21% is from private school.
- (d) Then, random variable shows that 49% students read references in English while 51% admits that they do not see any English references. While 90% students state that they are completing tasks in English, 64% reviewing international journals, 15% presenting in English, 13% writing papers in English and 8% working on other tasks.
- (e) Related to the English courses they have ever taken, 66% students do not take any courses and the rest 34% have an experience of taking English courses. From those 34 %, 72% undertake the courses in ITS Language Centre, and the rest take outside.
- (f) Survey has revealed 54% students consider *Listening* the most difficult skill in the test, then it is followed by 29 % students who admit that *Structure* is the most difficult, 17 % say that reading is taken the place of the most difficult in the test.

Second, the study is conducted in the state universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Eastern part of Indonesia in2013 (Mahmud, 2014). The study focused on the students of Graduate Program who took TOEFL Test as the requirement for finishingtheir

study. After being successful to be accepted as students, the results of the TOEFL Test in the entrance test became the basic guidelines for administering the TOEFL Preparation course. The TOEFL certificate would be issued for the students who were able to reach the passing grade, which then became the requirement for them to finish their study. If they did not pass the TOEFL test, their final exam would be suspended. The passing grades were 426 for Non-English Program and 476 for English Program. Since it was locally used in the Graduate Program, the TOEFL used was not Institutional TOEFL. The TOEFL-like or the TOEFL Prediction was used instead whose materials were taken from the TOEFL Preparation Books (Philips 2001). The Graduate program had the language laboratory that conducted the test (TOEFL-like or prediction TOEFL) and also conducted the TOEFL Preparation Course. In 2013, there were 30 classes which were conducted by the language laboratory covering different study programs. The programs were English Education, Non-English Program (Indonesian Language and Social Science (Economy, Geography, History, Educational Management, Early Childhood Education, Educational Research, Sociology, Sports, and Arts) and Natural Science (Mathematics, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, and Technology). Each class consisted of 15 to 20 students.

For this study, three classes were taken as sample (one from English department, and two from non-English department, namely one social science class and one natural science class). To collect data, the researcher observed these three classes. He also conducted in depth semi-structured interview to representatives of these three classes. There were twelve students (four for each class) who were interviewed. These respondents were chosen based on the frequency they took TOEFL test and their obtained scores which had not reached the passing grade. Respondents had taken the TOEFL Preparation Course and had taken tests for many times. Some of the respondents had to take remedial course and failed the tests for many times. The main focus was asking their major problems in answering the TOEFL Test.

This paper has discussed the facts from the teaching of TOEFL in one of the state universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Based on the intensive interview and classroom observation, the main reasons were due to several conflicting factors, such as the less basic skills in English, less practice on the test, less motivation, and students' individual differences such as age and social status. Findings from this study are very crucial as input for teachers in organizing and teaching TOEFL preparation Course. This teaching is very crucial as students need to take the TOEFL Test as a measurement in their English proficiency. As had been discussed above, students undertaking TOEFL test found many kinds of problems that hampered their achievement. Therefore, the process of learning and teaching in the TOEFL Preparation Course needed to be given high priority. It can be revealed that the teaching of TOEFL for English students and Non-English students needs attention to improve further skills. The course needs not only improving the skills but also overcoming the dilemmatic problems they faced in learning TOEFL. In order to gain better input for this study, it is suggested for further researchers to conduct related studies. One of the important aspects is to investigate the relationship of the above problems with the students' achievement in answering the TOEFL test. Are those above problems influence their achievement or are there any other factors influencing their achievement. Studies should also investigate the tests themselves whether the tests have been operated in standard.

From the above studies, it is summarized that studies aimed to figure out the factors influencing the achievement of the students. The present study is conducted to fill the gap after the above studies fail to cooperate at figuring out the influencing factors in language learning. The present study would take some of the internal and external factors to be investigated. Learning strategy and motivation will be used to represent the internal

factor, while learning experience will be the external factor that is going to be investigated.

## **2.2 Language Learning Strategy**

The use of language learning strategies might be able to be identified as one of the influential internal factors that would affect the success in pursuing language learning process. There have been so many researches developed under the heading of language learning strategies with various proposals for the definitions, underlining concepts as well as the categorisations. Say for example, O'Malley & Chamot (1990) has divided language learning strategies into three categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective, Ox-ford (1990) has developed the most comprehensive, detailed and systematic taxonomy of strategies. She neatly proposed the point that "they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. They are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (1990, p. 8). In this regard, Oxford also categorizes language learning strategies into two domains: "Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies. Direct Strategies mean language learning strategies that directly involve the target language. All direct strategies require mental processing of the language." (1990, p. 37) The three groups of direct strategies are as follows:

- (a) Memory strategies – techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in their memory and retrieve it later on, e.g. placing new words in context, using key-words and representing sounds in memory, etc.
- (b) Cognitive strategies – skills that allow students to better comprehend and produce language in different ways, e.g. note-taking, repetition, summarizing text, etc.
- (c) Compensation strategies – behaviours used to compensate and help them to employ the language, e.g. guessing while listening or reading, or using synonyms or paraphrasing while speaking or writing.

Unlike direct Strategies, indirect strategies provide "indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, in-creasing cooperation and empathy, and other means" (1990, p. 151). The three sets of indirect strategies are as follows:

- (d) Metacognitive strategies – behaviours used for arranging, planning and evaluating one's learning, e.g. overviewing and linking with already known material.
- (e) Affective strategies – techniques which regulate emotional behaviours and motivation, e.g. using relaxation techniques, singing songs in a target language to lower one's anxiety, etc.
- (f) Social strategies – actions allowing better learner interaction with other people in the language learning process, e.g. asking questions, cooperating with peers, and developing empathy towards target language speaking people, etc.

## **2.3 Genders**

As evidenced by a number of research studies, among several factors such as motivation, age, proficiency level, etc., gender difference is deemed worthy investigation on the

influence on language learning and acquisition (e.g. Chamot & Keatley, 2004; Goh & Kwah, 1997; Gu, 2002; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Mochizuki, 1999; Wharton, 2000). A number of studies reported significantly more use of learning strategies than their male counterparts (e.g. Goh & Kwah, 1997; Factors Affecting Language Learning Strategy Reported Usage Green & Oxford, 1995; Gu 2002). These studies postulated that female students used Compensation and Affective strategies more frequently than male ones.

Several studies have established the existence of gender differences in the use of language learning strategies. A study conducted by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), for example, investigated learning strategy use of 55 students learning English as a second language (ESL) with differing cultural and linguistic background: Brazil, China, German, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand, and Togo. The results showed the students preferred to use Metacognitive strategies, whereas they depicted the least use of Affective and Memory strategies in overall strategy. Mean differences revealed that females engaged in strategy use more frequently than males. Also, female participants reported using Social and Metacognitive strategies most and Memory strategies the least, while males favoured the use of Metacognitive and Compensation strategies most and Affective strategies the least.

While considerable foreign language and second language studies using the SILL in various countries have found significantly more frequent strategies used by females, Wen and Wang (1996) employed self-designed questionnaires with tertiary second-year non EFL-majors in China to determine a relationship between learner variables and scores on English as a foreign language achievement test. Again, they found that six factors affecting directly EFL achievement scores included: gender, first language proficiency, second language proficiency, vocabulary learning, ambiguity tolerance, and mother tongue avoidance. Wen and Wang's findings correspond to Green and Oxford's (1995) study, demonstrating that gender was one of factors affecting the choices of language learning strategies. That is, females used Memory and Metacognitive strategies more frequently than males.

In sharp contrast, some studies revealed that males used learning strategies more than females when learning a language (Tran, 1988; Wharton, 2000). For instance, a study that involved language learning strategies and affective factors was conducted by Wharton (2000). 678 university students learning Japanese and French as foreign languages in Singapore participated in this study. Using Oxford's 80-item SILL with this group of students, he found that more proficient learners used diverse strategies to succeed. Additionally, this study pointed out that types, numbers, and frequency of use of language learning strategies, cultural background, language studied, stage of learning, age, motivation, language learning goals, settings, previous language learning experience, and language learning style are factors affecting students' language learning. Particularly, in terms of gender difference, the finding showed that males used a greater number of strategies significantly more often than females. This finding confirmed the results of Tran's (1988) study of adult Vietnamese refugees, demonstrating that males were more likely to use a variety of learning strategies than females.

Nonetheless, other studies pointed out that gender might not be one of key variables affecting the choices of language learning strategies. For example, Griffiths (2003) investigated the relationship between course level and frequency of language learning strategies used by 114 male students and 234 females. Employing the 50-item SILL, a significant relationship between strategy use and course level was found, while there was no statistically significant differences according to either gender or age with strategy use. Congruent with Griffiths' findings, Ma (1999) revealing that gender had no significant effect on the choices of such strategies as Memory, Metacognitive and

Affective strategies. However, a significant difference was found in strategy choice by students of different majors. In this regard, it can be said that the relationship between gender and learning strategies are not explicit due to conflicting results generated by previous studies. For example, given the fact that the participants in Ma (1999) and Wen and Wang's (1996) studies are from the same tertiary EFL in China, the studies reported conflicting results even in a single country.

Although research studies on learning strategies and gender are common, reflecting a distinction in strategy use between males and females, the relationship between gender and learning strategies are not explicit due to conflicting results generated by previous studies. Therefore, more studies are needed to verify the role of gender in determining learning strategies.

## **2.4 Motivation**

Speaking frankly, a success in anything cannot be separated from a strong motivation, as it becomes the drive leading to gain the targeted goal. At the same vein, successful learning should also begin from a state of having good motivation; therefore, motivation in learning process not to mention language learning plays a vital role. It is motivation that produces effective communicators by planting in them the seeds of self-confidence. It also successfully creates learners who continuously engage themselves in learning even after they complete a targeted goal.

Specifically speaking, some researchers have put some varied definitions toward motivation in language learning. It has been very popular definition that has been offered by Gardner (1985), saying that motivation and attitudes are the primary sources contributing to individual language learning. Gardner has described the phenomenon of motivation as consisting of four components: a goal, effort, want, and attitudes toward the learning activity. In addition, the concept of motivation can be classified into two orientations of reasons: instrumental and integrative. The former refers to the individual's willingness and interest in having social interaction with members of the L2 (second language) group. This orientation occurs when students wish to truly become part of the culture of the language being learned. An instrumental orientation is more self-oriented, described as when students have utilitarian reasons such as they want to pass an exam or they want to get a job. This is congruent with the statement made by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), that both instrumental and integrative orientations lead to more proficiency, but integrative orientation motivated students to learn more.

Other researcher whose concern on motivation has been widely recognized is Dörnyei (2001). He states that, generally, motivation can be a matter explaining why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it. Similarly, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) indicate that the learners with high motivation to learn a language will likely use a variety of strategies. Therefore, in terms of language learning, achievement can be viewed as one of indexes of motivation since motivation can lead to and support all activities.

From what has been stated above by Oxford and Nyikos, the present study attempts to focus on motivation and its relation to the learning strategy. Some other similar researchers whose emphasis is placed on both poles, motivation and language learning are, among others, Pintrich and Schunk (2002), they has pointed out that motivation involves all activities in the classroom, affecting learning of new behaviours and the performance of earlier learned behaviours, and then Mochizuki's (1999) also indicates that, after being assured by the Second Grade Test of the Society of Testing English Proficiency (STEP) and the 80-item SILL, 44 second-year and 113 first-year Japanese students used Compensation strategies the most often and Affective ones the

least. The study also reported that motivation affected the learner's choices of strategies the most strongly of all the factors: major course, self evaluation of English proficiency, enjoyment of English learning, and gender.

Like Mochizuki, Yutaka (1996) worked with 24 Japanese learners of a second language's learning strategies used and the effect of experience of studying or living abroad. The study designated that, in terms of motivation, centering learning, and evaluating learning strategies had the influence on learning strategy use. The study also indicated that students' gender, integrative motivation, and instrumental motivation affected choices of strategies significantly, but major, personality, and proficiency did not. Experiences of both studying and living abroad significantly also seem to affect strategy choices.

Referring to all the above prior researches, the present research is attempted to see how students motivation has led them to choose the learning strategy choices. After figuring out how good the motivation of the students, the way they use the strategy in learning English will be investigated.

## **2.5 Learning Experience**

According to Kolb (1984), learning is defined as a human adaptation process, it is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Therefore, experience plays a key role in the process. According to Rogers in Hansen (2000), he states strongly the importance of learning experience particularly on the role of teacher in that process. He believes that no one learns anything of significance from someone else. Instead, learning takes place when learner is intrinsically motivated to learn and undertakes to learn something on his/her own.

Experience in studying language is also regarded one of the factors that it is claimed to affect the choices of language learning strategies (Khamkhien, 2010). However, a small number of studies have been carried out investigating the relationship between the experience of English study and language strategy use. Purdie and Oliver (1999) reported the language learning strategies used by bilingual school-aged children coming from three main cultural groups: Asian (predominantly Vietnamese or Chinese dialect speakers), European (children who spoke Greek and those who identified themselves as speakers of Macedonian), and speakers of Arabic. The results showed students who had been in Australia for a longer period of time (3 or less years and 4 or more) obtained significantly higher mean scores for Cognitive strategies and for Memory strategies. These findings, thus, can serve as the insight that experience in studying a language can affect the language learning strategy choices.

Based on some of the evidences brought by earlier researches that learning experience is quite pivotal in the sake of affecting the choices of the learning strategies as it has built knowledge to the learners about how a learning should have been completed. Pertinent to this, the present study put language learning experience as one thing being investigated in the present study.

### 3 METHOD

#### 3.1 Subjects of the Study

Students of Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember in Surabaya are selected to be the population for the study. Language Centre is selected to be the setting where subjects are offered to be the respondents of the research. 100 copies of questionnaires are distributed and 84 copies are returned with the responses. Thus, at the end, the present research is conducting by involving 84 students—26 males (31.0%), and 58 females (69.0%).

#### 3.2 Instruments

The 80-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) and a background questionnaire were employed in this study. The SILL contains 80 items of learning strategy statements classified into six categories: Memory category, Compensation category, Cognitive category, Metacognitive category, Affective category, and Social category. Scores for each item was assigned on a Likert scale, ranking from (1) never or almost never did this to (5) always or almost always do this.

To gain information about factors affecting the choices of language learning strategies which the present study aimed to determine, the background questionnaire was adapted from Khankhien (2010). In the process of adapting the background questionnaire, all items related to the language learning enjoyment were excluded because they are not directly relevant to the present study. Since this study focuses on investigating the role of gender, motivation, and experience in studying English, two items together with their sub-questions focusing on variables were added: motivation (no. 12: Why do you want to study English?), and experience in studying English (no. 13: Your experience in studying English). In addition, to facilitate the understanding of the participants, the phrase “learning a new language” in the SILL was changed into “learning English” in every item. In this case, the adapted version (see Appendix) was checked for clarity and consistency by the two scholars whose expertise was in English and applied linguistics.

#### 3.3 Data analysis

In order to identify the language learning strategy patterns used by ITS students when learning English, the scores gained from the SILL was calculated. To determine the three factors, the data obtained from the background questionnaire were analyzed. First, the questionnaires in each group were divided into two groups according to gender—male and female. Second, in terms of motivation, all questionnaires from both groups were analyzed according to the answers to the question “*Why do you want to learn English?*” (no. 12) to separate highly-motivated and lowly-motivated students based on the scores of each sub-question. Through this stage, the scores assigned for the answers “*strongly agree*” and “*moderately agree*” are 2 and 1 points, respectively. The students who got more than 15 points (60%) were regarded as highly-motivated students, whereas those of less than 15 points were grouped in lowly-motivated group. The cut-off point may seem a bit high. As arbitrarily established, the rather high cut-off score would be beneficial in enhancing the distinction between the two groups of students by motivation. Then, focusing on experience in studying English of each student group, the answers to the question “Your experiences in studying English” (no. 13) were analyzed. In this regard, the questionnaires were separated into two groups: group 1 – those from the respondents with experience from language center and those from going abroad in an English speaking country but no more than 4 months; group 2 – those who had no experience from these two sources.

To obtain descriptive and inferential statistics, data analysis was carried out using the SPSS 15 statistical program. Means and standard deviations of the data were also computed. In addition, the t-test was calculated to determine the influences of gender, motivation, and experience on studying English in the strategies and to determine whether there were any significant differences among learners with regard to strategy use.

#### 4 RESULTS

The data of students on the SILL, as classified based on gender, highly-motivated and lowly-motivated students, and students experienced in studying English in international schools and/or programs and by students inexperienced in those were analyzed. The following sections present the results of the analysis using t-test through means, standard deviations, and the significant difference, including the discussion.

##### 4.1 Gender

Data are elicited from the responses given to SILL questionnaire and then they are analyzed in accordance with the gender of the respondents. The results of the choices of strategies employed by students of different gender are presented below:

Strategy Category	Students		Sig.
	Males (N=26)	Females (N=58)	
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Memory	2.86 (0.43)	2.7 (0.58)	0.21
Cognitive	3.05 (0.39)	3.23 (0.58)	0.03 *
Compensation	3.72 (0.46)	3.65 (0.59)	0.55
Metacognitive	3.31 (0.59)	3.21 (0.72)	0.56
Affective	3.09 (0.70)	3.06 (0.70)	0.84
Social	3.23 (0.66)	3.21 (0.71)	0.89
Average	3.29 (0.53)	3.18 (0.65)	0.51

\* $p < 0.05$

*Table 1: Variation in use of Strategy category by Gender*

Depicted from table 1., then it can be surmised that there is no statistically significant difference in overall use of strategy categories between male and female except Cognitive Category ( $p=0.03$ ), with males reporting higher use of Cognitive category than females.

The result of the present study does not correspond with some other studies which confirm that female students make a significant difference with male students (e.g. Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Ma, 1999; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993); however there is also a study showing similar evidence that there is no significant difference like one conducted by Khamkhien (2010). Then, it might be able to be inferred from the evidence that a study on how gender affect learning is somewhat uncertain. There is no clear cut answer about which gender uses which strategies; therefore, it is then assumed that learning strategies might be hardly affected by the factor of gender but it might be some other factors that have been intricately affecting the strategy choices that would lead to a successful learning.

To figure out other possible affecting factors, the analysis is further to seek the difference relevant to the motivation of the students.

#### 4.2 Motivation

In order to make data easily identifiable, the collected data derived from students responses on the SILL questionnaires are coded into two categories, high motivated and low motivated learners. Then the use of six language learning strategy categorized by high and low motivated students are shown in the following tables:

Strategy Category	Students		Sig.
	Highly (N=51)	Lowly (N=33)	
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Memory	2.83 (0.52)	2.61 (0.56)	0.07
Cognitive	3.46 (0.50)	3.08 (0.52)	0.00 *
Compensation	3.78 (0.57)	3.51 (0.47)	0.00*
Metacognitive	3.46 (0.63)	2.90 (0.62)	0.00*
Affective	3.31 (0.60)	2.71 (0.68)	0.00*
Social	3.44 (0.69)	0.53 (0.71)	0.00*
Average	3.38 (0.59)	2.95 (0.56)	0.02*

It is shown from the table that the t-test shows no statistically differences in the use of language learning strategies in all of the six categories ( $p < 0.005$ ) except Memory Category. This reveals that motivation is a significant factor contributing to the choices of language learning strategies, especially for highly motivated students in learning English. The motivation has become the drive leading to action and effort to put forth during the learning process. Then, it implies that motivation is a factor leading to the differences in English proficiency between highly-motivated and lowly motivated student group.

Such an evident corresponds closely to that of what Mochizuki (1999) and Wharton (2000) have studied. They also summarized that motivation has affected the learner's choices of strategies, the most strongly of all the factors. This also confirms what has been done by Oxford (1996) that motivation is the factor affecting strategy choices besides culture and nationality.

#### 4.3 Experiences in studying English

The last factor studied in the present study is the experience of studying English, the experience is seen from the history whether the students have experienced learning the language from specific program in the language Centre or other English Courses; and some who do not have any experience means that there is no specific action for taking any additional learning program in the language courses. Then, the data are coded into two groups according to their experience. The result of the analysis are then presented in the following table.

Strategy Category	Students		Sig.
	With Additional Experience (N=22)	Without Additional Experience (N=62)	
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Memory	2.86 (0.48)	2.71 (0.58)	0.26
Cognitive	3.52 ((0.39)	3.23 (0.57)	0.03*
Compensation	3.82 (0.54)	3.62 (0.54)	0.14
Metacognitive	3.51 (0.65)	3.15 (0.67)	0.03*
Affective	3.25 (0.75)	3.01 (0.68)	0.17
Social	3.36 (0.60)	3.16 (0.71)	0.26
Average	3.39 (0.57)	3.15 (0.62)	0.15

The table shows that there are two significant differences that are identified from the use of Cognitive and Metacognitive categories ( $p=0.003$ ). That means that students with additional experience in studying English in the Language Centre or other language courses use Cognitive and Metacognitive categories significantly more frequently than those who do not have any additional experience.

This result has noted that students' experience in studying English has an effect on the choices of language learning strategies, specifically in the use of Cognitive and Metacognitive categories. Thus, its noteworthy that experience in studying English would be main effect on the choices of the six categories of language learning, and such a result is in line with what has been discovered by Purdie and Oliver (1999). Finally, it is presumable that students with additional experience know and/or apply special learning strategies obtained from studying in the courses and/or language centre where they spent the time to study the language besides that of they have in their academic program.

## 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper examined the roles of three variables; namely, gender difference, motivation and experience in studying English, and how this affected the choices of language learning strategies reported by ITS students. The results of the present study remain in adequate. With respect to gender, the findings of the present study are consistent with the previous studies in this area, confirming that gender difference was not one of the variables contributing to the differences in the choices of language learning strategies (Goh & Kwah, 1997; Gu, 2002; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Mochizuki, 1999). There are two possible explanations for these findings in this regard. First, the different pattern and frequency of strategies use by gender in the current study are probably affected by other variables such as ethnic background, cultural background, language learning environment, etc. Second, the number of participants of each gender is another factor that cannot be controlled in the present study.

With respect to motivation, the analysis showed a significant effect on the use of language learning strategies due to motivation. The results of this study are congruent with a number of the previous SILL research findings, such as the study conducted by

Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and Yu (2003). Therefore, the consistency of the finding designates that motivation in studying English could lead some benefits to learning a language. However, it is noteworthy that the cut-off (60%) used in this study is arbitrary. Further in-depth investigations need to verify this factor in order to add more evidence about the roles of motivation and the use of learning strategies.

Additional experience in studying English has a great influence on students. This is because the students with additional experience used more strategies than those without additional experience. The results of the study confirmed Opper et al. (1990) and Purdie and Oliver's (1999) findings showing that the more experienced students obtained significantly higher mean scores for Cognitive strategies and for Memory strategies than those who had less experience. As a result, the students who had less experience in studying English should be taught how to use strategies to promote their English learning advancement. However, it should be noted that the criteria used to classify the students with respect to their experience in this study is arbitrary. Other factors such as the role of exposure to English such as passive listening to English songs, watching movies, etc. which can affect the choices of language learning strategies cannot be overlooked. These factors, again, cannot be controlled in the present study. The findings concerning experience in studying English, affecting the choices of learning strategies, therefore, should be carefully interpreted.

Although the results of the present are not claimed to be exhaustive, the study highlights the significance of language learning strategies in learning process. Identifying learning strategies use and understanding factors that might affect learning their learning strategy pattern is one of the many possible ways classroom teachers employ to help students become successful learners. The results generated from this study also provide language teachers with deeper insights into how they should aware the use of students' learning strategies and how to design more effective learning tasks as well as activities to suit ITS students.

## REFERENCES

- Cohen, A. (1998). *Strategies in using a second language*. New York: Longman.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Dreyer, C., & Oxford, R. (1996). Learning strategies and other predictors of ESL proficiency among Afri-kaans speakers in South Africa. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 61–74). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching And Curriculum Center.
- Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychological aspects of language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R.C., & MacIntyre, P.D. (1993). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, 26, 218–233.
- Goh, C.C.M., & Kwah, P.F. (1997). Chinese ESL students' learning strategies: A look at frequency, proficiency and gender. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(1), 39–53.
- Grainger, P.R. (1997). Language learning strategies for learners of Japanese: Investigating ethnicity. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(3), 378–385.
- Green, J.M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261–297.
- Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31, 367–383.

- Griffiths, C., & Parr, J.M. (2001). Language learning strategies: Theory and perception. *ELT Journal*, 53(3), 247–254.
- Gu, Y. (2002). Gender, academic major, and vocabulary learning strategies of Chinese EFL learners. *RELC Journal*, 33(1), 35–54. Factors Affecting Language Learning Strategy Reported Usage 83
- Hong-Nam, K., & Leavell, A.G. (2006). Language learning strategy use of ESL students in an intensive English learning context. *System*, 34, 399–415.
- Irie, K. (2003). What do we know about the language learning motivation of university students in Japan? Some patterns in survey studies. *JALT Journal*, 25(1), 86–100.
- Kartikasari, Heni., Kartika Nuswantara, and Ismaini Zain. (2014). Analisis Regresi Multivariat Penyebab Kegagalan Tes EFL Mahasiswa ITS Berdasarkan Komponen Penilaian Listening, Structure, dan Reading. Unpublished Graduate Thesis. Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember. Surabaya, Indonesia
- Khamkhien, A. (2010). Factors Affecting Language Learning Strategy Reported Usage by Thai and Vietnamese EFL Learners. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*. Vol 7, No. 1, pp. 66-85
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long. M.H. (1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. London & New York: Longman.
- Mahmud, Murni. (2014) The EFL Students' Problems in Answering the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): A Study in Indonesian Context. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 4, No. 12, pp. 2581-2587
- Mochizuki, A. (1999). Language learning strategies used by Japanese university students. *RELC Journal*, 30(2), 101–113.
- O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A.U. (1990). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Opper, S., Teichler, U., & Carlson, J. (1990). Impacts of studying abroad programmes on students and graduates. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Oxford, R.L. (1989). Use of language learning strategies: A synthesis of studies with implications for strategy training. *System*, 17(2), 235–247.
- Oxford, R.L. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. New York: Newbury House.
- Oxford, R.L. (1996). Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural Perspectives. Manoa: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Oxford, R., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 291–300.
- Oxford, R.L., Par-Oh, Y., Ito, S., & Sumrall, M. (1993). Learning a language by satellite television: What influences student achievement? *System*, 21, 31–48.
- Park G.-P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean university students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(2), 211–221.
- Pintrich, P.R., & Schunk, D.H. (2002). Motivation in education: Theory, research, and application. NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Purdie, N., & Oliver, R. (1999). Language strategies used by bilingual school-aged children. *System*, 27, 375–388.
- Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learner in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 203–243.
- Yu, L. (2003). Learning strategies and their relationship to listening comprehension - A report on non-English majors in a medical university in China. *Teaching English in China*, 26(4), 3–11.
- Yutaka, T. (1996). Japanese learners' language learning strategies: The relationship between learners' personal factors and their choices of language learning

strategies. Retrieved  
[http://www.eric.ed.gov/sitemap/html\\_0900000b8012c6b2.html](http://www.eric.ed.gov/sitemap/html_0900000b8012c6b2.html)

from:



[www.teflin2015.org](http://www.teflin2015.org)



English Department  
Faculty of Letters and Culture  
in collaboration with

**Udayana University Post Graduate Study Program**

Jalan Pulau Nias 13 Sanglah, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia 80114

Email: [committee@teflin2015.org](mailto:committee@teflin2015.org)

ISBN 978-602-294-066-1



9 786022 940661 >