



THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
IN INDONESIA



Thend 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

I / A / L / F

EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

LEARNING ENGLISH FOR A BRIGHTER FUTURE

Teacher Training

tesol@ialf.edu

IELTS at IALF

For a better test experience!

ieltsbali@ialf.edu

Study Overseas

info.bali@idp.com

English for Academic Purposes

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

Surabaya
Jl. Sumatera 49
Surabaya 60281
Indonesia
T: +62 31 502 6400
ialfsby@ialf.edu

Bali
Jl. Raya Sesetan 190
Denpasar
Bali 80223
Indonesia
T: +62 361 225243
ialfbali@ialf.edu



www.ialf.edu

We would like to Thank the Main Sponsors of the Event



PROCEEDINGS

The 62nd TEFLIN International Conference 2015

Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

**English Department Faculty of Letters and Culture
Post Graduate Study Program, Udayana University
2015**

PROCEEDINGS

The 62nd TEFLIN

International Conference 2015 Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

Internal Reviewers

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

External Reviewers

1. Benedictus B. Dwijtmoko	(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	(Universitas Lambung Mangkurat)
7. Oikurema Purwati	(Universitas Negeri Surabaya)
8. Setyadi Setyapranata	(Universitas Negeri Malang)
9. Yazid Basthomi	(Universitas Negeri Malang)
10. Lies Amien Lestari	(Universitas Negeri Surabaya)
11. Fuad Abdul Hamied	(Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia)
12. Handoyo Puji Widodo	(Politeknik Negeri Jember)
13. Nur Arifah Drahati	(SMA Labschool Jakarta)
14. I Made Hery Santoso	(Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha)

Setting and Typeset

Gede Primahadi Wijaya
Made Artadi Gunawan
Artika Putri
Gusti Agung Ngurah Dwi Suryawan
Moh. Noval Ashari
I Wayan Gede Agus Wirawan
Ni Wayan Manik Septianari Putri
I Made Yoga Dwi Angga
Ni Luh Putu Sisiana Dewi

Cover

I Gede Juniasta Datah

Publisher:

Udayana University Press
in collaboration with
English Department Faculty of Letters and Culture
and Post Graduate Study Program, Udayana University
Email : sasingunud@gmail.com

ISBN: 978-602-2940-66-1

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.

FOREWORD

These proceedings are a collection of papers presented at the 62nd TEFLIN International Conference held in conjunction with the celebration of the 53rd *Dies Natalis* of Udayana University held in Sanur Paradise Hotel from 14th through 16th September 2015. The theme of this year's conference is *Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st 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) 21st 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

TABLE OF CONTENT

Foreword ~ vii

Table of Content ~ viii

CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH: TEACHER AS RESEARCHER IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Nur Arifah Drajadi ~ 1

FINE TUNING PRAGMATIC CLASSES TOWARDS LEARNING TASKS: A REFLECTIVE STUDY

Maria Hidayati ~ 7

STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS ESP COURSE: A STUDY IN A VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

Khairunnisa Dwinalida ~ 15

ASSESSING THE READABILITY OF INTENSIVE ENGLISH COURSE TEXTBOOKS I, II, III FOR THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS OF STATE UNIVERSITY OF SEMARANG (UNNES)

Dwi Anggani Linggar Bharati ~ 25

SCAFFOLDING TECHNIQUE: THE ANSWER TO STUDENTS' WRITING PROBLEMS

Yulia Isnaini & Denok Sari Saputri ~ 29

HUMOR AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE IN A RURAL AREA UNIVERSITY

Kisno ~ 37

ASSESSING SPEAKING SKILL: TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSROOM SETTINGS

Fathin Anjani Hilman, Fida Anisah, & Lestiyani Sunarto ~ 45

DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM: THE USE OF *BRITISH NATIONAL CORPUS* IN TEACHING VOCABULARY

Ikmi Nur Oktavianti ~ 55

IMPLEMENTING TRIADIC DIALOGUE USING TPS STRATEGIES IN SPEAKING CLASS BY THE TWELFTH GRADE STUDENTS OF SMA NEGERI 9 SAMARINDA

Alfrida Pane Talebong, Theresia Hilda Kayani, Sekta Lonir Oscarini Wati Bakti ~ 65

USING SILENT CARTOON MOVIES AS MEDIA IN TEACHING WRITING NARRATIVE TEXTS

Yeski Putri Utami ~ 75

STUDENT – GENERATED PODCASTS AS AN ALTERNATIVE REFLECTIVE ASSESSMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

Ahmad Syafi'i ~ 81

IDENTIFYING RHETORICAL NEED OF INDONESIAN SCHOLARS PUBLISHING RESEARCH IN INTERNATIONAL JOURNALS: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY

I Nyoman Suka Sanjaya & Anak Agung Raka Sitawati ~ 85

HOLISTIC RUBRIC VS ANALYTIC RUBRIC : HOW RATERS USE THESE ASSESSMENTS IN SCORING EFL STUDENTS' WRITING IN INDONESIA

Festif Rudolf Hoinbala ~ 95

THE USE OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN TEACHING ENGLISH AT ENGLISH STUDY PROGRAM OF HALU OLEO UNIVERSITY KENDARI

La Ode Nggawu & Maulid Taembo ~ 107

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE AND PERFORMANCE ON TOEFL READING SECTION

Ardi Nugroho ~ 117

THE SHIFT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON NATIVE SPEAKING MANNERISIMS THROUGH FRG

Sultan G. Stover ~ 127

USING GAMES IN TEACHING PRONUNCIATION AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS OF STKIP AL HIKMAH

Faishol Hadi ~ 122

THE NATIVE SPEAKER'S EFFECT TOWARD THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN LEARNING ENGLISH

Rizki Februansyah ~ 143

THE ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' ENGLISH COMPETENCE IN THE GRAMMAR SECTION IN THE PAPER-BASED TOEFL: A CASE STUDY AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENT IN BUNDA MULIA UNIVERSITY

Jonathan Tanihardjo ~ 149

MODELING SINGAPORE SYSTEM SCHOOL'S ENGLISH EXAM PAPERS TO IMPROVE OUR LOCAL SCHOOLS' STANDARD OF EXAM PAPER WRITING IN THE PRIMARY WRITING

Choiriya ~ 157

THE IMPACT OF A LANGUAGE SKILLS-BASED CURRICULUM TOWARD STUDENTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

SomariahFitriani ~ 165

USING COMPUTER APPLICATIONS TO PROMOTE NOTICING STRATEGY TO IMPROVE GRAMMAR LEARNING

Nuria Mufidah ~ 171

USING MACHINE TRANSLATION: ACCURACY AND METHODOLOGY

Riris Mutiara Paulina. S. & Shenny Ayunuri Beata. S. ~ 177

AUDIO VISUAL EXPOSURE (AVE) AS OPPOSED TO AUDIO EXPOSURE ALONE (AEA) FOR EFL LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Lasim Muzammil ~ 185

THE ROLE OF CAMPUS CLIMATE, FACULTY AND PEER ON ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS' SUCCESS

Bayu H. Wicaksono ~ 193

THE IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILL IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS THROUGH THE MONTESSORI METHOD

Herlina ~ 201

FIRST LANGUAGE APPROACH IN EFL LEARNING: HOW DO STUDENTS AND TEACHERS SEE IT?

Magdalena Kartikasari Tandy Rerung ~ 207

APPLYING THE ACTIVITIES OF CASE BUILDING TECHNIQUE FOR THE STUDENTS' WRITING IMPROVEMENT

Nur Fitri, S. & Fatimah Hidayahni Amin ~ 215

IMPLEMENTING TEAM TEACHING IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR YOUNG LEARNER

Fida Anisah, Fathin Anjani Hilman, & Lestiyani Sunarto ~ 223

IELTS SPEAKING TEST: REVIEW, LIMITATION, STANDARDISATION AND REVISION TO ENSURE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Andy ~ 231

**“DELIVERING ENGLISH E-LEARNING: A STRATEGY FOR IMPLEMENTATION”
(A REVIEW OF BEST PRACTICES IN JAPAN)**

Ben Porter & Irene Irawaty ~ 239

USING BLENDED ON LEARNING, WEBLOG AND E-LEARNING TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' WRITING ABILITY OF STUDENT FOURTH SEMESTER ENGLISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT FACULTY OF LANGUAGE AND SCIENCE WIJAYA KUSUMA UNIVERSITY

Supeno & Lusy Tunik ~ 247

POWER AND LANGUAGE: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN THE CLASSROOM

Majid Wajdi ~ 257

DEVELOPING A MODEL OF TEACHING WRITING BASED ON READING APPROACH THROUGH REFLECTION READING STRATEGY FOR EFL STUDENTS OF STKIP YPUP

Eny Syatriana & Rita Roswita Duyo ~ 269

INVESTIGATING THE TEACHER'S TEACHING APPROACHES IN BILINGUAL CLASSROOM

Syarifah Kurniaty K. ~ 277

WASHBACK EFFECT OF NATIONAL EXAMINATION ON EFL TEACHING

Sholeh Setiaji ~ 285

BLENDED CULTURE AS A MODEL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVELS

Margana ~ 297

**GENDER PREFERENCES IN USING ENGLISH ADJECTIVE WORDS IN
DESCRIPTIVE TEXT**

Nida Husna ~ 309

**THE EFFECTS OF COMPUTER-BASED PEER REVIEW AND ACHIEVEMENT
MOTIVATION ON THE TENTH GRADER'S WRITING COMPETENCY**

I Nyoman Adi Jaya Putra & I Wayan Sucipto ~ 313

**2076-DEVELOPING TEACHERS' CORE COMPETENCIES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH
TO YOUNG LEARNERS THROUGH FUN ENGLISH CLUB**

Nury Supriyanti, MA. ~ 327

**TEACHING ENGLISH FOR THE MEMBERS OF POKDARWIS IN BADUNG
REGENCY - BALI**

I Nengah Sudipa ~ 335

Indeks ~ 339

CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH: TEACHER AS RESEARCHER IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Nur Arifah Drajati
Drajatinur@gmail.com
SMA Labschool Jakarta

Abstract

Classroom action research gives chance and assets for teachers for developing personal and environment. They monitor and improve their own teaching consciously with the goal of students' success. In conducting classroom action research, teachers face some problems. Within the teaching profession, there often seems to be critical gap between theory and practice. The gap maybe something teacher has been dissatisfied with, or it could be a teaching innovation to revitalize life in the classroom. The study specifically examine the challenges and benefits of teacher as researcher in classroom action research in collaborative work with supervisor and university mentor. A total of 10 teachers volunteered to participate in this study. Drawing on the teaching comments, discussion, and interview, the study proposes negotiating strategies in classroom action research and the roles of teacher as researcher.

Keywords: *Classroom Action Research, collaborative work, teacher-researcher, supervisor, university mentor.*

1. TEACHER AS RESEARCHER

Teachers change their practice continually by engaging in experimental testing in the classroom. Such reflection promoted growth in both the teacher and students (Dewey, 1991 in Vetter, 2012: 28-29). It is difficult to change teachers' belief and practices. Most teachers do the same practices in every year teaching for their students. They assumed that without any changes, their students got optimal learning process and good result.

In recent years, teachers has a challenge to develop their professional development by conducting classroom action research. Classroom action research is a form of research where teachers learn to improve their practice while understanding of their practice (Shanks, et al, 2012: 26). Teacher's professional development should be located in localized school-based practice where teachers can investigate and problematize their teaching and reflect on their "living knowledge and lived experience (Swantz, in Reason and Bradbury, 2001, in Burns, 2015:11). The government recommend every teachers to develop the pedagogy and knowledge by documenting, analyzing and reporting the result of the research by presenting with their colleagues and writing journal. This lead teachers to have a new knowledge and innovation. Acquisition of new knowledge allows learners to continue the journey (Noonan, 2014: 111).

It impacts of this recommendation give positive and negative responses from the teachers. The positive things are they will have higher salary, they have a chance to read and discuss with community. Teacher as researcher get more concern with they do in their teaching in the classroom. If the researcher, as in practitioner research, the teachers is clearly responsible for both, and the teacher/researcher can hope to get an 'understanding' is what the research aimed at developing (Allwright, 2015:26).

In the other hand, the negative responses gives a lot of things to think and prepare. Especially for the negative responses, it cannot be blamed for the teachers. There are many factors come up with a big pessimist. First, most of the teachers are lack of workshop or seminar

that has purpose to have professional development, they thought a classroom action research is difficult activity. It is impossible to have research while teaching the students at the same time. Second, it is not easy to get the book or journals. Most of the teachers just have the book for teaching (textbook or workbook), not for learning theories. Third, they need support from university or college to do the research to guide them in writing the research.

The teachers do not realize that when they are teaching, they do the classroom action research. As Consilz (2008:2) stated that research can be done through everyday teaching and learning. Teachers do the research of their own class, their students, the strategy and methods to deliver the message of learning. What is lack of the teachers in doing research are documenting and analyzing. In documenting, they need to document the process and the result of the learning and teaching, they need to documenting the students feeling and opinion, and recording the way of the teachers teaching. After having these data, they will analyze them to have reflective teaching and learning. The study can be used to inform teaching practice and develop a reflective practitioner (Hubber&Power in Akerson, Mc Duffie, 2002:5).

Teacher as a researcher needs knowledges and practices to become a professional teachers. It needs time and mentor to develop teachers as researchers. As Kaplan et. al stated (2003:3) that teaching teachers to become researchers is something like teaching children to ride bicycles. Teachers should know and understand theories related teaching and learning and after that they need a lot of practices of teaching and educate their students. The knowledge are guiding the teachers to have principles and new strategies in teaching. The practices gives experiences for both teachers and students and the teachers get their findings from classrooms. Teachers or professionals use their knowledge and experience to reflect on their actions and its effectiveness, ultimately making changes in practices (Noonan, 2014:118).

2. THEORIES VERSUS PRACTICES

Teachers read a lot of theories when they studied in pre-service teacher. After graduating from college, it is needed for teachers to read, elaborate and try to solve the problem of teaching and learning do new things for their classes. A lot of teachers forget to improve their teaching skills and ignore changes or innovation for students' learning.

English teachers in some part of big cities in Indonesia do not get any difficulty in finding theories. They can surf theories into websites and books. It is eazy for teachers who continue their study to master degree and doctorate since they can find the books or journals in university library. It is different condition for the teachers in suburb. They get a lot of difficulties in finding reference books, journals, and internet connection.

Though the teachers in big cities do not have any difficulty in finding books and journals, then there is another challenge for them to relate the theories and practices. The challenges facing teachers educators to bridge the gap between the theory and practices and between theory and practices to solve the problem of curricular fragmentation necessity the creation of a more coherent program, the establishment of partnership, with schools and the building of new educative spaces (Margolin, 2011:7). Most teachers have a point of view that there is big different between theory and practices. Research and classroom practices are seen as two completely separate and uncoordinated processes (Cochran-Smith & Lyttle, 1990; Graham & Webb, 1992 in Kaplan et. al (2003:3).

Teachers should realize that they need to update and renewal their knowledge to develop their practices in classroom by reading theories. By having theories, teachers get some point of views in solving problems in their classroom. theory is integrated set up statements that describes, explains and predict behavior (Costley, Tyler, 2014:2).

Facing this challenge, teachers can make use of theories to understand better of their students emotionally and academically. The more theories known and understood by teachers, they get comprehension the uniqueness of each children. This gives impact to the students academic development.

By having the information above, the writer gave a question to 10 teachers. The question is ‘What are the advantages of classroom teachers using theories that can be applied to class learning?’. The following are their responses based on their experience in using theories in the classroom learning.

Teacher 1:

I usually use some theories to get strategies based on my students needs. By this way I could find out my own method/ strategy.

Teacher 2:

The theories could help to overcome problems and give ideas.

Teacher 3:

Theories give more focused learning strategy and a more interesting classroom atmosphere.

Teacher 4:

Theories will be very helpful to improve the learning quality.

Teacher 5:

Teachers can demonstrate and evaluate the theories, whether it is applicable or not in their classroom. Another benefit that it will motivate both students and teachers. If the theories will enhance the atmosphere for the entire class.

Teacher 6:

Theory will enrich the knowledge and skill of teaching such as the classroom management, the English material.

Teacher 7:

Theories can be helpful to improve teaching and learning quality, to understand what are the students’ needs, and also to know how to solve the problems that occur in teaching and learning activities.

Teacher 8:

By using the theories, teachers can decide which is the most appropriate teaching strategy/ technique to apply in his/ her classroom for teaching a certain skill.

Teacher 9:

Theory makes teachers easier to figure out the problems in class and overcome them since they have already had a lot of theories to be implemented in every condition.

Teacher 10:

The theory can provide an environment in which personal development, social development, and academic learning are mutually supportive.

Based on the comments above, teachers know, understand and comprehend the use of theories in their classroom. They use of the theories to develop the teaching and learning process, develop the materials, strategy and methods, solve the problems in their classroom, give ideas, new atmosphere. Theories make educators think and re-evaluate their lesson planning and instructional strategies (Costley&Tyler, 2014:8). The unity of theories and practices develop class management, and improve personal, social, and academic development. The combination of these both (theories and practices) is the process driven based learning that are progression, pedagogical, development, reflective and critical participation (Rajbhandari et.al, 2011: 4).

In this part, for continuing their learning, teachers need to read books and articles. They get the new knowledge and idea to do innovation by reading. They interpret the theories into practices in the classrooms. Then, both students and teachers get new experiences and get reflection of the activities to continue their learning in the next process of finding innovation.

Reading and elaborating theories are needed for teachers in conducting the classroom action research. The theories gives foundation for teachers in teaching and learning process. The impacts are the teachers have guidance and background knowledge to understand, prepare, and conduct the classroom action research.

3. NEGOTIATING STRATEGY IN DOING CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH

Based on the observation, teachers get difficulties in doing classroom action research. The factors are finding the problem or innovation in their classroom, allocating the time in doing the research, finding the theories, creating instrument to find data, and analyzing the data. These difficulties give impact to teachers. They get pessimist to do this classroom action research, even, they do not care about this. They do everyday teaching. They just thought that the most important thing students do what the teachers ask them to do.

The teachers need helps to do the classroom action research to develop their teaching and learning process. Mentoring or intenship are more likely to foster change because they are related to teachers' classroom contexts and involve active participation and collaboration between teachers that take place in school or classrooms (Desimone et.al, 2002; Richardson &Placier, 2001 in Vetter, 2012: 29). Smulyan (1984: 5) stated that through action research educational practices would be more likely to occur because teachers, supervisors, and administrators would be more involved in inquiry and the application of findings. Helping teachers to develop specific areas of their knowledge and practice, may be enough to effect classroom change (Burn & Knox, 2011:20).

The negotiating strategy will help the teachers to do the research. It is a collaboration between teacher-supervisor-university mentor. The teacher is supported by school, the supervisor is from government and mentor/professor is from university. It creates collaborative work school (teacher)-supervisor- university mentor/professor "collaborative triangle" (Kaplan et al, 2003:14).

This collaborative work develop not only for the teachers development, but also improve school performance and educational community. One of the ways of the meeting these challenges is to establish communities of practices that support and foster collaboration in a collegial environment and serve as a means for transforming teacher education and ultimately improving schools significantly (Wenger, 1998; Cochran-Smith&Lytle, 1999; Margolin, 2007a in Margolin 2011).

Based on this idea, these are the responses of teachers if there is a strategy to create collaborative work of classroom action research teacher-supervisor- university mentor/ professor:

Teacher 1:

I think collaboration is the best practice that should be implemented by all stakeholders (mentioned above), at least from this practice we will get much information related to what we are implementing in the classroom.

Teacher 2:

For me, there is one answer for sure: it (should) be like that (ideally). For a case happens in my campus, where there is no concern yet from the institution regarding the grand design of syllabus for the whole lecturers, in which each person has his/her own syllabus, the intervention of decision maker to unify it will be more excellent. However, there is one good thing from this condition, that apart from the teaching strategies implemented by some other lecturers in the class (in which students are becoming not actively involved, having them memorized the targeted grammar in a lose context), I my self (at first) found easiness in implementing the activities as in line with the classroom research. I feel freer. The result of what I have done is printed on the students' expression, and comment of course. That the demotivated students are in the highly motivated situation, now. This result of strategies, wrapped in a Classroom Action research I believe will give a more significant contribution to most of the students in the campus, by having all the lecturers work in one vision and mission. Apart from the open aired technology to be taken for having theories applied, integrated, or re-

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

innovated, or even make our own in the classroom activities, I believe that if there is a 'care' from the Institution, by supporting 'financially' or 'mentally', the teacher who have done the CAR will achieve more.

Teacher 3:

Absolutely, I agree. From other teachers we can share idea, experienced teachers have their own theory of teaching learning based on their teaching experience. Supervisor as a consultant. University mentor, we can get theory from some experts in teaching learning.

Teacher 4:

The role of collaborator, according to me, will make the result more objective since it come from the different point of view besides the discussion done by both teacher and collaborator will enable them to find the solution easier.

Teacher 5:

I think that collaboration among teachers, supervisor and university mentor will be good for the teachers in conducting CAR. Teachers, who conduct CAR in their schools, can ask for a university mentor's assistance, such as how to conduct CAR systematically. Here, the role is important in giving some guidance because a university mentor, who has expertise in educational research, usually has more experiences in conducting CAR and knowledge in theories of teaching and learning, such as types of teaching strategies, teaching methods, etc. Then, he/she can give some inputs to teachers conducting CAR. Moreover, supervisor can support CAR conducted by teachers in the form of monitoring and evaluating. Here, supervisor can monitor teachers conducting CAR in the class and evaluate teachers' performance in the class when doing the CAR. With the supervisor's attendance, it helps teachers to get some inputs or feedback from him/her. Without supervisor, teachers might not know which aspects should be improved.

Teacher 6:

I think it's easy for us if we have collaboration with supervisor or others. We should get the accurate data to know that the method/ strategy is running or well or whether this method/ strategy is suitable with students needs.

Teacher 7:

Yes, it's absolutely right. I do agree. Such a collaboration will surely ease the teachers in doing CAR. It is also beneficial for the supervisor and mentor.

Teacher 8:

CAR will be easier if we can collaborate with supervisor and mentor because it takes long time, collaboration is a good solution to conduct this research.

Teacher 9:

Collaboration between teacher, supervisor, and university mentor or professor is better to be carried out. It will yield more accurate and objective data.

Teacher 10:

The point of collaboration between university lecturer (expert) will be tremendous, especially in the case of helping teacher or tutor about doing research.

Based on the teachers' comments, teachers have the similar opinion that it will be easier if there is collaboration work with supervisor and university mentors/professor. There are mutual benefits for each of the components in this collaborative work. Teachers shares their problems and ideas to supervisors and university mentors, supervisor gives supported data to teachers and university mentors or professor gives any support related to theories and analyze the data. Collaborative action research suggests that each group represented in the process shares in the planning, implementation, and and analysis of the research and that each contributes different expertise and a unique perspectives to the process (Hord, 1981; Tikunoff, Ward, and Griffin, 1979; Smulyan, 1984:4).

The collaborative work capitalizes the process and the result of the classroom action research. Teachers solve the problem in their classroom and get innovation for their teaching and learning. Supervisor, as a government position, understand the problems in the classroom

and bring this phenomena and solving problems into higher level to of government policies. University mentors or professors get the real problems, discussion and solution and make these findings into research. These three collaboration gives better changes and impacts to education.

4. CONCLUSION

Teachers continue their professional development by doing classroom action research to have solution of the problems happened to their classes. By having classroom action research, teachers have innovation for better teaching and learning process. Also, it gives better atmosphere for schools.

Being teacher-researcher gives meaningful context in learning ecology. The teacher have an inspiration to change the learning process and get innovation into better result, better atmosphere, and better impact for students and school.

In conducting classroom action research, teachers get problems and need some supports. The problems are finding problems, assessing theories, analyzing the results and disseminating the reports. The supported from supervisor (government) and universities mentors or professors help teachers to optimize the classroom action research.

REFERENCES

- Akerson, Valerie.L and Mc Duffie, Amy Roth. (2002). The Elementary Science Teacher as Researcher. US Department of Education. Educational Resources Information Center.
- Allwright, Dick. (2015). Putting ‘Understanding’ First in Practitioner Research. IATEFL, 26.
- Burns, Anne; Knox, John.(2011). Classroom as Complex Adaptive System: A Relational Model TESL-EJ, June 2011-volume 15, Number 1.
- Burns, Anne. (2015). Renewing Classroom Practices Through Collaborative Action Research. Teacher-Researchers in Action. IATEFL, 11.
- Consilz, Tan.(2008).Teacher-As-Researcher and The Importance towards Malaysia’s Education Prospect. Paper presented in 2008 Asian Forum on Business Education International Conference 3rd Dec.
- Costley, Kevin C and Tyler, Brenda L. (2014). College of Education Graduate Students Examine the Advantages of Integrating Research-Based Instructional Theories into Every Day Classroom Instruction, Arkansas Technology University.
- Kaplan, Rochele Godberg et al. (2003). Developing Teachers as Researchers: A Collaborative Approach. Presented at American Educational Research Association 2003 Annual Meeting, April 23, Chicago, IL.
- Margolin, Ilana. (2011). Professional Development of Teacher Educators Through ‘Transitional Space’: A Surprising Outcome of a Teacher Educational Program. Teacher Education Quarterly, Summer.
- Noonan, Sarah J. (2014). How Real Teachers and Professors Learn: Theshold Crossing and Concepts in Professional Learning. University of St Thomas. NCPEA.
- Rajbhandari, Mani et.al. Theoretical Learning, How Theory and Practice Meet. Perception of Students at The University of Tampere Finland. ERIC.org. 2011.
- Shanks, Joyce et. al. Action Research in a Professional Development School Setting to Support Teacher Candidate Self-Efficacy. SRATE Journal. Summer 2012, Vol.21, Number 2. 2012.
- Smulyan, Lisa. (1984). Collaborative Action Research: Research Historical Trends. Harvard University, USA.
- Vetter, Amy. Teachers as Architects of Transformation: The Change Process of an Elementary-School Teacher in A Practitioner Research Group. Teacher Education Quarterly, Winter, 2012.

FINE TUNING PRAGMATIC CLASSES TOWARDS LEARNING TASKS: A REFLECTIVE STUDY

Maria Hidayati

maria.hidayati.fs@um.ac.id

Universitas Negeri Malang

Jl. Semarang 5, Malang, East Java, Indonesia

Abstract

Having been assigned to teach two Pragmatic classes for the first time in this even semester 2014/2015, I felt the challenge and the urge to overcome my worries if I can make students not only understand the lesson but also provide them skills and information on issues to do with pragmatics. That description is provided in the English Department Catalogue (2014) in which the course equips the students with information on issues to do with pragmatics that is dynamically related to and is applicable in real life situations. As the course deals with '(un)intentional manipulation of social norms in real time spoken and written discourse', I tune my two Pragmatic classes by exercising learning tasks in which the students would have experiential learning (Nunan, 2004). The appeal of this concept is taking 'the learners' immediate personal experience as the point of departure for the learning experience' so that they can engage in the process of learning by doing the tasks. To draw on the experiences of tuning my two pragmatic classes towards learning tasks; consequently, this article is aimed at (1) describing the learning tasks that I exercise in my two Pragmatics classes and (2) elaborating the students' responses on the learning tasks exercised through questionnaires and in-depth interview to several students in my Pragmatic classes.

Keywords: *experiential learning, task-based language teaching, learning tasks*

1. INTRODUCTION

Reading between the lines of Pragmatic course description in English Department Catalogue (2014) which states that the course “provide information on issues to do with pragmatics that is dynamically related to and is applicable in real life situations” triggers questions such as “what kind of information shall I provide to the students?”, “How is that information related to real life situations?”, “What kind of real life situation should I expose to the students?” and some more. Though the course description lists general topics that I should cover in teaching pragmatics, I hardly find confidence to teach the course as it is my first assignment in teaching Pragmatics. The listed general topics include speech act theory, conversational maxims, relevant implicature, communication events, and activity types: cognitive theory, scripts, schemata, frames, presupposition and mutual knowledge, the pragmatics of politeness, power, ideology, and critical discourse analysis, contrastive pragmatics, and the development of pragmatic competence in normal disordered context. That is quite a long list of general topics covered in one semester, let alone this is my first teaching experience in Pragmatics. In addition, those topics should be delivered based on their relation and implementation in real life situation. Those facts, very well, indeed frightened and worried me much in the process of teaching and learning later on in Pragmatic classes.

However, the worries and the fear do not hinder me to find ways to get familiar with the course, Pragmatics as whether I like it or not, I have to teach the course and make the students understand and have the skills and information related to the lesson. One way that I did to make myself be familiar with the course is through reading some sources to find the definition, the purposes, and the general ideas covered in the lesson. By doing so, I would be able deliver

the lessons as has been stated in the objective of the course. Understanding the definition will help me to determine the purpose of teaching Pragmatics to the students. Thus, designing the teaching and learning activities in the classroom would be appropriate and suitable to achieve the objective of the lesson. Stalnaker (1972: 383) defined pragmatics as “the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed.” Another definition on pragmatics is how it concerns with “the interpretation of linguistic meaning in context” (Fromkin, V., Blair, D. & Collins, P., 1999). It means that the way people interpret the meaning of certain language utterance will be determined by the context both linguistic and situational contexts. In similar vein, Yule (2010) defined pragmatics as “the study of “invisible meaning” or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn’t actually said or written”. Those definitions are interrelated as each definition has similar key terms of definition; that is meaning and context in which the context influence the meaning of linguistic devices. Thus, similar device does not necessarily have the same effect as its meaning is dependent on the context.

By understanding the relationship of meaning and context, in general sense, it is possible to make us understand how human use the language to interact. Thus, learning pragmatics is important because “we want a fuller, deeper and generally more reasonable account of human language behavior” (Mey, 1993). In addition, he proposed a more practical answer to the reasons of learning pragmatics; “Outside of pragmatics, no understanding”. The phrase shows that by studying and learning pragmatics, the language user will understand the meaning of the utterance in order to make sense of those utterances. Understanding and making sense of utterances which involve the knowledge beyond the language itself, affect the way people interact and communicate with others. Thus, addressing pragmatics as part of language pedagogy becomes crucial as what Bardovi-Harlig (1996) has stated by listing the advantages of integrating pragmatics into language teaching such as: giving students opportunities to experience and experiment with the language, using the class for students to expand their communication, participating in communication in real contexts. Then, she clearly stated the aims of teaching pragmatics in that it is “to facilitate the learners’ ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter (Bardovi-Harlig, K & Mahan-Taylor, R., 2003).

Taguchi (2011:291) in her study has summed up some instructional methods to incorporate the teaching of pragmatics in EFL classes, such as explicit metapragmatic information, input enhancement, consciousness raising, and repeated processing of pragmalinguistic forms. Each instructional method has its own characteristics which later on determine the teaching and learning activities in teaching pragmatics. For example, explicit metapragmatic information makes use of direct explanation of pragmatic features and followed by practice on the features, meanwhile input enhancement is closely related to the learners’ way in processing the input. However, teaching pragmatics requires learners to be aware on real-life related activities and learning experiences especially on language use. Being aware to the language use is concerned with the exposure of authentic use of language which is influenced by the context of the utterance. Providing appropriate learning tasks to make the students be aware on the real-life situation and experiences is of utmost importance. Therefore, this paper is aimed at (1) describing the learning tasks in my Pragmatic classes and (2) elaborating the students’ responses on the learning tasks exercised.

2. METHOD

This article is the result of a reflective study after conducting classroom observation in my two Pragmatic classes at English Department, Faculty of Letters, *Universitas Negeri Malang*. The participants in this study were 41 students majoring English Linguistics in their third

year. The instruments used in this study were reflective journals which I used to write down the learning tasks that I designed and its implementation in pragmatic classes. Re-reading the journals enabled me to describe the learning tasks that I exercised in my two pragmatic classes. Other instruments that I used were questionnaires and interview guideline which were to find the students' responses on the learning tasks. The questionnaires which consisted of several questions regarding the implementation of the learning tasks were distributed at the end of the semester. However, the interviews were conducted after the implementation of the designed learning tasks.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The course description stated in English Department Catalogue (2014) has listed the general topics that should be covered in teaching Pragmatic courses. Those topics are designed for students so that they have the ability to communicate and interpret meaning in social interactions which later on shows the students' ability to perform pragmatic competence. Having pragmatic competence here means that the learners are able to not only recognize the internal structure of the language itself, but also the use of the language and the external surrounding of the speakers. As a result, the purpose of teaching pragmatics is for students to have pragmatic competence which deals with type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Rose & Kasper, 2001). Therefore, to achieve the purposes of teaching pragmatics, the list of topics was provided in the course description. Those general topics were parallel to what Bardovi-Harlig (1996) mentioned as follows:

“Within second and foreign language studies and teaching, pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use, such as choice of address forms”.

The learners' success in comprehending and applying their pragmatic knowledge related to those topics indicate their pragmatic competence in using the language. As the performance deals with language use, exposure and experience to authentic materials are important. Therefore, designing appropriate learning tasks is crucial in the teaching and learning activities for my two pragmatic classes. The following parts describe and elaborate the designed learning tasks exercised in my two pragmatic classes and the students' responses on the implementation of the learning tasks.

The Designed Learning Tasks

In his article, Van den Branden (2006) summarized the definition of tasks from many experts such as Long (1985), Crookes (1986), Carroll (1993), Bachman & Palmer (1996) and Bygate et al (2001) and then emphasized on the link between the tasks performed by learners and the language classroom and in the outside world. It means that the tasks designed for the students should be related with their ability to produce and use the language in the real world. In this respect, the students are using the tasks as their means to experiment and experience the language. Consequently, the learning tasks are designed to get the students master the topics in Pragmatic classes. Based on the reflective journals, the learning tasks that I designed are as follows:

1) Role Play for Context

One topic that is discussed in Pragmatic class is “Context, Implicature and Reference”. The learning task that I designed for this topic was asking students to create role play impromptu

and performed it in front of the class. While the students were having the performance, other students were asked to guess the context and the implicature of the role play. Context refers to any relevant features of the dynamic setting or environment in which a linguistic unit is systematically used (Mey, 2007). By having the context in the conversation, the participants are able to interact and their linguistic expressions become intelligible.

By creating and performing the role play impromptu, the students experienced the real life of language use in which they need to give stimulus and provide responses without any preparation beforehand, so that the communication and interaction take place. Meanwhile, for students who were asked to guess the context learned about how to pick up cues in the conversation so that they are able to guess the context of the conversation. To make the tasks more challenging, the students who performed the role play were given limited time as to 3 minutes. During the performance, I saw that the students were using the language to interact although there were many pauses to respond their friends' utterances. Since the performances were conducted in 3 minutes, there are chances to have open-ended dialogs.

2) Novels for Gricean Maxims

Gricean Maxims are principles formulated by H.P. Grice (1989) who argued that in conversations, there are rules or regulations or maxims used to ensure our utterances are felicitous. Those regulations will help make the conversation run smoothly. There are four kinds of maxims; they are: (a) maxims of quality deal with the truth value of the utterances in the communication; (b) maxims of quantity deal with the amount of information we should provide in our utterances; (c) maxims of relevance deal with the relevant topics in a conversation in order to maintain the organization of the conversation; and (d) maxims of manner concern with the way the speakers convey the utterances.

The learning tasks designed related to this topic was asking the students to read novels and analyze the conversation or the characters' utterances for the maxims. The students were asked to identify kinds of maxims found in the conversation and provide the reasons for their answers. From their answers to kinds of maxims found in the novel, some students were able to locate the conversations which obeyed Gricean maxims; few provide some cases that they found interesting as the conversations do not obey the principles.

3) Speech Acts Observation

Speech acts are linked to the way language is used to do a wide range of activities. It means that through the production of words, phrases, and sentences, they do some actions and/or ask others to perform some actions, such as requesting, ordering, apologizing, thanking and many others. Mey (2007) emphasized more on the functions of speech acts as follows:

"Speech acts are verbal actions happening in the world. Uttering a speech act, I do something with my words: I perform an activity that (at least intentionally) brings about a change in the existing state of affairs."

His statements confirmed about how the words, phrases and sentences affect and change the surrounding or the context around the speakers. There are some common speech acts along with their functions as what the Department of Linguistics, the Ohio State University (2007) has stated, they are: (a) assertion; it functions to convey the information; (b) question; it functions to elicit information; (c) request; it deals with eliciting action or information more or less politely; (d) order; it demands action; (e) promise which commits the speakers to an action, (f) threat which commits the speaker to an action that the hearer does not want.

The learning tasks assigned for this topic was to find examples in their daily conversation by doing observation. The examples should be based on the category of speech acts that have been mentioned previously. The students were given two-week time to do the observation and then reported the result by presenting their examples. From their presentation, the students were able to provide some examples based on the category of the speech acts and describe the function of the speech acts.

4) Introduction of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) involves similarities and differences between L1 and L2 pragmatic use and / or pragmatic performance. Being aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 pragmatic use, it will help develop the students' pragmatic competence. The learning tasks designed to introduce ILP was by assigning the students to observe everyday expressions using *Bahasa*, Javanese and English with Brown and Levinson's framework on politeness strategies. After observing the use of politeness strategies, which were managed into two: positive and negative politeness strategies, the students were asked to present the result of their observation.

From the examples in the form of phrases and sentences from the students' observation in daily life, they were able to identify and analyze the utterances based on Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies which were not only found in English. *Bahasa* and Javanese also have phrases and sentences which reflect the speakers' willingness either to save or to hurt others' faces.

The Students' Responses on the Learning Tasks

At the end of the semester, I distributed some questionnaires to the students consisting of five questions in which the first four questions are in the form of giving YES or NO answers to the questions provided, meanwhile the last question is asking the students' suggestions and comments on the teaching and learning process. Those questionnaires were distributed to 41 participants in my two pragmatic classes. The first question asks the students whether the tasks designed are related to the course description; the second question asks whether they did some tasks in the class; the third question asks whether the tasks are related to and applicable in real life situation; and the fourth question asks whether the students get learning experience through the designed learning tasks. The students' responses are tabulated in the following chart.

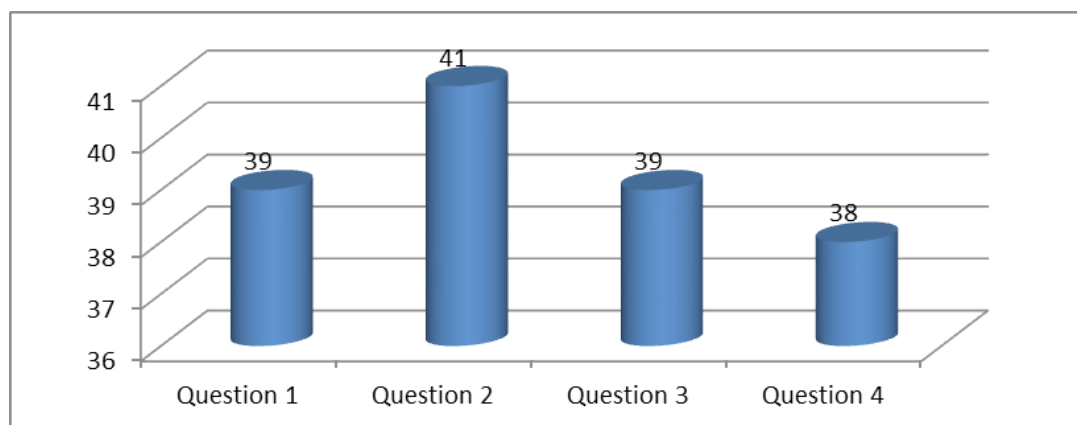


Chart 1. The students' responses on the designed learning tasks

The chart shows that question 2 got the highest response to whether the students did the tasks. From their response, it is clearly shown that the students were aware that they did the

tasks based on the assignments. Even though, they were aware that they did the tasks, there were some students who consider that the tasks were not really related to and applicable in real life. However, there are a number of students who considered the tasks designed were appropriate in real life as they really observed the authentic use of the language in their daily activities. The result was in line with the students' response in question 4 that there were some students who did not get the learning experiences from the assigned learning tasks. From question 5 which asked about the students' opinions and suggestions for Pragmatics teaching and learning process, the students responded that they preferred to have thinner books which had easy to understand language for them to comprehend. In addition, based on the result of the interview, the students were aware of the importance on choosing socially appropriate utterance to make communication run smoothly and effectively.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the findings and discussion elaborated aforementioned, it can be concluded that in teaching and learning process for my two pragmatic classes, there were four kinds of learning tasks that I employed; they are: Role Play for Context, Novels for Gricean Maxims, Speech Act Observation and Introduction of Interlanguage Pragmatics. The decision to assign those learning tasks to the students stem from the idea that pragmatics deals with the language use in real life context. Exposing the students with information on the language use by both producing and observing utterances in their daily life make them aware on the importance of having pragmatic competence. However, during the process of designing those learning tasks, I found out that consideration on the time allocation, the students' language level and the coverage of the material within one semester affect the implementation of the designed learning tasks. Throughout one whole semester, my concern most was on the students' spoken performances as the result of their use of language.

It is suggested that any written test be conducted to really find out the students' pragmatic competence scores so that the result of the study is to support the data analysis. In addition, designing various learning tasks for other topics should also be considered.

REFERENCES

- Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). Introduction to teaching pragmatics. *English Teaching Forum*, 37-39.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In Eds. L.F. Bouton, *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, (pp. 21-39). University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as International Language.
- Department of Linguistics: The Ohio State University. (2007). *Language files: Materials for an introduction to language and linguistics, 10th edition*. Ohio: Ohio University Press.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2011). *An introduction to language: 9th edition*. Boston: Wardsworth Cengage Learning.
- Grice, H.P. (1989). *Logic and conversation: Studies in the way of words*. Cambridge, M.A.: Harvard University Press.
- Mey, J.L. (2007) *Pragmatics: An introduction*. Hong Kong: Blackwell Publishing Company.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Stalnaker, R.C. (1972). Pragmatics. In Eds. D. Davidson and G. Harman. *Semantics of natural language*,. Dordrecht: Reidel.

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

- Universitas Negeri Malang. (2014) *English department catalogue*. Malang: Universitas Negeri Malang.
- Rose, K. & Kasper, G. (2011). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Taguchi, N. (2011). Teaching pragmatics: trends and issues. In *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, pp. 289 – 310. Doi: 10:107/SO267190511000018
- Van den Branden, K. (2006). An introduction : Task-based language teaching in a nutshell. In Eds. Kris Van den Branden. *Task-based language education: from theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Yule, G. (2011). *The study of language: 4th edition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

STUDENTS AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS ESP COURSE: A STUDY IN A VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

KhairunnisaDwinalida

khairunnisadwinalidadonal@gmail.com

English Education, School of Postgraduate Studies

Indonesia University of Education

Abstract

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the Indonesian secondary school context is applied in vocational school. However, the outcomes competence does not fulfill the expectation and demand of work field. It indicates there is a problematic situation in the ESP-based teaching and learning process. This research aims at investigating the students' and teachers' perception on the ESP course in a vocational high school. A total of 34 respondents comprising 2 English teachers and 32 students participated in this study. A set of questionnaires consist of 21 close-ended questions and 4 open-ended questions for students was distributed to gain the insights of the respondents and interview was done to see teachers' perceptions. The finding shows that both of the students and teachers agree that students' English competence is inadequate. They are aware of the importance and difficulties as well as their future needs toward the ESP program. Teachers and students have same perception that English learning materials should focus on students work field demand. Last, several potential issues emerge concerning the ESP program, such as time of instruction, content of ESP, and teachers qualification. The result of this study suggested that a collaborative teaching could be an alternative of present ESP instruction to partially solve the problem.

Keywords: *ESP program, teachers' perception, students' perception*

1. INTRODUCTION

Vocational High School (SMK) is one of ESP program take place which is prepare the students to master English in their each field. ESP means that ESP programs are focus on increasing learners' English competence in many specific disciplines, such as tourism, nursing, medical science, business, or information technology and use different methodology in the teaching of General English (Mohammadi & Mousavi, 2013 Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The ESP program integrates English with the knowledge and skills of VHS students' professional field (Lo, 2012; Shen, 2009). The Indonesian government uses "SMK BISA" as the jargon of SMK. This jargon indicates that vocational school students should be able to master their field, including English. However, students' English proficiency in vocational school is not good (personal communication, 2015). Kavaliauskiene (2003) found that students learn English only for their short-term achievement, get good grades, than for future use. It indicates that there is a negative attitude of the students to the ESP program.

Need analysis should be applied before implementing English courses to ensure an effective English learning experience (Shen, 2009). Basturkmen (2006) argues that a key feature of ESP course design is that the syllabus should be based on an analysis of the learners' needs. Without consideration of learners' needs, the teachers, curriculum developers, and materials designers often tend to perceive the future needs of the students using their intuitions, which may lead to a limited success in the subsequent ESP course (Braine, 2001; John, 1991). Shen (2009) states curricula have been developed based on what institutions want their students to do. Like in the Indonesian context. English materials do not really reflected students' needs or the target need of the students. In the curriculum 2013, both senior high and vocational schools learned the

same English materials (personal communication, 2015). Furthermore, materials were prepared by the language center instructors in consultation with the content area specialists, based on their degree of relevance, authenticity, comprehensibility and individual student involvement.

Some problems also happen in the ESP course, especially in SMK. Previous studies have investigated the problems and challenges involved in ESP classes, including students' inadequate English language skill (Basturkmen, 1998; Wang 2004), learning difficulty toward ESP (Ferris & Tagg, 1996), large class and low motivated learners (Braine, 2001; Strevens, 1980), student's ignorance to foresee their needs regarding ESP are potential problems (England, 2006; Kavaliauskiene, 2003; Shen, 2009), insufficient instruction hours (Chang 2000, Tsao, Wei, & Fang 2008) and teacher qualifications (Chen, 2000). All of them were regarded as negative factors that affected the effectiveness of ESP.

This study aims at investigating the teachers' and students' perception toward the ESP program in a vocational school in Purwokerto. This Two major research questions are addressed as follows: (1) What are students' perceptions of ESP teaching and learning? (2) What are teachers' perceptions of ESP teaching and learning? The results of this study will contribute to the ELT in SMK. Through the research findings, teachers in SMK are expected to be aware of what kind of English students need to learn in related to their survival in the work fields. The findings will also provide references for the government in designing the syllabus for SMK.

2. METHOD

The data in this study were collected using closed-ended and opened-ended questionnaire and interview were used as the instruments. The closed-ended questionnaire consists of 21 items with responses rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" and opened-ended questionnaire consist of 4 items. The questionnaires were distributed to the students to see their perceptions toward ESP program in the school. The structured interview, furthermore, was done to see teachers' opinion about ESP program in their school. Moreover, descriptive statistic was used to analyze the close-ended questionnaire. Interviews were transcribed, and then coding was used to categorize the data (Creswell, 2008; Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). The specific steps utilized were as follows: transcriptions of the interviews, coding the expressions relevant to the experiences was conducted, patterns and themes were identified, and the uncovering of the meaning or meanings of the statements was conducted, and deciphered the common categories, patterns, and themes.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1 Analysis Research Question 1

Research question: what are students' perceptions of ESP teaching and learning?

Table 1 and 2 present the frequencies of the student responses to the 21 items, which reveals the issues in the current ESP course and their expectations toward future ESP course. The results are shown as section B and C.

Section B: Students' Opinion toward current ESP course

Table 1. Frequency of students' opinion toward current ESP Program

No	Question	1	2	3	4	5
B1	The difficulty of ESP course is moderate	0	12.5	75	12.5	0
B2	The content of ESP course is practical	3.1	34.4	43.8	18.8	0
B3	The ESP material is interesting	3.1	0	21.9	62.5	12.5
B4	The pace of ESP instruction is moderate	0	6.3	9.4	7.9	12.5
B5	The ESP instruction suitable with my mayor study	3.1	3.1	37.5	34.4	21.9
B6	The ESP instruction benefits my future career	0	0	15.6	37.5	46.9
B7	There are not any differences between ESP course and general English course	3.1	9.4	18.8	56.3	12.5
B8	ESP course benefits the most to my English listening	3.1	0	21.9	50	25
B9	ESP course benefits the most to my English reading	0	0	15.6	56.3	28.1
B10	ESP course benefits the most to my English speaking	0	0	15.6	65.5	18.8
B11	ESP course benefits the most to my English writing	0	0	21.9	65.5	12.5

Question B1-B4 (material and instruction): The data show that students thought that there were no problems for the materials and instruction given by the teachers. It indicates that the teaching and learning materials level was suitable with students' ability. The difficulty level of the content should be accessible and acceptable to learners, as most learners lack general English skills (Basturkmen, 1998; Chang, 2004; Tsoa, Wei, & Fang, 2008). Materials were prepared by the language center instructors in consultation with the content area specialists, based on their degree of relevance, authenticity, comprehensibility and individual student involvement. ESP instruction is learner-centered and curriculum development is goal-oriented (Papadima-Sophocleous & Hadjiconstantinou, 2013). However, the 18.8% students thought that their learning materials were not practical yet for them.

Question B5-B7 (beneficial and differences between EG and ESP materials): most of the students agreed that the materials were different from the general English course and suitable with their mayor. The results pointed out that the majority opinions also give support to the notion that ESP should differ from EGP in its objectives, teaching materials and teaching approaches. According to Strevens (1988), ESP consists of English language teaching which is in contrast with General English. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) further propose that ESP use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English. Furthermore, most of the students agreed that the materials were beneficial for their future

career. ESP deals with preparing the learners to be able to use English in academic, professional or workplace settings (Mohammadi & Mousavi, 2013). ESP was important and beneficial for not just their academic studies but their future career (Huang, 1997; Tsao, Wei, & Fang, 2008; Shen 2009).

Questions B8-B11 (language skills): when asked which language skill benefits the most from ESP courses, reading and speaking were chosen by 84.4% students, followed by writing (78.1%) and the last was listening, chosen by 75% of the students.

Section C: Students' expectation toward future English course

Table 2. Frequency of students' expectation toward future English course

no	Question	1	2	3	4	5
C1	ESP course should be suitable with the specialized field	0	21.9	40.6	28.1	9.4
C2	More time should be given to English instruction	0	31.3	53.1	15.6	0
C3	The content of ESP should be easier	0	21.9	37.5	34.4	6.3
C4	ESP course should focus on the specialized field	0	37.5	37.5	12.5	12.5
C5	ESP course should focus on the general skills of English	0	12.5	53.1	31.3	3.1
C6	More effort should be done to help students with listening	0	0	6.3	75	18.8
C7	More effort should be done to help students with reading	0	0	12.5	68.8	18.8
C8	More effort should be done to help students with speaking	0	0	15.6	62.5	21.9
C9	More effort should be done to help students with writing	0	3.1	12.5	65.6	18.8
C10	ESP curriculum should be developed based on students' needs	0	0	21.9	65.6	12.5

Question C1-C5 (ESP instruction and learning materials): the data show that most the students agreed that the teaching materials and instruction should focus on their special field. This result showed that students expectation in learning English which focuses on their needs. Sultana (2013) stated ESP teachers have to plan the course, select and prepare the material based on their needs. Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that instructional materials can provide detailed specifications of content, even in the absence of syllabus. However, General English is still expected by the students in teaching and learning activities. It is because most of the students have lack of the English background knowledge.

Not only the instruction and the materials, the students were also emphasized on time allocation in learning English. Robinson (1989) considers that time is an essential factor which must be taken into account when conducting an ESP course and he wrote that “ ... ESP courses are normally constrained by a shortage of time”(p.398).

Questions C6-C9 (ESP Planning): 87.6 % of the students thought that more effort should be made to help the students with their reading, and other skills, speaking, listening, and writing, chosen by the students in the same portion (84.4%). This result pointed out that students perceived their English still low and they need to increase their English language ability in every aspect.

Question C10 (curriculum construction): 78.1% of the students agreed that curriculum should be developed based on students needs. It is indicated that students need should be taken into account in designing the curriculum because SMK is different with SMA. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998) explained that NA is the cornerstone of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching, as has been consistently articulated in the ESP literature. While emphasis has been put on the target situation analysis generating the language, skills, and knowledge that are required for the ESP learner to function in the target situation, learning needs are not typically recognized in research and practice.

Opened-Ended Questions

The results of the closed-ended questionnaire also strength by the same results of opened-ended questionnaire as describe in the following table.

Table 4. Students’ open-ended questions

No	Questions	Category
1	Relation of current English materials with previous English learning	Relation Little No relation
2	Weaknesses and straightness of current English	Lack of intensity Difficult vocabulary Lack of speaking materials Interesting New knowledge
3	Situation while learning English	Enjoy Seriousness Conducive Bored
4	Students Expectation towards future English teacher	Care Wise Creative Good rapport Friendly Interesting learning Activities Fun Learning Communicative Learning

The data show that most of the students agreed that there was a relation between the current English materials and the previous English materials (English in SMP). Far (2008) stated that General English language content; grammatical function and acquisition skills are important and dominant in curriculum development and course design. The statement indicates

that General English is use to design classroom activities like English syllabus in Indonesia nowadays which is not differentiate the English syllabus for SMA and SMK.

There are some weaknesses and strength that occur in implementing ESP which are stated by the students, such as lacks of intensity, hard to understand in some parts, and lack of speaking materials. However, strength of the current ESP course the students agreed that the materials were benefits for their future career. These results similar with the questionnaire result about current ESP material. These phenomena were impact the learning circumstance. The students claimed that situation during learning English was very conducive. They also felt enjoy and interest. However, some students also felt bored and confused in some times. It is emphasized that teachers should create good learning environments and students' motivation should be taken into account.

Talking about students' expectation for ESP teacher almost all students claimed that they need a teacher which is care, wise, have a good circumstance in teaching, create interesting materials, have a good rapport, friendly, have Interesting learning activities, and teacher who have fun and communicative learning. This data indicated that students need teachers who were also care about them. Brown (2007) indicated that this is teenager level, where in this level the students try to find what they are need and want to be.

3.2 Analysis Research Question 2

Research Question 2: What are teachers' perceptions of ESP teaching and learning?

To answer this research question table 5 was used to see the teachers' perceptions.

Table 5. Teachers' interview

No	The implementation of ESP Program	Description
1.	General English role in ESP acquisition	Support
2	English skill priority to teach	Speaking skill Reading skill
3	The weaknesses of ESP classroom	Lack of practice Lack of four skills coverage Students' passiveness
4	The strength of ESP Classroom	Various teaching Media Important for future career
5	Teaching and learning atmosphere	Lack of speaking practice Bored
6	ESP realization	Lack of Specificity
7	Teachers' and students' difficulties in teaching and learning ESP	Lack of learning resources No problem of ESP acquisition
8	ESP teacher Development	Need of specific training
9	expectation and suggestion for ESP program	Need of specific coursebook Provision of specified syllabus
10	School Facilities	Supportive facilities
11	Syllabus	Unspecified syllabus

There are related to English proficiency and performance, ESP pedagogy eliciting teacher views on students' difficulties, sources and facilities in teaching and learning activities, and teachers' view of and suggestions for ESP. The purposes of these questions were to elicit teacher opinions and perceptions of ESP courses and their expectations of the future ESP pedagogy.

All the teachers agreed that there was influenced of general English in ESP. The teachers claimed that if the students have good knowledge of general English, it will be easier for the teachers to explain the materials and applying the English teaching method. Students who have good general English will be easier in learning ESP and influenced their achievement. Alfiyati and Maryana (2014) stated that vocational high school students should be able to perform their English competence; General English (GE) as well as English for Specific Purpose (ESP). General English is the basic term for students in learning ESP. The role of EG in ESP classes is to help the learners to comprehend the materials, so the learners can have a better understanding of the actualization of their connection in the real context (Far, 2008).

Students' passiveness was the great weakness in implementing ESP. The teachers said that very hard to ask the students to do speaking practice. Then, some teachers only focus on reading and grammar, because the students' test will be formed in reading. Focus on reading and grammar made the students lack of practice, especially speaking practice and looks bored. From these phenomena teachers should aware to students' situation. Using fun and creative materials can make the students more interested to attend the class. It is also supported by students' wish for their English teachers. On the other side, sources are become the basic difficulties in ESP. The teachers said that English sources in SMK were not available at all by the government. As a teacher, they should find other sources which were suitable to their program. For example; new material asked the students to master some new vocabulary which were suitable with their program, but the vocabulary in that material in the textbook explained vocabulary for another program. So they should find the vocabularies which explained about their program. Sometimes, they did this to almost in all programs. However, the students were not found big problem in learning English. Because, some English vocabulary related to the major also appeared in others subject. This result is similar with the result of students' close-ended questionnaire. However, the entire teacher agreed that the classroom activities were identify the ESP course, but it was not really specific in every major. Some parts of learning materials were not really indicate the ESP yet. However, the school facilities were not support in every time.

To creates good ESP course in classroom all the teachers agreed that ESP teachers need a specific training before come to class. It was because teachers' background knowledge in English was not enough. There were several terms in ESP should be mastered by the teachers. Then, the training also should be specified based on the school mayor. It is important for teachers because ESP is different with general English. According to (Bojovic, 2012; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) ESP teachers are provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with their own students' specializations. According to England (2006), without well prepared teachers, ESP classes are often low quality and ineffective. Qualified ESP teachers are required to be professional in English language teaching and to have a higher level of subject knowledge.

Teachers' expectation and suggestion were the next term. According to the response of the respondents, coursebook which was suitable for the specialized field were needed for students. The coursebook should be specific based on the students' mayor. Then, the teachers hope that the government can provide the specified syllabus for the vocational school, separated from Senior High syllabus.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

General English skills have long been regarded as the basic of English education. Thus, students' overall English language competence has usually been regarded as the indicator of the success or failure of English learning. According to the finding of this study, both teacher and students perceived the students' overall English competence to be inadequate. Hence, the students presented a strong desire to improve their English language skills. It is because most of the students noted that ESP is important and beneficial for not just their academic studies but their future career.

Although ESP courses is beneficial for students both academic and future career, the teachers revealed that lack of sources and limited school facilities to support the teaching and learning activities are the big problem in ESP courses. The teachers said there were limited coursebooks and school facilities which were focus on students' field. This problem pushed the teachers to create their own materials besides they should create for the all mayors. With the limitation of time allocation, it was hard enough for teachers to develop the materials well. Further, teachers' challenges in ESP courses were syllabus for vocational school which was not focus on students need.

For the future ESP courses, the students suggested that their needs be fully understood before the course design. They wanted ESP courses to be domain-oriented, teaching materials focus on their need, then, they need teacher which is care, wise, have a good circumstance in teaching, create interesting materials, have a good rapport, friendly, have Interesting learning activities, and teacher who have fun and communicative learning.

On the other hand the teachers wanted ESP courses got the special attendance from the government. The availability of coursebook which was suitable for the specialized field was needed for students. Then, the teachers hope that the government can provide the specified syllabus for the vocational school and based on the students needs because it will help both teachers and students to fulfill the real world demands.

The teachers suggested that government should hold the training for English teachers who will be taught in vocational school. This kind of activity is to avoid the mismatches between students' needs and materials which are delivered by the teachers. There are some technical terms which should be mastered by the teacher in certain area. Another suggestion is to have collaborative teaching to make up for the shortcoming of the ESP instruction.

REFERENCES

- Alfiyanti, & Mariana, T. (2014). Needsanalysis for developing supplementary reading materials of automotive students of vocational high school. *61 TEFLIN International Conference*.
- Auerbach, C. F., & Silverstein, L. B. (2003). *An introduction to coding and analysis qualitative data*. NY: New York University Press
- Bacha, N. N., & Bahous, R. (2008). Contrasting views of business students' writing needs in EFL environment. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27, 74-93.
- Basturkmen, H. (1998). Refining procedures: A needs analysis project at Kwait University. *English Teaching Forum*, 36, 2-9.
- Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and options in English for Specific Purposes*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bojovic, M. (2006). Teaching foreign languages for specific purposes: Teacher development. *The proceedings of*

the 31st Annual Association of Teacher Education in Europe. (pp. 487-493).

- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles an interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nded.). New York, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Chang, C. C. (2004). Business English (ESP) in Taiwan: Components for a successful business English curriculum. *TEFL and Applied Linguistics Journal*
- Chen, P. C. (2000). Self-training for ESP through action research. *ESP World, 19*, 389-402.
- Cresswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4thed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M.J. (1998). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: CUP.
- England, L. (2006). Planning ahead-English for specific purposes teacher preparation for the 21st century. *Selected Papers from the Fifteenth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 47-56)
- Far, M. M. (2008). On the relationship between ESP & EGP: A general perspective. *English for Specific Purposes World, 1*(7).
- Ferris, D., & Tagg, T. (1996). Academic listening/ speaking tasks for ESL students: problems, suggestions, and implications. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*, 297-320.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *ESP: A learner-centered approach*. Cambridge: CUP.
- John, A. M. (1991). Tailoring courses to students needs and to the outside world. In Marianne Celce-Muria (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp.43-54). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Kavaliauskiene, G. (2003). English for specific purposes: Learners' preferences and attitudes. *Journal of Language and Learning, 1*, 1-9.
- Lo, G. (2012). ESP versus EGP: A case study on ESP program for Vocational High School student of tourism. *Taiwan International ESP Journal 3*(2). Pp. 71-100
- Mohammadi, V., & Mousavi, N. (2013). Analyzing Needs Analysis in ESP: A (re) modeling. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences, 4*(5), 1014–1020.
- Papadima-Sophocleous, S., & Hadjiconstantinou, S. (n.d.). Students' reflections on the effectiveness of their ESAP courses: A multidisciplinary evaluation at tertiary level. Retrieved from http://esp-world.heliohost.org/Articles_38/Stavroulla_Hadjiconstantinou_Manuscript%20%202013.pdf
- Richards and Rodgers. (1986). *Approaches and methods in Language teaching: A description and analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP today: A practitioner's guide*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International (UK)
- Shen, S. (2009). Investigation the perception toward ESP courses: a case study of ESP teachers and students at Chaoyang University of Technology
- Sultana, S. (2013). Designng of materials ad tasks for making ESP classes interactive, *English for Specific Purposes World, 37*(13).
- Streven, P. (1980). ESP after twenty years: A re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), *ESP: State of the Art* (pp. 1-13). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Centre.
- Wang, Y. C. (2004). *Business English course at the institutes of technology: problems and a tentative model of team teaching*. Tamkang University, Taipe, Taiwan.
- Tsao, C.H., Wei, M.S., & Fang, S.H. (2008). ESP for college students in Taiwan: A survey of student and faculty perceptions. *Proceedings of 2008 International Symposium on ESP, 245-262*. Kaohsiung, Taiwan: Fooyin University.

ASSESSING THE READABILITY OF INTENSIVE ENGLISH COURSE TEXTBOOKS I, II, III FOR THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS OF STATE UNIVERSITY OF SEMARANG (UNNES)

Dwi Anggani Linggar Bharati
Dwi_anggani@yahoo.com
State University of Semarang (Unnes)

Abstract

This study attempts to assess the readability of the Intensive English Course Textbook I, II, and III used by the English department students of Unnes. The problems to be studied are: 1) to what extent is the readability of the Intensive English Course textbooks? 2) is there any significant difference of the readability among the Intensive English Course textbooks? It employed descriptive quantitative evaluative research design; one hundred (100) students in semester I were taken randomly as the samples of this study; while the instruments used for collecting the data were cloze test, questionnaire and observation. The results of the research showed that the readability mean scores of the three textbooks were at the frustration level 24.37 for Textbook I and at the instruction level 51.1 and 58.01 for Textbook II and III; and there is no significant difference among the readability of textbooks. It means that when the students read the texts, they were not able to comprehend the messages of the texts well. Therefore, when these textbooks are defended to be used as the main material for the teaching of Intensive Course, it is suggested to be revised so that they can fill the needs of the students.

Keywords: Readability, textbook, Intensive English Course.

1. INTRODUCTION

There are some factors that influence the inability of the students to understand a textbook; among others are the non-conformity of the writer's and reader's background, including the cultures, knowledge and the codes which are difficult to be interpreted by the reader. As a result the message conveyed in the textbook is not understood. Reading is an ability of cognitive process that conveys several purposes and each purpose emphasizes a somewhat different combination of skills and strategies. It highlights how the ability to draw meaning from a text and interpret this meaning varies in line with the second language (L2) proficiency of the reader (Feather, 2004). Different background of knowledge will also arise a problem in understanding the message of the textbooks. Likewise, the level of difficulty of a textbook will also influence the readability of a textbook. This is the reason why English Department of Unnes should provide an Intensive English Course textbooks used as a teaching material which have appropriate readability. Having appropriate readability is that it has the conformity of the cultural background, and appropriate level of difficulty to the users. Readability, as defined by Ziriki (2009) is as reading ease, especially as it results from a writing style. The readability level of a book therefore, is one of the factors that determine the students' understanding of a subject. The first semester students of the English Department of Unnes who study English are supposed to acquire the literacy level of epistemics. Since they are still at the first semester, the materials given must be appropriate, challenging and not be too difficult or too easy. A difficult material will discourage the students while the easy one will challenge them to study. In order to find textbooks having appropriate level of difficulty given to the students as teaching materials, the textbooks provided must be evaluated for their readability. In this research, therefore, the

researcher tried to evaluate the readability of the Intensive English Course textbooks used as teaching materials. Some scholars are of the opinion that textbook as the core of learning are composed or designed to bring about a specific set of educational outcome; traditionally a printed and bound book including illustrations and instructions for facilitating sequences of learning activities (UNESCO: 2005:1). The research questions are: 1) to what extent is the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook I, II and III? 2) is there any significant difference of the readability among the Intensive English Course textbooks? Therefore the purposes of this study are 1) to describe the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook I, II and III; 2) to find out whether there is a significant difference among the readability of the Intensive English Course textbooks. This study gives some benefits, theoretically, this study could be used as a reference for the teachers who teach English particularly in teaching reading. Besides, it can also be used as a source of study for further research on readability. Pedagogically, the result of the study hopefully can contribute to the English teachers to identify the textbooks which have good readability, so that, they are able to choose the appropriate one used for the teaching materials. And practically, the result of this research can also be used as a practical model of how to measure the readability of a text book, so that the books chosen as the teaching materials are assessed before hand.

2. RESEARCH METHOD

This research belongs to a descriptive quantitative evaluative research design, since it aims at evaluating the readability of the Intensive English Course textbooks used as teaching material for the first semester students of Unnes. The objects of this research are Intensive English Course textbooks. The subjects were 100 first semester students. The instruments used in this research are readability test, observation and questionnaire. The test is in the form of Cloze Test (Bormuth, 1971), while the questionnaire and observation are in check list. The cloze test items were taken from the texts in each unit of the three textbooks. Every eighth word of each text was deleted. The time allotment given is 100 minutes. 16 texts were analyzed. In the preparation phase, determining the time and room to be provided. In the execution phase, the researcher gave readability tests in the forms of Cloze Tests. Each of the 16 texts has around 10 cloze items to be filled out. So, there were 160 cloze items for testing the readability of the textbooks. The answer is considered correct when it is the same as the deleted word or it fits to the context of the text. The correct answer was given score 1, so when each item is correct then the total score will be 160 (100% correct).

3. FINDINGS

Table 1. The Criteria of the Readability Formulated by Wellington & Osborne (2001)

Readability level	Score
Independent	60-100% correct
Instructional	40-59% correct
Frustration	0-39% correct

From the table above, Wellington and Osborne classifies the level of readability into three criteria: independent, instructional and frustration. From this table, then the writer can state whether the readability of the textbooks studied belong to difficult or easy.

Table 2 : The readability scores of textbooks

Mean score of textbook I	Mean score of TB II	Mean score of TB III	The difference
24.37 Frustration level	51.1 Instruction level	58.01 Instruction level	I & II = 26.73 I & III = 33.64 II & III= 6.91

It can be stated that: 1) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook I (24.37) belongs to a very low level. It means that the textbook is very difficult to learn and belongs to the frustration level; 2) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook II (51.1) belongs to the instruction level. It means that it is appropriate to be used as teaching material; 3) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook III (58.01) also belongs to the Instruction level. So, both textbook I and II are appropriate to be used as the teaching materials. However, when they are calculated for their difference, it was found out that there is no significant difference among the readability of Intensive English Course textbooks.

All English lecturers at Unnes, especially those who teach the first semester students should have in their mind that they train the students how to read quickly with good understanding in order to get the main ideas as well as the supporting details. Besides, English textbook writers should also pay attention to topics and language elements covered so that all will suit to the needs of the students.

From the interview it showed that not all the students gave positive answers; it means that they were not able to learn English through the textbooks independently. While from the observation it showed that they were doing the test hard in order to complete it on time without knowing whether their answers were correct. It also showed that most of the students were enthusiastically doing the test but some were nervous and looked up dictionaries many times, no one cheated during the test; felt unhappy since they were not sure whether their answers were correct. Some students needed some more minutes to finish the test and did not submit the work on time.

TB1 is in the frustration level; TB2 and TB3 are in the instruction levels. Meanwhile, the t-test calculation employed resulted the differences of the readability of the three textbooks as follows: the difference between TB1 and TB2 based on the t- test is 1.874. It is lower than t-table ($1.874 < 2.5706$); it means that there is no significant difference between TB1 and TB2. The H_0 is accepted and H_a is rejected. While the difference between TB1 and TB3 based on the t-test is 1.074. It is lower than the t-table ($1.074 < 2.576$). It also indicates that there is no significant difference between TB1 and TB3. Thus, the H_0 is accepted while the H_a is rejected. The difference between TB2 and TB3 based on the t-test is 0.400. It is lower than t-table ($0.400 < 2.5706$). So, it can be stated that there is no significant difference between TB2 and TB3. It means that H_0 is accepted and H_a is rejected.

The result of the analysis of the interview with the students to get their opinion on using the Intensive English Course textbooks were some students did not feel comfortable in English class; sometimes forgot to bring their Intensive English Course textbooks anytime they had the Lesson; always learnt English at home using their English textbooks; most of them did not understand quickly what they read the textbook; had difficulties in doing the exercises; did not understand the message in the texts without lecturer's explanation; needed dictionaries anytime they read the texts; felt frustrated when they did not understand the messages in the texts; sometimes they asked their friends on the meaning of difficult words found in the texts;

all students had the textbooks;

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

1) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook I is 24.37. It means that this textbook belongs to the frustration level; 2) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook II is 51.1. It belongs to the instruction level; 3) the readability of the Intensive English Course textbook III is 58.01. It belongs to the Instruction level. 4) there is no significant difference among the readability of Intensive English Course textbooks.

In setting a textbook several factors should be taken into consideration, such as the age of the students, the level of English mastery and the students' needs etc. It was found out that TB I has high level of difficulty; it means that the students have difficulties to understand the material. Therefore, it is advisable for the lecturers to adjust the material to the students' competence and the students' needs.

It is suggested that before developing the textbooks the writers have to conduct a survey on the students' comprehension level, students' needs, students' age, so that the teaching material developed will be appropriate for the students. The appropriacy of the teaching material to the students' competence and needs is of important to facilitate them to learn easier, quicker and more comfortable.

REFERENCES

- Bormuth, John R. (1971) 'Development of Standards of Reliability: Toward a Rational Criterion Passage Performance.' Final Report, Project No. 9-87. Year of Research, US Office of Education.
- Feathers, K. M. (2004). Infotext: Reading and learning. Toronto, Ontario: Pippin Publishing Company.
- Helena et al (2014) Intensive English Course Textbook I, II, III, Semarang Unnes Press.
- UNESCO (2005). A comprehensive strategy for textbooks and learning materials. France: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.
- Wellington, J. & Osborne, J. (2001). Language and literacy and science education. Buckingham, England: Open University Press.
- Ziriki, L. J. (2009). Readability Levels in selected Novels and plays in Bayelsa State Secondary Schools. Unpublished. Dissertation, University of Port-Harcourt.

SCAFFOLDING TECHNIQUE: THE ANSWER TO STUDENTS' WRITING PROBLEMS

Yulia Isnaini

yuliaisnainilia@gmail.com

Denok Sari Saputri

denokamri@gmail.com

School of Graduate Studies, State University of Malang, East Java

Jln. Semarang No. 5 Malang

Abstract

This study was intended to apply scaffolding technique as a teaching technique to solve the problems in the teaching and learning of writing report text. The problems were the students had difficulties to gather, develop and organize their ideas effectively, having grammar difficulties and they also had low motivation. The researcher therefore decided to use scaffolding as a teaching technique as an effective solution to solve this problem. The research design used in this study was a Collaborative Classroom Action Research. The collaboration covers the process of designing the lesson plan, determining the criteria of success, implementing the action, observing and doing reflections. The research procedure was planning, implementing, observing, and reflecting. The subjects of this study were 32 eleventh graders of XI IPA 6 at SMAN 5 Mataram in academic year 2012/2013. The research instruments were interview, questionnaire, observation checklists, field notes, and a writing task. In scaffolding, five stages of writing process are implemented; prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. The initial idea in scaffolding is giving students sufficient support in the form of information report scaffolding diagram, guidelines and other form of assistances. At the end of the research, based on the research findings, 31 out of 32 students passed the standard score and students' response showed that there was 78.1% of students agreed that scaffolding technique helped them to organize ideas and vocabularies. 53.1% said they felt motivated, and 68.7% of them showed pleasure in joining the activities.

Keywords: *writing ability, scaffolding, process writing approach, classroom action research*

1. INTRODUCTION

As most of the teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) have agreed that teaching writing skill seems to be more difficult and demanding than teaching the other three skills. Acquiring the skills needed in writing is a great challenge for students; it's mostly dealing with students' limitation in using the language that they just learned. It is also strengthened by the fact that the rhetorical conventions of English texts often differ from the conventions in students' first language. Therefore, it is crucial to teach the students not only the knowledge but also the skill to write. Thus, the use of scaffolding technique can provide opportunity for students to experience what writers actually do when they write.

The term scaffolding originates from Vygotsky's concept of the *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)*. ZPD is the distance between students' actual developmental level and the level of potential development through problem solving under competent guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Knapp & Watkins: 2005). In this sense, the teacher is not only a teacher, who teaches, explains and asks the students to do some activities but the teachers are team workers. The teachers and the students collaborated in discussing about something to write. The teacher simultaneously provides students with sufficient supports whenever students need assistance to attain one particular level of understanding. Thus, it is helpful to foster students' cognitive development in terms of their self-efficacy and self-esteem (Rosenshine and

Meister,1992).

Because of the effectiveness and flexibilities of scaffolding technique, some studies were conducted to investigate its effectiveness to support and enhance student academic performance (Ningrum, 2012; Verenikina, 2004; Isnawati, 2009. Result of the studies showed the use of scaffolding technique was effective as a learning strategy; however for the technique be maximally effective, the teachers need to consider the best form of scaffolding and the appropriate amount of scaffolding need to be given to their students.

2. METHOD

The use of scaffolding as a teaching technique was applied through process writing. This study applied the collaborative classroom action research at the eleventh-graders of XI IPA 6 SMAN 5 Mataram. The collaborator was the English teacher of the school. This collaboration will give contribution in a more critical and substantial way in process of the study (Burns, 2010: 13).

The researcher and the collaborator worked together in planning, implementing, observing, and reflecting on the action. In the planning, the researcher and collaborator carefully designed the teaching strategy, lesson plan, set the criteria of success, and provide research instruments. In the implementation stage, the researcher conducted the teaching activity as a teacher while the collaborator acted as an observer who conducted the classroom observation. The collaborator observed the effect of the action by using observation checklist and field notes when the researcher was implementing the teaching technique. At the end of the cycle, the researcher distributed the questionnaire. In the last stage, together they evaluated and analyzed the implication of the action for classroom learning, whether the result had achieved the criteria of success or not. If the result could not achieve the criteria, the action must be continued to the next cycle. To highlight the effective use of Scaffolding technique, the researcher used the modified scaffolding diagram by Anderson and Anderson (1997) as the main teaching strategy.

REPORT TEXT – ANIMALS	By: _____
1. Classification What is it?	1. <input type="text"/>
2. Description What does it look like? The color, size & weight.	2. <input type="text"/>
3. Lifespan How long it can live?	3. <input type="text"/>
4. Range Where does it can be Found?	4. <input type="text"/>
5. Habitat Where does it live?	5. <input type="text"/>
6. Diet What does it eat?	6. <input type="text"/>
7. Offspring How does it have babies?	7. <input type="text"/>
8. Behavior How does it live/defense System?	8. <input type="text"/>
9. Threats Is it endangered animal? and how you preserve/ save it from extinction	9. <input type="text"/>

Figure 1.1 Information Report Scaffold Diagram
(Adapted from Anderson & Anderson: 1997).

The implementation of the scaffolding technique was carried through the five stages of process writing based approach. The technique began with the prewriting stage where the students are exposed to series of pictures and videos related to particular topic, the researcher lead the discussion in the form of questions and answers that related to the picture. Therefore, students were given a model of report text of a particular subject that represents information about the subject. Moreover, by using the modified information report scaffolding diagram researcher helped students to scatter the topics into a detailed in a systematic order. Through this step, students also learnt the linguistics feature, generic structure, and language use related to the topic.

The next step was drafting, where students further organize the thoughts revealed in the prewriting step. Again by using the modified information report scaffolding diagram, researcher helped students to generate ideas which later became the outline that helped students to develop their draft that visually identifies the characteristics of subject of report text. In this stage, some of the writing aspects such as spelling, punctuation, and mechanical mistakes were little of concern. Moreover, to help them negated with this idea and emphasize the notion that writing is not to write an instant thought, they are assigned to label their papers “rough draft”.

Table 1.1 Summaries of the Steps of Scaffolding Technique in the Teaching Activities

No	Writing Stage	Activities
1	Prewriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The teacher showed students some pictures. b. The teacher provided question and answer session in the form of brainstorming/word webbing related to the picture. c. The teacher gave the model of report text and explained its generic structure and language features. d. The teacher shows more pictures to help grasp students' knowledge. e. The teacher explained the use of the modified information report scaffolding diagram and assisted students to create an outline by using it.
2	Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The teacher provided students with vocabularies needed to create a text. b. The teacher assisted the students to make a draft based on the information report scaffolding diagram.
3	Revising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The teacher gave and explained the revising guideline. b. The teacher assisted the students to revise their draft and rewrite the revision.
4	Editing and Publishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The teacher gave and explained the editing guideline. b. The teacher assisted the students to edit their draft and rewrite final draft. c. The teacher asks the students to publish their writing by reading aloud in front of the classroom and other students are asked to give comments and questions on their friends' work.

To obtain the data, four research instruments were utilized during and after the implementation. The observer collected data while the teaching process is conducted. After the implementation, the teacher distributed questionnaire and administered a writing task for the students. All of the data then were reflected on the criteria of success.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The implementation scaffolding as a teaching technique in writing report text was combined with the process writing based approach. The study in Cycle 1 consisted of four meetings which covered the five steps of writing process. The result of the data analysis in the Cycle 1 showed that the action conducted did not yet meet the criteria of success. Although the

result of data from the observation checklist and field notes showed that students' participation in the process of teaching and learning was mostly increased and they also showed a positive response, however, after the sets of data were analyzed and evaluated, it showed that there were still 4 students out of 32 students got below the average score below the criteria of success. Therefore, the 1cycle was not considered successful, and the researcher and collaborator decided to continue the action to the Cycle 2. The detailed research findings and the process of the research were presented as the following.

3.1.1 *The Students' Writing Scores*

On the process of writing in the drafting stage, students were assigned to write and develop their report text based on their completed information report scaffolding diagram. The result of students writing was collected and analyzed by the researcher. It was assessed on the term of content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. For detailed information about the improvement of the students' score in the Cycle 1 compared to the gain in the preliminary study can be seen in Table 1.2

Table 1.2 The Comparison of Students' Writing Scores in the Terms of Aspect of Writing on Preliminary Study and Cycle 1.

Aspect of Writing	Stage					
	Preliminary Study			Cycle 1		
	Mean	Min Score	Max Score	Mean	Min Score	Max Score
Content	16.89	10.2	23.85	25.79	20.4	27.3
Organization	14.55	10.2	20.4	21.48	17	27.3
Grammar	9.51	6.8	13.6	14.03	11.35	15.9
Vocabulary	11.13	9.1	13.6	15.9	11.35	18.2
Mechanics	5.55	3.4	7.95	8.16	6,8	9.1

3.1.2 *The Students' Involvement in the Teaching and Learning Activities*

Result of the analysis in observation checklist showed that students' participation was 81.04% out of 26 learning activities. It meant that their involvement in the classroom was considered excellent in the classroom, and achieved slightly above the criteria of success that is 80%.

3.1.3 *Reflection in Cycle 1*

After different sets of data were compared to find its difference and similarity, the findings obtained by using observation checklist, field notes and questionnaire indicated similar results, and achieved the criteria of success. However, these results were in not line with students' writing score. This contradiction implied that scaffolding technique had not been successful yet. Therefore, considering the findings and suggestions in the Cycle 1, the teacher and the collaborator decided to continue the action to the Cycle 2. The lesson plan of the study in the Cycle 2 needed to be revised and improved so that it could meet the criteria of success.

3.2 *Findings in Cycle 2*

Slightly different to the previous cycle, the observation of teaching and learning process was obtained through observation checklist and field notes in 3 meetings.

3.2.1 The Students' Writing Scores

The teacher and collaborator analyzed the result of students' final writing based on the scoring rubric set in this study. In the Cycle 2, the product of students' writing report text by applying the scaffolding technique showed great improvement comparing to the gain in the previous cycles. From their writing it could be seen that even though they still made few trivial mistakes on the appropriate convention of writing, nonetheless, the students could finally organized their writing in terms of stating the subject correctly, describing the subject comprehensively, and using appropriate vocabulary/technicalterm. For the detailed information about the students, improvement in every aspect of writing can be seen in the Table 1.3.

Table 1.3 The Students' Improvement in Writing Aspect in Cycle 2

Aspect of Writing	Stage								
	Preliminary Study			Cycle 1			Cycle 2		
	Mean	Min Score	Max Score	Mean	Min Score	Max Score	Mean	Min Score	Max Score
Content	16.89	10.2	23.85	25.79	20.4	27.3	26.7	20.4	27.3
Organization	14.55	10.2	20.4	21.48	17	27.3	23.74	17	27.3
Grammar	9.51	4.5	13.6	14.03	11.35	18.2	13.67	11.35	15.9
Vocabulary	11.13	9.1	13.6	15.9	11.35	18.2	17.48	13.6	18.2
Mechanics	5.55	3.4	7.95	8.16	6,8	9.1	7.91	6.8	9.1

3.2.2 Reflection of Cycle 2

The researcher and the collaborator drew a conclusion that the implementation of teaching writing by using scaffolding technique had reached the criteria of success. Even though there were still weaknesses found in the students' grammatical and mechanical achievement in Cycle 2. However, it was worth saying that they had successfully improved their scores comprehensively. Therefore, this is meant that there is no more cycle to be implemented.

4. DISCUSSION

Scaffolding is a practice based on Lev Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory, ZPD and its relation to the concept of assisted learning. This concept views the teacher as the cultural agent who guides instruction so that students will master and internalizes the skills that permits higher cognitive functioning (Slavin, 2003: 262). Therefore, it commonly used as a metaphor to describe the role of adults or more knowledgeable peers in guiding students' learning development.

Scaffolding technique implemented in this study were taken into various form of teacher supports such as demonstration; modeling; ongoing dialogue; providing guidelines; keeping attention focused as well as providing examples/questioning; and dividing task into simpler steps through the information report scaffolding diagram. During the process, the researcher constantly judged what kind of scaffolds are appropriate and to which degree adults shifted the level of intervention to fit the students' individual zone of proximal development. For example, when student is having difficulty, the teacher increases his or her help just enough to provide support and assistance but not so much as to take over the task.

As it mentioned before, the researcher used the information report scaffolding diagram as the main teaching aid in assisting students to complete their writing task. The guided questions in the scaffolding diagram help students to generate ideas and give details to their writing.

Related to the difficulties in organizing ideas, the information report scaffolding diagram was constructed by following the generic structures of the text. As what Anderson and Anderson (1997) state that the scaffolding which was constructed by following the generic structures of the text helped students to organize their writing into a reasonable right ordered piece of text. To give a better insights on how scaffolding worked on students' writing process, some example of their works are presented in Figure 1.2.

REPORT TEXT – ANIMALS BY: ESB SULTING B.
XI IPA 6 / 11

1. Classification What is it?	Kangaroo is a marsupial animal, with brown pure for male and grey blue grey pure for female kangaroo.
2. Description What does it look like? the size and weight.	- Kangaroo is like rabbit but with biggest size, tall 2 meter from tail to head - but kangaroo baby's is so small just like 5 centimeter. Kangaroo have pocket
3. Population How many species are left?	There's 10 million species are left in the world
4. Lifespan How long it can live?	Kangaroo can live for 15 year
5. Range Where does it can be found?	We can found kangaroo in Central Australia
6. Habitat Where does it live?	Kangaroo lives in grassland savana.
7. Diet What does it eat?	Kangaroo eats grass and any plant in grassland savana
8. Offspring How does it have babies?	It has their baby by breeding (vivipar)
9. Behavior How does it live/defense system/territorial/solitary/social	It moves with jump by two strong leg.
10. Threats Is it endangered animal? and how you preserve/save it from extinction?	Kangaroo is endangered animal because it hunt by human. So we must save them by make a conservation area for kangaroo

(Source – presented as original: ESB/Cycle 1)

Figure 1.2 Students Scaffolding Diagram

Moreover, the students read word by word to identify and locate mistakes. They initially find this activity burdensome as they are used to leaving the judgment concerning mistakes to the teacher. However, encouragement and guidelines in editing have helped them ease the burden. They use marks, as illustrated in Figure 1.4 and editing checklist, as illustrated in Figure 1.4.

Table 1.4 Students' Self-Editing Guideline
(Adapted from Richards & Renandya: 2004)

No	Questions	Yes (✓)	No (✓)
1	Have you used your text in simple present tense (v1)?		
2	Have you used the correct preposition?		
3	Does the text use the correct choice of word?		
4	Have you used the appropriate articles?		
5	Is every word in the text written in correct spelling?		
6	Are the capital letters written in correct position?		

Table 1.5 Students' Peer-Editing Guideline
(Adapted from Harmer: 2004)

Symbol	Meaning	Example error
Sp	A spelling error	The <u>asn</u> wer is <u>obvi</u> us
T	Wrong verb tense	It <u>have</u> slippery skin
P	Punctuation error	Do you like London_
C	Capitalization error	<u>p</u> eople love komodo
Pl	You need plural noun	There 30 student_ in the classroom
Sing	You need singular noun	I have one science <u>books</u>
WW	Wrong word	He has <u>rude</u> skin
Agr	Verb Agreement problem	I <u>has</u> one younger brother
√	You need a word/preposition etc.	I put the book on √ table
_____	You don't need this word	

5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Results of the study indicate that scaffolding as a teaching technique can improve students' writing ability and attitude. The major improvements in the aspects of writing score are content, organization, and vocabulary; so, these results are in line with the essence of the scaffolding technique that is to develop and organize ideas visibly. In relation to the use information report scaffolding diagram in prewriting, which every element on it was associated with the schematics structure of report text triggers students' ability to dig deeper into ideas to be expressed. As a result, they are able to recognize the whole picture of the information to be developed and organized into coherent writing.

The findings of this study offer suggestion for English teachers and future researchers. Due to the facts shown in the implementation of scaffolding technique can improve students' ability in writing report text, it is recommended for English teachers and others who have similar problems to apply this teaching technique as an alternative solution to solve their teaching of writing problems. However, there some aspects need to be considered before implementing this technique. Firstly, to improve the quality of students' writing ability, teachers should adopt the information report scaffolding diagram as one of the effective teaching strategies to help students to select, compose, and develop their ideas for writing.

In sum, the use of scaffolding technique as a teaching strategy has two important implications to the teaching and learning process; Firstly, for the long time effect is this technique can be used by all the English teachers to overcome their classroom problems, especially in solving their students' writing problem. Secondly, in its short term implication, the technique itself can be used as a learning strategy for student. As they get the real experience in completing their task, the students gradually become accustomed to every step of writing, and therefore it stimulates and affects their learning style, and therefore it will eventually become a more independent learner.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, M & Anderson, K. 1997. *Text Types in English 2*. South Yarra: Macmilan Education Australia.
- Brown, H. D. 2007. *Teaching by Principle: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy (3rd Ed)*. White Plains, New York: Longman Pearson Education, Inc.
- Burns, A. 2010. *Doing Action Research in English Language Teaching: A Guide for Practitioners*. New York: Routledge.
- Harmer, J. 2004. *How to Teach Writing*. Edinburg Gate: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Isnawati, U. M. 2009. Improving the Writing Ability of the 11th Grade Students of MA Hasyim Asyari Kembang Bahu Through the Implementation of Scaffolding Strategy. Unpublished Thesis. Malang: State University of Malang.
- Knapp, P & Watkins, M. 2005. *Genre, Text, Grammar, Technologies for Teaching and Assessing Writing*. Sydney: University of New South Wales Press Ltd.
- Laksmi, E. D. 2006. Scaffolding Students' Writing in EFL Class: Implementing Process Approach. *TEFLIN Journal*, Volume 17, Number 2.
- McKenzie, J. 1999. *From Now on the Education Technology Journal, Chapter 19-Scaffolding for Success in Beyond Technology: Questioning, Research and the Information Literate School Community*, 9(4), December 1999, (Online), (<http://fno.org/dec99/scaffold.html>), accessed on December 3, 2012.
- Ningrum, A. S. B. 2012. *Scaffolding Strategy in the Process of Writing to Improve the Students' Writing Ability*, Jakarta: Kementrian Agama Republik Indonesia.
- Nunan, D. 1999. *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- O'Malley, J. M & Pierce, L.V. 1996. *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners: Practical Approach for Teachers*. Virginia: Addison-Wesley Publishing.
- Oshima, A. & Hogue, A. 2006. *Writing Academic English (4th Edition)*. New York: Longman.
- Richards, J. C. & Renandya, 2002. *W. A. Methodology of Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rosenshine, B & Meinster, C. 1992. *The Use of Scaffolds for Teaching Higher-Level Cognitive Strategies*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Slavin. R. E. 2003. *Educational Psychology Theory and Practice. 7/E*. Boston: Pearson.
- Verenikina, I. 2004. *From Theory to Practice: What does the Metaphor of Scaffolding Mean to Educators Today?*. Outlines. No. 2. 2004. (Online), accessed on November 21, 2012.
- Wakhid, A. 2011. Teaching Students to Write Report Text in English. In B.Y. Cahyono (Ed.), *Teaching English by Using Various Text Types*. Malang: Malang State University Press.

HUMOR AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE IN A RURAL AREA UNIVERSITY

Kisno

kisno@del.ac.id

Faculty of Informatics and Electrical Engineering,

Institut Teknologi Del

Jl. Sisingamangaraja, Sitoluama, Tobasa Regency, North Sumatera, Indonesia, 22381

Abstract

Learning a foreign language especially learning English for engineering students needs a positive classroom situation and atmosphere. This research gives evidence that humor can be an effective instrument in creating the positive classroom atmosphere and in learning English as a foreign language. This study elaborates Aboudan's (2009) research on using humor in learning a second language. The respondents of this study are 250 students majoring in electrical engineering, biotechnology engineering, informatics engineering, and industrial engineering. They are asked to give their answer on a questionnaire asking the effect of humor on learning, concentration, and attention. In addition, the questionnaire also asks the respondents the amount of humor considered appropriate in a classroom. The result of this study reveals the preference of the students when taught using humor. 85% of the respondents tell that humor makes them give more attention in learning and 90% point out that humor motivates them to give more involvement in classroom activities and humor should be used from time to time. The findings of this research is in line with the previous studies stating that the use of humor in ESL classroom facilitates learning, breaks the tension between students and teacher, and increasing classroom atmosphere. In short, this study confirms that humor creates the positive learning environment and has the positive impact on language teaching in a rural area university

Keywords: *humor, EFL learning, ESP, engineering faculty*

1. INTRODUCTION

Engineering is known as one of the most difficult majors around where grading is notoriously harsh and problem sets are endless. Many students of engineering often enter foreign language classroom with lack of motivation and stress feeling. The students' current emotion such as stress, anxiety, and feeling boredom after attending their core subjects often affect motivation, and success (Aboudan, 2009:1). Learning English as a foreign language in engineering major is a tremendous challenge for the students and a great challenge for the teachers in teaching the subject. This research specifies the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language especially in English for Specific Purpose, which is English for engineering students who study in a rural area university. Delivering the topics of English related to the engineering topics needs a positive classroom situation and atmosphere; it also needs the students' motivation. Learning is stronger and more efficient when the process is fun and engaging. Even though learning is serious and challenging for engineering students, humor can make the process easier, more efficient, enjoyable, and more memorable.

However, the aforementioned statement is not as easy as eating a cake. It needs more effort and energy in order to make the students be motivated especially when the language barriers appear. The barrier of culture knowledge and linguistics knowledge often fail the delivery of humor when teaching the students from engineering major. Despite this difficulty, teachers of foreign language have to be smart enough in taking the advantage of using humor in teaching.

For many ESL/EFL teachers, a positive environment in the classroom is the most important:

we all encourage our students not to be afraid to use their second or foreign language, and we praise their efforts constantly. As teachers, it is our role to create a relaxed positive attitude in our teaching environment – students learn more, talk more, and have more fun if they are in a good atmosphere. But, as with all learning situations, there is a fine tune for when to draw a limit. The kind of humor discussed in this study requires no humoristic skills. “Humor” here refers to simple humoristic remarks that naturally occur in the communicative teaching of a foreign language. Those remarks are linguistically based in that they are related to the linguistic messages taught, and are directly associated to or serving to explain a concept to be learnt and tested for recall later. Though simple, such remarks appear to be very beneficial. When it comes to humor, it is certainly not our role as teachers to be comedians.

Student motivation can be affected by a number of factors. The level of difficulty of material presented, the kinds of activities used, support of classmates, and encouragement of the teacher are only some of the factors that are often mentioned as having an effect on the language learning experience. Even more importantly, the mood of the classroom can contribute a great deal to the learning process in the second language classroom. Previous research showed that humor can be beneficial to classroom learning (Minchew and Hopper, 2008; Motlagh et al, 2014). Humor can promote understanding, and hold the attention of the students.

On the other hand, too much humor or self-disclosure is inappropriate (Garner, 2006). Rafiee et al (2010) reported that teaching with humor depends largely on using the right type and amount of humor. Likewise, Salehi and Hesabi (2014) wrote that appropriate and timely humor in the college classroom can foster mutual openness and respect, and contribute to overall teaching effectiveness.

This research aims to examine whether humor is an effective tool in teaching English as a foreign language in a rural area university. This study generates the following research questions: (1) Does humor create the affective foreign language classroom for students of engineering major? (2) Do humorous remarks/situations allow the students to express themselves without fear? (3) Does humor affect the learning environment? (4) Can humor create the affective EFL classroom in the rural area university? (5) Is humor beneficial to EFL acquisition in the rural area setting?

2. METHOD

Two studies were carried out on the students studying English as a requirement foreign language at a rural area university. This study was conducted on a group of 250 freshmen, which were randomly chosen across four engineering majors, i.e. electrical engineering, biotechnology engineering, industrial engineering, and informatics engineering. Questions in this study included specific reference to the effect of humor on learning, attention and concentration. This study also collected students’ opinions about the amount of humor that would be considered appropriate in a classroom.

The second study was carried out to see if humor influences the atmosphere of the classroom. To this effect, study II was conducted on 250 students of the advanced level. 125 students were in classes which allowed linguistic humor in the classroom (humor group), and the remaining was in classrooms which had no humor, or hardly any (control group).

Students, in this study, answered questions about the effect of humor on their confidence and participation in EFL classes. Students also gave opinions about humor becoming part of their EFL learning; and its effect on classroom atmosphere. Essentially, questions here asked about whether or not:

- 1) telling jokes means loss of control in the English classroom
- 2) using humor helps shy students to participate with the group
- 3) humor gives students confidence in expressing personal opinions in English
- 4) jokes create enjoyment in the English learning situation
- 5) jokes should be part of English everyday classroom learning

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Generally speaking, results illustrated that more students are in favor of humor in the EFL classroom than against. 80% of students of engineering pointed out that humor helps them in learning difficult material. 95% indicated that jokes help them pay more attention during class time and increases their level of concentration and, 80% were in favor of using humor periodically

In comparison, only 5% of the students believed jokes do not have an effect on increasing concentration levels in the classroom. Similarly, only 5% claimed that humor does not help in learning a foreign language, and only sometimes boost their attention (10%). Supporting previous research (Faulkner, 2011; Stroud, 2013), the results of this study show that humor can be beneficial in the foreign language classroom. Humor promotes the feeling of understanding and helps to hold the attention of students, regardless of the cultural learning situation. Figure 1 shows students' attitudes towards humor in EFL classrooms.

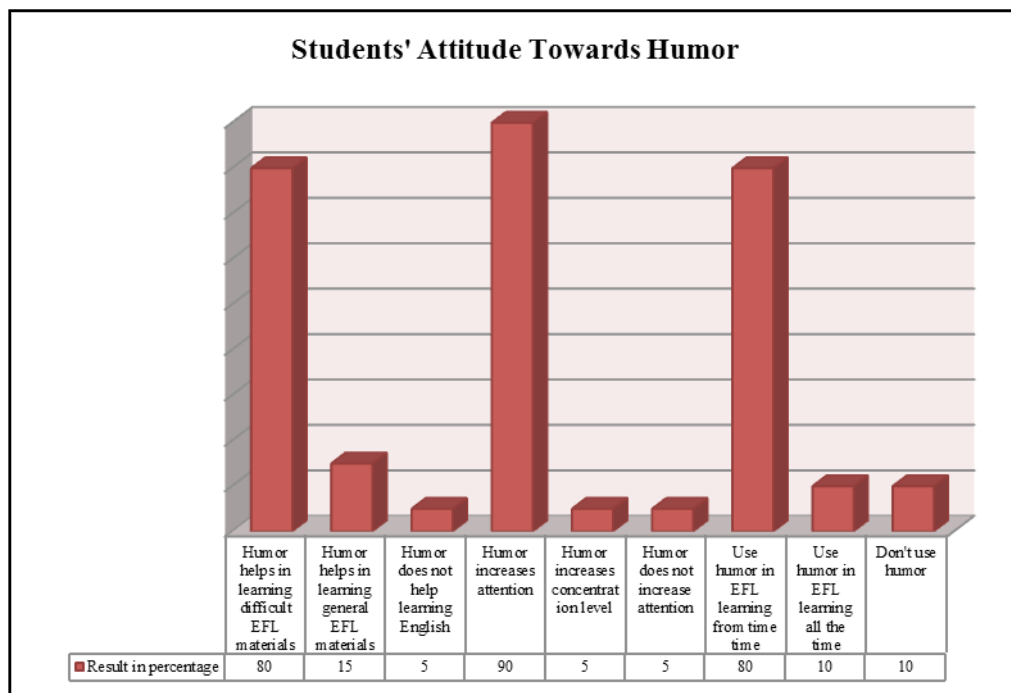


Figure 1: Student's attitude towards humor

As is shown in Figure 2, when study II asked about class management, control, and how humor affects the atmosphere of the learning setting, 65% of all students found humor to be contributing to positive atmosphere in the classroom, rather than losing control. Interestingly, a substantial number of students favored having humor as part of their everyday English classroom learning (90%), and quite a high proportion of all students (85%) felt that humor even encourages them to express their opinions freely, using the target language.

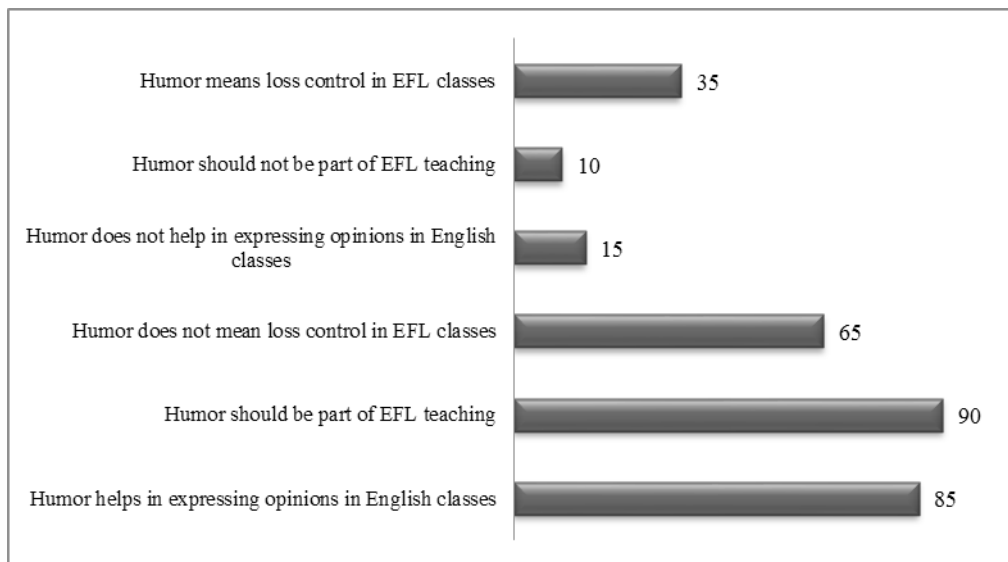


Figure 2: The effect of humor on class management EFL setting

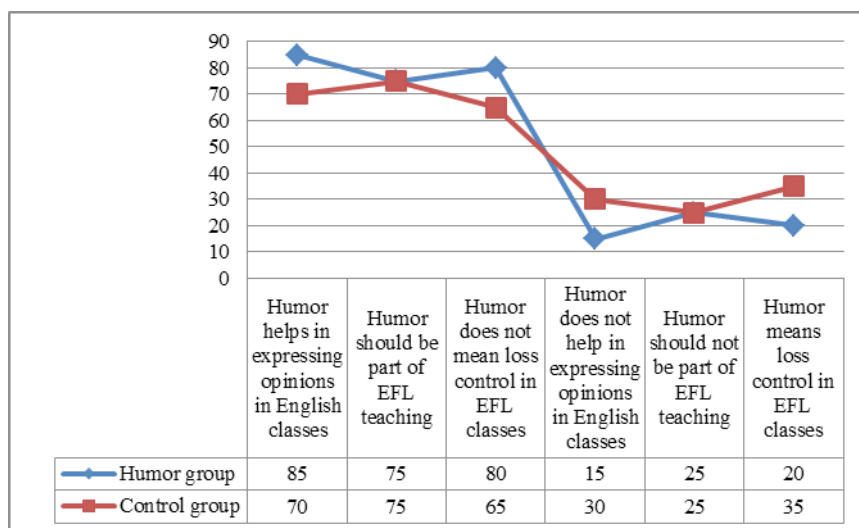


Figure 3: Students' reaction in humor group and control group

In Figure 3, comparisons made between the two groups of the study, the humor and the control groups, showed a high proportion of students desiring humor in the classroom in both groups. In humor group, it was found that 85% of the students considered that humor help them when expressing opinions in English class and 75% of the populations stated that the EFL teaching should be inserted with humor. Besides, 80% of the students gave their opinion that the delivery of humor in EFL class did not mean any loss control between teacher and students. Thus, more than 70% of the students of humor group agreed that humor brought a positive situation in teaching learning process.

The control group gave the similar opinion to the humor group except a little bit difference in number compared to humor group. 70% from the sample reported that humor helped them express their opinion freely in the EFL class and more than 60% agreed that humor could maintain a good relationship between teacher and students without losing control. Similar to the

percentage in humor group, 75% students reported that humor should be part of EFL teaching. In short, both humor group and control group shared the similar reaction towards the use of humor in EFL teaching. More than 60% from both groups gave a positive reaction upon the use of humor.

Opinion	Yes	No
Humor encourages me to talk to my teacher	85	15
Humor reduces my fear of class/teacher	70	30
Humor makes the learning environment more enjoyable	89	11

Figure 4: Opinion’s on humor and class atmosphere

Figure 4 displays the students’ opinion when asked about their reasons to desire humor, students reported that humor in the classroom situation affected their learning positively. The students expressed specific opinions about humor and the teaching atmosphere. 85% compared with only 15% reported that humor reduces barriers between them and their teachers. Also, 70% felt that humor reduced their “fear” of their teachers, and 89% said that humor makes the learning environment more enjoyable. Clearly, students feel the need for the humor factor as part of their learning process.

When reviewed together, such results reflect on humor as a positive teaching tool that creates a relaxed environment with less authoritarianism on the teachers’ part and less of a stress on the students’. With such a tool well used, teachers in general, and EFL instructors, more specifically could successfully facilitate the learning/teaching setting.

To visualize all the results of this research cognitively, it seems that laughter and learning a foreign language in the rural are university setting follow steps of realization.

As linguistic EFL stimulus is introduced, students have expectations of what it should mean (from the setting they are in). Therefore, they automatically try to understand what the stimulus says, supposes, does not say, or even implies. If they are successful in solving this ‘cognitive riddle’, and they find out what the thought hidden within the stimulus is, they achieve routine understanding, and they realize that the stimulus wasn’t dangerous. When this happens, students get relieved and head to stimuli following.

Otherwise, if students’ expectations are not fulfilled, stimuli appear to be irrelevant, inconsistent or even ambiguous. As inconsistency is not resolved, students feel anxious. This is where humor appears to help. Upon hearing relevant humor, laughter is produced; anxiety gets reduced; concentration levels get increased. With this, students start to enjoy concentrating on understanding stimuli. When this concentration achieves this level, students freely express views and interact in the learning setting consciously and intelligently. This helps them to deploy humor to help them deal with new, expanded points of view coming from surprising stimuli. Figure 5 shows that the cognitive model of learning a foreign language using laughter.

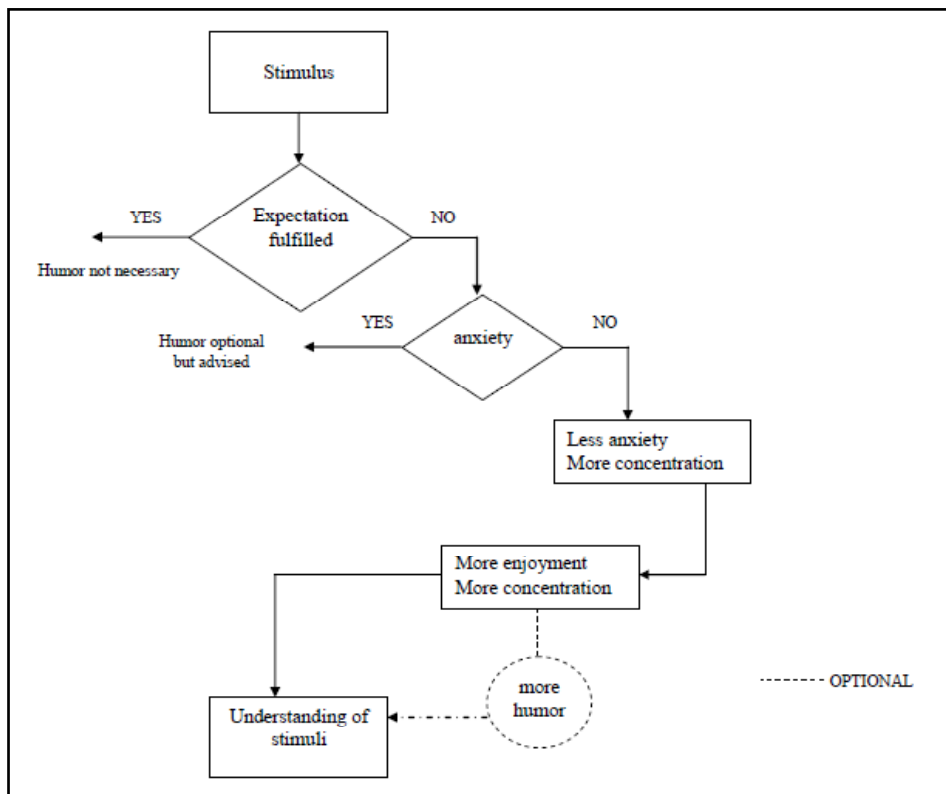


Figure 5: A model of humor and learning EFL

This research focuses on selected issues of learning, laughing, and humor -primarily, students' views about the use of humor and the impact of humor on the language teaching setting.

Students of engineering participants reported that humor should be used as a teaching technique because it makes lectures more interesting and it encourages students to take part and express opinions. Moreover, the students do not only believe that humor does not have a negative effect on class control, but also that it reduces disturbing outbursts in class.

The students were encouraged to participate in classes teaching ESL. Telling jokes encouraged students to talk to their teachers and to take part in classroom discussions/debates. Students reported that having humor in the classroom makes the learning experience easier for them and establishes a more positive learning environment.

These findings are consistent with prior research which showed that humor can be beneficial to classroom learning (Garner, 2006; Minchew and Hopper, 2008; Faulkner, 2011; Stroud, 2013; Motlagh et al, 2014; Salehi and Hesabi, 2014), promotes confidence, holds the atmosphere of the class, creates a positive attitude toward the subject matter, and reduces anxiety (Morrison, 2008).

This research demonstrates that humor has a positive effect on the rural area university learning situation, particularly when learning English for specific purpose. The present data show that humor not only enables teachers to create an affective positive environment, but is also a source of enjoyment for students and teachers alike, regardless of culture or educational setting. Results of this research point out that using humor encourages communication between students and teachers, and the classroom environment becomes freer and more open. Laughter helps students forget their fears in the communicative language classroom.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

It is clear that “humor” is an effective tool in foreign language education in the faculty of engineering. Humor, clearly, contributes to creating a positive environment for learning in the rural area setting. The extent to which one uses humor varies with the type of class one has. When used properly, humor ought to allow students to feel as part of the class and possibly contribute without feeling exposed or vulnerable. Teachers do not have to be gifted humorists to attain the benefits of using humor in the classroom. It is a skillful way of reaching out to those students who are too afraid or nervous to attempt expressing themselves in their second language.

It is therefore suggested that humor should become an integral part of any positive learning classroom environment educationalists in the faculty of engineering hope to achieve. Along with encouragement and praise, should be one of the many useful tools used by language teachers to make their classrooms more inviting and conducive to learning. Additionally, rather than making it a special tool, humor should be delivered as a natural part of the classroom learning objective.

Results of this research are convincing that humor is culturally unbound. Just as any other learning setting, humor plays a major role in learning a foreign language at rural are university. One does not want to keep the students laughing for the sake of humor; one rather wants them to learn best when they laugh most (Aboudan, 2009).

REFERENCES

- Aboudan, Rima. (2009). Laugh and learn: humor and learning a second language. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 3 (3), 90 - 99.
- Faulkner, Terrence O'Donnell. (2011). *Is humor a useful classroom tool to motivate and help young Korean learners to remember?* Edgbaston Birmingham: Centre for English Language Studies Department of English University of Birmingham.
- Garner, R. L. (2006). Humor in pedagogy: How ha-ha can lead to aha! *College Teaching*, 54 (2), 177-179.
- Minchew, Sue S. and Peggy F. Hopper. (2008). Techniques for using humor and fun in language arts classroom. *Humor in the Classroom*, 81 (5), 232-236.
- Motlagh, Fateme Ghanei et al. (2014). On the effects of teacher's sense of humor on Iranian's EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 3 (4), 1-5.
- Rafiee, Marzieh et al. (2010). The application of humorous song in EFL classrooms and its effects on listening comprehension. *Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3 (4), 100-106.
- Salehi, Fatemeh and Akbar Hesabi. (2014). Impact of Teaching Grammar through Humor on Iranian EFL Learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4 (8), 1641-1652.
- Stroud, Robert. (2013). The Laughing EFL classroom: potential benefits and barriers. *English Language Teaching*, 6 (10), 72-85.

ASSESSING SPEAKING SKILL: TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN EFL CLASSROOM SETTINGS

Fathin Anjani Hilman

fathinanjani@student.upi.edu

Fida Anisah

fidaanisah@student.upi.edu

Lestiyani Sunarto

lestiyanis@gmail.com

Indonesia University of Education

Bandung, Indonesia

Abstract

Teaching and assessing cannot be separated in teaching and learning process. Teaching speaking is an important part in the language teaching, as well as the assessing speaking. However, assessing speaking skill among English teachers is frequently misleading. Therefore, teachers need to use some strategies in conducting the assessing speaking. Based on that issue, this research is aimed at exploring teachers' strategies in assessing speaking skill. To explore the problems, case study with a qualitative approach was adopted. This research employed interview technique in collecting the data and involved three teachers from one of senior high schools in Bandung. The collected data were analyzed by using flow data analysis process of Miles & Huberman (1994). The findings revealed that teachers apply the strategy of conducting the speaking assessment in the classroom which are start from the way they identify the purpose of their speaking assessment, planning the speaking assessment, then selecting the type of speaking assessment and last, developing the rubric for the speaking assessment. In general, teachers implementing some strategies in conducting the speaking assessment. This research is expected to broaden teachers' knowledge about strategies in assessing speaking in terms of the purpose and planning the speaking assessment, the type of assessment used, and scoring rubric used.

Keywords: strategy, assessment, speaking skill, speaking assessment.

1. INTRODUCTION

Speaking is the important instrument of communication. Speaking is a part of daily life that people use almost constantly to convey ideas, thoughts and feelings they have to the surroundings. In learning language, speaking is considered as one of the skills to be mastered by learners. Richards (2008, p.19) states that the mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Speaking itself means as a meaningful interaction between people (Luoma, 2009, p.27). Moreover, Chaney and Burk (1998, p.13) defines speaking as the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. It can be inferred that speaking is a tool that we use to express our ideas, thoughts and feelings to be understood by the listeners.

Teaching and assessing cannot be separated in teaching and learning process. Teaching speaking is an important part in the language teaching, as well as the assessing speaking. In general, the purposes of assessing are: to measure language proficiency, to discover students' achievement, to diagnose students' strength and weaknesses, and to assist placement of students (Hughes, 2011, p.8). According to O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.60) speaking assessment of English language learners in school aims to capture a student's ability to try to communicate for both basic communicative and academic purposes. It can be inferred that speaking assessment

is important in order to know students' ability in speaking, including their strength and weaknesses.

The process of assessing speaking involves some stages (Luoma, 2009, p.5). The assessing speaking activities begin where someone realizes that there is a need for speaking assessment. Then, it continues to the planning and development stage where the developers define what they need to be assessed; develop, try out and revise the task; rating criteria and; make administration procedures. The next stage is the stage where the test administration takes place, the participants interact with each other or with the examiners. After that, it continues to the stage where raters apply the rating criteria to the test performances. The last two stages are two interactive processes in speaking assessment.

A number of studies have been conducted to examine the assessment of speaking skill. Chuang (2009, p.170) found that one of the toughest challenges of oral proficiency testing has been the construction of practical, reliable, and valid tests of oral production ability. Another study conducted by Kim (2006, p.2) found that in order to ensure validity and reliability of a speaking performance test, attention needs to be paid to the quality of the speaking performance along with scoring that is based on specific criteria to that particular testing context.

In line with those studies, there are some challenges faced by teachers in assessing speaking, such as making time, selecting assessment activities and determining evaluation criteria (O' Malley and Pierce, 1996, p.58). Moreover Johnson (2001, p.310) states a very time-consuming is one of the issues in assessing speaking. Furthermore, Gonzalez (2009, p.2) states that some learners found speaking assessment is very stressful. Teachers need to be able to use some strategies in order to resolve those challenges. The strategy can be in the form of how teachers conducting the speaking assessment. According to O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) there are several steps in conducting speaking assessment which include identifying purpose, planning for assessment, selecting assessment activities and developing rubrics and scoring procedures.

The first strategy is the way teachers identifying the purpose of their speaking assessment. Generally, assessing speaking aims to assess the level of the learners' speaking skills. Moreover, O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) states that the oral language of English language learners is typically assessed for one of three purposes: (1) for initial identification and placement of students in need of a language-based program, (2) for movement from one level to another within a given program, and (3) for placement out of an ESL/bilingual program into a grade-level classroom. Knowing the purpose of the assessment help teachers to identifying students' needs in order to produce appropriate instructional goals, objectives and assessment activities.

After identifying purposes, teachers can start to plan the assessment. According to O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) planning for assessment involves at least five steps. The first one is identifying instructional activities or tasks. The second step is to outline the major instructional goals or learning outcomes. To determine whether teachers need to assess the students' individually or in groups is include in the first and second steps, as well as determining the kind of rubric or rating scale that they will going to use.

The third step is deciding whether or not to make an audio or video recording of student performance. According to Underhill (1987) as cited on O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.64) recording students' performance provide some options for teachers such as rating the performance at later time, getting a second rater to rate the performance, asking students to do a self-assessment of the performance, and enabling students to look back at their progress over time.

Forth, deciding how often to collect information. Teachers need to collect information of

their students in order to know about the progress their students made. The last step is providing learners with feedback. Feedback itself will have more meaning and more impact for students. And the form of the feedback can be given in written or spoken form depend on what teachers think is good enough for their students.

Selecting assessment activities is the third strategy in assessing speaking. Richards (1983) as cited on O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.76) mentions some criteria to be followed by teachers develop task for speaking assessment, as follows: content validity, task validity, purposefulness and transferability, and authenticity. Assessing speaking according to Ur (1984) as cited on O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 69) is most effective when it is based on the performance of a task where students are required to something in response to what they hear, whether it is taking notes, charting a route on a map or answering questions.

Speaking assessment can take various forms depending on the purpose of the assessment. There are some types of speaking assessment that teachers can use to assess their students speaking skill. According to Thornbury (2005, p.125) the most commonly used spoken test types are interview, live monologue, recorded monologue, role-play, collaborative tasks and discussion. In line with Thornbury, Hughes (2011, p. 119) mentions some types of speaking assessment such as interview, role-play, monologue, reading aloud, and discussion.

Moreover, Brown (2010, p.184) divided the types of speaking test based on the basic types of speaking, into five categories: imitative, intensive, responsive, interactive, and extensive. Furthermore, O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.77) mentions some oral language assessment activity such as interview, picture-cued descriptions or stories, radio broadcasts, video clips, information gaps, story or text retelling, role-play or simulation, oral reports and debates. In line with the previous statement, Johnson (2001, p.310) proposes some techniques in assessing speaking such as oral interview, role play and simulation, and imitation.

The last strategy in assessing speaking is the way teachers develop rubrics and scoring procedures for speaking assessment which is almost the same with the other skills. O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.65) states that rubric should highlight what students can do rather than what they cannot do. The scoring rubrics can be in the form of holistic or analytic. Both holistic and analytic scoring have advantages and disadvantages. According to Thornbury (2005, p.127) holistic scoring consist a single score based on an overall impression. Rating students using holistic scoring provide an overview of students' achievement, however it does not provide detailed information about the score. In reverse, analytic scoring giving a separate score for different aspects of the task. Even though analytic scoring is time consuming and quite complicated, but it provides more detailed information of the score that the students get.

In conclusion, speaking skill is important to be taught to learners who wants to acquire English as foreign language. To know whether students develop their speaking skill or not, teachers need to conduct the speaking assessment. However, teachers found some problems in conducting the speaking assessment. To resolve those problems, teachers have to find a way in conducting the speaking assessment, including identifying the purpose of the assessment, planning speaking assessment, selecting speaking assessment activities and the scoring rubrics. Based on the issues presented, this study aims to find out teachers' strategies in assessing speaking. Therefore, the formulation of the research questions is: what kind of strategies are applied by the English teachers in assessing speaking?

2. METHOD

This study employed a case study qualitative design because the researcher need to gather the information about strategies that the teachers use in conducting assessing speaking in one of

senior high schools in Bandung. It is in line with what Creswell (2008, p.46) states, qualitative is a type of educational research in which the researcher relies on the views of participants; asks broad, general questions; collects data consisting largely of words (or text) from participants; describes and analyzes these words for themes, and conducts the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner.

This study involved three English teachers from one of senior high schools in Bandung as the respondents by using purposive sampling technique because the researcher has an access to that school so the data were gathered easily. Creswell (2008, p.214) states that in purposive sampling, researcher intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon.

A one-on-one interview with the respondents were conducted to obtain the data needed. The interviews were conducted on December 18, 2014 and took around 20 minutes for each teacher. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. The questions given to the respondents were in the form of open-ended questions which allow respondents to create the options for responding (Creswell, 2008, p.225). In this study, the respondents were have freedom to answer the questions related to the strategies that they use in conducting the speaking assessment.

The collected data then analyzed by using flow data analysis model (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.10) consisting of data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. The data reduction was conducted to select and sorting the data that is important and related to the teachers' strategies in assessing speaking and reduce the data which is not refer to the research study. After the data were synthesized, the data display was conducted in the descriptive form. Then, the researcher made conclusions from the interview as the findings of this study.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The following sections of this part describe the findings based on obtained data from the interview. The elaborations of findings from that instrument is described in the following sections.

As it is mentioned in the introduction section, there are some difficulties faced by teachers in conducting speaking assessment (O' Malley and Pierce, 1996; Johsnon, 2001; Gonzalez, 2009; Heaton, 1995). All of the teachers facing the same problems.

T1: First, if it is a role-play, the problem occurs when the role-play is too short and the assessment have not done yet, so the assessment process becomes difficult. For speech or individual speaking test, it requires much time. Then, for the project based learning, if students use some teaching aid it will take time for them to prepare those aids and there are other things that I faced during the speaking assessment process. I ever conducted the test and it was crowded outside the class, it is also one of the problems I faced in speaking assessment.

T2: Difficulties in implementing the speaking assessment is time, especially for individual test. I have to assess around 40 students with different abilities in one time but the time is limited.

T3: Besides time, it is quite hard for me to avoid subjectivity and makes students want to speak English confidently.

Teachers have to apply some strategies in terms of the purpose of the speaking assessment, the type of assessment used, the assessment planning and the scoring rubric used (O' Malley and Pierce, 1996, p.63). From the interview, it is found that all of the respondents (T1; T2; and T3) are conducting speaking assessment in their class. They have their own purposes in conducting speaking assessment, as T1 states:

The purpose of this assessment is to determine how far the students' ability in developing their English speaking skill.

In line with T1, T3 mentioned his goal in conducting speaking assessment as follows:

My goal in conducting speaking assessment is to measure students' ability in speaking English fluently, get students used to speak English and increasing their self-confidence and bravery in speaking English.

Besides sharing the same purposes with T1 and T3, T2 states the goal of speaking assessment for his class is for determining what to do next.

My goal is to measure students' ability in speaking English. In addition, the assessment can be used as the base for the other learning activities or it can be used for another assessment.

It is in line with what O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) states that by combining the purposes for which oral language will be used with a learner needs assessment and individual language assessment profiles, teachers can produce appropriate instructional goals, objectives and assessment activities.

Regarding the second strategy which is type of assessment that teachers used in the classroom, all of them shares the same answers. They use varieties of speaking assessment as T1 states:

The type of the assessment varies. Usually I often use project-based learning, role-play, story-telling and speech.

According to Brown (2010, p.214) role-play opens some windows of opportunity for test takers to use discourse that might otherwise be difficult to elicit. Moreover, Heaton (1995, p.102) states that through role play, teacher can discover how students are thinking and using the target language. It can be inferred that role-play is a type of speaking test which allow students to interact with their friends so teachers will know the way their students' think and talk. Similar to T1, T2 mentions some types of assessment he used.

The test given to the students usually in the form of short conversation. Besides short conversation, I often use presentation too. For the presentation, it can be done together with friends in group or individually depend on the material. Another test given to students is in the form of picture-cued test.

O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.79) suggest that picture-cued can be used for assessment of individual students. It does not require prior preparation and can be used to elicit the following language functions: describing, giving information or giving opinion.

Furthermore, T3 shares the same opinion with T2, he mostly use dialogue and monologue to assess their students' speaking skill

The test given to the students is performance test in the form of dialogue (in pair or group) and monologue.

O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) offer at least five steps in planning the speaking assessment. Those steps are identifying instructional activities or tasks, outlining the major instructional goals or learning outcomes, whether or not to make an audio or video recording, how often to collect information, and last provide learners with feedback.

STEPS	YES	NO
Identifying instructional activities or tasks	X	
Outlining the major instructional goals or learning outcomes	X	
Decide to make an audio or video recording		X
Decide how often to collect information	X	
Provide feedback	X	

Table 1.1 Planning the Assessment Teacher 1 &3

From the interview, it can be inferred that T1 did not follow all steps that suggest by O'Malley and Pierce (1996), instead she made her own steps.

First, I set the objectives of the assessment from the basic competence. I interpreted what is suitable for the assessment and seen the material. If the material is suitable for project-based learning, the whole skills can be tested; I will know their ability in listening, speaking, writing and reading. Especially for speaking because it can be seen directly when they perform it in front of the class.

Moreover she also mentions giving the feedback for her students at the end of the speaking assessment.

I used to make a general conclusion about students' mistake. Usually, I write it. For example I write the words that my students' often mispronounce it. I also write another correction in a notes. I gave my students some feedback after the assessment has done; what they should say, what is the right expression, how to say the words and so on.

Similar to T1, T2 and T3 also did not follow all steps in planning assessment as O'Malley and Pierce (1996) suggested.

STEPS	YES	NO
Identifying instructional activities or tasks	X	
Outlining the major instructional goals or learning outcomes	X	
Decide to make an audio or video recording		X
Decide how often to collect information		X
Provide feedback	X	

Table 1.2 Planning the Assessment Teacher 2

While T1 and T3 deciding the time to collect information, as states below:

T1 : *For project-based learning, which is done individually, is only once in a semester. Twice until four times for role-play. And for individual speech and they should perform it in front of people or the class is only once in a semester.*

T3 : *I follow speaking materials in the syllabus or textbook. Usually more than twice.*

T2 seems to neglect this step as he mentions on the interview.

I do not determine how many times I should conduct the speaking assessment because I do assessing in every meeting.

It can be inferred that even though he seems like neglect on how often he should collect the information but actually he did the assessment in every meeting; in formal and informal way. Moreover he also mentions the way he assess in informal way. Every time he check the attendance, he asks his students questions that related to their life. For those who brave enough (even though the grammar or pronunciation is not really well) to answer will achieve some points for that. T3 also mentions that he has a teacher’s journal to keep the record of his students’ progress.

Regarding to the feedback, T2 states that he gives the feedback to the students at the end of the speaking assessment so it is similar with what T1 done.

I write some mistakes done by students during the test. At the end of the meeting when they already done the test, I gave them the feedback. If it is given directly during the test, I was concerned it will affect their mood.

According to Brown (2010, p.80) for oral production tests, feedback can be given after the performance. Not only planning the assessment, teachers also in charged in deciding the criteria for the assessment. The assessment criteria can be in the form of analytic scoring or holistic scoring. Underhill (1987) as cited on O’Malley and Pierce (1996, p.66) suggests a balanced approach to use holistic and analytic rating scales, as in assessing for communicative effect or grammatical accuracy.

	Holistic	Analytic
T1		X
T2	X	X
T3	X	X

Table 1.3 Scoring T1 T2 T3

It can be seen from the table 1.3 that both T2 and T3 use holistic and analytic in their speaking assessment scoring. As T3 states:

I create my own criteria if I am not lazy. But sometimes, I use other teachers’ rubrics. When I am lazy, I give the score based on my intuition (laughing).

Moreover he mentions some criteria when he use analytic scoring.

For analytic scoring the criteria are fluency, accuracy, communicativeness, courage and self-confidence. Each criterion has a maximum score of 20. For the final score, I combine all the score from each criterion so the maximum of total score will be 100 for each student. For the holistic scoring, I divide it into four categories. The first one if the grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation is good the score is around 86 to 100. But if the grammar is not that good and the vocabulary and pronunciation is ok, so the score is around 71 to 85. Then if grammar and vocabulary are not that good and there is errors on the pronunciation so the score is around 56 to 70. Below that the score is around 55.

Uraian	Nilai
Lancar, tata bahasa dan kosa kata benar, pengucapan benar.	86-100
Kurang lancar, tata bahasa dan kosa kata benar, pengucapan benar	71 - 85
Kurang lancar, ada kesalahan tata bahasa dan kosa kata, pengucapan kurang	56 - 70
Tidak lancar, banyak kesalahan tata bahasa dan kosa kata, banyak kesalahan pengucapan	< 56

Table 1.4 T3 Holistic Scoring Rubric

It can be concluded that T3 using both holistic and analytical scoring in his speaking scoring criteria. Eventhough the use of holistic scoring in his class happened because another factor like lazy. Furthermore, T2 states the way he use analytic and holistic scoring as follows:

I considered the speaking test type I used and another factor such as time in determining the assessment criteria. When I use analytic scoring, I usually assess students' performance, pronunciation, fluency and intonation. But when I use holistic scoring, I divide it into four levels which are poor, fair, good and excellent.

Performance	Fluency	Pronunciation	Intonation
22.5- 25	22.5- 25	22.5 - 25	22.5- 25
21- 22.5	21- 22.5	21 - 22.5	21- 22.5
16 - 20	16 - 20	16 - 20	16 - 20
0 - 15	0 - 15	0 - 15	0 - 15

Table 1.5 T2 Analytic Scoring Rubric

Score	Category
81 - 100	Excellent
71 - 80	Good
61 - 70	Fair
< 60	Poor

Table 1.6 T2 Holistic Scoring Rubric

Different criteria used by T2 and T3 is in line with what O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.65) states, teachers need to pay attention to the students' needs and characteristic before setting the criteria of the rubric. In reverse to what T2 and T3 do in scoring the speaking assessment, T1 only use analytic scoring in her speaking assessment scoring.

I use analytic scoring. It will be assess for each item. So, it is fairer for students. I sometimes use the instrument or the rubric..... not using the rubric but based on intuition in the past. But it turns out that the assessment is unfair for students and I feel that the assessment process is not optimal.

In scoring students' performance, all of the teachers agree that they do the assessing throughout student's performance, not in the beginning of the test or at the end of the test.

T1: During the test. But it has the disadvantage like for role-play, sometimes students make too short conversation. So the role-play has done but the assessment has not been completed.

T2: During the test.

T3: *During the test.*

In giving the score to the students it is feared that there is a subjectivity. In order to minimize the subjectivity factor, T1 suggested:

When teacher see their students' active and smart, there will be a subjectivity involved. Therefore, I use the rubric so it is measurable and the objectivity can be maximized.

Moreover she explained:

It is specific for each criterion. There are some students who are good in pronunciation but their expression is not that good. There are another student who is good in grammar but their performance or fluency is not good. So every criterion in the rubric gives a pretty fair assessment of each student's ability.

In line with T1, T2 and T3 prefer to stick to the rubrics to minimize the subjectivity.

T2: *I follow the rubric to avoid subjectivity.*

T3: *To minimize the subjectivity, I stick to the rubric.*

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on findings and discussions in the previous section, conclusion of this study can be drawn that teachers apply some strategies in conducting the speaking assessment, even though there is a strategy that did not applied well by the teachers.

Those strategies applied by teachers are in line with what O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.63) states which are identifying purpose, planning for assessment, selecting assessment activities and developing rubrics and scoring procedures.

Each teacher has their own technique in implementing the assessment strategy, especially in developing the rubric. They have their own criteria for scoring the students' ability in speaking.

Regarding the findings, it is suggested for teachers to learn more about speaking assessment strategies in order to implement a good speaking assessment.

REFERENCES

- Brown, H. Douglas. 2010. *Language Assessment Principles and Classroom Practices*. New York: Pearson.
- Chuang, Ying-Ying. 2009. Foreign Language Speaking Assessment: Chinese Taiwanese College English Teachers Scoring Performance in the Holistic and Analytic Rating Methods. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 11(1), p.150-173.
- Creswell, John W. 2008. *Educational Research Planning, Conudcting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. New Jersey: Pearson.
- Chaney, Ann L & Burk, Tamara L.1998. *Teaching Oral Communication in Grades K-8*. Boston: Allyn&Bacon.
- Gonzalez, Marina. 2009. *Assessing the Speaking Skill*. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/1762183/Assessing_Oral_Skills on December 16, 2014.
- Heaton, J.B. 1995. *Writing English Language Tests*. Malaysia: Longman.
- Hughes, Arthur. 2011. *Testing for Language Teachers*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, Keith. 2001. *An Introduction to Foreign Language Learning and Teaching*. England: Pearson Education.
- Kim, Hyun Jung. 2006. Issues of Rating Scales in Speaking Performance Assessment. *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), p.1-3.
- Knight, Ben. 1992. *Assessing Speaking Skills*. *ELT Journal Oxford University Press*, 46(3), p.294-302.
- Luoma, Sari. 2009. *Assessing Speaking*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Merriam, Sharan B. 1988. *Case Study Research in Education A Qualitative Approach*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Miles, Matthew B & Huberman, Michael. 1994. Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook, Second Edition. USA: SAGE Publication, Inc.
- O' Malley, J. Michael & Pierce, Lorraine Valdez. 1996. Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners: Practical Approaches for Teachers. USA: Longman.
- Richards, Jack C. 2008. Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Thornbury, Scott. 2005. How to Teach Speaking. England: Longman.
- Wallace, Michael J. 2000. Action Research for Language Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM: THE USE OF *BRITISH NATIONAL CORPUS* IN TEACHING VOCABULARY

Ikmi Nur Oktavianti

ikmi.oktavianti@pbi.uad.ac.id

Universitas Ahmad Dahlan

Abstract

Corpus (or corpora—pl.) is well-known as the best linguistic database as it enables researchers to seek for data in real use context. In 1960s and later decades, linguistics scholarships have focused on data resulting from elicitation, including introspective method. Corpus, then, becomes a breakthrough in the field of theoretical linguistics, language variation studies, and so forth. However, the use of corpus is not limited to language research, rather it can also be used to enrich language classroom activities by having data-driven learning. By conducting this data-driven learning in the classroom, students are capable of figuring out many linguistic aspects which cannot be obtained by only listening to teacher's explanation or reading text book. Moreover teacher can make use of corpus to vary the learning sources and materials. This paper therefore aims at describing the use of English corpus, British National Corpus, in teaching English. Regarding the wide coverage of corpus role in language teaching, this paper will focus on the use of the corpus in teaching vocabulary: what are the activities that can be done in the classroom with corpus assistance? What can corpus offer to vocabulary teaching?

Keywords: *corpus linguistics, data-driven learning, vocabulary teaching*

1. INTRODUCTION

Mastering a language means mastering the skills related to the language. Speaking, listening, writing, and reading are the cores of language learning. Nevertheless, learning a language will not be sufficient without regarding the prominence of vocabulary mastery. Without knowing the meaning of a word and how to use it, one cannot conduct successful communication. Having sufficient vocabulary, learners are able to communicate well regardless of the grammatical competence. This will bring the consequence of the importance of teaching vocabulary as part of ELT practices (Schmitt, 2000).

Teaching vocabulary partakes as important aspect in language teaching. In the classroom, teaching vocabulary mostly undertakes by teaching words in isolation or separating words from context. Words are learned individually. Besides, teachers will choose examples taken from textbook designed for ELT purposes. Vocabulary mastery then is graded by the number of words the learners mastered. Due to its relevance in ELT world, there are some previous research concerning vocabulary and its teaching. Previous studies on vocabulary teaching were conducted by focusing on the strategies (Yu-Ling, 2005; Nam, 2010), vocabulary and curriculum (Bintz, 2011), and integrated vocabulary instruction (Blachowicz, 2005).

Regarding word mastery, it must be taken into account that learning words cannot be done in isolation since words are used in their context (Antonacci and O'Callaghan, 2012: 84). Thus, teaching vocabulary using the database of real life language use is of important. The need of real life language use database looms large. There is the need to experience language leaning as it is. As technology develops, teachers now can try to find the alternative to teaching second language vocabulary to their learners. The technology that is able to combine the experience of learning from context and the real language use database. Corpora, as the product of corpus linguistics, is assumed to meet the requirements. Corpus linguistics, one of the branches of

linguistics, is not only about the language use, but also about the database for language teaching and learning. Using corpora in language teaching is a not a new stuff. Previous research on the use of corpora in language teaching were conducted by some researchers (Granger et al., 2002; O’Keeffe et al., 2007; Aijmer, 2009). Yet, serious attempts on explaining the application of two different corpora in vocabulary teaching practices are considered insufficient. This paper then attempts to describe the application of two corpora in teaching vocabulary along with its benefits and shortcomings.

2. METHOD

2.1 Data-Driven Learning in Classroom: Using Corpora to Teach Vocabulary?

Reflecting to Tom John’s statement “Every student a Sherlock Holmes” (1997: 101), language teachers should allow the students investigate the language rules by themselves. As a collection of large texts (spoken or written language use), using corpora in the classroom enables the student to access real linguistic data and experience the investigation of language phenomena. A corpus is basically a collection of texts which is stored in a computer. The texts can be written or spoken language. Written texts like newspapers and magazines can be entered into the computer from a scanner, a CD, or the Internet. Spoken texts, like conversations, are recorded and then the recordings are transcribed; that is, they are written down word for word, so that the texts of these conversations can be fed into the computer database. It is then possible to analyze the language in the corpus with corpus software tools to see how people really speak or write (McCarten, 2007; O’Keeffe et al., 2007).

Generally, a corpus can be implemented in language teaching either directly or indirectly. Large general corpora have proven to be an invaluable resource in the design of language teaching syllabi which emphasize communicative competence and which give prominence to those items that learners are most likely to encounter in real- life communicative situations. In addition to indirect application, there is the direct application of corpus. Below is the figure showing the description of copus usage in language teaching.

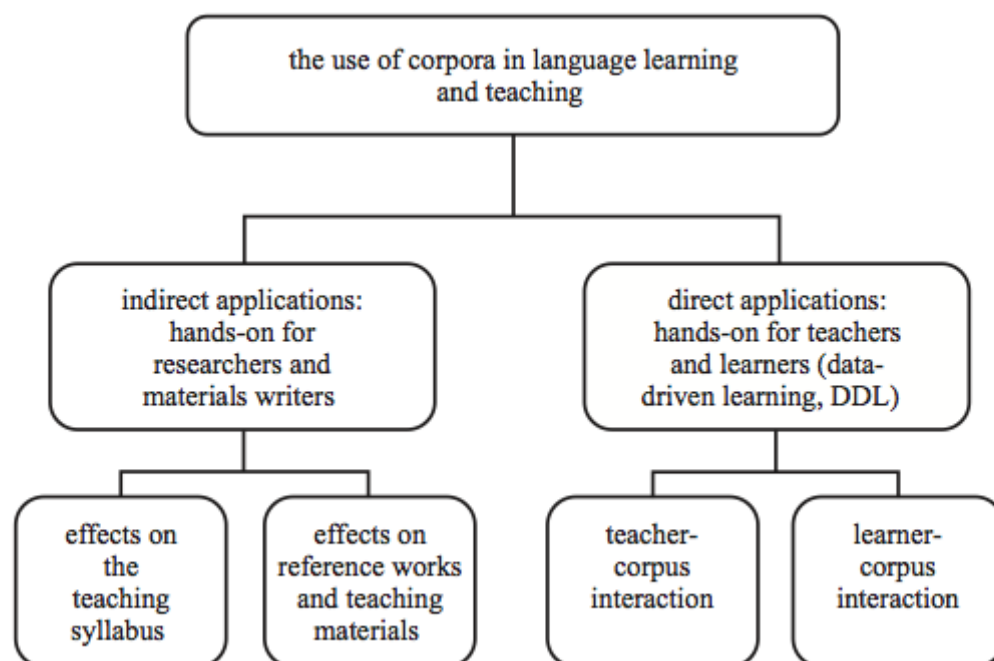


Figure 1 The direct and indirect application of corpus (taken from Lüdeling and Kytö, 2008)

The activity of using corpora directly in classroom is called data-driven learning (Xiaowei, 2013; Boulton, 2011, Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton, 2015). Basically, the term *data-driven learning* or DDL derives from the term *data-driven* in computer science, referring to software which can learn from new data. (Boulton, 2011). DDL is the direct application of corpora in the classroom of which its use is quite marginal in the practice of language teaching. As observed by some researchers, DDL techniques are rarely applied in language classroom (Mukherjee 2004; Römer 2009, 2010; Tribble via Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton, 2015).

It is not surprising since DDL, including the use of corpora, involves the mastery of advanced technology. However, technology itself can be stated as a means to amplify extant beliefs and practices (Warschauer, 2011: 115). Thus, teachers should perceive technology as a useful means in teaching language, not as a barrier or even obstacle. In the emergence of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) concept, teaching using computerized technology has taken into account. Therefore, corpus should not be perceived as something disturbing the teaching and learning process, especially in the classroom.

2.2 A Brief Information about *British National Corpus*

This study uses *British National Corpus* as one of large general corpora depicting one of the largest regional English varieties, *British English*. According to BNC website, The British National Corpus (BNC) is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources. It is designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written British English.

BNC is basically a general, unspecialized corpus. It does not belong to the category of learner corpora. BNC is a corpus consisting of a specialized regional dialect of English. Thus, it is interesting to see further how to make use of this freely accessible general corpus in teaching English vocabulary. Unfortunately, this study is still a preliminary one and it uses a basic concordance program. However, this study attempts to cover the tasks accompanying corpus use in classroom as ample as possible..

2.3 Using BNC to Teach Vocabulary in the Classroom

This part is divided into three subdiscussion: the application of BNC in teaching vocabulary, the benefits of using corpora in teaching vocabulary, and the shortcomings of corpora use in vocabulary teaching.

2.4 The Application of BNC

In this part, there is a further discussion on the direct application of BNC in a vocabulary classroom. For some activities, the use of corpus is assisted with the use of a concordancer, especially in activities that need concordancing skill. A concordance is the display of a word or phrase as it is used by many different speakers in the Corpus (McCarten, 2007: 7). There are many concordancers used by corpus linguists. This paper will use *WordSmith* as one of basic concordancers that can run in Windows operating system. For Mac user, there is *Simple Concordancer Program*.

2.4.1 Using BNC to teach near synonyms

One of the activities in teaching vocabulary that can be assisted with corpus tool is learning about near synonyms. Learners who tend to feel confused and lean on the meaning in dictionary might benefit from the use of corpus. For instance, teacher asks the learners to find out the difference(s) between *listen* and *hear*. They can generate the conclusion based on the observation to the corpus results. Here are the results of *listen* and *hear* from BNC.

A0D 1581 'You think people have nothing better to do than listen to you.'

A0E 1106 'But listen, I don't take that kind of lip from anyone, understood?'

AA9 754 Although I'm persuaded, Thatcher's government is probably not going to listen; nor will most Britons.

ABS 88 He used to listen to American Football on the American Forces Network and was so enthused with it that he wrote to the American Embassy, who invited him to visit them for the day.

ABE 1235 EIGHTEEN-YEAR-OLD Miss Ghada Ahmed Musa, a good Muslim girl from Egypt's poor southern province of El Minya, loved to listen to a lurid radio serial called 'Alarm Bells'.

ADA 938 Listen?

AM8 26 It should listen.

ASA 1599 Ivor Robson, the starter, was waiting for Sandy every morning, and gave him his usual lecture: 'Listen.

ASH 1083 Ears which are turned to the side and are at 'half mast' indicate that the horse is relaxed, and therefore does not feel the need to listen out for danger.

B3J 1438 If it's helpful to you, I'm perfectly ready to listen and to do everything I can to help.'

CRD 3021 Vera Finder had proved to be a formidable mountaineer of a woman, verging on caricature, who refused to listen to a word, but kept aggressively repeating, 'Are you arresting him?'

CCG 258 Listen to Radio Cleveland, 95FM, between 7.30am and 9am on Sundays.

CHZ 10392 Before he fired the man, Judge Shindler heard from the rest of the jury that the wayward juror had DRUNK and SWORN during the trial and DISTRACTED them while they tried to listen to the evidence.

CLL 505 Only one man, David Wyatt, believes that Mabel will hit San Fernandez, but nobody will listen to him...

D95 651 Listen, this is.

1999 All this contrasts sharply with the flimsy world of divination, of Madame Sostris, which lands us unsurprisingly in the heart of London as we hear how all this 'fiddle' will always be found 'When is distress of nations and perplexity? Whether on the shores of Asia, or in the Edgware Road'.

26 It was not easy to hear all that followed, but a right old tangle developed.

488 The performance, to which Simon Rattle and the City of Birmingham Symphony Orchestra made a contribution as passionate as the soloist's own, was preceded by an unscheduled opportunity (the first in country) to hear a recent unaccompanied violin elegy, For Manfred, by Hans Werner Henze.

3067 'Did you hear me, Isabel?'

518 'Did you hear any car arriving?'

443 Chapel services were, or should be, more than just opportunities to hear a sermon: when Major J. B. Pood, the American entrepreneur who arranged lecture tours for British writers visiting America, to London in 1879, he visited Spurgeon's Metropolitan Tabernacle.

1206 The first thing you hear on leaving the bus is German/hochdeutsch, plandeutsch, schweizerdeutsch .

180 There were scales I would hear in music and I used to think to myself, 'I need to learn that scale,' or, 'I need to learn how he got that effect using that scale with those chords,' and basically what Joe me was that sort of thinking.

823 What I hear, I forget.

496 'How can they hear if the message is not proclaimed?'

918 And they still induce a tingle within me whenever I hear them mentioned.

634 I'm not against anyone trying to help put youngsters straight, but people like Deanes never want to hear any point of view but their own.

526 BRITAIN should hear the first US election result around 11.30pm tonight.

2095 The unprecedented admission about the state of the royal marriage yesterday, on the last day of their Korean tour, was what the Princess of Wales has waited since June 7 to hear.

Figure 2 The result of the word listen

Figure 3 The result of the word hear

The display of the results can be used by the learners to investigate the difference(s) between *listen* and *hear* based on the context of occurrence. It can be seen from the context of use in the corpora, the word *hear* is more general term to describe the sight sense related to the auditory system. It is also supported by the number of occurrence of the word. The word *hear* occurs 13.137 times in BNC. Meanwhile, the word *listen* is more specific, occurring only 5468 times. From its context, the word *listen* is used to hear intensively. It can be seen from the expression such as *listen* as an imperative form or *listen* as a suggestion that often appears in the corpus result.

To deepen the understanding of the learners, the similar and more various tasks can be applied to some other near synonyms, such as the group of word of *see*, *watch*, *look at*, and *run*, *sprint*, *jog*, and so forth.

2.4.2 Using BNC to teach collocation

Teaching collocation is one of the main points in vocabulary activities. However, it is difficult to carry out without the exposure of real data. Textbook provides only the selected

collocation. Meanwhile, language is very dynamic and the occurrence of collocation is always in progress. Thus corpus enables teachers and learners to examine the nature of collocation itself by analysing the huge number of examples. This paper exemplifies the use of BNC to find out the collocation of some basic verbs in English, such as *go*, *read*, and *play*. Below is the concordancing of the verb *go* taken from BNC using *WordSmith*.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Sen	Parz	Parz	Hea	Hea	Sec	Sec
1	months' notice preferably.' FPF 1511 Go home, go home, Francis is dead .			638	24	40	0	58			0	58
2	go up by the bus stop and KBG 4371 Go and sit up at the table erm			986	39	76	0	90			0	90
3	and let her go. CH3 4791 Give Paul a go CJA 395 You didn't go in the			355	14	47	0	33			0	33
4	as these use the most resources, and go for long-lasting crayons, rather than			262	10	64	0	24			0	24
5	is acceptable and how far staff can go. EB1 1347 If I didn't go I could stay			431	19	10	0	39			0	39
6	out of the cage. HOM 2864 You cannot go slumming, not here, because slums			717	28	46	0	66			0	66
7	you want this constitution ratified I can't go back to my people and say you're			912	36	35	0	84			0	84
8	gentlest of movements upstairs could go undetected at Rose Cottage; not			672	26	71	0	62			0	62
9	Did nana go? KCP 608 and you could go Sunday and have a beer KD2			1,030	43	30	0	94			0	94
10	beer KD2 3486 Thank heavens it didn't go on my purple top! KD6 1276 no, I			1,042	43	83	0	96			0	96
11	Give Paul a go CJA 395 You didn't go in the shadows. CJJ 1990 You'll go			360	14	80	0	33			0	33
12	far staff can go. EB1 1347 If I didn't go I could stay at home and work on			437	20	41	0	40			0	40
13	So when I go back, although I didn't go back since nineteen eighty-three,			691	27	36	0	63			0	63
14	Algarve but, he said wistfully, you do go over the £1,000. ALN 533 Enabling			58	2	86	0	5%			0	5%
15	to go for this. KBE 6337 And don't go swearing for goodness sake. KBE			958	38	60	0	88			0	88
16	do so without getting bogged down, go back and complete those questions			580	22	39	0	53			0	53
17	as Cromwell's 'In the name of God, go' to the Long Parliament over 250			30	1	63	0	3%			0	3%
18	to the centre of the room, and let her go. CH3 4791 Give Paul a go CJA			349	13	10	0	32			0	32
19	notice preferably ' FPF 1511 Go home, go home, Francis is dead. GON 716			640	24	60	0	59			0	59

Figure 4 The concordance of the word *go*

The data above show that the verb *go* can be followed by some elements. By observing to the corpus, we can identify that the verb *go* can be followed by PPs (*on my purple top*, *to the long Parliament*), adverbials (*back*), adjective (*undetected*), and verb-ing form (*go slumming* and *go swearing*). If the complete result can be displayed, the investigation can be more comprehensive.

Besides the verb *go*, another basic verb in English is *read*. By using *WordSmith*, we can generate the concordance of the word *read* taken from BNC.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Sen	Parz	Parz	Hea	Hea	Sec	Sec
1	for 1992. A68 958 He also read much else, for example a lot of			36	1	40	0	2%			0	2%
2	. HA5 808 This way a man may always read who is his friend and who his			996	32	56	0	63			0	63
3	verses on the backs of envelopes and read them aloud in his car. H83 181			899	28	74	0	57			0	57
4	order that an affidavit by the witness be read at the trial in place of oral			616	20	73	0	39			0	39
5	in a form which will allow them to be read into a variety of software			1,175	37	78	0	75			0	75
6	grant that it may not startle only to be read and pondered by thoughtful brains			286	11	24	0	18			0	18
7	returned—except where they have been read and a conscious decision is			1,203	38	68	0	77			0	77
8	of explanation and that one cannot read off local events from international			878	27	71	0	56			0	56
9	always all your love.' CJT 2096 I can't read, I can't write...' CLD 1322 By the			519	18	16	0	33			0	33
10	for Alton undertakers, Charles Read & Daughter, said they were not			383	13	30	0	24			0	24
11	liberal Jews, the early Christians read the prophets as foretelling a			117	5	46	0	7%			0	7%
12	ignore: either he had read it, or could read it in more convenient			967	30	79	0	62			0	62
13	my book. ACS 437 Those who did read from end to end discovered that,			76	3	25	0	5%			0	5%
14	594 Her enemies implied that Eugénie read nothing but novels or lightweight			221	9	29	0	14			0	14
15	later George Bush based his famous 'Read my lips — no new taxes' on the			182	7	55	0	12			0	12
16	write...' CLD 1322 By the time he had read the Herald Tribune from front			530	18	45	0	34			0	34
17	Greg felt he could ignore: either he had read it, or could read it in more			963	30	63	0	61			0	61
18	right, so, he is there as er Jean er has read to us, seated at the, at the			1,362	42	27	0	87			0	87
19	all right: but he doesn't seem to have read anything worth reading ' RP4			427	14	47	0	27			0	27

Figure 5 The concordance of the word *read*

Observing the data, we can examine the collocation of the verb *read*. The verb *read* can precede NP (*the prophets*, *my lips*, *the Herald Tribune*), PP (*to us*, *at the trial*), adverbial (*much*), and relative clause (*who is his friend*). Due to the limited space, the full data cannot be displayed and

cannot be observed in this paper. However, this activity can be done in the classroom setting. The same activity is applied to the verb *play*. Below is the result of the word *play* in BNC concordanced with WordSmith.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Sen	Para	Para	Hea	Hea	Sec	Sec
1	and we had to play the game. GYT 163 play it over again. H07 1359 Later on,			756	28	57	0	58			0	58
2	if you want to play you play it! FM9 22 Play safe and never go with strangers.			513	19	40	0	39			0	39
3	may include piano trio G12 3120 'A play?' G2C 676 You may return to			694	24	10	0	53			0	53
4	The extent to which the senses actually play a role in Rolle's spiritual			942	33	55	0	72			0	72
5	limits allowed by the organization and play safe. A6G 1301 But he was still			13	0	92	0	1%			0	1%
6	Still to come, how small firms can play a big part in cutting dole queues.			1,101	38	81	0	85			0	85
7	games. KP8 190 See what you can play? u can play?			1,298	46	10	0	10			0	10
8	BN4 1105 The Government could play a part in advocating the recycling			185	7	26	0	14			0	14
9	1315 Cobras were punished for foul play when Deeside scored two of their			1,265	44	43	0	97			0	97
10	his political opportunism to come into play. A9H 612 But here at Sophia			37	1	10	0	3%			0	3%
11	queues. K5A 1102 His majestic iron play gave him birdies at the short			1,114	39	21	0	86			0	86
12	mothers and their partners' mothers play a particularly important part in this			608	22	28	0	47			0	47
13	impact at Goodison Park and he must play second fiddle to the raw,			342	13	67	0	26			0	26
14	however unimportant it may seem, must play a definite part in reinforcing the			725	26	52	0	56			0	56
15	K5A 5979 Moore's authoritative style of play soon brought him to the notice of			1,147	40	44	0	88			0	88
16	played and, under a one-stroke penalty, play another ball. GVS 1025 Every			712	25	90	0	55			0	55
17	to play in. JST 74 It's a very political play O K So now we're moving on to			1,079	38	22	0	83			0	83
18	at lock. K70 456 The P H I is role play number two, pensions is role play			1,199	42	40	0	92			0	92
19	To the children who find any sort of role play difficult (perhaps because it has			1,002	35	34	0	77			0	77

Figure 6. The concordance of the word *play*

Based on the results, the verb *play* is both intransitive and transitive verb. As a transitive verb, it is followed by NP (*a part, another ball, a particularly important part*). In addition, it can be followed by adjective (*safe*) and relative clause (*when Deeside scored two*).

It is obvious that through corpus-assisted language teaching, vocabulary teaching can be seen as something real, not about separating words from context. Teachers and learners can work along to make the learning process more successful. This tool also supports the student-centered learning because teachers let the learners to observe, analyze, and generate the conclusion by themselves. Teachers need not to tell every single thing by doing conventional teaching in the classroom.

2.4.3 Using BNC to teach grammatical patterns

The two previous activities are related to words as units. However, the scope of corpus is more than words. It can depict the grammatical patterns as well as the collocation and/or frequency of occurrence. This paper gives an example of the grammatical patterns of the expression *would you mind*.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Sen	Para	Para	Hea	He
1	the emphasis on 'you .' FPU 1070 'Would you mind my calling you			269	18	40	0	36		
2	('Would you mind... FAP 1362 'Would you mind if we went out on the			230	15	69	0	31		
3	mind opening your case?' BP7 1455 'Would you mind...' CFJ 1718 'But			107	8	24	0	14		
4	you mind if we eat in here? CN3 1466 'Would you mind telling me how you			157	11	22	0	21		
5	made another movie again? F82 157 'Would you mind answering some			186	13	44	0	25		
6	very much if I took that?' H82 1698 'Would you mind?' H8L 1867 'Grab the			481	30	67	0	64		
7	housing enquiries for you? AMB 2097 'Would you mind if eh...if...eh... AN7			47	3	31	0	6%		
8	if I looked down the list? AT3 2172 'Would you mind doing a deal? B24			83	6	44	0	11		
9	the end of this afternoon?' GVT 2293 'Would you mind very much witnessing			459	28	36	0	61		
10	, had been murdered?' ECT 2312 'Would you mind if you never made			174	12	31	0	23		
11	you mind shaving me? ARK 2428 'Would you mind if I looked down the			72	5	33	0	10		
12	: 'Would you mind, dear? G0N 2466 'Would you mind filling the pot,			391	23	40	0	52		
13	you mind if eh...if...eh... AN7 2498 'Would you mind?' APM 128 Marcus			54	3	85	0	7%		
14	A0F 2528 'Would you mind if I bought you a			3	0	17	0	0%		
15	JYD 3524 'Would you mind? JYE 2563 'Would you mind telling her that I'm in			596	39	15	0	80		
16	my calling you Handel? FRS 2592 'Would you mind leaving us, Christina?			278	19	44	0	37		
17	if I had some pudding?' A0F 2681 'Would you mind if I made a few			33	2	27	0	4%		
18	mind if I go over to Kilburn? GV2 3007 'Would you mind explaining yourself?			426	26	50	0	57		
19	mind if I had a turn to talk?' .IY9 3039 'Would you mind if we paid her a visit			577	37	27	0	77		

Figure 7 The concordance of the expression *would you mind*

Observing the results above, it can be seen that the expression *would you mind* can be followed by both *if* clause and verb *-ing*, such as *if we paid her a visit* and *doing a deal* respectively. So, both grammatical patterns are acceptable for *would you mind*. Nevertheless, if the complete data are shown, the more productive one is *if* clause. It is interesting then to compare the grammatical pattern of *would you mind* and the equivalence expression *do you mind* by using corpus. The result of corpus search for the expression *do you mind* is as follow.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen1	Sen2	Para	Para	Head
1	all of this, Mrs Sutherland? FPM 1016 'Do you mind if I clear the table? FRS			156	13	36	0	25	
2	erm finished, old chap. KCP 10184 Do you mind mugs? KDA 5180 I, I just			483	36	57	0	77	
3	'Do you mind if I join you?' B3J 1091 'Do you mind if I drive Barney,' she			71	6	33	0	11	
4	'Do you mind if I join you?' JYF 1345 'Do you mind?' she asked. KB9 4507			373	32	50	0	60	
5	drive Barney,' she giggled. BNP 1353 'Do you mind having hake again,			82	7	40	0	13	
6	'Do you mind if I join you?' B1N 1420 'Do you mind if I join you?' B3J 1091			62	5	40	0	10	
7	if I take a shower first?' HGS 1479 Do you mind? HHB 611 Do you mind			282	26	67	0	45	
8	KDA 5573 Do you mind! KDE 1573 Do you mind? KE0 2388 over where			507	39	67	0	81	
9	yeah, that's, that's, that's a KBN 1698 Do you mind, I'm trying to do a			436	34	57	0	70	
10	Do you mind if I smoke?' CEF 1700 'Do you mind if I talk to you?', CKF			99	9	36	0	16	
11	GUE 368 'Do you mind?' GWB 1744 Do you mind if I do? H0R 2807 "Do			239	21	44	0	38	
12	show me?' she demanded. JY3 1971 'Do you mind if I join you?' JYF 1345			364	31	40	0	58	
13	, but that pushing it a bit far. JXT 2003 Do you mind telling me what you want			349	30	25	0	56	
14	you mind if I talk to you?', CKF 2025 Do you mind if we move back a bit?			109	10	33	0	17	
15	if I ask you something?' AMB 2212 'Do you mind,' said Endill, chancing his			28	2	19	0	4%	
16	— to see if he's left bruises? J1C 2325 Do you mind mate J1C 2328 Do you			320	29	13	0	51	
17	2325 Do you mind mate J1C 2328 Do you mind mate, I don't mind what			326	29	33	0	52	
18	the school is an island? AN7 2438 'Do you mind?' AN7 3531 'Do you			48	3	67	0	8%	
19	'Then do you mind if I do?' G1D 2686 'Do you mind if I use the phone?'			186	16	31	0	30	

Figure 8 The concordance of the expression *do you mind*

The expression *do you mind*, alike *would you mind*, can be followed by both *if* clause and verb-*ing* construction. However, the interesting part is the expression *do you mind* is mostly followed by *if* clause. Thus, by investigating real linguistic data in corpus, we can find the grammatical patterns of *would you mind* and *do you mind* taken from real life example and draw conclusions about the similarities and differences without opening any grammar book or listening to teacher's explanation.

What is the interesting part of these activities is that all of them will offer understanding as many as possible and as well as possible to the learners without being told by their teacher. The learners figure out the differences of near synonym, the collocation of words, and the grammatical pattern of a particular expression by themselves. One thing that textbook cannot fulfill.

2.5 The Benefits of Using Corpus

Using corpora in the classroom definitely brings a new atmosphere into the learning process. Moreover, there are some benefits we can take. The benefits can be divided into two types, namely direct and indirect benefits. Direct benefits are related to the nature of corpora and the process of learning words. Due to its nature, using corpora in teaching vocabulary makes the learners undergo the investigation to the real linguistic data (Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton, 2015). This can trigger other benefits, such as the opportunity to learn the context of use (including semantic aspect of a word and its grammatical pattern), frequency of occurrence, collocation, and difference in spoken and written language (McCarten, 2007).

Using corpora in vocabulary classroom allows the learners to figure out the context of the words. The richness of the data available in the corpora will help observe the use of a word.

Learners are able to know how exactly English native speakers use a particular word. It also includes the semantic aspect of a word which determine the right context of using a word. It is obviously useful in using near synonyms, words having close meaning yet possessing slight different semantic features. Studying near synonyms using corpora makes the learning process more effective than only finding the meaning in the dictionary. Another example shown in the previous discussion is related to grammatical pattern. Corpus allows learners to analyze the structure or grammatical pattern of word, phrase, or expression.

Furthermore, the use of corpus in teaching vocabulary will enable learners to find out the frequency of occurrence of a certain words (McCarten, 2007: 3). Which words occur more often and which one occur less. This kind of information cannot be found in ordinary vocabulary textbook. As well as the frequency of occurrence, learning vocabulary from corpora can also show the collocation of words; which words co-occur frequently and can be categorized as collocation.

Besides having direct benefits, learners getting data-driven learning by using corpora will get used to synthesize and infer based on the linguistic data available. Shown the results of a particular word, learners are asked to infer or to conclude. The conclusion can be in the form of context of word, grammatical pattern and so forth. This activity can trigger students' critical thinking. The more the teacher allow the learners use corpora in the classroom, the more the learners are able to think critically. Moreover, by conducting DDL, teachers can vary the source and materials of the learning process. It will benefit the learners as well as the teachers because learner is not bored with the conventional way of teaching by using textbook. Textbook is the result of selection and compilation carried out by language teachers and practitioners, thus it does not represent real linguistic data. Besides, the number of language use in a textbook is limited.

2.6 The Shortcomings and Barriers

Despite the benefits, the application of corpora in the language classroom, especially in Indonesia, is still problematic. It can be seen from the popularity of DDL and corpora in Indonesian classroom. This saddening fact happens due to some shortcomings and barriers of the application of corpora.

Using corpora means the teacher is a skillful and trained one, at least in using computer and knowing more about corpora websites or softwares available on the Internet. This barrier is not only for the teachers but also for the learners. Indonesian learners seem unfamiliar with corpus tools in learning language. This condition, the unskill teacher and unfamiliar tool for the learner, causes DDL as one of the "method" that cannot be easily applied in English classroom in Indonesia. However, the increasing awareness of using technology in language teaching sheds light on the use of corpora. It is expected that in the near future, corpus will be one of the reliable sources and materials.

Other drawbacks of applying DDL is the companion of good tasks or activities to support the learning process and the level of students. Regarding its sophisticated use, the use of corpus need a suitable task or activity. The tasks or activities must be well-prepared and systematic ones. Hence, it needs an extra work from the teachers. The existence of concordancer programs to display corpus result also influence the way a teacher deliver the materials. Thus, the companion of good tasks and activities must be prepared well. In addition, there is a barrier related to the learner's level of competence (Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton, 2015: 3). Because corpus depicts real data, they contain complex language structures. It is thus suitable for intermediate to advanced learners. As for the corpus used in this study, it is thus obviously not appropriate

for low level students. A corpus depicting one of English varieties of English is appropriate to facilitate intermediate to advanced learners with good English competence. This kind of corpus is beneficial in introducing English varieties after the learners learn the Standard English language.

3. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Based on the discussion above, it can be seen that corpus is actually a useful tool in teaching vocabulary. Various tasks can be done along with various types of corpora. Furthermore, the benefits of using corpus is of significance. Experiencing language learning from corpus enables learners to find out the context of words, their collocations, their frequency of occurrence, and their grammatical patterns. However, further studies on the use of corpora and concordancers must be continued. It is due to the fact that corpora contains a huge number of language data that can be very useful to language teaching and learning. In the future, it is also expected that autonomous learning can make benefit of the development of corpora.

REFERENCES

- Aijmer, Karin (ed.). 2009. *Corpora and Language Teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing.
- Antonacci, Patricia A. and Catherine O'Callaghan. 2012. *Promoting Literacy Development*. London: SAGE Publication.
- Bintz, William P. 2011. "Teaching Vocabulary Across Curriculum". In: *Middle School Journal*, Summer 2011: 44—54.
- Blachowicz, Camille L.Z., Peter J. Fisher, Susan Watts-Taffe. 2005. *Integrated Vocabulary Instruction: Meeting The Needs of Diverse Learners in Grade K-5*. Illinois: Learning Point.
- Boulton, Alex. 2011. "Data-Driven Learning: The Perpetual Enigma". In: S. Goźdz-Roszkowski (ed.), *Explorations across Languages and Corpora*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang, p. 563-580.
- Granger, Sylviane, Joseph Hung, and Stephanie Petch-Tyson. 2002. *Computer Learner Corpora, Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing.
- Johns, T. 1997. "Contexts: The Background, Development and Trialling of a Concordance-based CALL program". In: *Teaching and Language Corpora*, A. Wichmann, S. Fligelstone, T. McEnery and G. Knowles (eds.), 100—115. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Lenko-Szymanska, Agnieszka and Alex Boulton. 2015. *Corpora and Language Teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing.
- Lüdeling, Anke and Kytö, Merja (eds.). 2008. *Corpus Linguistics: An International Handbook Volume 1*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
- McCarten, Jeanne. 2007. *Teaching Vocabulary: Lessons from the Corpus, Lessons for the Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mukherjee, J. 2004. "Bridging the Gap Between Applied Corpus Linguistics and the Reality of English Language Teaching in Germany". In: *Applied Corpus Linguistics: A Multi-dimensional Perspective*, U. Connor and T.A. Upton (eds.), 239—250. Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Nam, Jihyun. 2010. "Linking Research and Practice: Effective Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary in the ESL Classroom". In: *TESL Canada Journal/Revue Tesl Du Canada* 127 Vol. 28 (1): 127—135.
- O'Keefe, Anne, Michael McCarthy, and Ronald Carter. 2007. *From Corpus to Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Römer, U. 2009. "Corpus Research and Practice: What Help Do Teachers Need and What Can We offer?" In: *Corpora and Language Teaching* [Studies in Corpus Linguistics 33]. K. Aijmer (ed.), 83—98. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Römer, U. 2010. "Using General and Specialized Corpora in English Language Teaching: Past, Present and Future". In: *Corpus-based Approaches to English Language Teaching*, M.C. Campoy-Cubillo, B. Bellés-Fortuño and L. Gea-Valor (eds.), 18–35. London: Continuum.
- Schmitt, Norbert. 2000. *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Warschauer, M. (2011). *Learning in the cloud: How (and why) to transform schools with digital media*. New York & London: Teachers College Press.
- Xiaowei, Guan. 2013. A Study on the Application of Data-driven Learning in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning in China's EFL Class." In: *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 105-112
- Yu-Ling, Lai. 2005. "Teaching Vocabulary Learning Strategies: Awareness, Beliefs, and Practices. A Survey of Taiwanese EFL Senior High School Teachers". Essex: Thesis of University of Essex.
- website: <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>

IMPLEMENTING TRIADIC DIALOGUE USING TPS STRATEGIES IN SPEAKING CLASS BY THE TWELFTH GRADE STUDENTS OF SMA NEGERI 9 SAMARINDA.

**Alfrida Pane Talebong, Theresia Hilda Kayani,
& Sekta Lonir Oscarini Wati Bakti**
fridapane24@gmail.com
ABA Colorado Samarinda

Abstract

This study aims to find out the improvement of teaching process by implementing the triadic dialogue using Think-Pair-Share strategies in speaking class, and to find out the student's perception toward the Triadic Dialogue using TPS in speaking class. The research was carried out at SMA Negeri 9 Samarinda of the twelfth grade students. The class consists of 30 students. This research is classroom action research. The results have shown that: (1) the implementation of triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class improve the teaching process. It shown on the teacher's checklist, the collaborators assessment and the field notes. At the end of this research teacher could find her own way of teaching speaking and showed her teaching skills (2) the implementation of triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class improve the learning process. The class average score showed the improvement of learning process. Even though the first cycle class average score; 80 (C) had already above minimum success criterion; the second cycle class average score has improved to 84 (B), (3) the student's perception toward the triadic dialogue using TPS in speaking class was good. Their perception in questionnaire showed that they were actively involved in learning process (100%), improving the student's fluency in speaking English and relieving their laziness in learning English (90%).

Keyword: *Triadic Dialogue, Think-Pair-Share Strategies, Speaking Class*

1. INTRODUCTION

There are some techniques can be applied in learning in the class. One of them is Think Pair Share strategies. TPS activity is a strategy in lectures or tutorials, even online, to enhance student learning by facilitating students' thinking about issue then interacting with one peer to explain their ideas and listening to their peer's idea. By explaining what they know, students clarify their own thinking as they have to articulate their thoughts to someone else and in doing so they may find what they do NOT know. (<http://intranet.ecu.edu.au>). In speaking class, there is always an interaction between the student and the student and between the student and the teacher. The dialogue will appear between them is caused by the topic delivered in the class. Commonly referred to as the recitation script, or triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990), the pattern involves the teacher posing a question to a student to which he or she usually already knows the answer. Based on the researcher's experience in teaching English, the researcher has found out that the students need to think hard to deliver their idea in speaking even they have to answer the easiest question from the teacher. This prove by the preliminary study in class that the researcher did. Most of the students said that they sometime understood the material but did not had time to share it or they need some confirmation for their ideas. This problem makes the researcher would like to implan.

2. Triadic Dialogue using Think Pair Share(TPS)strategies in speaking class.

2.1 Research Purposes

To find out the improvement of teaching process by implementing the triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class; to find out the improvement of student's learning process by implementing the triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class; and to find out the student's perception toward the Triadic Dialogue using TPS in speaking class

2.2 Review of Related Literature

2.2.1 Triadic Dialogue

Triadic dialogue is one of classroom talk pattern which involve the teacher to control the condition in the class. Lemke (1990: 168) said Triadic Dialogue is an activity structure whose greatest virtue is that it gives the teacher almost total control of classroom dialogue and social interaction.

2.2.2 Think-Pair-Share

TPS activity is a strategy in lectures or tutorials, even online, to enhance student learning by facilitating students' thinking about issue then interacting with one peer to explain their ideas and listening to their peer's idea. By explaining what they know, students clarify their own thinking as they have to articulate their thoughts to someone else and in doing so they may find what they do not know. (<http://intranet.ecu.edu.au>)

2.3 Speaking Ability

Burns and Joyce (1999:14) define speaking ability as an active process of negotiating meaning and using social knowledge of the situation, the topic and the other speaker, and it is more than a way of making conversation. Moreover, Brown (2001: 267) views speaking as interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information. While Harmer (2004: 269-271) looks as speaking in two different ways: 1) part of the discreet-language features that consist of elements necessary for spoken production: connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar and negotiation language. 2) Mental/Social processing that involves the knowledge of language skills consisting of language processing, interacting with others and (on-the-spot) information processing. Based on these definitions, speaking can be classified as a productive skill, which is integrated and cannot be separated from the other language skills: listening, reading and writing..

2.4 Strategies in Teaching Speaking

Nunan (1999: 228) classified interactions in speaking as a transactional talk

3. METHOD

This research was designed as a classroom action research in order to be able to improve the teaching-learning process through the implementation of triadic dialogue using TPS in speaking class. Koshy (2006: 1) defines action research as an enquiry undertaken with rigor and understanding so as to constantly refine practice; the emerging evidence-based outcomes will then contribute to the researching practitioner's continuing professional development during which the researchers constructs his or her knowledge of specific issues. Collaborator plays an important role in action research that it is important for the researcher to use his services to observe the teaching-learning process, students' responses, teacher's strategy and anything that happens in the classroom. Koshy (2006: 40) claims that an important feature of action

research is that it offers opportunities for collaborative work. The researcher believes that by collaborating with a partner, the results would be more satisfactory as expected.

3.1 Research Setting and Subjects

This research was conducted at SMA Negeri 9 Samarinda. The research subjects were the twelfth grade students of this secondary school during the 2014/2015 academic year consisting of around 30 students.

3.2 Research Procedure

This action research have the following steps: planning a change; acting and observing the process and consequence of the change; reflecting on these processes and consequences; then re-planning; and then acting and observing,

These steps are called the self-reflective (spiral) which was developed by Kemmis and McTaggar.

(a) Preliminary Research

This classroom action research had been initiated by a preliminary research by observing and giving a questionnaire in speaking class. The intention of preliminary study was to find out about the real problems confronted by students in sharing ideas in English. Students found it hard to initiate speaking because they unsure about what to say and how to say it.

(b) Planning the Action

In the planning stage, the collaborator and the researcher will be working on the students' problems found in the preliminary study regarding their speaking competence. The strategy that was used in this action research is the Cooperative Inquiry, while the technique to be used will be "Think – Pair - Share".

(c) Preparing the lesson plans

Lesson plans were prepared as guidelines for the collaborator and the researcher later in implementing real language usage to the students. Cohen et. al (2004:183) supported the use of lesson plans by stating that the proper ones should have explicit learning objectives, timed activities that are related to the stipulated learning objectives, use subject-specific language, match the students' needs, include the use of resources, and use prior evaluations to inform planning. The teacher made two lesson plans for this research.

(d) Determining the criteria of success

Based on government regulation in education, the standard of English subject for Senior High School students in Indonesia is 75. So if the portfolio result is above 75, it means the research is successful.

(e) Implementing the Action

As things need to be planned ahead, the collaborator and the researcher had to design the lesson plans, the activities to be employed and the well-prepared questionnaires to get along with the teaching cycles.

(f) Observation

The observation would constitute a process of recording and collecting inputs on any aspects or events that will have occurred during the cycles taken during the teaching-learning process using the strategy. The collaborator will play an important role as an observer involved in the implementation of the determined activities. The teacher was observed by two collaborators. The collaborators were the English lecturers. The collaborators monitored and detected what the action happening during the teaching-learning process. The observation forms were the teacher's performance Checklist, Field

Note and Collaborator Assessment

The Teacher's Performance Checklist: The following checklist was used to identify how the teacher performs in the classroom.

Table 2 The Teacher's Performance Checklist

No	Aspects of teaching	Description	Performed		Notes
			Yes	No	
1	The teacher encourages students to be actively involved in the teaching and learning process	▪ Teacher gives topics that interest them			
		▪ Teacher manages the class and has students to elicit words related to the topic			
2	Teacher motivates students to produce language.	▪ Teacher encourages students not to hesitate to produce language			
		▪ Teacher tells them not to be shy, nervous or afraid of making mistakes			
		▪ Teacher gives students more chance to practice.			
3	Teacher assists the students to improve their speaking skill	▪ Teacher gives the students opportunity to make a brief preparation			
		▪ Teacher encourages the students to practice speaking in a context.			
		▪ Teacher tells the students to speak English not Indonesian.			
		▪ Teacher assigns them to focus on situational dialogues.			
4	Teacher enables the students to judge and give feedback/ correction to their peers	▪ Teacher introduces and explains how to assess their classmates' performance			
		▪ Teacher gives them chance to tell what is wrong with the performance and gives correction			

Field Note

Field note recorded what was going in the class. There were six field notes for six meeting of cycle 1 and 2.

The Collaborator Assessment: There were 16 situations that the collaborators needed to pay attention to the teacher's performance in the class. The collaborators need to check into the two criterions given.

Table: The Collaborator Assessment

No	Situation	Yes	No
1.	Teacher opens the lesson with understandable intention to be achieved.		
2.	Teacher opens the lesson with understandable objective to be achieved.		
3.	Her instruction is clear and well-understood.		
4.	Her language of instruction is clear and well-understood.		
5.	Classroom is well-managed.		

6.	Teacher's interaction with students is well-established.		
7.	Teacher's oral English ability is good.		
8.	Teacher's written English ability is good.		
9.	The teaching media used are representative and clear.		
10.	The dialogue presented is clear and easy to imitate as a model.		
11.	The teaching stages: opening, teaching and closing are well-distinguished.		
12.	The teacher interacts very well with her students.		
13.	Students do not have hesitation to ask questions.		
14.	Students do not have hesitation to do what the teacher tells them to do.		
15.	Students are fully aware of the teachers' explanations and instructions.		
16.	Students can cooperate with their partners during the dialogue practice activities.		

(g) Questionnaire

It was used to find out about the students' responses after they had been taught using TPS. The questions were asked in Indonesia in order to avoid the students' confusedness. The questionnaire was adapted from Ariyani (2011)

NO	Questions	Yes	No
1	Do you feel the TPS strategy (large group , small group) is useful for improving your fluency in speaking English ?		
2	Do you often learn speaking by poetry and speech using TPS (large groups, small group)?		
3	Do you think that the techniques used by teachers in teaching speaking are interesting?		
4	Do you have difficulty in making poetry and speech using English with TPS strategy (large groups , small groups) ?		
5	Did the teacher often ask questions to you when learning activities using the TPS strategy?		
6	Were you active during learning activities using the TPS strategy given by the teacher?		
7	Did the teacher give a briefing prior to the learning process using the TPS strategy?		
8	Are you happy with the learning activities using TPS ?		
9	Do you think the learning activities using the TPS strategy can relieve your laziness?		
10	Do you think TPS strategy (mutual sharing to another friend) can help to improve your speaking ability?		

Table: Questionnaire

(h) Portfolio

The portfolio in this research is a collection of student's work in speaking ability. Here, portfolios used by the teacher were the students' performance in form of writing that had been performs in front of the class at third meeting in each cycle.

2.3 Data Analysis

In this research, the researcher would use both descriptive and inferential statistics. The researcher used some formulas to process the data from the observation and the questionnaire.

Table The Summary of Relationships among Research Questions, Data, Data Collection Methods and Procedures, and Data Analysis

2.3.1 Questionnaire

To answer the question statement of the research, the researcher would also process the data from the questionnaire that distributed to the participants after the class observation had been conducted. The researcher tabulated the data based on the variables to find out the frequencies, percentage, rank, mean and standard deviation, also tried to indicate the correlation between the participants' perspective on the English graduation requirement and those variables by a chi-square test that it was based on a comparison between expected frequencies and actual, and also obtained frequencies (Fraenkel & Wallen (1993). The researcher also used SPSS 19.0 to utilize the data from the questionnaire



2.3.2 Observation

The observation data was taken from the teacher performance checklist, field notes, and collaborator assessment filled in by the collaborator 1 and 2.

2.3.3 Portfolio

Portfolio was taken from the students' writing of poems and speeches from the third meeting of the first cycle and the second cycle. The results of the students were tabulated in order to find out the average score of the students. It is were scored by the teacher and the collaborators. And then the scores were classified into the criterion of minimum passing grade of SMAN 9 that is 75

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Observation

Before having cycle 1 and 2 to the students, the teacher introduce about what the triadic dialogue was as well as the using of TPS in the speaking class. Then, the teacher had to prepare the suitable material in teaching speaking so that the teacher could identify the triadic dialogue. The teacher also introduced the meaning of triadic dialogue and the using of TPS in the speaking class.

The Objective in Teaching Class: The objectives were the students were able to create the poem and the speech and the students were able to share their idea in poems and speeches with their friends in the group and in the class so that the students speaking ability would be increasing.

The Materials in Teaching Class: The teacher prepared two materials to achieve the objectives of teaching. The teacher prepared the examples of poems and speeches.

The Classroom Activities in Teaching Class: There were two cycles in the class that the researcher was going to analyze. Each cycle consisted of three meeting so that it spent six weeks for this research.

The Teacher Performance Checklist: From the table below, it shows that the teacher had fulfilled all the aspect of teaching when she taught in the class.

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

NO	Aspect of Teaching	Descriptions	COLLABORATOR 1 Meeting						COLLABORATOR 2 Meeting					
			1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	The teacher encourages students to be actively involved in the teaching and learning process.	Teacher gives topics that interest them	x	√	√	√	√	√	x	√	√	√	√	√
		Teacher manages the class and has students to elicit words related to the topic	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
2	Teacher motivates students to produce language.	Teacher encourages students not to hesitate to produce language	x	√	√	√	√	√	x	√	√	√	√	√
		Teacher tells them not to be shy, nervous or afraid of making mistakes	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
		Teacher gives students more chance to practice.	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
3	Teacher assists the students to improve their speaking skill	Teacher gives the students opportunity to make a brief preparation	x	√	√	√	√	√	x	√	√	√	√	√
		Teacher encourages the students to practice speaking in a context.	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
		Teacher tells the students to speak English not Indonesian.	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
		Teacher assigns them to focus on situational dialogues.	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
4	Teacher enables the students to judge and give feedback/correction to their peers	Teacher introduces and explains how to assess their classmates' performance	x	x	√	√	√	√	x	x	√	√	√	√
		Teacher gives them chance to tell what is wrong with the performance and gives correction	x	√	√	√	√	√	x	√	√	√	√	√

3.2 The Field Notes

There were some notes given to the teacher during her teaching from the first cycle to the second cycle. Those notes were made by each collaborator in the class when they observed the teaching-learning process.

The Collaborator Assessment: The improvements of teaching process were showed by the collaborators assessment result in the increased of percentage of the answer yes. The percentage of the first meeting was below 50%, where it considered. But at the end of the second cycle the percentage showed 100%, where it considered successful.

Table: The Collaborator Assessment Result

NO	SITUATION	COLLABORATOR 1 Meeting						COLLABORATOR 2 Meeting					
		1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Teacher opens the lesson with understandable intention to be achieved.	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes
2	Teacher opens the lesson with objective to be achieved.	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
3	Her instruction is clear and well-understood.	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
4	Her language of instruction is clear and well-understood.	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
5	Classroom is well-managed.	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	no	no	no	no	yes	yes
6	Teacher's interaction with students is well-established.	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes
7	Teacher's oral English ability is good	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
8	Teacher's written English ability is good	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
9	The teaching media used are representative and clear	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
10	The dialogue presented is clear and easy to imitate as a model	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
11	The teaching stages: opening, teaching and closing are well-distinguished.	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
12	The teacher interacts very well with her students	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
13	Students do not have hesitation to ask questions to the teacher	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
14	Students do not have hesitation to do what the teacher tells them to do.	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
15	Students are fully aware of the teachers' explanations and instructions.	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
16	Students can cooperate with their partners during the dialogue practice	no	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	no	no	yes	yes	yes
PERCENTAGE		31%	63%	88%	94%	100%	100%	31%	50%	75%	94%	100%	100%

3.3 Portfolio

This portfolio was taken from the students' score of their performance in speaking in each cycle. From the table we can see that the highest student average score was 87 (B) and the lowest student average score was 76 (C).

Table:

CYCLE 1					CYCLE 2				
Students	Score			Average Score	Students	Score			Average Score
	Teacher	Collaborator	Collaborator			Teacher	Collaborator	Collaborator	
1	76	76	78	77	1	78	80	78	79
2	86	76	80	81	2	86	80	82	83
3	76	74	78	76	3	88	86	86	87
4	78	76	80	78	4	82	84	80	82
5	76	76	76	76	5	86	86	86	86
6	78	76	80	78	6	78	78	80	79
7	80	86	86	84	7	88	86	86	87
8	88	86	86	87	8	86	84	88	86
9	86	86	88	87	9	86	86	88	87
10	88	82	82	84	10	84	84	86	85
11	80	82	82	81	11	88	90	86	88
12	76	76	78	77	12	86	86	88	87
13	80	82	78	80	13	88	88	88	88
14	82	82	82	82	14	82	82	82	82
15	86	84	86	85	15	86	88	86	87
16	86	84	84	85	16	88	90	90	89
17	78	82	86	82	17	88	82	86	85
18	78	78	80	79	18	88	86	88	87
19	84	86	82	84	19	84	84	84	84
20	78	78	76	77	20	78	76	74	76
21	76	74	78	76	21	74	76	78	76
22	78	80	76	78	22	88	88	90	89
23	78	76	80	78	23	78	76	76	77
24	80	78	80	79	24	82	78	80	80
25	88	86	82	85	25	84	86	82	84
26	86	86	86	86	26	88	84	86	86
27	78	78	76	77	27	86	86	88	87
28	78	76	80	78	28	82	88	88	86
29	76	76	76	76	29	80	84	86	83
30	76	78	80	78	30	86	86	88	87
CLASS SCORE AVERAGE				80	CLASS SCORE AVERAGE				84

3.4 The Questionnaire

The data was taken from the questionnaire that given to the students to give their opinion. The teacher used SPSS 15 to analysis all the data in this research. It was about to find out the students opinion about their performance in the class by using TPS Strategy and also the teacher performance in conducting the TPS Strategy.

Table: The Questionnaire Results

NO	QUESTIONS	YES		NO	
		N	%	N	%
1	Do you feel the TPS strategy (large group, small group) is useful for improving your fluency in speaking English?	27	90%	3	10%
2	Do you often learn speaking by poetry and speech using TPS (large groups, small group)?	11	37%	19	63%
3	Do you think that the techniques used by teachers in teaching speaking are interesting?	25	83%	5	17%
4	Do you have difficulty in making poetry and speech using English with TPS strategy (large groups , small groups) ?	19	63%	11	37%
5	Did the teacher often ask questions to you when learning activities using the TPS strategy?	23	77%	7	23%
6	Were you active during learning activities using the TPS strategy given by the teacher?	30	100%	0	0%
7	Did the teacher give a briefing prior to the learning process using the TPS strategy?	27	90%	3	10%
8	Are you happy with the learning activities using TPS?	25	83%	5	17%
9	Do you think the learning activities using the TPS strategy can relieve your laziness?	27	90%	3	10%
10	Do you think think-pair-share strategy (mutual sharing to another friend) can help to improve your speaking ability?	24	80%	6	20%

From the findings above, it could be concluded that almost of the students were happy with TPS strategy, that had been conducted by the teacher in the class. Overall, the teacher was successfully in conducting the new strategy, TPS strategy, to the students.

Discussions

The findings taken from the data of questionnaire and interview above would deeply help the researcher to answer the research questions delivered in the chapter one. The improvement of teaching process from both cycles showed that the implementing of triadic dialogue by using TPS Strategies in speaking class did improve the teaching process. The improvement of students' learning process from both cycles showed that the implementing of triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class did improve the students' learning process.

From the data, all the students (100%) agreed that they were active during learning activities using TPS strategy given by the teacher. It also gave the positive perceptions on TPS strategy in improving the students' fluency in speaking English (90%) and relieving the students' laziness in learning English (90%). The students were also happy with the learning activities using TPS (83%). And they thought that TPS strategy could help them to improve their speaking ability (80%)

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusions

From this research it can be concluded that in teaching process, the teacher did have problems in implementing triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class but could overcome it through time and at the end could improve her teaching skills. From the students' portfolios and the field notes showed that the implementing of triadic dialogue using TPS in speaking class did make differences, and from the questionnaire showed the good perception toward triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class. Based on the data above, this research can be concluded successful. The objective of this research is to implement the triadic dialogue using TPS strategies in speaking class in which proven by the result of this research. The results show that the implementation was successful.

Suggestions

For teachers who teach the speaking class, implementing triadic dialogue using TPS in your class will encourage the students to learn in good atmosphere and helps them to learn how to use previous knowledge. And also, this method will encourage teachers to enrich their teaching skills and knowledge on teaching material. At last for all the educator practitioners, it is suggested to do more research to find suitable answer for our education problem.

REFERENCES

- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. 2006. *Introduction to Research in Education*. Belmont: Thomson Publisher Limited.
- Brace, Ian. 2004. *Questionnaire Design How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research*. London & Sterling, VA: Market Research in Practice.
- Burns, A & Joyce, H. 1999. *Focus on Speaking*. Sidney. Syney: National Centre for English Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.

- Cohen, Louis, Manion, Lawrence & Morison, Keith. 2007. *Research Methods in Education* (6thed). New York:Routledge
- Dornyei, Zoltan. 2003. *Questionnaires in Second Language research Construction, Administration, and Processing*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publisher
- Folse, S. K. 2009. *The Arts of Teaching Speaking, Research and Pedagogy for the ESL/EFL Classroom*. Michigan: the University of Michigan Press.
- Fraenkle, J.R., and Wallen, N.E. 2000. *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education* (4thed). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Fraenkel, Jack R. and Wallen, N.E. (1990). *How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Gillham, Bill. 2000. *The Research Interview*. London:Contium
- Gillham, Bill.2005. *Research Interviewing The Range of Techniques*. London: Open University England. McGraw-Hill Education
- Harmer, J. 2004. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hurford, R. J., Heasley B., Smith, B. M. (2007). *Semantics, a Course Book. Second Edition*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Koshy, V. 2006. *Action Research for Improving Practice*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Lemke, Jay L. 1990. *Talking Science: Language, Learning, and Values*. USA: Ablex Publishing Corp.
- Mishler, Elliot G. 1991. *Research Interview Context and Narrative*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press
- Muijs, Daniel. 2004. *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. Sage Publication
- Nunan, D. 1999. *Second Language Teaching and Learning*, Boston: Heinle&Heinle Publishers, an International Thomson Publishing Company.
- Remendra P. D., Barustyawati S.A.A., 2007. *JurnalPenelitiandanPengembanganPendidikan*, August 2007, pages 1-17, Undiksah: JPPP, LembagaPenelitian
- Smith, Brown. <https://docs.google.com> (retrieved: 09 Mei 2012)
- Ur, P. 1996. *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Wells, G. 1999. Language as Education: Reconceptualizing Education as dialogue.
Annual Review of Linguistics 19., 135 - 155
- Wallace, J., M. 2000. *Action Research for Language Teachers*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
<http://dakota.fmpdata.net/PsychAI/PrintFiles/DefLrng.pdf> (retrieved on January 21st, 2014)
<http://www.uoguelph.ca> (retrieved on January 21st, 2014)
<http://intranet.ecu.edu.au> (retrieved on January 21st, 2014)

USING SILENT CARTOON MOVIES AS MEDIA IN TEACHING WRITING NARRATIVE TEXTS

Yeski Putri Utami

3okt011@gmail.com

University of Indonesia

Kampus UI, Kota Depok, Jawa Barat 16424

Abstract:

The purpose of this research was to test whether the effect of using silent movies as media had better achievement on students' writing ability of narrative text. Bernard Bear, Pororo, Shaun the ship, Charlie Chaplin cartoon series were examples of recommended silent movies that could be used as media in teaching writing. The research used Posttest Only Control Group Design, which means that students' ability in writing narrative text was measured after the students were given a treatment. In the process of writing, these silent movies could be used to teach the students about vocabularies-nouns, verbs, adjectives- as well as simple sentences (past tense) in order to write narrative texts. The instrument of this research was a test that the students were given some amount of time to write a narrative text. The result of this research showed that there were significant effects in both control group which did not use any media in teaching process and experiment group which used silent movies as media in learning process. After the treatment was given, it showed that using silent movies had better achievement on students' writing. It had been proven by students' scores and their motivation in writing at the end of the research. In summary, using silent movies as media could give better effect to students' writing ability in writing narrative text.

Keywords: silent movies, narrative text, writing

1. INTRODUCTION

In the curriculum of high school, it was stated that all skills in language learning program were given equal attention, which mean every skills such as; listening, speaking, reading and writing should be taught in the same conferrable part. Every skill has its own competence standard, indicator of goal achievement and purpose of learning. Moreover, the department of Education in Indonesia stated in the curriculum that the focus of learning English was to enable the students to communicate and create various written texts. In high School, there have been many genres to be mastered, such as recount, report, narrative, description, and procedure and exposition text. Therefore, he teachers cannot leave or abandon any of the skills to be taught because every skill is important.

After interviewing several students and English teachers from three different schools, it was showed that writing was considered as a difficult thing not only for the students but also for the teachers. Writing is a very complex skill, because writing is also about grammar usage and mechanic as well as text organization. However, the implementation of the curriculum faced some problems connected with the process of learning and teaching writing in class. Those problems arose not only from the students but also from the teachers.

Writing is a complex activity of a process as a way gets things done and product as the result. Nunan (2003) explained that writing is a combination of process and product. The process means the act of gathering ideas and working with the students until they are able to present a polished and comprehensible result to the readers. Lindsay and Knight (2006) stated that writing is putting together the letters into form of words, phrase, clauses, and sentences in making a coherent text. It can concluded, Nunan and Lindsay agree that writing is about

delivering ideas to the readers in form of sentences or statements, and paragraphs into a text. Meanwhile, the product is the final work after doing several processes of what the writer are trying to deliver to the reader. It means, the product and the processes support each other to produce and essay.

According to Singh (1994), writing performs at three stages: Pre-writing, Writing, and Post-writing. In pre-writing, the students are asked to have the planning of what they are going to write. The students need to consider the purpose of what they expect to achieve through their writing and the constraint; personal, material, system, and time. In writing activity, it's about how to generate the ideas and to develop them into written structures, which mean the students convey concrete information into a draft. At last, Post-writing activity is the stage of reviews, re-read and evaluates the draft until they get the final draft or the result.

In order to teach writing, the teacher can use media to help in preserving the writing material to the students, for example; television and internet. One of television program, which also can be found in the internet, is cartoon movies. Cartoon movies are a series of pictures presented in as films or clips. Using cartoon movies as the means for helping the students to see and to understand how exactly the plot develops is due to the four reasons to have English language practice and acquisition, as follow: (1) cartoon movies are enjoyable, (2) cartoon movies are easily available everywhere, (3) the timeline of the movies can be arrange as desirable, and (4) cartoon movies are serving the moral value of any condition of daily life, especially for students.

In this paper, One of cartoon movies answering the criteria above is Bernard Bear Cartoon movies (BBCM), this cartoon movies would such a perfect example. BBCM are a series of animated shorts fictional about bear's life. Each episode focuses on three minutes clips over the bear's curiosity and many moments of burlesque. Bernard never speaks, except the sound intelligible. Bernard is contained in the cartoons with a few other characters: Penguins Lloyd and Eve, the lizard Zack, the Chihuahua. The story is from not only everyday life but also retelling the past as well as telling about the future, which is served in more than 150 episodes. From those characteristics, it can be considered that the benefit can be taken from using this cartoon movie as a tool of teaching and learning Luis (2009) quotes

“Bernard Bear shows the comical adventure of a hairless polar bear who leaves his frigid homeland behind and travel to the world trying to have better understanding of lives. Bernard's travel take him to the tour corners of the globe and with every half adventure, he lives the audiences howly with laughter.”

In order to use BBCM as media, there are several Methods of using Movies for teaching that suggest by Maley (2001); first, *complete the timeline*, In this way, the students take notes to complete the timeline of the sequences events in the video. The students are also provided by a worksheet for each of them to make their first draft. Second, *eyewitness*. This method is addressed to the teacher. This way shows up how the teacher acts in the class; how to open the class to introduce the video, how to divide the class into groups and how to use the video weather it needs to be stopped or be replayed. In order to have better effect to the students, the combination of the complete timeline and the eyewitness are used. The purpose is to create a balance activity between the teacher and the students. So that, the activity will begin by divide the students' in-group. In the end, they are expected to have their own writing.

2. METHOD

The research involved experimental research, because it was the type of research that could test the hypothesis to establish cause-effect relations, in order to expose and explain the

effect of using BBCM as media in teaching writing. According to Gay (2009:240) this research determines at least one independent variable, and observes one or more dependent variables. The independent variable, also called the treatment, causal or experimental variable, which means the treatment or characteristic, believed to make a difference. The dependent variable might be a test. The manipulations of an independent variable were the primary characters that differentiate experimental research form other type of research.

In this method, there were two kinds of groups. First, the group that received new treatment was called experimental group. The new treatment for this group was using BBCM a media to teach writing. Second, the group that did not receive any new treatment was called the control group.

Fig. 1, Research design

Research design		
Posttest-Only control group design		
C	X	O
C	-	O

Symbols

- X = using BBCM;
- = without BBCM
- O = posttest;
- C = sampling

The population of this research was the students of SMP Negeri 1 Payakumbuh. Specially, the students of VIII grades registered in 2009/2010. The VIII grades in SMP Negeri 1 Payakumbuh consisted of 139 students are divided into 6 classes for RSBI (*Rintisan Sekolah Berstandar Internasional*) The researcher chose these grades because base on the curriculum narrative text is taught in first and second semester of second grade students in Senior High School.

In order to get the quantitative data, the instrument of this research was a writing test. The first test was conducted to determine the students' level of writing. So that, two groups with a similar level could be chosen to determine which classes were going to receive the treatment. After conducting the experiment by using different types of media to both groups, the students' comprehension was measured by giving them a posttest. The students are then asked to write a narrative text. Then, their comprehension was compared.

This experimental research was conducted by employing the following procedures:

1. Preparation

This was the stage to determine the research time, prepare the lesson plan and prepare the writing test for posttest.

2. Pretest

This test was conducted before the treatment, in order to choose which groups were going to be used as Experimental group and control group. From the result of the test, the normality and homogeneity were checked. After that, it used t-test formula to prove that both groups were in the same level.

3. Treatment

The treatment was prepared for at least 8 meetings. It focuses on teaching narrative text for both experiment groups. The researcher took a role as the teacher during the treatment. In the procedure of teaching, it is consist of opening the class, pre-teaching activity, Whilst-teaching activity, and post-teaching activity. For both groups had been used the same steps in teaching procedure but the experiment group was using BBCM as media meanwhile the other group was not.

In experimental group, when opening the class, the teacher led the students to pray, check the students' readiness and then review the previous lesson. In pre-teaching activity, the teacher introduces the lesson by using BBCM then asks several questions to the student based on the movies, for example: How many characters in the video? Who are they? What was the problem faced by main character? Etc. In whilst-teaching activity, the teacher start to explain the theory of narrative text and lead them to understand the plot, generic structure and language features of narrative text, then the teacher lead the students to start their writing based on BBCM story. Meanwhile, in Control group, the activity is almost the same. The only different is the activity are using Bernard Bear but using a text in modeling the lesson. So that, in whilst-teaching activity, there is on step called reading aloud to help the students understand the story.

4. Posttest

The posttest was conducted after the treatment. There were 2 purposes of doing this test. First, it used to check students' development after they were given the treatment. Second, this test was arranged to check which procedure that was given better effect to be used in teaching narrative text.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In the beginning of the research, the students were given a test to determine whether they were in the same level or not. The normality and homogenous of both sampling group was examined. After 9 meetings of applying the treatment, both groups were tested again by giving them a posttest. Before the posttest was administered to both groups, the test sheets were validated by using content validity. Moreover, to ensure the reliability of the test, the research used inter-rater reliability. Each rater was given a scoring rubric for composition in "Standar Kompetensi Lulusan dan Spesifikasi Ujian Akhir SMP/MTS" in order to make sure that each rater had the same criteria in giving scores. Finally, the test was administered to both sample groups; experimental and control groups.

This research was arranged to investigate whether using BBCM as media gave better effect on students' ability on writing a narrative text or not. The formulation of hypothesis testing had proven that using BBCM gave better effect on students' ability on writing narrative text. However, there were several explanations for the result of the hypothesis writing. First, the students were entertained by this cartoon movie. This was such a good first step in order to catch students' attention. This case let them enjoyed the learning process writing. If teaching writing were begin with reading, the students were doing some other unrelated activities such as, opening other books, or making the homework of other subjects. Nevertheless, when the learning process was begun with something they were interested in such this cartoon movie-Bernard Bear. The students would so curious about the learning material, they were curious about they were going to watch. They had been watch the cartoon movies enjoyable as well as answering questions given.

Moreover, the students felt so excited in writing a new story. BBCM served more interesting

stories that consisted of simple content of generic structure such as simple orientation, simple complication and simple resolution. It was different with the usual story they learnt before. Most of the stories were legend and myth, something that they already knew since they were little kids. Retelling those stories more and more in writing form was such boring activities for the students.

In Dediknas (2006:2) about affective assessing in KTSP says that “ranah afektif menentukan keberhasilan belajar siswa”. Those words explain that the students who did not interest in one subject would find some difficult thing to turn the learning opportunities into optimal success. The students that had been interesting in a subject and had positive behavior in one subject would be so enjoy in the learning process, in addition, they would feel the subject was in case of necessity.

In addition, from the scoring rubric used in students’ writing test, there were six categories such as content, grammar, generic structure, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling. From those categories, content and generic structures were increased most. Since this cartoon movie served some kind a new story by simple form of daily activities. Moreover, before the students wrote the plot retelling, they could see it first. In short, using this cartoon movie as media is better to be implemented in serving new story and generic structures to be written by the students. So that, using BBCM as media on teaching writing can improve students’ ability and increase their comprehension in understanding the content and the generic structure. Moreover the related finding by the experts also supported this media

Meanwhile, Posttest only control group design was such a good method to assess a new treatment. It could see the effect of the treatment after being implemented to a group. Unfortunately using this research design was also risky because this research was only concern about the result. It showed only that the treatment of experiment group was more effective than the control group because it gave better effect to the students then the other treatment. The evident was taking from the different of the groups’ scores mean.

Since this research was intended to see the different of a new treatment. It is better for the researcher to include the pretest in order to determine that the students were in the same level to reduce the unexpected probability. However, if the research was done to different students of different level, the result might not the same. Trochim (in Pândê, 2008) says that a pretest is not required for this design. Usually pretest was included in order to determine whether groups are comparable prior to the program. It means that the posttest only control group design can be arranged if the students’ level were approximately equivalent.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The data collected has been examined by using t-test formula. Referring to this result, using Bernard Bear cartoon movie as media had better effect in order to improve students’ ability on writing narrative text. Therefore, the students who were taught by using Bernard Bear cartoon movie had better achievement in writing narrative texts. Related to the findings of this research, it is suggested to the teachers to use Bernard Bear cartoon movies as media in teaching writing. This media is considered can students’ comprehension as well as improve students’ ability in writing narrative text. Moreover, this research already statistically proves that this media in give better effect. So that, using this media in teaching process is highly recommended. However, it is suggested that the future research can analyze the effect of this media in other kind of text types, or other kind of English skills. Since, this media shows better achievement on writing ability, it might be possible due to apply it in other skills.

REFERENCES

- Celce-Muria, Marianne. (2001). *Teaching english as a second or foreign language*, (3rd ed.). Washington: Heinle & Heinle.
- Depdiknas. (2004). *Standard kompetensi lulusan dan spesifikasi ujian akhir smp/mts*. Jakarta: Pusat Penilaian Pendidikan, badan penelitian dan pengembangan Depdiknas
- Gay, L R. (2009). *Educational research: competencies for analysis and application* (9th ed). Colombus: Merrill.
- Gilbert, Melanie. (1993). Using movies for teaching low-level students of english. *Journal of English Teaching Forum*, 4, 45-55.
- Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). *How to teach writing*. England: Associated Companies.
- King, Jane. (2002). *Using DVD feature films in the EFL classroom*. China. March 14, 2012. <http://www.EFLgold.com>
- Lingzhu, J. (2009). *Genre-based approach for teaching factual writing (online)*. March 17, 2012. <http://www.htmag.co.uk/apr09/mart02.htm>
- Lindsay, Cora & Paul Knight. (2006). *Learning and teaching english a course for teachers*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Pândê, Râmakumârâ. (2008). *Nepalese cartoon: himalayan humor sense of humor series*. Michigan: University of Michigan. September 4, 2008. http://books.google.co.id/books?id_nature+of+cartoon

STUDENT – GENERATED PODCASTS AS AN ALTERNATIVE REFLECTIVE ASSESSMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

Ahmad Syafi'i

ahmadsyafii20@gmail.com

STKIP AL HIKMAH SURABAYA

Jalan Kebonsari Elveka V Surabaya, Indonesia

Abstract

Critical reflective teaching has been a goal of English teacher preparation program. Though many English educators have promoted and carried out reflective teaching in their methodology courses, success of such practice has been limited, not sufficiently reflecting what has been desired. It indicates that an innovative reflective teaching needs to be incorporated. Hence, incorporating technology within the whole process is inevitable. Student-generated podcasts (reflective podcasts) might be incorporated an alternative reflective teaching assessment. In addition to, podcasts are fairly easy for students to generate using audio recorders and commonly available free compression software. This study explores 10 podcasts produced by 10 preservice English teachers after doing observation in the host school. In the first year, the students are obliged to observe the class. They are asked to monitor the process happening during the teaching and learning process, including the students' behavior and the teacher's activities inside the class. The student must be able to explain the same materials they observed before. Therefore, the students are asked to choose any materials they have discussed before. They had to practise to explain those materials in front of their peers. Then record their explanation in the form of podcasts. Student – generated podcasts were self assessed, and shared online in order to invite formative feedback from peers and also lecturers. A range of positive outcomes are reported, whereby students learned about and through podcasting, engaging in reflection, problem solving and interactive formative assessment.

Keywords: *student-generated podcasts, reflective assessment, teacher education*

1. INTRODUCTION

Reflective teaching from teaching experience is viewed as a significant component of English teacher education and it is a crucial part of English teacher training program. Teaching practice has been intensively conducted in teacher education. It is a program when preservice teachers have the chance to bridge the gap between the theoretical knowledge they learn and practical knowledge they encounter in the real classroom with real students. Teaching real students might be something different. In addition, teaching real students should not be considered as a simple task (Astika: 2014). Furthermore, teaching practice is also a way to connect theoretical knowledge and authentic materials. Unfortunately, the preservice teachers were not provided sufficient time to do micro teaching. It is generally conducted a year before they graduate from teacher education. Consequently, it does not adequately prepare new teachers for life in classrooms because it relies heavily on demonstrations and simulations that are not authentic (Thompson: 2007).

New technologies have opened up new options for teaching and learning. The arrival of the podcast presents teachers in every kind of institution with an invaluable learning resource and assessment opportunity. A podcast is a digital media file that plays sound, is accessed from a website, and can be opened and/or downloaded to play on a computer or portable player (Forbes, et al: 2012). While the use of audio recordings in education is not new, podcasting

offers convenience and flexibility due to the relative ease of recording, editing and uploading, as well as accessing and subscribing to podcasts (Forbes, et.al: 202; Harvey, 2008). Podcasting is valuable for supporting learner flexibility and control, motivation and engagement, cognition and learning, and novel opportunities for teaching (Forbes, et.al: 2012; Salmon & Nie, 2008). It differs from established microteaching in a number of important ways. In addition, podcasting demonstrates the dynamic and creative uses of language. It demonstrates, somewhat dramatically, one way in which the world where we live is changing. Podcasts as an appropriate model of autonomous learning and authentic assessment. It will be demonstrated that using podcasts in teaching, promotes creativity and supports learner autonomy. Of the many technological resources available, podcasting has emerged as a teaching and learning tool that is easy to deliver and has the convenience of access. Furthermore, podcasts can be used as a student assessment tool and this represents a clear extension to the present pedagogy, taking the form of a regular discourse analysis.

This study explores 10 podcasts produced by 10 preservice English teachers after doing observation in the host school. In the first year, the students are obliged to observe the class. They are asked to monitor the process happening during the teaching and learning process, including the students' behavior and the teacher's activities inside the class. The student must be able to explain the same materials they observed before. Therefore, the students are asked to choose any materials they have discussed before. They had to practise to explain those materials in front of their peers. Then record their explanation in the form of podcasts. Student – generated podcasts were self assessed, and shared online in order to invite formative feedback from peers and also lecturers.

2. METHOD

The participants of the study were 10 preservice teachers who were taking the course in the second semester of the 2014-2015 academic year. These students conducted their observation in the seventh and eighth year classes of junior high schools. The instruments applied in this study was peer review and self-reflection. The preservice teachers ought to listen their own podcasts. Then, analyze its strengths and weaknesses. After that, re-record their voice based on their own comments. As self reflective assesment, preservice teachers were asked to listen to their own podcasts. Then, identify their weaknesses, especially based on their podcasts. Next, They ought to create another better podcasts. In other hand, the other students should also listen to the other podcasts. Then, give comments and feedbacks. It was hoped that by evaluating other podcasts, preservice teachers would develop critical insight & greater self-awareness that would help in future lesson planning and teaching. This is considered to be central to becoming a member of tomorrow's teaching profession.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This current study is carried out to attempt to find out the way podcasts utilized as an alternative self reflective assessment instrument. The study reveals that podcasts are effective enough to be used as an alternative instrument in assessing preservice teacher. Creating a podcast is a micro-teaching experience with built-in autonomy. Each student selects the materials to teach. They have unlimited time within the 4 week time-frame, to plan, practise, rehearse, revise and re-record their podcast. Each decides when the podcast is available for public scrutiny, comment and feedback. It is that distinguishes the podcast project as different from conventional microteaching using video recording. Each student enjoys a great degree of autonomy. Furthermore, podcasts are a particularly powerful resource for language teachers who

are constantly expanding their personal language repertoire. Podcasts provide the opportunity to practise, experiment, innovate, self-correct and improve. In this sense it provides the ultimate microteaching experience. There is instant and individualised feedback to the students. The opportunity to self-correct and practise is infinite.

The podcast relies solely on voice. This is a vital, if rather neglected aspect of professional preparation of beginning and experienced teachers. The podcast nurtures creativity. Recent discussion of student assessment has focused on ways of detecting and preventing inappropriate student behaviour and plagiarism. For this assessment task, plagiarism is not possible because it is all about creativity. Voice and styles of speaking are unique. During the process of creating their podcasts trainees learn a lot of other things simultaneously, so as well as being an authentic learning experience.

The students commented on students' increasing technical confidence and skill with generating and sharing their podcasts. It forced a number of students to engage with the technology, tools that we otherwise might not have used. The skills involved in podcasting were valuable and relevant to students' future teaching careers, highlighting the possibilities for teachers as future makers and as leaders in a climate of change. They can use podcasting in their own teaching practice. Some have shared their students' work in their podcasts, which was really good. As the course is online media based, it only makes sense to include podcasting. They become more IT literate and confident as a result. This is not just a removed learning activity; there is a life beyond this. These are skills they can use in class.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Generally speaking, the present study confirms that podcast could be utilized as an alternative self reflective assessment instrument. The students were able to measure their own pedagogical competences. In addition to, podcast requires the students to develop a critical awareness of other e-media. This is important for critical evaluation and selection of appropriate teaching resources. Furthermore, it requires the students to create original teaching materials. This was considered important because teachers had to design their own teaching materials. The skills involved in podcasting were valuable and relevant to students' future teaching careers, highlighting the possibilities for teachers as future makers and as leaders in a climate of change. They can use podcasting in their own teaching practice. Some have shared their students' work in their podcasts, which was really good. As the course is online media based, it only makes sense to include podcasting. They become more IT literate and confident as a result. This is not just a removed learning activity; there is a life beyond this. These are skills they can use in class.

REFERENCES

- Astika, Gusti. (2014). Reflective Teaching as Alternative Assessment in Teacher Education: A case study of pre-service teachers. *Teflin Journal*, 25(1), 16-32
- Forbes, D., Khoo, E., & Johnson, E.M. (2012). "It gave me a much more personal connection": Student-generated podcasting and assessment in teacher education.
- Khoo, E., Forbes, D., & Johnson, E. M. (2013). "Hearing the thoughts of others": Student voices and affordances of podcasting for learning. In H. Carter, M. Gosper and J. Hedberg (Eds.), *Electric Dreams. Proceedings ascilite 2013 Sydney*. (pp.481-486)

Thompson, L. (2007). Podcasting: The ultimate learning experience and authentic assessment. In ICT: Providing choices for learners and learning. Proceedings ascilite Singapore 2007. <http://www.ascilite.org.au/conferences/singapore07/procs/thompson-poster.pdf>

IDENTIFYING RHETORICAL NEED OF INDONESIAN SCHOLARS PUBLISHING RESEARCH IN INTERNATIONAL JOURNALS: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY

I Nyoman Suka Sanjaya

suka.sanjaya@gmail.com

Anak Agung Raka Sitawati

apute@yahoo.com

Ni Ketut Suciani

inss159@outlook.com

Politeknik Negeri Bali

Bukit Jimbaran, Tuban – Bali

Abstract

Indonesian academics are now under constant pressure to publish their research in international journals as the Indonesian academic reward system has determined that to move up to a certain academic rank they need to have at least one research published in an international journal. Yet there is a paucity of research studies examining the rhetorical need of Indonesian academics wishing to publish in English language international journals. The present need-analytic, corpus-based study sought to analyze the rhetorical need of Indonesian academics reporting their research in English for international publication. More specifically, the study was designed to examine the extent to which English and Indonesian scholars differ significantly from each other in terms of rate of use of hedges when they write research articles in their respective L1s. To this end, a corpus of 26 Indonesian Applied Linguistics research articles was compared with a corpus of 26 English Applied Linguistics research articles written by native speakers of the respective languages in terms of frequency of use of hedges, i.e. rhetorical features, such as may, perhaps, suggest, used to withhold complete commitment to the truth-value of propositions. The research articles analyzed in the study were published between 2007 and 2010. The assumption of the study was that when they report their research in English Indonesian academics will deploy rhetorical characteristics inherent in the Indonesian academic writing. The statistical analysis revealed that English research articles contained significantly more hedges than their Indonesian counterparts (Mann-Whitney $U = 68.00$, $n_1 = n_2 = 26$, $p < 0.05$, $r = -0.69$), suggesting that Indonesian academics are indeed in need of instruction which specifically focuses on how to hedge propositions in English.

Keywords: *hedges, Indonesian research articles, English research articles, rhetorical need analysis*

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, a myriad of research studies specifically designed to examine the English language needs of non-native speakers have been carried out (Chostelidou, 2010; İnceçay & İnceçay, 2010; Kassim & Ali, 2010; Lambert, 2010; Atai & Nazari, 2011; Atai & Shoja, 2011; Moslemi, Moinzadeh, & Dabaghi, 2011; Kim, 2013; Paci, 2013; Spence & Liu, 2013; Stocker & Reddad, 2013; Gözüyeşil, 2014; Klimova, 2014; Rostami & Zafarghandi, 2014). With the exception of the study carried out by Miller (2011) that identified the reading skills needed by second language (L2) students, virtually no study carried out over the last decade made any attempt to analyze authentic texts (either spoken or written, or both) with which the target students would have to deal. Of particular relevance to the study reported on in this paper is the fact that no study was conducted to analyze the academic English language needs of Indonesian students. This strongly suggests that EAP programs in Indonesia have thus

far been conducted based on the presently unjustified teachers' intuition (i.e. what works in other contexts also works in Indonesia), rather than on research findings.

The present study attempted to fill this lacuna by examining the English academic writing skills that Indonesian academics need when publishing their research in English-medium international journals. In particular, the study was geared towards investigating to what extent English and Indonesian scholars differ significantly from each other in terms of rate of use of hedges when they write research articles in their respective L1s. The underlying assumption of the present study is that when writers write in their L2, they will use the rhetorical structure associated with their native language (cf. Alonso, Alonso, & Mariñas, 2012). Thus, the analysis of the Indonesian research articles could be argued to represent present situation analysis, while the analysis of the English research articles could be seen as target situation analysis, the two types of analyses conducted in any needs analysis study (Hyland, 2006).

The constant pressure to publish in elite international scholarly journals (i.e. journals that are indexed in citation indexes published by Thomson Reuters) "has grown tremendously worldwide over the past thirty years or so" (Salager-Meyer, 2014, p. 79). Although not yet determined as a major criterion for promotion, international publications are accorded higher status in the Indonesian academic rewards system. In fact, to be considered as a professor (i.e. the highest academic rank in the Indonesian academic ranking system) a lecturer needs to publish in international journals with a sufficiently high impact factor. Not only that, Indonesian academic reward system has also recently determined that to move up to a certain academic rank a lecturer holding a master's degree needs to have at least one research published in an international journal. This situation certainly requires that Indonesian scholars have rhetorical skills necessary for international publications. One such rhetorical skill is knowledge of hedges.

Hedges, broadly defined as linguistic devices used to downgrade the force of a proposition (e.g. *perhaps, seem, likely*), constitute important rhetorical features in English written academic discourse (Hyland, 2009). Research shows that an argument presented in a way that is open to debate and discussion (through various hedging devices) is thought of being more convincing and credible than a categorical one (Abbuhl, 2006; Dafouz-Milne, 2008).

The present study draws on the sociocultural model of literacy that posits that "literacy is a social practice ... always embedded in socially constructed epistemological principles" (Street, 2003, p. 77). As such, literacy is not a mental phenomenon, as advocated by adherents of traditional cognitive psychology, but rather a sociocultural one (Gee, 2012). It implies that in producing an academic written text writers are engaged in social and cultural practices. Of particular relevance to the present study is the argument that written texts and sociocultural contexts are inextricably linked. This leads us to characterize academic literacy not as a single monolithic entity, but rather as many things in different contexts and cultures.

The objectives of the present study are two-fold: first, to examine whether English and Indonesian scholars hedge their propositions to the same extent when they report their research in scholarly journals; second, to introduce the use of corpus method in needs analysis research, a method which did not attract the attention of needs analysts. The practical (i.e. pedagogical) significance of the present study is no doubt obvious. The findings can inform EAP practitioners in Indonesia about whether or not training to hedge proposition is to be included into their programs, especially those designed to meet English rhetorical skills needed by Indonesian scholars. The research question of the present study is as follows:

RQ: Do English and Indonesian scholars differ significantly from each other in terms of rate of use of hedges when they write research articles in their respective L1s?

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: after the description of method used in the study in the following section, the study's finding is presented and interpreted. Finally, in the concluding section, limitations of the study are briefly described and suggestions for future research are made.

2. METHOD

2.1 Corpus

The corpus for the present study was generated from 52 research articles taken from the discipline of Applied Linguistics written in English (n = 26; 177,322 words long) and Indonesian (n = 26; 105,246 words long) by the native speakers of the respective languages. The means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of the lengths of the articles included in the two corpora were as follows: English (M = 6,820.08 words; SD = 1,050.73 words) and Indonesian (M = 4,047.92 words; SD = 1,105.29 words).

The target population was operationally defined in the present study as all research articles from Applied Linguistics written by the native speakers of the two languages published in two online journals between 2007 and 2010. The English articles were drawn from *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford University Press) and *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* (Wiley-Blackwell), whereas the Indonesian articles were taken from *Linguistika* (Udayana University Press) and *Logat* (North Sumatera University Press). The entire corpus was generated from the following research articles sections: Introduction, Theoretical Framework (Literature Review), Results, Discussion, and Conclusion.

2.2 Procedure

A combination of manual and computer-based searches was employed to identify hedges in the corpus. First, over twenty-five per cent of the articles from each of the two languages (i.e. seven articles from English articles and seven from Indonesian) were thoroughly read to identify the hedges used. Then, two independent lists of lexical hedges were generated from this manual reading: Indonesian list and English list. These two lists of lexical hedges were subsequently used as the basis for the computer-based search in the rest of the respective corpora (English corpus and Indonesian corpus). The search was done with the help of the Advanced Search function in the Adobe Acrobat Professional X program.

In the identification of hedges, the definition of a hedging device proposed by Hyland (1996) was strictly adhered to: "A hedge is ... any linguistic means used to indicate either (a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth of a proposition, or (b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically" (p. 251). Any hedge found in a sentence used by the author(s) to cite other authors' viewpoint was excluded from the analysis, since the author(s) merely reported the tentative statement of the cited author, rather than stated their own viewpoint.

2.3 Data Analysis

As could easily be expected, the lengths of the research articles (measured in words) within and across languages were not the same. For this reason alone, the analysis was conducted on the normalized, rather than the absolute or raw, occurrences of hedges. The counts of hedges in the present study were normed to a basis per 1,000 words of text, and the following normalization formula was used:

$$\frac{N \text{ of occurrences of hedges in a text}}{N \text{ of words of the text}} \times 1,000$$

To reiterate, the research question of the present study is the following: “Do English Applied Linguistics research articles contain significantly more hedges than Indonesian Applied Linguistics research articles?” The statistical tool employed to answer this research question was Mann-Whitney U test, the non-parametric test used to determine whether two groups of scores are significantly different from each other (Corder & Foreman, 2014). This statistical test was used since the data were not normally distributed, as indicated by the results of normality test using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: English ($D = 0.22$, $n = 26$, $p < 0.05$) and Indonesian ($D = 0.26$, $n = 26$, $p < 0.05$). All the statistical analyses were carried out with the help of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 20. To determine the magnitude of difference (if there was any significant difference) between the two groups of research articles, effect size was also calculated. Following Field (2013), the following equation was used to manually compute the effect size estimate for Mann-Whitney U test:

$$r = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{N}}$$

where:

r = effect size estimate

Z = z-score obtained from the SPSS output, and

N = the sample size involved

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the quantitative results of the present study and their interpretation. After the presentation of descriptive and inferential statistics of the data, this section proceeds to discuss those results in the light of the theoretical framework adopted in the study and the results of previous studies. Finally, the pedagogical implication is offered.

A total of 1,808 hedges could be identified in the English corpus. As such, since the corpus contained 26 research articles, on average a single English article contained 69.54 hedges. A different picture emerged in the Indonesian corpus. Compared to the English corpus, the Indonesian corpus contained lower number of hedges. The total of 429 hedges found in the Indonesian corpus indicated that on average in a single Indonesian article 16.5 hedges were used. The difference in the total hedging devices found in the two corpora under study can be explained in terms of the differing lengths of research articles included in the two corpora. The following is a sample sentence from each of the two corpora containing hedges (hedging devices underlined):

- (1) ... it may indicate the vocabulary size necessary to understand a text as well as to incidentally learn words in the text.
- (2) Bahasa yang digunakan dalam komunikasi pada umumnya tidak bersifat monolitik.

The mean number of hedges used in a 1,000-word text in the English corpus was 10.20 and the standard deviation was 4.69, whereas in the corresponding Indonesian corpus the mean number was 4.43 and the standard deviation was 3.69. On the face of it, it seemed that the English applied linguists used more hedges in their research articles. As indicated by the standard deviations,

the two data sets were not equal in their dispersion. The slightly smaller magnitude of standard deviation of the Indonesian data set showed that its data values were slightly more concentrated around the mean compared to the data values for the English data set. This in turn indicated that the Indonesian applied linguists were slightly more homogeneous in terms of frequency of usage of hedges in their research articles. The descriptive statistics of the usage of hedges in the English and Indonesian are summarized in the following table.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics (per 1,000 words)

Language	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
English	26	4.22	27.26	10.20	4.69
Indonesian	26	1.03	18.50	4.43	3.69

As has been mentioned above, since the data sets summarized in the above table did not satisfy the parametric assumption of normal distribution, they were analyzed using the non-parametric version of the test used to compare two sets of data, namely Mann-Whitney U test. The result of the statistical test revealed that the mean of the English data set was significantly different from the mean of the Indonesian data set (Mann-Whitney $U = 68.00$, $n_1 = n_2 = 26$, $p < 0.05$, $r = -0.69$). This result strongly indicated that the English applied linguists publishing in international journals used hedges significantly more frequently in their research articles than their Indonesian colleagues (English mean rank = 36.88; Indonesian mean rank = 16.21; see also Table 1 above). The magnitude of the effect size showed that the difference between the two means were large, which could be translated as the large difference between the two groups of applied linguists in terms of their rhetorical behavior when they wrote scholarly articles in their respective native languages. That is, English applied linguists were much more tentative in their propositions than the Indonesian applied linguists. In other words, the statements made by the Indonesian scholars were much more categorical compared to the statements made by their English counterparts.

The paucity of hedging devices in the Indonesian research articles strongly suggests that, unlike their English colleagues, the Indonesian applied linguists may perceive that things in this world either are the case or are not. This may be triggered by their negative perception towards uncertainty. It is to be noted that hedging devices are in fact uncertainty markers. The widespread belief circulating among the Indonesian scholars might be that hedging usage is a sign of the lack of knowledgeability. The rhetorical patterning of research article introduction written in Indonesian provides telling evidence that the expertise of a researcher (and the absolute authority which comes with it) is not supposed to be questioned. Adnan (2008) showed that none of the 63 article introductions he analyzed contained critical evaluation of the previous studies. Adnan argued that such absence of critical comments on previous studies is the upshot of the Indonesian cultural values which consider criticism as unethical. Although this explanation is undoubtedly legitimate, it could also be argued that it is by virtue of the unstated beliefs (i.e. cultural models) which regard researchers (in this case, university teachers) as experts who are not supposed to be challenged, or even criticized. English scholars in the present study, by contrast, did not seem to see themselves as being endowed with absolute authority, and hence they did not operate within the same cultural model as Indonesian scholars did. Granted, English scholars are also perceived as experts in their field, but such status is quite different from the status as experts ascribed to their Indonesian colleagues; the difference lies in its vulnerability to criticisms. Analysis of any English research article introduction will provide

solid evidence which suggests that the expertise of English scholars is susceptible to criticism. When a writer attempts to fill a knowledge gap, he or she typically argues that what has been done by previous researchers is limited, which is clearly a negative evaluation geared towards those previous researchers (Swales, 1990). This might trigger the more frequent use of hedges in English research articles.

It should be borne in mind that Indonesian scholars are not the only group scholars who holds such a belief. Alonso et al. (2012) also found that native speakers of Spanish negatively perceive hedging as a sign of lack of commitment to the truth-value of the propositions presented. Therefore, it would not be unreasonable to argue that rhetorical behavior displayed by a writer and worldviews he or she adopts are intertwined. As in the words of Gee (2012, p. 77), “what is at issue in the use of language is different ways of knowing and different ways of making sense of the world of human experience.” The English and Indonesian researchers in the present study seemed to adapt to different ways of understanding, interpreting and organizing knowledge. What it all boils down to is the claim advanced in the sociocultural approach to literacy that literacy, or for that matter academic literacy, is not to be considered a singular thing but as a plural set of social practices.

Gee (2015, p. 40) convincingly argued that: “Any technology, including writing, is a cultural form. It is a social product whose shape and influence depend upon prior political and ideological factors.” The differential rhetorical characteristics inherent in the two groups of research articles are the byproduct of the similar differential prevailing ideologies (i.e. beliefs and value systems) valorized by the two sociocultural contexts within which the two groups of researchers operate. Within the Indonesian sociocultural context, the prevailing ideology might be that ideas should be stated with conviction, whereas within the English sociocultural context the dominant ideology might be that ideas should be embraced with sufficient caution. It is to be noted that not all Indonesian and English researchers adopt the respective ideologies to the same extent. This is clearly indicated by the fact that the standard deviations in the two groups of data were not zero. Statistically speaking, standard deviation provides information regarding the extent to which the data gather around the mean (i.e. average) value. Less technically speaking, in the two sociocultural contexts some researchers embraced the respective ideologies more than others did. It might be that some Indonesian researchers wrote their research articles following the rhetorical structure adopted by the majority of English researchers, and some English researchers composed their research articles following the rhetorical structure adopted by the majority of Indonesian researchers.

The result of the present study substantiated Hyland’s (2011, p. 181) contention that “compared with many languages English academic writing tends to be more cautious in making claims, with considerable use of mitigation and hedging.” Hedges seem to be the *sine qua non* of current English language research articles. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily mean that research articles written in English are always more cautious in making claims than those written in any other language. Vold (2006), for example, showed that research articles written in English and those written in Norwegian were comparable in terms of their frequency of use of hedges. Likewise, Sultan’s (2011) study also found that Arabic Linguistics research articles contained more hedges than English ones.

Martín and Pérez (2014, p. 1) rightly argued that: “In order to get their papers accepted, researchers need to meet the expectations of the members of their particular communities, especially those of the editors and reviewers of international English language journals.” It could be argued that when Indonesian applied linguists wish to publish in international English-medium journals they might not be able to satisfy the requirements determined by their target

disciplinary community. This is quite apparent from the distinct rhetorical characteristics displayed by the Indonesian applied linguists in their research article writing. The international applied linguistic community demands that researchers in the field state their propositions with caution (through use of various hedging devices) so as to “open a discursive space for readers to dispute interpretations” (Hyland, 2009, p. 75). However, there is the temptation among Indonesian applied linguists to put forth their argumentation categorically when they write their research articles in English for international publication.

The finding of the present study suggests that Indonesian applied linguists may be in need of instruction that specifically focuses on when and how to hedge propositions when they write research articles in English. Such instruction would teach them “to be confidently uncertain” (Skelton, 1998, p. 39). Specific instruction is indeed necessary to promote students’ knowledge of hedges. It seems that hedges cannot be acquired implicitly or incidentally through rich exposure to academic writing only; reading English research articles in their research activities may not be effective for Indonesian scholars to acquire knowledge of hedges, as attested by Hyland’s (2000) study. Hyland (2000) carried out a study involving undergraduate students studying for a BA in English for Professional Communication at a Hong Kong university to examine the extent to which hedges in English academic writing were attended to during reading. Hyland found that hedges were hardly noticed by the students. To put it another way, hedges were largely invisible in academic writing. On the basis of this finding, Hyland (2000, p. 192) concluded that “there is strong evidence in this study that the efforts of academic writers to weaken their commitment and withhold certainty from their propositions may go unnoticed by L2 readers.” Therefore, to reiterate, instruction that is specifically aimed at equipping EAP learners with knowledge of hedges is a pedagogically justified practice.

One might argue that researchers might deploy different rhetorical strategies depending on the target journals in which they wish to publish. Therefore, the argument goes, it would be unjustified to argue that Indonesian applied linguists would avoid hedging their propositions when they write in English for international publication just because they do not hedge their propositions sufficiently in their Indonesian research articles for local publication. While such argument might intuitively be true, there is no robust empirical finding showing that researchers vary their hedging behaviors depending upon the target journal in which they wish to publish. On the contrary, studies on L2 academic writing consistently report some kind of pragmatic transfer of rhetorical strategies prevalent in writers’ L1 writing into their L2 writing. In a study with Spanish researchers, Alonso et al. (2012), for example, found that “hedges in academic English are perceived as indicators of a negative lack of commitment by native speakers of Spanish and pragmatic transfer appears to inhibit the use of hedges that are not common to the native language” (p. 60). No one would dispute the argument put forth by Žegarac and Pennington (2008, p. 142): “People usually approach a new problem or situation with an existing *mental set*: a frame of mind involving an existing disposition to think of a problem or a situation in a particular way” (emphasis in the original). Moreover, Applied Linguistics journal editors typically do not mention explicitly in their journal submission guidelines that authors should hedge their propositions sufficiently and/or appropriately. This would further make such rhetorical feature escape the attention the non-native writers.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The result of the present study showed that the English research articles contained significantly more hedges than the Indonesian research articles, suggesting that the English researchers were much more cautious in making claims than their Indonesian counterparts. Such

finding implies that to get published in English language international journals, research articles need to be presented with sufficient caution. As indicated by the rhetorical characteristic of their research article written in Indonesia, Indonesian researchers typically did not exercise sufficient caution when promoting claims. On the basis of the result of the study it could be concluded that Indonesian scholars indeed need to be involved in a pedagogical intervention specifically designed to equip them with knowledge of hedges. This conclusion has been drawn on the assumption that when Indonesian researchers report their research in English for international publication they will employ rhetorical characteristic they adopt when they write their research in Indonesian.

Obviously, the results of the present study need to be treated with caution. This study is subject to limitations inherent to the size and scope of the corpus used, as well as the type of data analyzed. The corpus was derived from only 52 research articles taken from only one disciplinary field (Applied Linguistics). The conclusion that Indonesian scholars still need to learn how to hedge their propositions when they write in English for international publications might sound suspect. Future research needs to be done that analyzes a larger corpus containing research articles taken from all disciplinary domains, namely natural sciences (e.g. Physics, Biology), social sciences (e.g. Economics, Sociology), and humanities (e.g. Law, Applied Linguistics). In so doing, a more valid conclusion can be drawn. The present study analyzed research articles written in Indonesian only based upon which the Indonesian scholars' rhetorical need was determined. Although thus far there has been no robust finding that indicated that researchers vary their rhetorical behavior depending upon the target journal, such possibility cannot be completely eliminated. Therefore, future research might need to consider analyzing not only the Indonesian scholars' research articles written in Indonesian, but also their English articles published for local publication.

REFERENCES

- Abbuhl, Rebekha. (2006). Hedging and boosting in advanced-level L2 legal writing: The effect of instruction and feedback. In H. Byrnes, H. Weger-Guntharp & K. A. Sprang (Eds.), *Educating for Advanced Foreign Language Capacities: Constructs, Curriculum, Instruction, Assessment* (pp. 152-164). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Adnan, Zifirdaus. (2008). Discourse structure of Indonesian research article introductions in selected hard sciences. In S. Burgess & P. Martín-Martín (Eds.), *English as an Additional Language in Research Publication and Communication* (pp. 39-63). Berlin, Germany: Peter Lang.
- Alonso, Rosa Alonso, Alonso, María Alonso, & Mariñas, Laura Torrado. (2012). Hedging: An exploratory study of pragmatic transfer in nonnative English readers' rhetorical preferences. *Ibérica*, 23, 47-64.
- Atai, Mahmood Reza, & Nazari, Ogholgol. (2011). Exploring reading comprehension needs of Iranian EAP students of health information management (HIM): A triangulated approach. *System*, 39, 30e43.
- Atai, Mahmood Reza, & Shoja, Leila. (2011). A triangulated study of academic language needs of Iranian students of computer engineering: Are the courses on track? *RELC Journal*, 42(3), 305-323.
- Chostelidou, Dora. (2010). A needs analysis approach to ESP syllabus design in Greek tertiary education: a descriptive account of students' needs. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 4507-4512.
- Corder, Gregory W., & Foreman, Dale I. (2014). *Nonparametric Statistics: A Step by Step Approach* (Second ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dafouz-Milne, Emma. (2008). The pragmatic role of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the construction and attainment of persuasion: A cross-linguistic study of newspaper discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40, 95-113.

- Field, Andy. (2013). *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gee, James Paul. (2012). *Social Linguistics and Literacies* (Fourth ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Gee, James Paul. (2015). *Literacy and Education*. New York: Routledge.
- Gözüyeşil, Eda. (2014). An analysis of engineering students' english language needs. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 4182 – 4186.
- Hyland, Ken. (1996). Talking to the academy: Forms of hedging in science research articles. *Written Communication*, 13(2), 251-281.
- Hyland, Ken. (2000). Hedges, boosters and lexical invisibility: Noticing modifiers in academic texts. *Language Awareness*, 9(4), 179-197.
- Hyland, Ken. (2006). *English for Academic Purposes: An Advanced Resource Book*. Abington: Routledge.
- Hyland, Ken. (2009). *Academic Discourse: English in a Global Context*. London: Continuum.
- Hyland, Ken. (2011). Academic discourse. In K. Hyland & B. Paltridge (Eds.), *Continuum Companion to Discourse Analysis* (pp. 171-184). New York: Continuum.
- İnceçay, Görsev, & İnceçay, Volkan. (2010). A case study on needs assessment of English language teachers. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 317–321.
- Kassim, Hafizoah, & Ali, Fatimah. (2010). English communicative events and skills needed at the workplace: Feedback from the industry. *English for Specific Purposes*, 29, 168–182.
- Kim, Hyun Hyo. (2013). Needs analysis for English for Specific Purpose course development for engineering students in Korea. *International Journal of Multimedia and Ubiquitous Engineering*, 8(6), 279-288.
- Klimova, Blanka Frydrychova. (2014). Academics at faculty of informatics and management and their language needs. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 656 – 660.
- Lambert, Craig. (2010). A task-based needs analysis: Putting principles into practice. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(1), 99–112.
- Martín, Pedro, & Pérez, Isabel K. León. (2014). Convincing peers of the value of one's research: A genre analysis of rhetorical promotion in academic texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 34, 1-13.
- Miller, Don. (2011). ESL reading textbooks vs. university textbooks: Are we giving our students the input they may need? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 32-46.
- Moslemi, Fatemeh, Moinzadeh, Ahmad, & Dabaghi, Azizollah. (2011). ESP needs analysis of Iranian MA students: A case study of the University of Isfahan. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4), 121-129.
- Paci, Margarita. (2013). Needs analysis and environment analysis: Designing an ESP curriculum for the students of the Polytechnic University of Tirana. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 3(7), 425-430.
- Rostami, Fatemeh, & Zafarghandi, Amir Mahdavi. (2014). EAP needs analysis in Iran: The case of university students in chemistry department. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(4), 924-934.
- Salager-Meyer, François. (2014). Writing and publishing in peripheral scholarly journals: How to enhance the global influence of multilingual scholars? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 13, 78-82.
- Skelton, John. (1998). The care and maintenance of hedges. *ELT Journal*, 42(1), 37-43.
- Spence, Paul, & Liu, Gi-Zen. (2013). Engineering English and the high-tech industry: A case study of an English needs analysis of process integration engineers at a semiconductor manufacturing company in Taiwan. *English for Specific Purposes*, 32, 97-109.
- Stocker, Joel F., & Reddad, Mohamed. (2013). Constructing a collaborative, emergent syllabus of communicative performances in a nursing English course in Taiwan. *RELC Journal*, 44(2), 177–194.
- Street, Brian. (2003). What's "new" in new literacy studies? Critical approaches to literacy in theory and practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2), 77-91.
- Sultan, Abbas H.J. (2011). A contrastive study of metadiscourse in English and arabic linguistic research articles. *ACTA LINGUISTICA* 5(1), 28-41.

- Swales, John M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vold, Eva Thue. (2006). Epistemic modality markers in research articles: A cross-linguistic and crossdisciplinary study. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 61-86.
- Žegarac, Vladimir, & Pennington, Martha C. (2008). Pragmatic transfer. In H. Spencer-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally Speaking: Culture, Communication, and Politeness Theory* (Second ed., pp. 141-163). London: Continuum.

HOLISTIC RUBRIC VS ANALYTIC RUBRIC: HOW RATERS USE THESE ASSESSMENTS IN SCORING EFL STUDENTS' WRITING IN INDONESIA

Festif Rudolf Hoinbala

festif79@gmail.com

Artha Wacana Christian University

Jalan Adisucipto No 7, Kupang, Indonesia

Abstract

The aim of the present study was to analyse the use of holistic and analytic rubric in scoring the essay of EFL students in Indonesia. By comparing the inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability, this study analysed what both of these rubrics tell us in assessing students' writing. 28 student's essays were evaluated by four raters in Artha Wacana Christian University in Indonesia using their own version of holistic rubric at first hand. Two sessions of rater training were conducted before they assessed the same essays using analytic scoring method which developed from The Jacobs et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile. The result showed that there were significant positive consistencies among and between the raters in holistic, analytic, and each component of analytic scoring method (in term of inter-rater reliability). However, two negative correlations between raters were found in the mechanics component of analytic indicating different ways of raters in assessing this component. This study also revealed that one rater performed extremely weak correlation in intra-rater reliability while the others were in the moderate level. Accordingly some recommendations were stated in order to develop further research based on the result of this study.

Keywords: *holistic scoring rubric, analytic scoring rubric, inter-rater reliability, intra-rater reliability*

1. INTRODUCTION

Assessing production skills of language is normally done by a rater, using a rating scale. Fulcher (2010) states that a rating scale is traditionally constructed from a set of fairly arbitrary levels, each level being defined by a descriptor or rubric. Recently, rating scales used in performance assessment have been frequently criticized for being imprecise and often ending up in holistic marking by raters (Weigle, 2002). Using holistic marking on the one hand is more efficient to teachers where they can effectively save the time and energy in correcting their students' work. On the other hand, it does not give much information to students about the result of their work in order to develop their writing skill in the future. Alderson (2005) suggests that diagnostics tests should identify strengths and weaknesses in learners' use of language and focus on specific elements rather than global abilities. In line with Alderson, East (2009) proposes that one way of confronting the weakness of holistic scoring is the use of analytic rubric, where several sub-categories are scored individual. However, it is widely known that in practicing this way of scoring is somewhat tiresome and time consumed. These phenomenon shows that both holistic and analytic has their own advantages and disadvantages.

Evaluating essay writing in EFL/ESL programs has been mainly for diagnostic, developmental or promotional purposes (Weir, 1983, 1990). Therefore, adopting proper evaluation instrument becomes significant when these programs need to obtain valid results upon which to base decisions. Weigle (2007) says that the assessment of students writing is an essential task for a second language writing teacher. This task needs to be managed accurately and effectively so the result of a writing assessment could give advantages to both teacher

and students. This study is motivated by the eagerness to improve the writing assessment practices in a university in Indonesia. When assessing their students' EFL writing, lecturers in this university usually only depend on the knowledge and experience of the EFL course they are teaching and sometimes adopted assessment practice in which they only rank the students' essays instead of determine the level according to more subjective criteria. Eventually, these circumstances might decrease the possibility of a fair and valid of the assessment. Based on the result from the interview with his fellows at home university and also reflected from the writer's experience, it can be concluded that the EFL writing assessment is done impressionistically, where lecturers score the quality of the essay in a holistic way on a 100-point scale. The writer assumes that the lecturers use this method due to the consideration of time and energy and it is the most effective way since the large of student body in a classroom they have. However, the writer also argues that this practice does not really convey any advantages to students in term of feedback on their writing.

It is a general argument that the result of the essay evaluation in writing class in the EFL program is really important to determine the decision concerning student promotion at the end of the semester to the next course, the teacher then should be aware of the potential of the evaluation criteria being adopted. In this circumstance, the writer believes that lecturers at his home university should taste the use of analytic scoring model so they could see the difference and the benefits come up from this method compared to the holistic one. This study concerns the implementation of holistic and analytic rubric in scoring writing text of EFL university students in Indonesia. The question was be formulated as follows: "Is there any significant consistency among, between and within each raters' score of holistic rating and analytic rating in writing essay evaluation of EFL students in Indonesia?"

1.1 Rating Scales

Holistic and analytic scoring rubrics have been used in EFL/ESL programs to identify students' writing proficiency levels for different purposes (Bacha, 2001, p. 374). Shaw and Weir (2007) state that holistic scoring involves rating scripts impressionistically on a single rating scale according to their overall properties rather than providing separate scores on specified features of language produced, while analytic scoring is a form of assessment frequently used in the evaluation of writing where separate award is given for each of several nominated performance features of a particular task, for example relevance and adequacy of content, organization, etc. In line with Shaw and Weir (2007), Klimova (2011) proposes that the holistic evaluation involves reading a paper quickly in order to gain a broad impression of a writer's skill and is often used for informing placements decision, while analytic scoring involves an itemized analysis and is commonly used to identify weakness in a student's writing because it looks at every specific item such as usage of articles or the correct word order in student piece of writing (p.391). Jonsson and Svingby (2007:131) note that the rater makes an overall judgment about the quality of performance in the holistic scoring, while in analytic scoring, the rater assigns a score to each of the dimensions being assessed in the task. Moreover, Jonsson and Svingby explain that holistic scoring is usually used for large-scale assessment because it is assumed to be easy, cheap and accurate while analytic scoring is useful in the classroom since the results can help teachers and students identify students' strengths and learning needs (p.132). In the term of process, Finson (1998) as cited in Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010:19) argues that holistic rubrics are more product-oriented than process-oriented, and primarily concerned with the total performance or product rather than with the individual steps taken to arrive at the final product while an analytic or multiple trait rubric consists of multiple, separate scales,

and therefore provides a set of scores rather than just one (e.g. a given writing assignment could be assessed with analytic rubric made up of three scales wherein five points is given for creativity, four points is given for reasoning or critical thinking, and six points is given for sentence structure. Some instruments may be a combination of both as the Jacobs' et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile provided. Hamp-Lyons (1990:78) states that this profile is the best scoring procedure for ESL writing at the present time.

Cohen and Manion (1994) as cited in Bacha (2001:374) argues that in any holistic scoring often specific features of compositions are involved, but somehow holistic scales are mainly used for impressionistic evaluation that could be in the form of a letter grade, a percentage, or a number on preconceived ordinal scale which corresponds to a set of descriptive criteria. Bacha himself argues that (2001:375) states that analytic scoring scales have been found to be better suited in evaluating the different aspects of writing skill. However, teachers need to be aware that in any type of analytic evaluation, they may unknowingly fall back on holistic methods in actual ratings if attention to the specified writing areas is not given. Also there could be a backwash effect in that instruction is influenced by the evaluation criteria (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Connor-Linton, 1995 as cited in Bacha 2001: 375). Based on this circumstance, Bacha (2001) indicates that if applied well, these analytic scales can be very informative about the students' proficiency levels in specific writing areas (p.375).). In line with Bacha (2001), Weigle (2002) as cited in East (2009:91) argues that “[a]nalytic scoring schemes...provide more detailed information about a test taker's performance in different aspects of writing and are for this reason preferred over holistic schemes by many writing specialists” (pp. 114-115) This “more detailed information” may be particularly useful for FL learners because they are “more likely to show a marked or uneven profile across different aspects of writing” (p. 120). Based on this argument, East (2009:91) claims that analytic scale is able to account for variable and varying aspects of test taker performance (and underlying proficiency) more sensitively, and the resultant scoring is therefore potentially more reliable and objective than holistic scoring. In addition, it has been suggested that raters approach the task of rating in a more consistent manner when using a shared set of analytical criteria (Hamp-Lyons, 1991; White, 1985 as cited in East, 2009:91)

While each of these scoring rubrics shows its strengths and weaknesses, it depends on the teacher or test administrator to select the best scoring rubrics that are compatible with the characteristics and classroom needs. Several researches have reported that teachers' assessment is more reliable if a rubric is used (Jonsson & Svingby; Silvestry & Oescher, 2006 as cited in Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010: 19). Rezaei and Lovorn (2010) also claim that there is no research has been found to show a negative effect (decreasing the reliability) of using rubrics.

1.2 Raters and Raters training

It has been argued that the implementation of writing assessment in educational program has evoked some problems. As stated by Speck and Jones (1998), “there are more problems than solutions – problems of inter-grader reliability, single-grader consistency, and ultimate accountability for the grades we assign” (p. 17, as cited in Huang, 2008: 202). Popham (1990) says that variation among and within raters' rating of students' writing contributes to measurement error and thus may threaten the fairness of the assessment of writing. Due to the different linguistic and cultural background of English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students, the assessment of their English writing becomes even more problematic (Connor-Linton, 1995; Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Sakyi 2000 as cited Huang, 2008:202). Supporting their argument, Hinkel (2003) and Yang (2001) state that many factors affect ESL students' writing, including

their English proficiency, mother tongue, home culture, and style of written communication (as cited in Huang, 2008:202). Cohen and Manion, (1994) note that there is a variation of results depending upon how raters perform and which scales are used. They conclude that in any writing evaluation training program, raters should focus on the task objectives set, use the same criteria with a common understanding, attempt to have novice raters approximate expert raters in rating, and have all raters sensitive to the writing strategies of students from other languages and cultures (p.336, as cited in Bacha, 2001:375). Bachman (2000) states that in rating ESL students' writing, raters may differentially consider these factors and empirical studies have found differences in rater behaviour for ESL writing assessment. For a number of studies indicate that rater and task as factors affect the assessment of ESL writing (e.g. rater background, mother tongue, previous experience, amount of prior training, and types and difficulty of writing) tasks have been found to affect the rating of the written responses of ESL students (Santos, 1998; Weigle, 1999), the impact of these factors leads to questions about the accuracy, precision, and ultimately, the fairness of the scores obtained from the ratings of written work produced by ESL students (Huang, 2008:202)

Even though there has been a longstanding, widespread assumption among academics that rubrics tend to improve inter-rater reliability in terms of how likely different raters will award similar scores (Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010:21), Knoch et al. (2007) argues that in some cases this assumed level consistency is not commonly achieved because, among other reasons, raters do not all receive rubric training. According to them, without proper, thorough training, a rubric may become little more than checklist (as cited in Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010:21). Since training raters might one of the ways to increase the capability of raters in assessing students' writing so it can lead to the consistency of scoring, conducting it properly is highly recommended. In this context, Brown (2012: 413) defines rater training as an act of socialization into the standards set by the test owner (Lumley, 2002) and its purpose is to ensure a high degree of comparability, both inter- and intra- rater. Grabe and Kaplan (1996 as cited in East, 2009:90) suggests that training raters to use the scale should be conducted so that they can understand the ways in which other raters assign scores and their rationales for doing so, helps to contribute to the reliability of the scoring procedure. Vaughan (1991) argues that "[r]esearchers looking at holistic assessment have often assumed ... that given a scale that describes the characteristics of an essay at each level, trained raters will assess the essays in the same way every time" (as cited in East, 2009:90). Raters must be trained to use a rating scale effectively and consistently, and quality control procedures are needed to ensure that attend to in a performance and enhance levels of agreement (Green and Hawkey, 2012:305).

Several studies have shown that through rater training and experience, high inter- and intra reliability correlation can be attained (Myers, 1980; Najimy, 1981; Homburg, 1984; Carlson et al., 1985; Cumming, 1990; Hamp-Lyons, 1990; Reid, 1993; Upshur and Turner, 1995; as cited in Bacha, 200:1374).

1.3 Inter rater-reliability and intra rater-reliability of scoring rubrics

A major trend on the effectiveness of rubrics centers on inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability (Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010). East (2009:90) assumes that training may help to bring raters to a temporary agreement on how to interpret the different levels of a rubric, but rates will never be in complete agreement on scores (that is, inter-rater scoring will be variable) while many scripts, re-scored by the same raters at the same reading, might well receive at least slightly different scores (that is intra-rater scoring will also be variable). Since the writing scores may be subject to substantial differences between raters (Lumley and McNamara, 1995),

we can conclude that the consistency of the reliability of a writing test also depends on the performances of the raters.

In the current research, however, some studies have found very high inter-rater reliability scores for their rubrics (Penny, Johnson, & Gordon, 2000) while others have reported a low or moderate (less than .70) reliability (Rezaei and Lovorn, 2010:21). Hamp-Lyons (1991) reported relatively high reliability for her ‘multiple trait instrument’ which is similar to current analytical rubrics. The intra-rater reliability (consistency of grading a given writing by the same rater twice) is reported to be higher (Cronbach’s alpha about .70) than the inter-rater reliability (Jonsson and Svingby, 2007). Some studies also have indicated that inter-rater reliability of 0.8 and higher has been obtained (Kaczmarek, 1980; Jacobs et al., 1981; Bamberg, 1982; Perkins, 1983; Hamp-Lyons, 1986; Bachman, 1990, 1991; Hamp-Lyons 1991; Alderson and Beretta, 1992; Gamaroff, 2000, as cited in Bacha, 2001:375). In addition, Mullen 1980 as cited in Bacha 2001, 375) states that other studies have shown significant correlation between some linguistics features (e.g. vocabulary and syntactic features) as well as between linguistic features and holistic scores.

East (2009) examined the reliability of detailed analytic scoring rubric for foreign language. The study correlated two independent raters who are experienced teachers and Bursary examiners of German. Both raters rated the writings of 17-18-year-old high school students (n=47) from 11 school in the Auckland and Northland regions of New Zealand. Each student was asked to write two argumentative essays. To control for two potentially confounding effects: first, order effect (participant doing better on task 2 because they had taken task 1 first), and second task effect (participants doing better on one particular task because they found it easier), a counterbalanced design was used whereby participants were placed into one of four groups, in which the first task they completed was (1) Task with dictionary; (2) Task 1 without dictionary; (3) Task 2 with dictionary; or (4) Task 2 without dictionary. A rater training manual was conducted before the raters took part in the rating where the analytic rubric scoring was developed from the ‘ESL composition Profile’ (Jacobs et al., 1981) and marking criteria suggested by a major UK examining board for use in intermediate level LF writing examinations (Edexcel, 2000). In one sitting rating procedure, the following steps were taken: first, five Task 1 scripts were scored independently in one batch followed by discussion, second, the remaining Task 1 scripts were then scored in batches of 10-12 also followed by discussion, and third, Task 2 were rated in similar way. To determine the level of intra-rater agreement, the two raters were invited back about a month later to re-score 16 randomly selected scripts. East’s study found highly reliable rating for inter-rater reliability was calculated as approaching .9 ($p < .001$). The extent of intra-rater reliability of 16 scripts was also shown to be approaching .9 ($p < .001$). This highly significant correlation between the final reported scores on both essay tasks indicates that the writing quality of test takers was being consistently measured.

Another finding comes from Bacha (2001) who conducted a research on both holistic and analytic scoring to determine the inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. In her study, 30 sample essays was selected using stratified random technique from a corpus of $N= 156$ final exam essays written by L1 Arabic non-native students at the end of a 4-month semester in the Freshman English 1 course, the first of four in the EFL program at the Lebanese American University. On the examination, students were instructed to choose one of the topics and write well organized and developed essay within a 90 minutes time period. Each essay was rated by two raters holistically using percentage score adopted from Jacobs et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile. Using the same profile, the readers then analytically scored each essay according to the five components: content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanics (Jacobs et al., 1981).

To test the strength of the relationship between the two raters' score (intra-rater reliability) and between the same raters' scores on two occasions (inter-rater reliability), the Spearman Correlation Coefficient was used. Significant positive relation of 0.8 were obtained between the two readers' holistic essay score ($p=0.001$) indicates highly inter-rater reliability. Similar significant positive relation ($r= .8, p=0.001$) also was found when a random sample of essays ($N=10$) was re-scored by the same readers. This study shows that there are high significant positive relations ($r= .8, p=0.001$) between holistic and analytic scores which indicates internal consistency or reliability of the scores and also raters have high agreement ($r= .8$) with their own assessing of the same essays on two occasions (intra-rater reliability).

2. METHOD

The study included 28 essays on a task written by 28 pre-intermediate to intermediate sixth semester students (B1-B2 level) under exam like conditions. The participant's ages are between 22-25 years old and most of them started learning English when they were in Junior high school level. The sample essays was written by a representative selection of the student ($N= 187$) in a balanced gender. The participants' first language are most Kupang Malay (80 %) and the rest are some other local languages (20 %) spoken in East Nusa Tenggara province. These essays were rated by four lecturers at Artha Wacana Christian University in Kupang who teach the subject related to topic. They have several years of experiences in teaching writing subjects and rating students' essays.

For the purpose of this study, the writer adopted Jacobs's et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile to design analytic rating scale. At first rating, each rater was free to use his/her own holistic scale he/she usually uses. At the second rating, the developed analytic scoring was then used by them. In this develop analytic scoring rubric, each writing components has four rating levels: full, satisfactory, basic, and inadequate. Each component and level has clear descriptors of the writing proficiency for that particular level as well as a numerical scale. In order to make the participants become "reliable" raters in this research, the writer conducted two sessions of rater training. The first training was a general workshop on the using of Common European Framework References (CEFR) scale which delivered to all English Department lecturers (including the participants of this research) at home university. The second rater training was delivered to 5 participants on the using of analytic scoring rubric developed from Jacobs's et al. (1981) ESL Composition Profile. Four weeks later after the raters have completed their ratings based on the holistic scale; they rated the same 28 essays using developed analytic scale. These ratings then were collected over a period of three weeks

In this study, the Intra Class Correlation Coefficient was used to find out the strength of the relationship between the four raters' scores while Spearman Correlation Coefficient was used to find the correlation within each rater's scores on two occasions (intra-rater reliability). Spearman Correlation coefficient was also used to find the inter-rater reliability between one rater to the others for holistic scoring method, analytic scoring method and each component of the analytic scoring rubric. To determine whether the correlation is weak or strong, the writer refers to Dancey and Reidy (2007) who propose that the result on the Spearman Correlation Coefficient of 0.1 to 0.3 as being weak, 0.4 to 0.6 as being moderate and 0.7 to 0.9 as being strong. For Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, > 0.72 is considered adequate reliability in the social sciences but > 0.80 is preferred.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Tabel 1.

Intraclass Correlation Coefficient in Holistic Scoring and Analytic Scoring

	Intraclass Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Average Measures on Holistic Scoring	.668	.000
Average Measures on Analytic Scoring	.771	.000

Even though every rater used his/her version of holistic scoring rubric in assessing students' writing, the significant positive relationship among raters' score can be attained. Generally, It is hoped for a correlation of .72 and upwards among raters but in this study the inter-raters reliability of score in holistic scoring rubric can be only obtained at nearly adequate level ($r = .668, p < 0.01$) as seen in table 1. However, this point somehow tells us that there is an agreement among raters in reading their students' writing. The correlations between the four raters scoring holistically also show several significant positive relationships between them. After being treated with two rater trainings and using the same analytic scoring rubric, the performances of four raters indicate significant positive relationship. The coefficient correlation attained by four raters ($r = .771, p < 0.01$) can be categorized as adequate inter-rater reliability which tells us that there is more solid agreement among raters in assessing students' writing using an analytic scoring method. Supported by the fact that the correlations between raters are significant positive, we can assume that the use of this analytic rubric method enhances the consistency of scoring. Although the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient is preferred at $> .80$, the found inter-rater reliability coefficient of analytic scoring through rater training in this study more or less supports the superiority of this analytic method and is in line with many other studies (Myers, 1980; Najimy, 1981; Homburg, 1984; Carlson et al., 1985; Cumming, 1990; Hamp-Lyons, 1990; Reid, 1993; Upshur and Turner, 1995).

Tabel 2.

Intraclass Correlation Coefficient of Components in Analytic Scoring

Component of Analytic Scoring Rubric	Intraclass Correlation
	Average Measures
Content	.538**
Organization	.475**
Vocabulary	.669**
Language	.707**
Mechanics	.286**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 shows that the strongest Intraclass Correlation Coefficient is in the language use component ($r = .707, p < 0.01$) which shows that the raters agreement on students' work on this component is high. From this we can argue that language used (construction, tenses agreement, article, pronoun, etc.) is the most considered component of raters in assessing the students' writing where they have adequate agreement among them. Nevertheless, the result of the mechanics component ($r = .286, p < 0.01$) points out that raters have different way in assessing the conventions of writing such as, errors spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing which is result in weak relationship.

Table 3.
Correlations of Raters' Content Component score in Analytic Scoring

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4
Spearman's rho	Rater 1	Correlation Coefficient	.062	.182	.139
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.752	.355	.481
	Rater 2	Correlation Coefficient		.306	.395*
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.113	.037
	Rater 3	Correlation Coefficient			.585**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.001
	Rater 4	Correlation Coefficient			
		Sig. (2-tailed)			

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.
Correlations of Raters' Organization Component Score in Analytic Scoring

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4
Spearman's rho	Rater1	Correlation Coefficient	.157	.261	.061
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.426	.179	.759
	Rater 2	Correlation Coefficient		.070	.321
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.722	.096
	Rater 3	Correlation Coefficient			.303
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.118
	Rater 4	Correlation Coefficient			
		Sig. (2-tailed)			

Table 5.
Correlations of Raters' Vocabulary Component Score in Analytic Scoring

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4
Spearman's rho	Rater 1	Correlation Coefficient	.102	.057	.264
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.606	.772	.175
	Rater 2	Correlation Coefficient		.536**	.617**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.000
	Rater 3	Correlation Coefficient			.595**
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.001
	Rater 4	Correlation Coefficient			
		Sig. (2-tailed)			

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.
Correlations of Raters' Language Component Score in Analytic Scoring

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4	
Spearman's rho	Rater 1	Correlation Coefficient	.292	.265	.082	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.131	.172	.679	
	Rater 2	Correlation Coefficient		.491**	.512**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.008	.005	
	Rater 3	Correlation Coefficient			.470*	
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.012	
			Correlation Coefficient			
	Rater 4		Sig. (2-tailed)			

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Tabel 7.
Correlations of Mechanics Component in Analytic Scoring

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Rater 4	
Spearman's rho	Rater 1	Correlation Coefficient	.059	.300	-.051	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.764	.121	.796	
	Rater 2	Correlation Coefficient		-.071	.295	
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.718	.127	
	Rater 3	Correlation Coefficient			.016	
		Sig. (2-tailed)			.934	
			Correlation Coefficient			
	Rater 4		Sig. (2-tailed)			

It is also noted from the results in table 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 that the performance of rater 1 correlated very weak with the other raters in most every component. This raises doubts that she has applied the rubrics scoring in slightly distinct way. From this result we can assume that rater 1 might have low expectation on student's rating compared to the other raters. This phenomenon even result in negative relationships of this rater correlated to some other raters in mechanics component (table 7). Different results obtained from rater 3 and rater 4 where they show the strongest relationship in almost every component of analytic scale. We can argue that both of these raters almost apply the same way of scoring which is result in high agreement between them.

Tabel 8.

The Correlation of Raters' score in Holistic and Analytic Scoring Rubric

	Spearman Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Rater 1	.059	.765
Rater 2	.497	.007
Rater 3	.608	.001
Rater 4	.611	.001

As the results of the study indicate, there are significant positive correlations within each raters' score in two occasions (holistic and analytic scoring method). Commonly, we would expect correlations of .70 upwards within each rater's scores. In this study, however, it was found that the correlation within rater's scores is only in the moderate level for rater 2, 3, and 4, while rater 1 performs tremendously weak. From this phenomenon we can argue that rater 1 is not really consistent in her score on the holistic respect to analytic scoring method, even though she has been trained in using the analytic rubric. The moderate level performances of the other raters in this correlation could reflect that the agreement has been increased by trainings although we cannot assume that the training really reduced the differences.

4 CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This study was aimed at finding the inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability of using the holistic and analytic scoring method. This study also concerned with inter-rater reliability in every component (content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanics) of the analytic scoring. In spite of giving different results rather than those previous studies which most result in very high correlation for both intra and inter-rater reliability, this study supports the arguments on the important of conducting proper rater training to enhance levels of agreement among or between raters (Knoch et al, 2007; Green and Hawkey, 2012; Brown 2012;). These result then lead to one major implication of this study that sufficient, effective planning and developing of rating procedures is highly recommended in assessing student's writing in order to obtain high reliability. This implication afterwards can be the evaluation in conducting further research in the same field.

REFERENCES

- Alderson, C. (2005). Diagnosing foreign language proficiency. The interface between learning and assessment. London: Continuum.
- Bacha, N. (2001). Writing evaluation: what can analytic versus holistic essay scoring tell us?. System 29. 371-383.
- Bachman, L. F. (2000). Modern language testing at the turn of the century: Assuring that what we count counts. Language Testing, 17 (1), 1-42
- Brown, A. (2012). Interlocutor and rater training. In G.Fulcher & F. Davidson (Eds), The Routledge Handbook of Language Testing, (pp. 413-425). NewYork: Routledge.
- Carlson, S. et al.(1985). Relationship of Admission Test Scores to Writing Performance of Native and Non-native Speakers of English (TOEFL Research Reports, 19). Educational Testing Service, Princeton:New Jersey.
- Charney, D. (1984). The validity of using holistic scoring to evaluate writing. Research in the Teaching of English 18, 65-81

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., (1994). *Research Methods in Education*. Routledge: New York.
- Connor-Linton, J. (1995). Looking behind the curtain: What do L2 composition ratings really mean?. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29 (4), 762-765
- Cumming, A. (1990). Expertise in evaluating second language compositions. *Language Testing* 7 (1), 31–51.
- Dancey, C. P., & Reidy, J. 2007. *Statistics without Maths for Psychology*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- East, M. (2009). Evaluating the reliability of a detailed analytic scoring rubric for foreign language writing. *Assessing Writing*. 14, 18-55.
- Elbow, P. (1999). Ranking, evaluating, and liking: sorting out three forms of judgments. In: Straub, R. (Ed.). *A Sourcebook for Responding to Student Writing*. Hampton Press Inc: New Jersey, 175–196.
- Edexcel. (200). *Specification – Edexcel AS/A GCE in modern foreign languages*. London: Edexcel.
- Fulcher, G. (2010). *Practical language testing*. London: Hodder Education.
- Green, A., & Hawkey, R. (2012). Marking assessments: Rating scales and rubrics. In Coombe, C., Davidson, P., O’Sullivan, B., & Stoyhoff, S. (Eds), *The Cambridge guide to second language assessments* (pp. 299-306). Cambridge University Press: New York
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (1990). *Second language writing: Assessment issues* in B. Kroll, (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 69-87.
- _____, L. (Ed.), (1991). *Assessing Second Language Writing in Academic Contexts*. Ablex, Norwood: NJ.
- _____, L. (1991). Scoring procedures for ESL context. In L. Hamp-Lyons (Ed.), *Assessing second language writing in academic contexts* (pp. 241-276).
- Homburg, T. J. (1984). Holistic evaluation of ESL compositions: can it be validated objectively?, *TESOL Quarterly* 18 (1), 87-107.
- Huang, J. (2008). How accurate are ESL students’ holistic writing scores on large-scale assessments?—A generalizability theory approach, *Assessing Writing* 13, 201–218.
- Jacobs, H.J. et al., (1981). *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach*. Newbury House, Rowley, MA.
- Jonsson, A., & Svingby, G. (2007). The use of scoring rubrics: reliability, validity, and educational consequences. *Educational Research Review*, 2, 130-144.
- Klimova, B. F. (2011). Evaluating writing in English as a second language. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Science*, 390-394.
- Knoch, U., Read, J., & von Randow, J. (2007). Re-training writing raters online: How does it compare with face-to-face training?. *Assessing Writing*, 12, 26-43.
- Lumley, T. (2002). Assessment criteria in a large-scale writing test: What do they really mean to the raters?. *Language Testing*, 19 (3), 246-276.
- Myers, M. (1980). *A Procedure for Writing Assessment and Holistic Scoring*. *Urbana , IL* : National Council of Teachers of English.
- Najimy, N.C. (1981). *Measure for Measure: A Guidebook for Evaluating Students’ Expository Writing*. National Council of Teachers of English (Ed.), Urbana: Illinois.
- Penny, J., Johnson, R. L., & Gordon, B. (2000). Using rating augmentation to expand the scale of an analytic rubric. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 68 (3), 269-287.
- Popham, W. J. (1990). *Modern educational measurement: A practitioner’s perspective* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Reid, J.M. (1993). *Teaching ESL Writing*. Prentice-Hall: New Jersey.
- Rezael, A. R., & Lovorn. M. (2010). Reliability and validity of rubric for assessment through writing. *Assessing Writing*, 15, 18-39.
- Santos, T. (1998). Professor’s reaction to the writing of nonnative-speaking students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22 (1), 69-90.

- Shaw, S. D., & Weir, C. J. (2007). *Examining writing: Research and practice in assessing second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Speck, B. W., & Jones, T. R. (1998). Direction in in the grading of writing? In F. Zak & C. C. Weaver (Eds), *The theory and practice of grading: Problems and possibilites* (pp. 17-29). Albany: SUNY Press.
- Upshur, J.A., &Turner, C.E. (1995). Constructing rating scales for second language tests. *ELT Journal* 49(1), 3-12.
- Weigle, S. C. (1999). Investigating rater/prompt interactions in writing assessment: Quantitative and qualitative approaches. *Assessing Writing*, 6 (2), 145-178.
- Weigle, S. C. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Weigle, S. C. (2007). Teaching writing teachers about assessment. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 194-209.
- Weir, C. (1983). *Identifying the language problems of overseas students in tertiary education in the UK*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of London: England.
- Weir, C. (1990). *Communicative Language Testing*. Prentice-Hall: London.
- White, E. M. (1985). *Teaching and assesing writing*. San Fransisco CA: Jossey-Brass.
- White, E.M. (1994). *Teaching and assessing writing: Recent advances in understanding, evaluating, and improving student performance*. Jossey-Bass Publishers: San Francisco

THE USE OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN TEACHING ENGLISH AT ENGLISH STUDY PROGRAM OF HALU OLEO UNIVERSITY KENDARI

La Ode Nggawu

Email: awu_fan@ymail.com

Maulid Taembo

Email: Maulid.taembo@rocketmail.com

Lecturer at English Study Program, FKIP, University of Halu Oleo
Jl. H.E.A Mokodompit, Kampus Bumi Tridharma Anduonohu Kendari

Abstract

This research aims at investigating the use of authentic assessment in teaching English at English Study Program of Halu Oleo University in Kendari. It involves both the students' perception and their English learning development through implementing authentic assessment. Authentic assessment is done comprehensively to measure input, process, and output of learning involving attitude, knowledge, and skill. Beside, it focuses on complex and contextual tasks to stimulate students' cognitive, affective, and psychomotoric competences. The data collecting was done by observation, interview, and giving questionnaire to students. The data was analyzed based on descriptive and interactive qualitative by doing reduction, presentation/describing, and taking conclusion. The first part of this study shows that students have positive perception on authentic assessment, and no one students who do not agree to this assessment. For positive statements, the students who choose an option of "strongly agree" was 92.5%, "agree" was 7.5%, and no one students who choose either "disagree" or "strongly disagree". Moreover, for negative statements, the students who choose options of "strongly disagree" was 84.5%, "disagree" was 15.5%, and not one students who choose either "agree" or "strongly agree". The one second part shows that (1) this assessment makes the students having high motivation and more enthusiastic in learning English; (2) it helps to develop students' affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric competences based on the real students' experiences; (3) it is more effective and efficiency than other assessment models; (4) since it produces students who are innovative and creative, authentic assessment increases students' English performance; and (5) it increases students' English performance involving (a) good english knowledge of vocabulary, fluency, accuracy, intonation, understanding; (b) good attitude of respect, honest, brave, care, confidence, social awareness, communicative, curiosity; and (c) good psychomotoric of team work and communicative action.

Key words: *authentic assessment, perception, qualitative, performance*

1. INTRODUCTION

An effort to increase educational quality will not be succeeded without increasing of learning quality. The existence of Curriculum 2013 gives great actions to the teachers to develop learning and instruction strategies even for the evaluation process. It relates to the change of educational paradigm of Curriculum 2013 from the previous curriculum. The change of behavioristic educational paradigm to constructivistic force not only learning process change but also evaluation process. In the old paradigm, learning evaluation more emphasized on cognitive aspect competency. The evaluation includes tests like multiple choice test, true-false test, matching and blank tests, and essay test that have failed in knowing and recognizing students' performance. It is called as traditional evaluation method (Wiggins, 1993). Those tests have not recognized yet the comprehensive students' performances of attitude, psychomotoric, and cognitive with their real life out of school or in the society. The affective and psychomotoric aspects are ignored.

The phenomena above invites the existence of constructivistic based learning using

authentic assessment. In constructivist based learning, learning evaluation measures not only cognitive aspect but also includes all students' personal aspects like the developments of moral, emotional, social, and other individual personal aspects. Likewise, the evaluation includes not only on product aspect but also process one. It relates to one of taxonomy of popular learning objective, Bloom taxonomy that involves three domains, namely cognitive, affective, and psychomotoric (Ahiri, 2007: 54).

Basically, assessment is information collecting and tabulation process to measure students' learning result reachment. Further, authentic assessment is a comprehensive evaluation to measure input, process, and output of learning including domains of affective, psychomotoric, and cognitive. The integration of three domains (input, process, and output) will describe the capacity, style, and students' learning result. Wiggins (in Teacher Training of Implementation of Curriculum 2013) defines authentic assessment as an effort to give the tasks to students including everything in learning activities like writing, investigating, revision, discussion of something, giving oral analysis of event, doing collaboration through debate, and so on. Authentic assessment has close relationship to scientific approach since this assessment is able to describe increasing students' learning result of observation, asking, analyzing, trying, and collaboration. Authentic assessment is more focused on complex and contextual tasks and the students can show their competencies of affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric. Thus, authentic assessment can not be separated to scientific approach.

The term of assessment has close meaning to measuring, examination, and evaluation. Further, the term of authentic is synonym of real, valid, and reliable. According to Gulikers (2006: 6) that authentic assessment stimulates students to develop relevant skill and competency to work field. Authentic assessment can be also used to improve and strengthen the students' analysis of something. It lines with Mueller (2012), authentic assessment is an evaluation form in which the students are asked to do real world tasks showing meaningful application of knowledge and skill. The statement is also supported by Wiggins (1990) that authentic assessment realizes problem based learning addressing meaningful questions to real life that encourage students to use and apply their knowledge and skill. Likewise Burton (2011: 21) states that authentic assessment is a set of evaluation associating between knowledge and direct practice.

Conceptually, the authentic assessment is more meaningful significantly than other tests like essay test, matching test, or even standard multiple choice test. When implementing authentic assessment to know students' learning result and achievement, the teacher must use several criteria related to knowledge construction, observation and experiment activity, and achievement score out of school. It lines with demand in Regulation Copy of Culture and Education Ministry (2013: 55) that learning result should be done in three aspects, namely assessments of knowledge, attitude and skill. Thus, the teacher or lecturer should comprehend competencies of affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric. It lines with statements of Amri (2013: 31-32) that a teacher or lecturer should be professional and master at least three competencies that is cognitive, affective, and psychomotoric. Likewise, Culture and Education Ministry (2013: 8) explains components of Curriculum 2013 belong to authentic assessment involving affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric competencies.

Basically, authentic assessment consists of several kinds. Bhakti (2013: 6) divides authentic assessment in several kinds like performance test, project, portfolio, and written test. Likewise, Education Directorate of Senior High School, Culture and Education Ministry (2013: 23-24) mentions kinds of authentic assessment such as evaluation of project, performance, and portfolio. Besides, Culture and Education Ministry (2013) states that authentic assessment is sometime called as responsive assessment. It has certain characteristics like measure students

who have certain disorder, certain talent, or certain genius. Moreover, the authentic assessment can be used in other sciences like art and literature with focusing on process or learning result.

The illustration above shows that one of the important aspects of learning process is evaluation system. The evaluation unappropriateness is one of the factors of decreasing student's achievement development. Therefore, the teachers should be more attention to evaluation aspect. It has great contribution to students' motivation. The government the initiates to improve evaluation pattern by realizing authentic assessment in Curriculum 2013. The change of content standard in Curriculum 2013 makes the teachers to use authentic assessment. Authentic assessment of Curriculum 2013 focuses on process evaluation and output comprehensively (Mulyasa, 2013: 66).

Lecturers at English Study Program of Halu Oleo University Kendari receive and support both implementation of authentic assessment for students. They point out that authentic assessment is an approach and evaluation instrument that give wide chance for students in using the knowledge, skill, and attitude well in the task forms of reading and summarizing, experiment, observation, survey, project, creating multi media and class discussion, and good contribution to improving of lecturers' quality.

Based on the illustration above and several problems faced in the field, the writers erre interested to conduct a simple study of authentic assessment in teaching English at English Study Program of Halu Oleo University. This paper then reports the result of the study involving (1) students' perception toward authentic assessment and (2) increasing students' English competency under authentic assessment. Moreover, this paper precedes the finding and discussion of study by describing the methodology of study.

2. METHOD

The present study deals with the English students' perception and increasing students' English competency under authentic assessment. The writers took fourty English students at English Study Program of Halu Oleo University as the subject of this study. Moreover, the writer used purposive random sampling to take the subject.

This study used descriptive method by giving questionnaire and interview to the respondents. The questionnaire arranged based on the perception questions in general. In this case, English students' perception refers to positive and negative perceptions toward authentic assessment. It thus to measure the English students' perception, this study used a questionnaire of perception. The questionnaire hoped can answer the English students' perception completely. The questionnaire refers to objective test which is arranged by the writer itself. Besides, it was arranged based on the characteristics of authentic assessment to make the questionnaire will be more appropriate to this assessment meaning. Moreover, the test was intended to obtain written information from the respondent as the subject about their perception of authentic assessment. The objective test may refer to closed-ended test with the answers choices provided are Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD).

The questionnaire consists of just 10 items and divided in two parts, namely positive and negative statement. Number 1-5 arranged as positive statement, and number 6-10 arranged as negative statements. In positive statements, the options of "strongly agree" (SA) and "agree" (A) classified as "positive perception" and options "disagree" (D) and "strongly disagree" (SD) classified as "negative perception". Meanwhile, in negative statements, the options of "disagree" (D) and "strongly disagree" (SD) classified as "positive perception" and "strongly agree" (SA) and "agree" (A) classified as "negative perception".

In addition, this study also did interviewing to obtain more information or primary

data concerning the English students' perception on authentic assessment as well as specific advantages and disadvantages of this assessment. Moreover, to get information concerning improving students' English competency under authentic assessment, this study uses both interview and observation of students or subjects English performance.

The data was analyzed based on descriptive quantitative and qualitative by doing reduction, presentation/describing, and taking conclusion. Now, to analyze the questionnaire in the open-ended tests of this study, the writers used the following formula:

$$P = \frac{nr}{nt} \times 100\%$$

Where:

P = percentage

nr = the number of respondents that choose option of every items of the questionnaires.

nt = the number of the whole respondents

Moreover, the result of interview and observation were analyzed descriptively and related to the result of questionnaire and the theories used. Therefore, the results of questionnaire, and interview and observation support each other.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This sub unit divided in two parts, namely students' perception toward authentic assessment and improving students' English competency through implementation of authentic assessment. Each part presents the findings of study and its discussion. Both analyses were described below.

3.1 Students' Perception toward Authentic Assessment

In describing the findings of this study, the writer divided it in two parts, namely analysis of all items which is done by counting the percentage of those items, analysis for each item. The percentage is obtained from the number of each option chosen which is divided by the total options chosen, and then multiplied by 100%. Besides, in counting the percentage, the data or questionnaire was divided in two parts, namely positive and negative statements. Thus, it first analyzes the negative statement (items 1-5) and then followed by analyzing the negative statement (items 6-10). There are fourty students who fill the questionnaire of the study. They are also as informants of conducting interview by researchers/writers.

For items number 1-5 (positive statements), the students who choose an option of "strongly agree" was 92.5%, "agree" was 7.5%, and no one students who choose either "disagree" or "strongly disagree". Number 1-5 arranged as positive statement, and therefore the result shows that all students had positive perception of authentic assessment. Moreover, for items number 6-10 (negative statements), the students who choose options of "strongly disagree" was 84.5%, "disagree" was 15.5%, and not one students who choose either "agree" or "strongly agree". Since number 6-10 arranged as negative statement, and therefore the result shows that all students have positive perception of curriculum 2013. Based on the calculation above, all students have positive perception toward authentic assessment with differences of strongly agree and agree options. Besides, it shows the there was consistent and balancing results of both positive and negative statements.

The analysis above was supported by the next analysis; namely analysis of the English students' perceptions for each item. The writer analyzes and interprets the data analysis by

using the percentage to show the English students' answer. The purpose of the percentage of the questionnaire is to find out their perceptions towards authentic assessment for each statement. The writer started by distributing the questionnaire which consists of 10 items, which are explained clearly as follows:

Questionnaire 1: Authentic assessment can make the students easily to improve their affective, cognitive, and psychomotor competencies of English

Table 3.1 Students' Perceptions on Questionnaire 1

Options	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	35	87.5
Agree	5	12.5
Disagree	0	0
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	40	100

Based on the table 3.1 above that there were 35 students (87.5%) who choose option "strongly agree", 5 students (12.5%) who choose option "agree", no students (0 %) who choose option "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It means that all students agree that authentic assessment can make the students easily to improve their affective, cognitive, and psychomotor competencies.

Since the space to include all tables is limited in this paper, the writers try to explains all findings of the questionnaire result shortly. For questionnaire 2, there were 40 students (100%) who choose option "strongly agree", and no students (0 %) who choose option "agree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It means that all students agree that authentic assessment is very useful to improve the students' learning motivation in learning English. For questionnaire 3, there were 30 students (75%) who choose option "strongly agree", 10 students (25%) who choose option "agree", no students (0 %) who choose option "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It means that all students agree that authentic assessment really helps the students to have self confidence in learning English. For questionnaire 4, there were 40 students (100%) who choose option "strongly agree", and no students (0 %) who choose option "agree", "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It means that all students agree that authentic assessment helps to improves students' English achievement. For questionnaire 5, there were 34 students (85%) who choose option "strongly agree", 6 students (15%) who choose option "agree", no students (0 %) who choose option "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It means that all students agree authentic assessment can make the students to be more enthusiastic.

All items are included as positive statetement and it thus agree or strongly agree respond show the authentic assessment is good to be applied. In contrast, for item 6-10 below are included as negative statetement and it thus agree or strongly agree respond show the authentic assessment is bad to be applied. In other words, disagree or strongly disagree respond for items 6-10 show the authentic assessment is good to be applied. For the result of those items can be seen in the illustration below.

For questionnaire 6, there were 35 students (87.5%) who choose option "strongly disagree", 5 students (12.5%) who choose option "disagree", no students (0 %) who choose option "agree" and "strongly agree". It means that all students do not agree that authentic assessment is very difficult and confused for the students. For questionnaire 7, there were 34 students (85%) who

choose option “strongly disagree”, 6 students (15%) who choose option “disagree”, no students (0 %) who choose option “agree” and “strongly agree”. It means that all students do not agree that authentic assessment is not suitable with the condition of students today. For questionnaire 8, there were 30 students (75%) who choose option “strongly disagree”, 10 students (25%) who choose option “disagree”, no students (0 %) who choose option “agree” and “strongly agree”. It means that all students do not agree that authentic assessment is not able to help the teachers in improving students’ motivation and achievement in learning English. For questionnaire 9, there were 33 students (82.5%) who choose option “strongly disagree”, 7 students (17.5%) who choose option “disagree”, no students (0 %) who choose option “agree” and “strongly agree”. It means that all students do not agree that authentic assessment has less positive effect toward students’ English competency development. Last, for questionnaire 10, there were 37 students (92.5%) who choose option “strongly disagree”, 3 students (7.5%) who choose option “disagree”, no students (0 %) who choose option “agree” and “strongly agree”. It means that all students do not agree that authentic assessment is needless for learning English.

Two analysis above show that authentic assessment gets positive respond from all students. In other words, it is good to be applied. It then is supported to the next analysis (analysis of interview and observation result). Based on the result of interview, authentic assessment contributes not only for improving students’ English competency but also create the cleanness and freshness of studying. All facilities used well, and it thus the students more be able to improve their competency and achievement. Besides, authentic assessment considering and emphasizing to behaviour or attitude evaluation really create the good and harmony relationship among students, and between students and lecturers, and other people. It means that authentic assessment can improve the characters of awareness, togetherness, communicative, respectiveness, solidarity, discipline, responsibility, self confident, social norms, and other good attitudes.

Furthermore, the students argue that authentic assessment is better than previous assessment models. The previous assessment models just focus on cognitive aspects like tests of multiple choice test, true-false test, matching and blank tests, and essay test. It has failed in knowing and recognizing students’ performance and competency. Besides, these test models can not encourage students to learn English well and maximally, while authentic assessment can improve not only students’ cognitive competency but also affective and psychomotoric competencies. It is explained more on the sub unit below as the second part of this findings and discussion.

3.2 Improving Students’ English Competency through Authentic Assessment

Basically, the result of interview and observation tend to be rather similar to the questionnaire result. The differences are the writers got much information of authentic assessment when doing interview and observation, the data obtained is more natural than questionnaire, interview is done orally while questionnaire in written form, and interview and observation focus on students’ English competency through authentic assessment while questionnaire refers to general things of authentic assessment.

Based on the result of interview and observation from about fourty students that the implementation of authentic assessment can crease students’ motivation. Before applying authentic assessment, the students are not too motivation in learning English. The reasons are evaluated just focused on examination result in the class, and sometime homework evaluation. The lecturer do not care with students’ performance out of class or their attitude when studying English in the class and also out of class. Further, authentic assessment make the students

to be more enthusiastic in studying English. They always concentrate to learn English and study frequently English both in and out of class. Since the lecturer also considers the students' performance out of class, they then always learn English seriously with high awareness.

Next, this assessment help to develop students' affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric competences based on the real students' experiences. Since the authentic assessment covers three domains as mentioned in taxonomy bloom, the lecturer measure not only cognitive students' development but also affective and psychomotoric aspects. By applying the authentic assessment in teaching English, the students to be more aware with their all competencies. It thus help the students to have good knowledge of English, good attitude or behaviour of English use, and they can use their Englihs knowledge in the society and work field well. By authentic assessment, the students master not only theories of English but also comprehend English practically. In other words, the students can use their knowledge of English maximally when they have graduated from studying English.

According to English's students that authentic assessment is very challenging and it thus motivates them to keep on their English learning. Besides, it increase their awareness of English learning objectives and practice what they have learnt. It thus the learning objectives given by lecturers are comprehended well by students. It really help students to study English well.

Authentic assessment can create curious students. Since it emphasizes the students to be more aware with English and their competencies, they then always keep studying English. Two principles of learning English are the students are often involved in the evalyation with assumption that they can do learning activities well since they know how they are evaluated or measured, and the students are asked to reflect and evaluate their performance to increase their understanding of learning objectives and encourage their motivation to study. Based on two principles in authentic assessment, it help the students to be more innovative and creative. In other words, it produces students who are innovative and creative. Consequently, authentic assessment can increase students' English performance.

As mentioned above, the authentic assessment is very useful to improve students' English performance. Since it involves and focuses on three students' English competencies, through implementation of authentic assessment the students have good competencies for those domains. Based on the result of interview and observation after implementation of authentic assessment in teaching English, the students have good competencies in English knowledge of vocabulary, fluency, accuracy, intonation, understanding. Besides, the students have good attitude of respect, honest, brave, care, confidence, social awareness, communicative, curiosity in terms of English and learning English. Further, they have good psychomotoric of team work and communicative action of using English in the real life and work field.

Based on the illustration above, the students believe that authentic assessment in teaching English can improve the students' English competency easily. The students are more responsible, polite, discipline, and motivated when the teachers teach them based on authentic assessment, particularly in affective aspects. Bad affective score makes the students have can not continue their study in the next class. By this view, the students always do their homework well and study hard.

Furthermore, on the authentic assessment, the teacher considered the score of daily tasks, homework, mid test, and final test for giving cognitive evaluation. Besides, the teacher also gives score for students' behavior such as responsible, self confident, cooperative, discipline, politeness, and others of affective evaluation. Last, actualization of knowledge as explained in psychomotor aspects was also used by the teachers. Thus, the teachers provided evaluation notes for each meeting. Three evaluation aspects help students to improve their English

competency.

In brief, there are several items to be summarized of authentic assessment role in teaching English, namely as follow: (1) authentic assessment can make the teacher easily to improve the students' affective, cognitive, and psychomotor English competencies; (2) authentic assessment improve the students' English learning motivation; and (3) authentic assessment can help the teachers in creating the young generation who has good behavior, creative, and innovative in learning English. It means that there are more advantages of authentic assessment than the previous more traditional authentic. Thus, it influences the students' perceptions and makes them agree to the implementation of this assessment. In addition, the result of interview and observation shows that there is positive correlation between the result of questionnaire and interview or observation.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the result and discussion in the previous part, it can be concluded as follows. For positive statements, the students who choose an option of "strongly agree" was 92.5%, "agree" was 7.5%, and no one students who choose either "disagree" or "strongly disagree". Moreover, for negative statements, the students who choose options of "strongly disagree" was 84.5%, "disagree" was 15.5%, and not one students who choose either "agree" or "strongly agree". Based on the calculation above, all students have positive perception toward authentic assessment with differences of strongly agree and agree options. Besides, it shows the there was consistent and balancing results of both positive and negative statements. Authentic assessment gets positive respond from all students. In other words, it is good to be applied. It then is supported to the next analysis (analysis of interview and observation result).

Next, this assessment makes the students having high motivation and more enthusiastic in studying English; helps to develop students' affective, cognitive, and psychomotoric competences based on the real students' experiences. Authentic assessment considering and emphasizing to behaviour or attitude evaluation really create the good and harmony relationship among students, and between students and lecturers, and other people.

Furthermore, the authentic assessment is more effective and efficiency than other assessment models, and since it produces students who are innovative and creative, authentic assessment increases students' English performance. Last, the authentic assessment increases students' English performance involves (a) good english knowledge of vocabulary, fluency, accuracy, intonation, understanding; (b) good attitude of respect, honest, brave, care, confidence, social awareness, communicative, curiosity; and (c) good psychomotoric of team work and communicative action.

This study is limited on the the students' perception and their English learning development through implementing authentic assessment, and it thus investigation of factors influencing the perception and English learning development is really needed. Besides, the writers suggest to the next researchers to investigate further the English teachers' perception on implementation of authentic assessment in teaching English.

REFERENCES

- Ahiri. (2008). *Evaluasi Instruksional*. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Amri, Sofan. (2013). *Pengembangan dan Metode Pembelajaran dalam Kurikulum 2013*.

Jakarta: Pretasi Pustaka.

- Bhakti, Andra Setia, Sentot Kusairi, dan Muhardjito. (2013). "Pengembangan Model Penilaian Autentik Berbasis Kurikulum 2013".
- Bogdan, R. dan Biklen S. (1992). *Qualitative Research for Education*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Burton, Kelley. (2011). A Framework for Determining The Authenticity of Assessment Tasks: Applied to an Example In Law . *Journal of Learning Design*. 4 (2): 1-9.
- Culture and Education Ministry. (2005). *Appendix Copy of Indonesian Republic Cultural and Education Ministry Regulation Number 65 in 2005 of Elementary and Junior High School Education Process Standard*. Jakarta.
- Culture and Education Ministry. (2013). "Copy of Culture and Education Ministry Law of Indonesian, Number 81A in the Year of 2013 of Curriculum Implementation". Jakarta.
- Culture and Education Ministry. (2013). *Development of Curriculum 2013*. Jakarta.
- Culture and Education Ministry. (2013). "Konsep Penilaian Autentik Pada Proses Dan Hasil Belajar". Jakarta: Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Djamarah. (1997). *Strategi Belajar Mengajar*. Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- Gulikers. 2006. Authentic Assessment, Student and Teacher Perceptions: The Practical Value of The Five-Dimensional Framework. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*. 58: 337-357.
- Mueller, Jon. (2014). *Authentic Assessment Tool Box*, (Online), (<http://jfmuellet.faculty.noctrl.edu/toolbox/index.htm>), diakses 9 Februari 2014.
- Mulyasa. (2013). *Pengembangan dan Implementasi Kurikulum 2013*. Jakarta: Rosda.
- Wiggins, Grant. (1990). "The Case of Authentic Assessment". *Eric Identifier*. 12 (0): 1-4.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE AND PERFORMANCE ON TOEFL READING SECTION

Ardi Nugroho

anugroho@bundamulia.ac.id

Universitas Bunda Mulia

Jl. Lodan Raya No. 2 Jakarta Utara 14430

Abstract

EFL learners often have trouble communicating because they lack the exact vocabulary to express their thoughts and ideas accurately. Vocabulary is not only crucial in communication, but the lack of knowledge of lexical items in English can also affect a learner's ability to understand various texts. One type of reading material that learners of English may encounter is the reading passages in a TOEFL test. TOEFL tests are commonly used for admission purposes in universities abroad, or even just as a general assessment of one's overall English proficiency. Seeing as TOEFL tests are important, it is imperative that learners of English have an adequate vocabulary size in order to perform well on the reading section of the test. Therefore, this study attempts to explore the relation between vocabulary size and performance on TOEFL reading section. The data for this research is taken from students from the English Language and Culture department at Bunda Mulia University. This study is limited to analyzing the vocabulary size of the students and its relation to five types of reading comprehension items found in the TOEFL reading section, i.e. vocabulary, factual information, rhetorical purpose, inference, and reference questions. The vocabulary size of the students is measured using the Vocabulary Size Test by Nation and Beglar (2007), and its relation to the different types of reading comprehension items is analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The result of the study shows that vocabulary size correlates significantly with 4 of the 5 types of TOEFL reading comprehension items analyzed in the research, i.e. vocabulary, factual information, rhetorical purpose, and reference questions. The only type in which there is no significant relation is the inference questions. Additionally, since the result show positive correlations, the higher the vocabulary size, the better the performance.

Keywords: *vocabulary size, TOEFL reading section*

1 INTRODUCTION

It is often found that learners of English have trouble communicating fluently because they lack the precise words to express their thoughts and ideas. They may end up speaking in a long and roundabout way just because they do not know the exact vocabulary to convey their ideas in a more efficient way. Besides for speaking, vocabulary is also very important for more passive skills such as reading, where the knowledge of lexical items in English can also affect a learner's ability to understand various texts. In other words, if a learner's vocabulary size is not sufficient, he or she may have difficulties comprehending a variety of reading materials.

One type of reading material that learners of English may encounter is the reading passages in a TOEFL test. TOEFL tests are commonly used for admission purposes in universities abroad, or even just as a general assessment of one's overall English proficiency. There are several sections in a TOEFL test depending on the type of test itself, ranging from reading, listening, speaking, and writing. Although in older versions, sections such as the speaking and writing are not present, the reading and listening sections are always found in every type of TOEFL tests, be it in older Paper-Based Tests (PBT) or in newer Internet-Based Tests (IBT). Therefore, this study is limited to only exploring the reading part.

Various studies have been conducted on the topic of vocabulary size. A study by Schmitt (2014) investigated the relation between vocabulary size and depth. Size refers to the amount

of words that a person knows, whereas depth deals with how well a person knows a word; for instance, the various senses of the word, its collocation, etc. Based on Schmitt's findings, there is barely any difference between size and depth for learners with low vocabulary size and for high frequency words. On the other hand, for low frequency words and learners with high vocabulary size, the difference between size and depth becomes more apparent, in which size is usually bigger compared to the measures of depth. In other words, even though a learner has a high vocabulary size, when it comes to low frequency words, the learner's depth of those words is usually not very high.

In addition, Pignot-Shahov (2012) explores the difference between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. Receptive vocabulary knowledge can be understood as the ability of a person to recognize words, while productive knowledge is the ability to use words. The study shows that receptive knowledge is commonly developed before productive knowledge. Moreover, in order to have adequate productive knowledge for effective communication, a learner must first have a high receptive vocabulary knowledge.

One last research in which this study is mainly based upon was done by Alavi and Akbarian (2012). Their research examines the relation between learners' vocabulary knowledge and their performance on various reading sections of the TOEFL test. Additionally, they delved into whether learners with different vocabulary size (low, middle, and high) differed in their performance of the different reading sections. It was initially expected that learners would perform equally on all test types, but the result of the research shows otherwise. It was found that for three types of test items, i.e guessing vocabulary, stated detail, and main idea, vocabulary size does correlate overall with the learners' performance on these test items. However, for learners with high vocabulary proficiency, only the guessing vocabulary type correlates with the level of vocabulary knowledge.

Based on the description above, it can be seen that vocabulary size can be associated with a number of variables, one of them being the performance on TOEFL reading sections. Seeing as TOEFL tests are important, be it for educational or other purposes, it is imperative that learners of English have an adequate vocabulary size in order to perform well on the reading section of the test. Hence, this study attempts to further explore the relation between vocabulary size and performance on the TOEFL reading section. It is hoped that this research could help enlighten readers on whether or not vocabulary size influences somebody's ability to perform well on various reading comprehension items in a TOEFL test, or are there other important factors at play.

2. METHOD

There are basically two main variables in the current study, namely the students' vocabulary size and their performance on the TOEFL reading comprehension items. Firstly, as has been stated before, vocabulary size deals with the amount of words that a person knows (Schmitt, 2014). Vocabulary is a very important aspect of language learning, for without adequate vocabulary, one cannot be expected to communicate properly. Not only in communication, but vocabulary knowledge is also necessary for reading comprehension. Even though it is not the only factor that determines one's ability to understand a text, it is closely related and directly supports those other factors. For instance, when a person tries to apply guessing strategies to help understand a text in a foreign language, the strategy cannot be applied effectively unless supported by an adequate vocabulary size (Laufer, 1997).

The other variable emphasized in this research is the students' performance on the TOEFL reading section. There are many types of questions found in this part, but the current study only focuses on five classifications according to the Educational Testing Service (ETS), which is the organization responsible for developing and administering TOEFL tests. The five types of reading items include vocabulary, factual information, rhetorical purpose, inference, and reference questions. These five test items are selected as they can be found in all types of TOEFL tests. Items such as the insert text and prose summary questions are only found in the newer TOEFL IBT tests and not in the older PBT ones.

2.1 Data Source

The data for the research is taken from students of the English Language and Culture department at Bunda Mulia University, North Jakarta. There are 36 respondents in total, all of whom are from the 6th semester. The 6th semester students are chosen as the participants, for they have finished all reading subjects and have studied for more or less three years, so they are considered to have sufficient vocabulary knowledge.

2.2 Data Collection and Analysis

To measure the students' vocabulary size, the Vocabulary Size Test by Paul Nation and David Beglar (2007) is employed. The test consists of 140 words in the form of multiple choice questions. There are 10 items from each 1000 word family level. To get the vocabulary size, the students' scores are multiplied by 100. The students are given around 30 minutes to finish the test.

As for the TOEFL reading score, the students are told to do 3 sets of TOEFL reading practice taken from an official guide to the TOEFL test by ETS. Although named practice, these tests can be considered authentic because the book is made by ETS itself and closely resembles the reading section found in actual TOEFL IBT tests. Since not all types of questions are analyzed, in the end there are only 28 questions out of the 3 sets of reading practices that the students have to answer. They are given about 1 hour to finish as there is quite a number of texts and questions that they must read and finish. The vocabulary size test and the TOEFL test were distributed to the students on a different day as to not overwhelm them with too many tasks to do at once.

Finally, after all of the students' vocabulary size and TOEFL results have been collected, the two variables are analyzed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to find out whether there is a significant relation between them. For the TOEFL result, the data is separated based on the five types of questions emphasized in the current study, i.e. vocabulary, factual information, rhetorical purpose, inference, and reference questions. In other words, the students' vocabulary size is correlated to each of these different test items separately. The correlation is calculated with the assistance of SPSS 16.0 software.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

After distributing the vocabulary size test to the 36 respondents, the following information can be summarized:

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Vocabulary Size

N	Valid	36
	Missing	0
	Mean	6414
	Median	6300
	Mode	5100 ^a
	Range	7800
	Minimum	2100
	Maximum	9900

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

From the table above, it can be seen that the range of vocabulary size is quite big at 7800, where the lowest size is 2100, and the highest is 9900. This shows that there are still some students with a relatively small vocabulary size. Previous researches have shown that learners must know approximately 98-99% of the words in a text to be able to comprehend it well (Hu and Nation, 2000 as cited in Ishii and Schmitt, 2009). This translates to around 5000-7000 word families that learners need to have in order to be able to communicate well in spoken English, and about 8000-9000 word families to be able to read and understand a range of authentic texts such as newspapers, magazines, novels, etc. (Nation, 2006 as cited in Ishii and Schmitt, 2009). On the other hand, other studies have proven that even with a vocabulary size of 5000-6000 words, undergraduate non-native speakers of English have not had any major difficulties studying in an English speaking university (Nation, 2006). Therefore, it is not obligatory that students must know at least 8000-9000 words; a vocabulary size of about 5000-6000 words might be sufficient to understand a text relatively well. In addition, it should be noted that of the 36 respondents, only 7 (19.44%) of them has a vocabulary size of below 5000. Therefore, it could be said that more than 80% of the students should not have too much problem since they already have an adequate vocabulary size necessary to complete their studies in the university. Lastly, the average size of all the respondents is 6414, which is also still above the range of 5000-6000 words.

3.1 Vocabulary Question Type

In relation to the five types of reading comprehension items, the vocabulary question type is the first to be analyzed. The vocabulary question is a type of question where the readers are asked to guess the meaning of a particular word found in the text. Although a word may have more than one possible sense or meaning, there is only one possible meaning for the word in the specific context of the text. In total, there are 10 questions of this type found in the 3 reading practices. Based on the result of the students' TOEFL for this item, the correlation is as follows:

Table 2. Correlation between Students' Vocabulary Size and Vocabulary Type Questions

		Vocabulary Size	Vocabulary
Vocabulary Size	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.394*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.017
	N	36.000	36
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.394*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	
	N	36	36.000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Based on the table above, it is found that there is a significant correlation between students' vocabulary size and vocabulary type questions. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is 0.394, which is higher than the critical value of 0.329 for the 5% level. This means that the null hypothesis is rejected, and there is indeed a significant correlation between the two variables. In addition, the Sig. 2-tailed level is 0.017, which is lower than 0.05, and thus also supports the rejection of the null hypothesis. However, it is not significant at the 1% level since the correlation coefficient is lower than the critical value of 0.424.

From the result described above, it can be concluded that the higher the vocabulary size of the student, the better he or she will perform on vocabulary type questions. This is to be expected as the students are simply told to identify the meaning of particular words, and if the students happen to recognize the words in question, they could probably answer the questions easily, especially if their vocabulary size is high. Of course it also depends on what kind of word is inquired in the questions. For some of the lower frequency words, a lot of the students answered the questions incorrectly. For instance, for the word 'seeps,' as many as 21 students or 58.33% answered incorrectly because it may not really be a familiar word for them. Interestingly, even for words which may seem somewhat common such as 'relatively,' the students also made a lot of mistakes. This is perhaps due to the fact that the context misled them into choosing the incorrect answer. Thus, in TOEFL tests, it could be said that the familiarity of a word does not guarantee a person will answer the questions properly.

3.2 Factual Information Question Type

The second type of question analyzed is the factual information. Here readers are basically asked to identify specific information explicitly stated in the reading passage. For this type, there are a total of 11 questions. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient can be seen below:

Table 3. Correlation between Students' Vocabulary Size and Factual Information Type Questions

		Vocabulary Size	Factual Information
Vocabulary Size	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.590**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	36.000	36
Factual Information	Pearson Correlation	.590**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	36	36.000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen from the table, vocabulary size and factual information question also correlates significantly as much as 0.590. This is higher than both critical values at the 5% and 1% level, which are 0.329 and 0.424 respectively. The Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.000, which is lower than 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and proves that there is a significant correlation between vocabulary size and factual information question.

In this case, the two variables correlate significantly probably due to the fact that factual information questions do not really require much ‘thinking’ in the part of the reader, in the sense that the readers need only find the explicitly stated information in the passage to answer the questions. Hence, as long as the students are able to understand and ‘match’ the specific information found in the text with that in the question, they should have little difficulty answering the questions. The positive significant correlation shows that students with higher vocabulary size could answer this type of item more easily compared to students with lower size. For those with smaller size, they might have trouble answering the questions because they may not understand all of the words in the sentences, so even though it is explicitly stated, they might still misunderstand the information presented there.

3.3 Rhetorical Purpose Question Type

Unlike factual information questions, where readers are asked about ‘what’ information the author has presented in the text, in rhetorical purpose type questions, the readers are asked ‘why’ the author presented information the way he or she did. In other words, what is asked in the questions may not always be explicitly stated in the passage. This type of question also involves identifying the relation between one paragraph and the next. Only 3 questions of this type are found in the 3 reading practices. The result of the correlation with the students’ vocabulary size is presented in the table below:

Table 4. Correlation between Students’ Vocabulary Size and Rhetorical Purpose Type Questions

		Vocabulary Size	Rhetorical Purpose
Vocabulary Size	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.487**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	36.000	36
Rhetorical Purpose	Pearson Correlation	.487**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	36	36.000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient found in the table above is 0.487, which is higher than the critical values at both levels. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant relation between the two variables. This is also supported by the fact that the Sig. 2-tailed is 0.003, lower than 0.05, so the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between students’ vocabulary size and rhetorical purpose type questions is accepted.

Based on the result above, it seems that even for questions where the readers must employ more complicated reading strategies; there is still a strong relation between vocabulary size and performance. In other words, the two variables still correlate positively and significantly. Therefore, it can be concluded that the students’ knowledge of various lexical items assists them in answering questions in which the answer is not always explicitly found in the text. The more

the students understand the words in the sentences because of their high vocabulary knowledge, the more they can ‘deduce’ the answer to the implicit questions, and vice versa. Nevertheless, it should be noted that out of the 3 questions of this type found in the reading practices, almost all of the 36 respondents made plenty of errors. There are only 6 (16.66%) students who got all 3 questions correct.

3.4 Inference Question Type

The fourth kind of TOEFL reading comprehension item analyzed is the inference question type. Here, the readers must be able to understand information that is stated implicitly. This type of question also involves identifying the logical implications of the sentences presented in the passage. There are only 2 inference questions found in the 3 reading practices. The result of the correlation is presented in the following table:

Table 5. Correlation between Students’ Vocabulary Size and Inference Type Questions

		Vocabulary Size	Inference
Vocabulary Size	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.353
	N	36.000	36
Inference	Pearson Correlation	-.159	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.353	
	N	36	36.000

According to Table 5 above, there is no significant correlation between the variables of vocabulary size and performance on inference type questions. This can be seen from the correlation value of -0.159, which is lower than the critical values of both 5% and 1% level, which are 0.329 and 0.424 respectively. Additionally, the Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.353, which is higher than 0.05. Therefore, it is clear that the null hypothesis is accepted, or that there is no significant correlation between the two variables. Moreover, it can be seen that the value of the correlation coefficient is negative, which means that the relation is ‘backwards’ in the sense that if one variable is high, the other is low.

From the description of the result, a possible reason as to why there is no significant relation between these two variables is that inference questions involve more complicated ‘processing’ which goes beyond the mere understanding of word meanings. That is, even with a high vocabulary size, if the reader is not able to comprehend the hidden meaning behind the implicit sentences, he or she will not be able to answer this type of question properly. Therefore, it can be concluded that vocabulary knowledge is not sufficient and that other reading strategies are required to correctly do these question types. This is clearly shown by the fact that even students with vocabulary sizes of above 8000 still make mistakes in the two inference questions found in the practice test. Overall, none of the students answered both of the inference questions correctly no matter what their vocabulary size is, and only 17 or less than 50% of them got 1 out of the 2 questions correct. The rest answered both inference questions incorrectly.

3.5 Reference Question Type

The final type of item is the reference questions. This is a type of question in which readers are expected to identify the relation between words in the text, usually involving pronouns and the word that the pronouns refer to. Similar to the inference questions, there are only 2 reference

questions present in the 3 TOEFL reading practice tests. The result of the correlation is as follows:

Table 6. Correlation between Students' Vocabulary Size and Reference Type Questions

		Vocabulary Size	Reference
Vocabulary Size	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.378*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.023
	N	36.000	36
Reference	Pearson Correlation	.378*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	
	N	36	36.000

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The table above shows that there is a significant correlation between the two variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient value is 0.378. This value is higher than 0.329, which is the critical value at 5% level, but lower than the critical value at the 1% level of 0.424. Therefore, the correlation is only significant at the 5% level. The Sig. 2-tailed level is 0.023 or lower than 0.05, which means that the null hypothesis is still rejected, or that a significant relation between the students' vocabulary size and performance on reference type questions exist.

It can be concluded based on the description above that these two variables are significantly correlated probably because reference questions are somewhat similar to factual information questions. That is, all of the specific information to answer the questions is explicitly stated in the reading passage. The readers need only be careful as to what the pronoun refers to in the text since it could be confusing at times. Seeing as the correlation between the two variables are significant, it means that the students with a higher vocabulary size should perform better on these questions compared to the ones with a lower one. This is reflected in the result of the TOEFL test, in which the students with high vocabulary size tend to answer both reference questions correctly. More specifically, 6 out of the 36 students got both reference questions correct, and all of them have a vocabulary size of above 6000 words.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the findings of the current study, it can be seen that vocabulary size correlates significantly with 4 of the 5 types of TOEFL reading comprehension items analyzed in the research. These four types include vocabulary, factual information, rhetorical purpose, and reference questions. This shows that vocabulary size is indeed a very important factor that affects the performance of students in various reading questions. The only type in which there is no significant relation is the inference questions. A probable reason for this is that to answer these kinds of questions, lexical knowledge is not enough and needs to be supported by other strategies since the readers need to deduce the implicit meaning behind the sentences. Another interesting finding worth noting is that for vocabulary items, even though the word being inquired seem to be 'common' at a glance, depending on the context in which it appears, the meaning of the word could become tricky to identify. Therefore, one should not rely solely on vocabulary knowledge, but also on the ability to identify specific meanings based on context, especially in TOEFL reading sections where the questions are often tricky. To sum up, the result of this study reveals that an adequate vocabulary size is necessary if one is to perform well

on various TOEFL reading comprehension items. Additionally, since the result show positive correlations, the higher the vocabulary size, the better the performance.

So what are the implications of the result of this simple research? Firstly, since vocabulary size is proven to be very important for reading comprehension, it is imperative that teachers of English put more effort into teaching students a wide range of lexical items, starting with the high frequency words, and moving on to the lower frequency ones for more advanced students. Next, it is also necessary to focus on teaching other reading strategies as there are certain reading questions that require more than just knowledge of words. Finally, seeing as it might not be possible to teach too many things in the limited time of classroom encounters, it falls on the EFL learners themselves to learn or acquire a wide array of lexical items by various means, e.g. by reading numerous reading materials, watching movies, listening to music, etc. It is hoped that by increasing their exposure to English, their overall vocabulary size might increase as well.

Last but not least, as this small research is very limited in terms of scope and depth, it cannot be truly considered as conclusive evidence regarding the correlation between vocabulary size and various reading comprehension items in TOEFL tests. Further studies with a bigger number of respondents, or a wider range of reading question types, might produce more definite results on this matter.

REFERENCES

- Alavi, S.M. and Akbarian, I. (2012). The Role of Vocabulary Size in Predicting Performance on TOEFL Reading Item Types. *System*, 40, 376-385.
- Ishii, T. and Schmitt, N. (2009). Developing an Integrated Diagnostic Test of Vocabulary Size and Depth. *RELC*, 40(1), 5-22.
- Laufer, B. (1997). *Vocabulary in a Second Language*. Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2006). How Large a Vocabulary is Needed for Reading and Listening? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 59-82.
- Nation, I.S.P. and Beglar, D. (2007). A Vocabulary Size Test. *The Language Teacher*, 31(7), 9-13.
- Pignot-Shahov, V. (2012). Measuring L2 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary Knowledge. *Language Studies Working Papers*, 4, 37-45.
- Schmitt, N. (2014). Size and Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge: What the Research Shows. *Language Learning*, 64(4), 913-951.

THE SHIFT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON NATIVE SPEAKING MANNERISIMS THROUGH FRG

Sultan G. Stover

English Fellow, RELO

Dominicus Yabarmase,

Teaching Assistant, Pattimura University

Abstract

Traditional English Language Teaching (ELT) is directed to teach English as a foreign language for non-native speakers of English (Jenkins, 2009). Students struggle in English when their identity as non-native speakers of English is labelled as passive, uncritical, shallow and other negative attributes (Holliday, 2005). To deal with this issue, students need to be engaged with various language issues, to broaden their perspectives, so they can be competent learners and speakers of English. This research was done through Focus Reading-Group (FRG), which is group discussion among university students, alumni, and lecturers. It is formed to build students' critical thinking skills towards current issues in ELT. The topics discussed including Native Speaking Mannerisims and Standard English. The focused reading group (FRG) was conducted over the span of 14 90-minute meetings with university instructors facilitating the meetings. Discussions were based on the readings assigned each week. To see the influence of FRG toward students' perception, a case study was conducted in the FRG. To collect data, the researchers used interview and reflective writing as the instruments, while the researchers used descriptive analysis on the findings. Based on the data collected, it is evident that there is a changing paradigm on the issues of Native Speaker idealization into empowering students' identity as Mutilingual speakers of English.

Keywords : *Native speaker, Standard English.*

1. INTRODUCTION

English language has been widely recognized as the international language. This status is attained because of the massive amount usage and wide spreading of the language for years and decades. The language has grown its own varieties in almost every corner of the world. The growth of English speaker may increase in the future since many areas of social life are related with English. The speakers will certainly get the status as the language native speakers. The status of Native speaker and non native speaker is an issue that has been contested world widely where most of people are still struggling with the status. Leonard (n.d.) defined the native speaker as the first language in which human learns to speak and he/she will become the native speaker of that language. In contrast, the term non native speaker refers to someone who use the language not as his/her first language. This term non-native speakers is further defined as those who are still learning the language or the learners. . Mostly the learners are identified as the non native speakers. In line with that, native speakerism also refers to the term of insider and outsider. The users of English language are defined as the insider where all the elements of that language is automatically acquired by them. However, the outsider or the non native speakers need more time to learn and also to acquire the language itself. The process of acquiring that language also takes time even years.

The industry of English language teaching has in the past several years become a major cross-cultural, trans-cultural, and worldwide enterprise. Crystal (1997) observes that there has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English. There are therefore no example to help us see what happens to a language when it achieves genuine world status. The difference between native and non native speakers has created a strong preference

for historical native speaker over any other professional –generally a historical non-native to the so-called native English countries. Although, in black-and-white the distinction in itself is valid, and in the case of English, it has ceased to be reliable given the great changes in the physical, technological, economic and migratory trajectories of the present era and, above all, the permanent status of English as official and national language in post-colonial regions. These regions also have native speakers of their own varieties of English, where they maybe contribute equally to the global evolution and spread of the language as well. Moreover, English emerged and evolved in these contexts through an ecologically different itinerary from the so-called native regions. So, an advertisement used by the Global English School for example in Thailand (Bamgbose, 2001) is less representative of the ELT industry today. All the English teachers are native-speakers, teaching natural English as it is spoken in real conversation. The general conception of the native speaker as the infallible or perfect teacher of his or her language certainly influenced the above statement. Such a conception clearly disregards other determinant factors in ELT such as professional training, educational qualification, experience, language proficiency, and sociocultural implications. These factors add a more relevant dimension to any meaningful ELT program than just the status of a native speaker. A number of examples have been used to demonstrate this reliance on native-speaker origin without corresponding proficiency or professional ability in ELT.

Trends in the 1990s and the early 2000s show that variations in speech patterns have rendered English tongues, whether native or non-native, very distinct and that some parts of the vocabulary are peculiar to particular regions. However, Strevens (1992) upholds truly that two components of English are taught and learned without variation: these are its grammar and its core vocabulary. This means that native speakers have just the same intelligibility and communicative challenges to cope with as non-native speakers. Even though, advocates of a monochrome international standard (Prator 1968; Quirk 1990; Abbot 1991 etc.) argue that regional varieties have sown unintelligibility or advocates of regional standards may claim the New Englishes are quite peculiar in themselves, what is worth noting is that English is still the effective medium that links the far parts of the world and their diverse mother tongues on the international platform. Proficiency seems to have taken a far more prominent place rather than just native origin – a fact most easily verifiable in the worldwide quest for teachers of English, most of whom have been drawn from the ESL regions. However, the insistence on the native origin requirement by some ELT employers is putting the clock back on the international intelligibility accommodations speakers make to one another and risks transforming ELT into a field of sheer opportunism that favours only the historical native speakers.

2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The use of the native speaker has a long history in all sub disciplines of linguistics. From methodologies to theories of language study the native speaker occupies a basic position as a springboard for the judgment of language production and evaluation. The major conviction behind the native speaker is that s/he can at anytime give valid and stable judgments on his or her language. S/he is capable of identifying ill-formed grammatical expressions in his or her language even though s/he may not be able to explain exactly why they are ill-formed (Chomsky 1965). Many linguistic schools of thought have based their findings on native-speaker judgments and performances. In transformational-generative grammar, the native speaker is the backbone of Chomsky's (1965) "ideal-speaker hearer"; in context grammar, van Dijk's (1977) "P-system" is built on it; in politeness theory, Brown and Levinson's (1987)

“model person” is the native speaker; and the bilingualism theories of Bloomfield (1933) and other American linguists focus on native-like competence in two languages. This is accepted as authentic because native speakers acquire their languages at childhood with no other language interfering or influencing the acquisition process.

According to Davies (1991) as referenced by Bloomfield (1933), native speaker refers to those who have the first language they learn to speak, and they may be called as the native speaker of that language. However, the position from that definition of language acquired could be replaced by the language they learn later and use it frequently, and the first language they learn will no longer be useful, generative, creative, and no longer to be the first (Davies, 1991). For example, in case of the children who are transplanted, either through migration or adoption, at an early age (Lee, n.d.).

Prejudices and bias have been central to descriptions of the New Englishes. For instance, Prator (1968) calls the recognition of post-colonial Englishes a heresy and Hocking (1974), from a similar standpoint, permanently declares that the point of what is correct in a language is just what native speakers of the language say. There is no other standard. While the native speaker may be deemed ideal for ELT, it is far from saying s/he is infallible, as Hocking wants us to believe. This is because most native speakers of English in the world are native speakers of some nonstandard variety of the language (Trudgill 1998, see also Mufwene 1997). On this ground, they like the non-native speakers (especially those for whom English is an official language) have similar proficiency, professional, and sociocultural stages to deal with. The issue is, a British born and bred in the Yorkshire region and who ends up acquiring the York dialect as the same challenges in achieving ELT proficiency just like a Nigerian born in Lagos, acquires a Nigerian native language or Nigerian Pidgin English and is introduced to English in school.

As Hocking (1974) alongside many others believes the native speaker is error-free and since s/he learns the language from infancy, s/he has an unquestionable proficiency and efficiency in it. This is the common (perhaps erroneous) notion of a native speaker. Is the native speaker infallible? Being a native speaker is no guarantee for competence in communication. Communication itself is far more latent than the words used in the process. This is because there is a large infrastructure of social and cultural elements that determine what must be said and how it must be said. Moreover, from a purely grammatical point of view, even in native areas, poor and inefficient speakers are still found. Error analysis in linguistic study did not emerge from the study of non-native speakers but from the study of native speakers. Pettman (1913) in a statement on the use of English by fellow Britons in South Africa said: “It gives an Englishman, who loves the sentence that is lucid and logical, a shock to hear his native tongue maltreated by those who are just as English as himself” (Görlach 1995). So any ELT attempt that is primarily based on native-speaker origins without solid ELT training is not a safe haven for error-free language transmission.

Do levels of competence and proficiency apply to a native speaker? The issue of correctness, that is, respect for rules of the language, is so complex that being a native speaker does not automatically qualify one as a competent speaker. Several factors account for this; language change, dialect variations, sociocultural contexts, professional backgrounds, cultural variation and so forth. It therefore means native speakers can be classified on a scale of competence just like other speakers who acquire proficiency in the language. And in ELT, which today has moved far beyond the border soft he UK or US, and with the emergence of several regional norms of the language, the sociocultural element – often the major defining icon of these norms – is very important.

3. METHOD

The research methodology was case study. Stake (1998) says that crucial to case study research are not the methods of investigation, but the object of case study is a case: "As a form of research, it is defined by interest in individual cases, not by methods of inquiry used". Meanwhile, he also emphasized that the number and type of case studies depends upon the purpose of the inquiry: an instrumental case study is used to provide insight into an issue; an intrinsic case study is undertaken to gain the deeper understanding of the case; and the collective case study is the study of a number of cases in order to inquire into a particular phenomenon (Stake, 1995).

The subject of this study is the members of FRG (Focus Reading Group). FRG consists of university students, alumni, and also lecturers. This group is formed to create and develop students' critical thinking towards the current issues in English Language Teaching. The focused reading group (FRG) was conducted over the span of 14 90-minute meetings with university instructors who facilitated the meeting. The discussion was based on the readings assigned each week, where the materials were delivered one week before the discussion. While they discuss about the reading materials, the members also can write something based on the discussion related to the readings. To collect the data, the researchers used interview. The interview shows that students perspective towards the issues of ELT and the Standard English is different each other.

4 DISCUSSION

The idea of native speaker mannerism and the Standard English is responded by the students and the Focus Reading Group members. Talking about Standard English, all of the respondents give the same answers. They argue that Standard English is the language that has been world widely used such as British English and American English. This is because they only know about the two kinds of English although some of them said that each country has their own variety. This issue also has evolved with the idea of world Englishes, the term used to describe the variety of English language in any developed territories influenced by the United Kingdom and United States. Additionally, one of them added that this is also because mostly they learn in the classroom about the grammar and the style used mostly in the UK and in the US, so people who live in non speaking countries will see English in UK and US as the Standard English. Besides, this is because the variety of English they learned since elementary school and high schools, they mostly know and use those two kinds of English (American English and British English). Standard English is that form of the English language which is spoken by generality of cultured people in Great Britain (Phytian, 1993).

The definition of Standard English might be different with the idea of when the Standard English is used. According to the respondents, the type of English might be vary within each country, but the use of English is not too vary. Ayu, one of the respondents said that the use of Standard English depends of the situation or the place where the Standard English is needed. As emphasized by another respondent, the formal situation can be the area of education, conference, or even in the writing forms such as writing journal, research report, paper, and so on. When someone is in this formal situation, he/she must use the formal language or Standard English. In line with that, Hudson (2000) states that Standard English is written in the published works, spoken in situation where published writing is influential, especially in education, and spoken natively by people who are most influenced by published writing.

However, in an informal situation, such as daily conversation, friends talk, he/she can use non Standard English, such as slang and so on. This happens to anyone who use English. Even

when the speaker or the writer comes from the English speaking countries or not, he/she has to use standard English with elements that should be applied or used in the formal situation. For example, when a student from Indonesia (a non-English speaking country) wants to write an academic writing, journal, or research report, he/she has to use a standard English with a good grammar and the elements should be applied in an academic writing, no matter he/she comes from English speaking countries or not. Therefore, anyone should use the Standard English in an academic or formal situation.

Accordingly, the idea of Standard English is related to the native speakerism. According to the FRG members based on their responses, it can be concluded that native speakers are those who were born and grown up with that language. They acquire the language since they were born. They also might be said as the owner of English. In line with Davies (1991), native speakers are those who speak the first language they learn to speak. However, Noura, one of the respondents stated that there is no real native speaker, since anyone can become native speakers. For example, when someone is born in Indonesia, and soon he/she has to move to US because the parents have to move there, it means that he/she will be raised up with the English in United States and it will become his/her first language. This opinion continues to the next question about the Standard English spoken by the native speakers. Besides, she emphasized that anyone can own English. The status of the ownership of English can be attained when he or she can use that language in any areas with any skills. It means that anyone can possess English itself, not only the people from United States, United Kingdom, or any other speaking countries. From the definition about the native speakers, the idea of English language spoken by the native speakers also might be different. The native speakers can speak a Standard English, but in some circumstances, they may use the non Standard English such as in their daily conversation at home, school, beach and so on. Most of the time they use Standard English in formal things, such as conferences, formal speech, other formal events, or even in the products such as machines, medicines, and many others. The use of English in many areas makes English to be admitted by everyone as international language.

English as International Language (EIL) is the status of English contested between the users of English itself. Noura acknowledged that the status of English as International Language cannot be denied. This status can be clearly seen from its' use in many products, such as machines, mobile phones, medicines, and even foods. All these products use English, and it proves that English has become the lingua franca, and this status automatically supports English to become the International language. This is also supported by another respondent, Dila, where she strengthens the reason of why English become International language. She said that in many international conferences, English is used as the lingua franca or the language that is used as the main language in the conference. For example, in United Nations conferences, they use English as the media of communication. That is why Crystal (1997) stated that there is no language world widely spoken as English. The use of English language in international conferences conveys that English is International language.

5. CONCLUSION

The native speaking mannerism is an issue with the various perceptions with this idea. It impacts the idea and the language acquired in relation with the style, and also the variety of the language. Since English is a language world widely learnt, the learners should know the position and also put themselves in the status of where they should be.

From this research, the research is hopefully can inform the readers about the Native speaker mannerism with the use of English as the International language. It also can give the

teachers about the ideas students might have as the learners when they learn English as the foreign language.

REFERENCES

- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Henry Holt.
- Jenkins, J.(2009). *World Englishes: A Resource book for Students*. Rotledge.
- Crystal, D.(2012). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky,N (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- Hocking, B.D.W. (1974) *All what I was Taught and Other Mistakes: A Handbook of Common Errors in English*. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.
- Holliday, A. (2005). *The Struggle to Teach English as an International Language*. TESL-EJ. New York; Oxford University Press.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The Art of case study Research*. Thousand Oaks, London, NewDelhi: Sage Publication.
- Stevens, P. (1992)*English as an International Language: Directions in the 1990s*. Urbana. University of Illinois Press

USING GAMES IN TEACHING PRONUNCIATION AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS OF STKIP AL HIKMAH

Faishol Hadi

Fayenglish.fh@gmail.com

STKIP Al Hikmah Surabaya

Jl. Kebonsari Elveka V, Surabaya kode pos 60233 – Telp: (031) 8295825

Abstract

Pronunciation is one of the components of English that determine whether students have good competence of speaking or not. In learning pronunciation, students frequently face two obstacles in mastering this competence, they are producing appropriate English sound and understanding the symbol of the English sound. The objective of this research entitled “Using Games in Teaching Pronunciation at English Department Students of STKIP Al Hikmah” was to examine whether or not teaching using games was able to encourage students’ motivation in improving their pronunciation competence. The pronunciation games are the learning activities that facilitate the students in improving pronunciation, either understanding the symbol of sound or producing the sound accurately. The setting of this research was the English Education Department Students of STKIP Al Hikmah Surabaya, so the games were applied in the class of pronunciation of that department. The data were collected using questionnaire and classroom observation. The result of this research was this teaching technique (games) was able to encourage students’ motivation and interest in learning pronunciation. The interesting activities of this game effectively facilitate the students in improving their pronunciation competence.

Keywords: *Pronunciation, Games, motivation*

1 INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is one the compulsory courses that should be taken by the students of STKIP Al Hikmah on the second semester. The objective of this course is to help the students in mastering two skills of English, they are speaking and listening skill. In the process of mastering listening skill, a student will face difficulty in understanding and storing new verbal information when he does not master the sounds of English. In learning speaking, on the other hands, a student will face difficulty in speaking English when he does not have good competence of pronunciation. Another objective of learning pronunciation in English department is to support a communication effectivity. The main reason why students have to learn and master pronunciation is that they frequently face obstacles in using English for communication since they often produce English sound accurately and appropriately (Kelly, 2001). When somebody makes a mistake in producing an English word in communication, it will create misunderstanding.

Mastering English pronunciation is not only able to pronounce an isolated english words, but it is also able to produce the sound of English in a phrase, sentence and dialogue or English text. The students are also demanded to be able to understand English sound system or phonology and produce them correctly. Therefore, there are two objective of learning pronunciation for the students of English department, they are understanding the course theoretically and practically. In understanding the theory of pronunciation, the students are expected to be able to understand all symbols of English sounds which is used in English dictionary so that when they find new word, by checking on the transcript in the dictionary, they are able to pronounce them correctly. When a student has been able to understand all symbols of English sound, by only reading a dictionary, they ideally able to practise it correctly. However, there are a lot of facts on the field

shows that English department students which are supposed to be able pronounce the English sounds correctly, unfortunately they are not able to practise them in daily communication or daily learning. Worstly, when they are asked to check the sound of certain word from a dictionary, they are not able to understand and pronounce the symbol of that sound. From phenomena above, there should be an improvement in learning activity in pronunciation class to enhance students' competence in understanding and practising the sounds of English.

The successful of learning activity in the classroom, particularly in lecturing class is determined by a lot of factors. The lecturer, students, teaching method or technique, and media are some main factors that determine the successful of the result of learning in the classroom.

One of the main components of the successful learning is the students. Students' motivation and competence in learning activity are two factors that determine the outcome of the study. The students who have are in great motivation in learning activity, they must have great spirit to master learning material in the classroom. Thus, a good classroom atmosphere should be created in order to encourage students' motivation in learning activity. Instead of motivation, students' basic competence also determines the the outcomes of the study. In learning speaking for instance, the students who have great basic competence in speaking English, they must be more active involving speaking activity in the classroom. On the other hand, the students who have low speaking basic skill, they will face difficulty in involving speaking activity in the classroom. Consequently, these students will not be able to reach the outcomes of the study maximally.

The lecturer, as the director of lecturing activity, plays important role in determining the successful of lecturing activity in the classroom. The role of the lecturer in pronunciation lecturing is not only as a teacher, but he also has role as motivator, facilitator, and model. As a teacher, a lecturer is demanded to master all pronunciation materials which is able to be easily delivered to the students. As motivator, the way of the lecturer to encourage students' motivation in the classroom is not only delivering motivated or wise phrase to the students, but he should also be able to raise students' motivation by implementing fun lecturing method or technique. The role of lecturer as a model, particularly in pronunciation class is that he lecturer has to be able to become good model in giving example how to pronounce English sounds correctly and accurately. The students will produce inaccurate sounds if the lecturer gives the example how to produce English sounds incorrectly.

The successful of learning is not only determined by the lecturer and the students as the subject of learning activity in the class, but it is also determined by the proses of learning in the classroom itself. Learning process in this case are teaching technique, media, or strategy that the lecturer applies in the classroom.

All this time, the activity in pronunciation lecturing is only supported by course book which is composed the lecturer of pronunciation course. The course book consist of a theory of the English sounds theory which is completed some assignments or practices how to pronounce the sounds. The lecturing activity of pronunciation course is only about a lecturer gives the example in pronouncing English sounds then the students imitate him. This kind of teaching strategy is actually not effectively applied in pronunciation class since it will create tiredness and boredom for the lecturer and the students. This teaching technique also tends to create students' dependency toward the lecturer as a role model in pronouncing English sounds. Consequently, this technique will discourage students' motivation in pronunciation class. Whereas according to (Kelly, 2001) the students are actually very happy in learning pronunciation because this English component is able to help them to improve their communication skill. Therefore to solve the problem, a lecturer needs to apply teaching strategy which is able to encourage students'

motivation in learning pronunciation, and reducing students' dependency toward the lecturer as a role model in pronunciation class (Hancock, 1995).

Using *games* as a teaching strategy in a lecturing activity is one of the ways to encourage students' motivation in the classroom. The implementation of games in learning activity will give positive effect in learning circumstance since this teaching technique usually creates fun learning activity. When learning circumstance has been conditioned with fun way, the students will be more enthusiastic and active to engage learning activity. Therefore, the type of games in pronunciation learning is not only a game which is able to improve students' understanding and practising English sound system, but it also able to encourage students' motivation in learning pronunciation.

2.1 Literature Review

2.1.1 Learning Pronunciation

Learning English as a second language, particularly learning the sound of the language, is also about creating new habit in producing sound in English. The students who are learning English as second language, particularly in mastering oral English, have to do a great effort in mastering the way to produce sounds of the language accurately since some sound systems between English and their first language are not similar. The students of English as a second language frequently face obstacles in producing English sounds since the sounds of Bahasa Indonesia have been tightly stored in their brain. Moreover, students' articulators have been accustomed to produce Bahasa Indonesia sound from child to adult. O'Connor (1998) stated that one of the obstacles in mastering English pronunciation is how to construct a group of new sound in English which is able to change our mother tongue's sounds which has been constructed strongly. Moreover, the difference between spelling word and pronouncing sound becomes another obstacle in mastering English. In Bahasa Indonesia, word spelling must be similar with the word sound. So that pronouncing written Bahasa Indonesia is very easy to do. In English, on the other hand, the difference between word spelling and word pronouncing is a complexity. Therefore, listening to the native is absolutely needed in order to get accurate sound in learning English pronunciation.

Due to the fact that mastering language is started from listening, learning language sounds should be started by recognizing the sounds of English from the native. We definitely do not need meet or invite English native when we want to learn pronunciation correctly, we are able to learn English sounds from film, radio, English news, dictionary which has been completed by the pronunciation. We have to listen and practise pronouncing them.

The main objective in learning pronunciation is to master the sounds of foreign language which is able to help the students to use English in intelligible communication. Kenworthy (1977) ever stated the purpose of learning pronunciation is able to pronounce the sounds of language like a native speaker and create an intelligible communication. O'Connor (1998) also stated that the students' purpose in learning pronunciation is to support their speaking competence. Therefore, from those theories, we can conclude that the main purpose of learning pronunciation is to create intelligible communication because we are able to use the language sound accurately. For English Department Students, the purpose of learning pronunciation is not only able to utter English sounds accurately, but they should also be able to read and understand English phonetics transcription from dictionary. Moreover, the students are also obliged to understand the basic components of the pronunciation itself. Dealing with the components of pronunciation that should be understood by the students, Kelly (2001) classified the components of pronunciation into two parts, they are *Phonemes (Consonant and Vowel)* and

Suprasegmental features (stress and intonation).

Learning pronunciation is usually considered as secondary material in English. This language competence is usually taught in integrated way with other language skills or components such as *writing, speaking, listening, reading, grammar, etc.* In learning reading, for instance, pronunciation will be discussed when one of the students makes mispronouncing in reading the text aloud. Integrated pronunciation is not the one teaching method way that is able to be applied in teaching pronunciation. According to Kelly (2001), there are three ways in teaching pronunciation, they are *integrated, remedial, and practice.*

In the context of English Department class, the lecturer implements the third teaching pronunciation strategy, it is *practice.* Pronunciation materials are not integrated with other language skill, but it is taught separately and has its credit, in every meeting, the students learn a different vocal or consonant sounds. Then they practise to produce them correctly either in an isolated word, phrase, sentence, or in paragraph.

2.1.2 Using Games in Learning Process

Learning atmosphere plays important role to determine the successful of learning language in the classroom. The students will learn actively in the classroom when a lecturer is able to create active classroom situation. The students will not be able to improve their speaking skill when a lecturer is more dominant than the students in the classroom. Creating active classroom environment does not mean that the lecturer forces the students to involve the learning activity, but a lecturer should be able to create a creative teaching method which is able to stimulate students' involvement actively and unconsciously.

Using *Games* in language classroom is one the teaching techniques which is able to stimulate students' involvement active learning activity in the classroom. Sugar in (Sigurðardóttir:2010) stated that *Games* is the most effective way to encourage students' motivation in involving actively in the classroom. Deals with the reasons why a teacher has to implement games as teaching technique, (Sigurðardóttir:2010) mentioned there are four reasons why *Games* should be use in the classroom, they are (1) creating fun classroom environment, (2) creating friendly classroom atmosphere (3) encourage students' emotional feeling, (4) encouraging students' confident in the classroom.

The objective of using *Games* in learning pronunciation is to change students' dependency towards lecturer example in giving correct sound. This teaching technique is effectively applied in order to create students' independence in producing every English sound. (Hancock, 1995) stated that *Games* is a teaching method that is able to change *listen to* and *repeat* teaching method into activities which are full of students' independence in producing English sounds. Therefore, the objective of using *Games* in learning pronunciation does not only create fun learning activities, but it also is also able to help the students to improve their pronunciation competence.

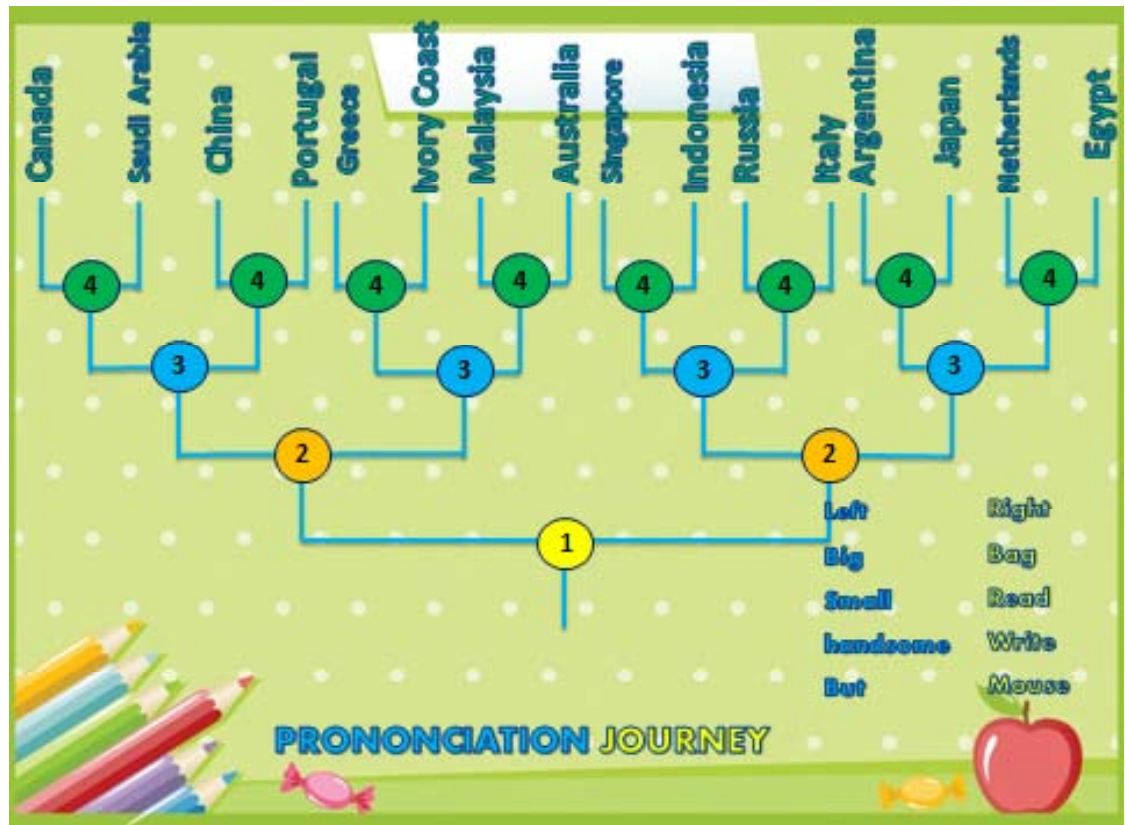
Dealing with types of *Games* which is able to be used in learning pronunciation, Hancock (1995) divided the types of *Games* from *competitive games* to *problem solving games* and from *individual games* to *whole class games*. On this study, the writer implemented four kinds of pronunciation *Games*, they are *Pronunciation Journey, Phonetics Race, and Pronunciation Maze.*

1. Pronunciation Journey

This *Games* is adapted from Hancock (1995). This *Games* needs a map which has name of some countries and a destination track to every country (see picture 1). The track has 4 posts in which every post has *left* and *right* tracks. The map also contains eight English

words which is divided into *left* and *right* column. This *Games* is a *competitive games* since every group has to compete with another group to get the highest score. the scored got by every team is determined by in what post they are able to visit or reach. If they are able to visit the country, they will get the maximum score, it is 40. When a player is only able to reach post, he will only get 20 score. If a player can not reach post 1, he only gets zero score.

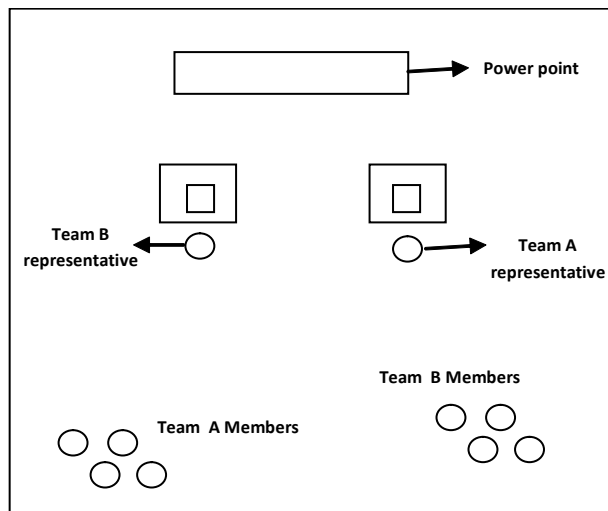
Picture 1: Pronunciation Journey Map



2. Phonetics Journey

This *Games* is implemented to help the students to understand the English phonetics. This games needs two tables and two chairs in which a piece of blank paper should be placed on every table. The lecturer then divided the students into two teams. Then both teams have to choose each representative to sit down on the chairs prepared. Every representative must be ready with a pen and paper provided on the chairs. Using power point, a lecturer then shows a word which is written in phonetics transcription. The representative has to write the real word on the piece of paper. The fastest representative who is able to write the word correctly gets point. The team who gets the highest score will be the winner.

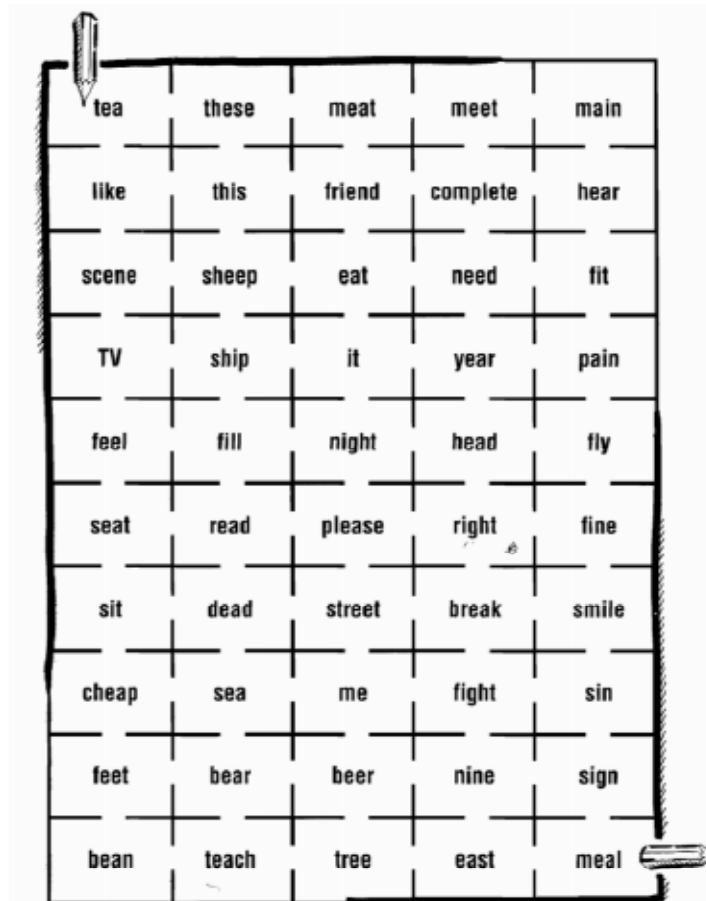
Picture 2: Phonetics Race Setting



3. Maze

This *Games* is applied to improve students' competence in producing accurate English sounds or distinguishing stress position. The technical goal of this games is how the students are able to pass the the correct *path* from *start* line to *finish* line (see picture 3). Every student is only allowed to pass the word in which the sound has been determined by the lecturer. The students are only allowed to walk horizontally or vertically. The student who gets the score is the one is able to reach *finish line*.

Picture 3 Pronunciation Maze



3. METHOD

This study uses a descriptive qualitative as the method of research. It is qualitative since it tries to explain and describe and analyze data, which are displayed in the form of field-notes (observation, interviews, and recording). The findings of this study are presented not by tools of statistical procedures or other devices of quantification.

This study was conducted at Al Hikmah Teacher Institute by involving 10 students of the second semester of English Department who were having Pronunciation Practice course. The data were the phenomena of the implementation of games in teaching pronunciation included the problems faced in using games in teaching pronunciation and the students' opinion toward the use of games in learning pronunciation. The data of the phenomena of the implementation games was obtained from observation in class, while the data of students' opinion towards the use of games in learning pronunciation was gained from questionnaire.

The instruments of this study were observation sheet and questionnaire. The observation sheet was used to observe the situation of the implementation of games which was conducted three times. The observation sheet was semi-structured type in which consist of 4 specific points observed. The questionnaires was composed and administered to the students and consisted of ten questions which were used to gain information of students' opinion or impression of using games in learning pronunciation.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To know the result of the implementation of using games in teaching pronunciation and students' opinion or impression toward this teaching strategy, the writer has analyzed the data which have gained from observation and questionnaire. The followings were the result of this study:

4.1 The Implementation of Games in Teaching Pronunciation

To find how the implementation of games in teaching pronunciation, the writer conducted observation three times. On those three meetings, the lecturer applied three different kinds of games. On the first observation, the lecturer applied *journey pronunciation* games, *phonetics race* was used on second observation, and *pronunciation Maze* was applied on the third observation.

The result of the first observation showed that the lecturer successfully applied *pronunciation journey* games in learning pronunciation. The lecturer used this game in order to measure students' achievements in mastering many English sounds which have been discussed and practiced on the previous meetings. The English sounds tested on this game were /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /v/, /θ/, and /ð/. The lecturer used this sounds since some students still found a trouble to produce theses sounds accurately.

This game was effectively applied in learning pronunciation because it successfully helped the students to produce the sounds independently. In spite of some students made mispronunciation of several English sounds, the fun activities of this game have encouraged their motivation and reduced their anxiety to pronouns English sound provided. The role of the lecturer on this game only led the game and gave correction when the students produced wrong English sounds. The students seemed excited this game since they had to compete with another team to get high scores.

The objective of using of *phonetics race* on the second observation is to improve students' understanding toward English phonetics. In applying this game, the students were also divided into two teams. Every team had to compete with another to gain high score by transforming

English phonetics into alphabetical word. Although there were some students from every team made a mistake to transform the English phonetics, but most of them were very interested in this game. They did every instruction of this game excitedly. All students were able to play this game successfully since the lecturer was also able to deliver clear instructions how to play this game.

On the third observation, the lecturer implemented *pronunciation maze* game. The objective of this game was similar with *pronunciation journey*; it is to improve students' pronunciation competence in producing English sounds correctly. This game was applied in order to know to what extent the students were able to distinguish the way of producing English vocal sound. The students were very excited to play this game. Most of them would laugh when one of their friends made a mistake in pronouncing English vocal sound. Though the students could not produce the sound correctly, they did not feel anxiety since they were aware that they played this game for fun. The role of the lecturer in this game gave the clear instruction and correction of students' mispronouncing.

The implementation of those three games has brought positive effect to the learning pronunciation atmosphere. The games have not only helped the students to improve their pronunciation, but it also helped them how to learn pronunciation in fun way. It is in line stated by Lee in Dalton (2006) using games in teaching was not only used to deliver the material in fun way but it also helped the students to improve their language ability including speaking, writing, reading, and listening. Dalton (2006) also stated that the structured activities in games reduce students' tension and anxiety in learning process. Using games in learning pronunciation has helped the students to reduce their anxiety. In spite of they made mistake in producing sound or transforming English phonetics into alphabetical word, they seemed very confident to produce every English sound.

4.2 The Students' Opinion about the Use of Games in Teaching Pronunciation

To gain the result about the students' toward using games in teaching pronunciation, the writer used questionnaires which consisted of ten questions. Nine questions related to their impression toward the application of games in learning pronunciation and question related to their opinion toward the pronunciation itself.

Dealing with students' impression toward the use of games in learning pronunciation, 80% students were very excited and the rest were excited. 70% students thought that the use games have strongly encouraged their motivation in learning pronunciation and 30% students thought it encouraged their motivation. Though the game have encourage 70% students' motivation, but it only strongly helped 50% students to improve their pronunciation and 50% students thought that it did not strongly improve their pronunciation. Since the three games were played in fun way 100% students thought that the games have strongly encouraged their confident in producing English sounds. All students also thought that using games in the classroom have reduced their anxiety in practicing pronunciation. In spite of the lecturer sometimes gave correction of students mispronouncing, all students felt that this game has helped them to be more independent in producing English sound. Related to students' preference toward the three games, 50% students were interested in playing *pronunciation journey*, 30% were *pronunciation maze*, and 20% students liked *phonetics race*.

Related to students' problem in engaging the games, 60% students had difficulty in producing new or unfamiliar English sound, and 40% students thought that lack of concentration made them face difficulty in playing the game. Deals with students' problem in learning pronunciation 80% stated that they had little practice in producing English sound, 20% thought

that difficult word caused them reluctant to practice pronunciation.

According to the percentages of students' opinion of using games, the three games had created positive atmosphere in learning pronunciation. Most students thought using games have encouraged their motivation and confident in producing English sound. The games also made them feel relax and fun so that it reduced their anxiety in practicing every English sound. Furthermore, they considered that the fun activities of the game have helped them to improve their pronunciation competence. In other hand, most students faced difficulty in playing this game because they could not pronounce new or unfamiliar word correctly. They faced the problem since they thought that they had only less practice independently in producing English sound.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the result of of the study, a conclusion can be drawn that using games in teaching pronunciation is effective in improving students' pronunciation competence. This teaching method also successfully promote students' motivation and confident in producing the English sound independently. The activities of the games have reduced students' anxiety in trying to produce English sound. In other words, almost all students give positive response toward the use of games in teaching pronunciation. The students thought that games helped them to improve pronunciation competence and reduce boredom in the classroom.

According to the result of the study, there are several suggestions that should be considered for the improvement of the use of games in learning pronunciation. First, it is suggested for the lecturers to provide the sounds of English which have been discussed before. Since the students' English skill in the classroom are heterogenous, the instruction of the games should be given clearly by the lecturer.

REFERENCES

- Dalton, E. 2006. *Language Learning Games: Why, When, and How*. (online), (<http://www.doc-txt.com/games-for-learning-and-leaning-fromgames.pdf>) accessed on June 1, 2014.
- Hancock, Mark. 1995. *Pronunciation Games*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kelly, G. (2001). *How to teach pronunciation*. London: Pearson
- Kenworthy, Joanne. 1997. *Teaching English Pronunciation*: London: Lamongan.
- O'Connor, J.D. 1998. *Better English Pronunciation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sigurðardóttir, S.D. 2010. *The Use of Games in the Languae Classroom*.(online). (<http://skemman.is/stream/get/1946/6467/13457/1/Sigridurdogg2010.pdf>) accessed on May 2, 2015.

THE NATIVE SPEAKER'S EFFECT TOWARD THE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN LEARNING ENGLISH

Rizki Februansyah

rfebruansyah@gmail.com

Tito Ali Buana

Jenderal Soedirman University, Purwokerto

Abstract

The existence of a native speaker in an institution focusing on English teaching and learning is extremely needed owing to three excuses. At the first place, the native speaker will create an English atmosphere in which the interaction with the students or lecturers will be conducted mostly in English. At the second place, the students can consult with him/her directly dealing with their English problems. Lastly, the students can learn the culture of the 'real actor' through their interaction. This paper attempts to scrutinize the effect of a native speaker toward the students' motivation in learning English. The data is garnered through questionnaire distributed to a number of English students from varied intakes and in the next phase it is confirmed with the interview. Then, it is qualitatively analyzed. The location of the research is English Department of Jenderal Soedirman University, Purwokerto, Indonesia and the respondents of the research are the students of English Department from 2011-2014 intakes.

Keywords: *native speaker, excuses, motivation, effect, English Department*

1. INTRODUCTION

Hosting a native speaker in an institution will offer a pride. The evidence was when a high school in Purwokerto had a native speaker, the principal was so proud that he invited him and introduced him to the other principals during the regular meeting. He became like an idol that triggered curiosity among them and led them to deliver some simple expressions like how are you, where do you come from, what's your name, etc. In addition, the native speaker's existence also contributes another positive impact to the institution namely with regard to its popularity. A school or college or even English course that has one or more native speakers will usually be more popular than those having no native speaker.

Another institution in the same town that hosted a native speaker regularly was Jenderal Soedirman University. It commenced in 1990-1993 when its language service accepted an English volunteer from Australia named Debra Pluckhan and then in 1998-2001 an English consultant from British Council-- Mike O'Reilly. The last was an English Language Fellow (ELF) from RELO (Alexander Anania) in 2005 up to 2006 specifically positioned in Engineering Department and also assisted the English Department. After 2005, English department has never got native speakers anymore. The management tried to solve this problem by inviting a native speaker living in Purwokerto incidentally. He acted as a guest lecturer in the speaking class for 2012-2014 intakes.

His presence was like a magnet that could attract and hypnotize the students. Based on the researcher's observation, they were likely to regard him like an actor they often saw in an English movie. He became the new idol in class. Even a passive student was urged to have an interaction with him in spite of in a very limited portion. The way he spoke and taught has given a positive impression for them. After the class was over, they usually asked the regular lecturer when he would be invited again to campus.

1.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1.1 *Native Speakers of English and How to Communicate with Them*

Native speakers of English are people whose first language is English. They learned English when they were children. They think in English. They use it naturally. Usually native speakers of English are people from English-speaking countries like the USA, Great Britain, Australia, Canada, Ireland, etc. (www.antimoon.com/words/native_speaker-n.htm).

For many years, an opposition has been created between native-speaker teachers of English and non-native-speaker teachers. And for much of that time, many non-native-speaker teachers has felt a sense of injustice and sometimes even inferiority at what they perceive as the assumed superiority of the native speaker (Harmer, 2007:119).

One of strengths of Native speakers is they often have the advantage of a linguistic confidence about their language in the classroom which non-native-speaker teachers sometimes lack – indeed, it may be differences in linguistic confidence which account for some differences in teaching practices between the two groups (Medgyes in Harmer, 2007:119).

Native speakers are often – but not always – seen in positive light by their students (which can have a good effect on motivation), and by their non-native colleagues. David Charles in Harmer (2007:119), for example, reporting on NET (Native English Teachers) LET (Local English Teachers) peer teaching in Hong Kong primary schools suggests that there are ‘a number of reasons why the primary schools can be a positive site for NET/LET collaboration.’

To communicate with a native speaker can be done in two ways i.e. virtually and directly. The first is by using the online facilities that provide native speakers like WeSpeke, italki.com, LiveMocha, SharedTalk, and many others. While the second is by inviting a native speaker to teach English in an institution for a period of time. It can be done by sending a proposal to the native speaker’s agents such as RELO (Regional English Language Office) that belongs to US Embassy and De Javato (a non-government organization based in Semarang).

1.1.2 *Motivation and Its Significance in Language Learning*

There have been numerous researches focusing on the students’ motivation in learning English. The question is why motivation has become a sexy issue among the researchers in the area of language teaching? The answer is inasmuch as motivation is the most salient component in doing or achieving something especially in educational field. If a student has a motivation regardless the level is, he will do something optimally even if he will encounter some impediments like incomplete facilities (books and language laboratory), indifferent friends or teachers, and limited financial support from parents. As a result, s/he can achieve what s/he wants— to master English. Let alone his/her motivation is high, it can be assured that the result will be very enormous. Then, what is the definition of motivation?

Various definitions of motivation have been formulated by some experts. According to Marion William and Robert Burden in Harmer (2007:98), motivation is defined as a state of cognitive arousal which provokes a decision to act, as a result of which there is sustained intellectual or physical effort so that the person can achieve some previously set goal. Moreover, Salvin in Rehman et.al (2014:1) maintains that motivation is an internal process that activates, guides and maintains behavior over time. Finally, Crookes and Schmidt in Gilakjani (2012:10) suggests that motivation is the learner’s orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language.

Mcgroarty in Johansson (2010:8) states that motivation for second language learning is created from people. Besides, she declares that it can also derive from various surroundings and the milieu of schools and the places where the teaching occurs. With regard to her second

statement, she says that having different kinds of groups that work together is one of strategies that can build students' motivation.

Another scholar that addresses the motivation is Jeremy Harmer (2007:98) who classifies it into two types—extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The former is concerning with something which comes from outside like the need to pass the exam, the hope of financial reward or the possibility of future travel. On the other hand, the latter deals with internal drive or something which comes from within the individual. Thus a person might be encouraged by the enjoyment of learning process itself or by a desire to make themselves feel better.

In addition, Deci & Ryan in Johansson (2010:8) say that people that are pushed by an inner motivation do things because they think that what they do is interesting, entertaining or challenging. Those who are driven by inner motivation do things for their own self-satisfaction. In other words, they just do something for their own pleasure without thinking or expecting a reward. It is a far cry from people with outer motivation. According to Covington in Johansson (2010:8-9), those who are urged by an outer motivation are motivated by having a grade, recognition or other rewards. An outer motivation can exist since they do not default to get some negative effects.

The above experts emphasized the importance of motivation both intrinsic and extrinsic. However, the other intellectuals like Ames and Archer in Johansson (2010:9) and Harmer (1998:8) perceive that intrinsic or integrative motivation is more significant than extrinsic or instrumental motivation. It can be understood as people with intrinsic or integrative motivation have a strong desire or mentality to succeed or achieve their goals. Consequently, they will keep moving no matter the obstacles are.

2 METHOD

There were 50 respondents involved in this small scale research. They were the English students of Jenderal Soedirman University from 2012-2014 intakes. The institution was elected since it was the place where the researcher teaches and the students were taught by a native speaker.

To garner a comprehensive data dealing with the topic of the research, the researcher employed three data samplings namely observation, questionnaire, and interview used. The goal of observation was to obtain the data directly from the research site as well as to observe directly the process of English learning especially concerning with the students' motivation. By this observation (Morrison in Cohen et.al. 2007:397) the researcher gathered the data particularly with respect to physical of the learning spot (environment and its management), human resources and program conditions. The closed questionnaires were used in this research (Cohen et.al., 2007:321-323). Its chief goal was to get deeper information from the students and then confirmed with the interview.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The followings are the results of the questionnaires distributed to 50 respondents:

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS			
1. What is your favorite native speaker's nationality?	English 24	American 21	Australian 2	Canadian 3
2. How long should a native speaker teach in your campus?	Less than a semester 1	One semester 7	One semester-one year 22	More than a year 20
3. Should a native speaker possess an English educational background?	Yes 32	No 18		
4. How important is a native speaker in your campus?	Not important 1	Slightly important 3	Important 33	Quite important 13
5. The native speaker motivated me to improve my skill.	Speaking 50	Writing 0	Listening 0	Reading 0

DISCUSSION

1. *What is your favorite native speaker's nationality?*

In relation to the first question, there were 24 out of 50 respondents or almost 50% choosing English. Even if in their daily life, they are more exposed with American English through films, songs, online resources the majority of respondents opted the first option namely English. There is a belief that English is valid when taught by people from England and this could be brought about by the formal education in the previous level. The data obtained from the interview also supported the fact. It suggested:

"The native speaker with English nationality talk exactly like the "the English language" that I have learnt when I was in the kindergarten. And it makes me learn English easier. English that I have learnt maybe has some differences either in the pronunciation or the dialect. If I compare it with the native speakers from other countries, I think English is the best native speaker. They also speak fluently." (datum 1)

2. *How long should a native speaker teach in your campus?*

The biggest number of respondents chose the third option namely one semester until one year. To have a native speaker in such period will yield a significant impact rather than only one week or two months. If the interaction with the native speaker only occurs in a such period, there is only a small number of students that will be influenced by his/her presence. The longer he/she stays in an institution, the bigger the impact is. However, there should be a commitment from the students to empower the native speaker's existence as well as from the management since the period of hosting a native speaker will also result in financial consequence. This matter should be taken into account seriously especially for those (native speakers) who are not voluntary ones. The first thing that needs to be prepared by the management is the written agreement to avoid any future dispute between them.

3. *Should a native speaker have an English educational background?*

The number of students who chose option A (yes) was 32 or approximately 64% and the rest or around 36% chose answer B (no). It makes sense as the students have a kind of idealism dealing with the criteria of a native speaker. That's why some organizations or agents that send the native speakers to some institutions usually require them to have English background. They

are like RELO (Regional English Language Office)—the organization whose task is to support the mission of the Public Affairs Section of the United States Embassy to promote mutual understanding between Indonesians and Americans through its informational, educational and cultural programs. (<http://jakarta.usembassy.gov/relo.html>). One of its programs is sending its English fellows to some universities all over the world. To be an English Language Fellow (ELF), he/she must graduate from a master degree in English focusing on TESOL program. Having that certificate can bring an academic security meaning that if there are problems concerning with English learning and teaching they can provide a convincing and reliable explanation as they learn the theories formally. Their educational background will be very beneficial in their activities to improve the English competence of both the college teachers and students.

4. *How important is a native speaker in your campus?*

There were 33 students out of 50 that chose the option important. It means that the students realize the importance of the figure in their campus. His existence can be a powerful source of motivation let alone he/she has some positive traits like friendly, attentive, helpful, etc. The followings are the students' responses with regard to native speaker's existence:

"If our college invites native speakers to teach us, we will feel motivated." (datum 2)

"They will influence the students to speak English as well as possible" (datum 3)

"It is a chance to speak with the native and it is a great honor since we are English Literature students". (datum 4)

"We are really motivated to use our English" (datum 5)

"He will trigger us to use our English" (datum 6)

5. *The native speaker motivated me to improve my skill.*

All of the respondents opted the answer A namely speaking. This is very logical as the students and the native speaker communicated orally. During the process of communication, they were very impressed with the way the native speaker talked and as a result they were encouraged to improve their speaking skill. His/her existence can create an English environment. When there was a native speaker, willingly or unwillingly the students had to use their English because he/she only spoke English. If it happens repeatedly either inside or outside the classroom, automatically their speaking will improve.

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The existence of the native speaker in English Department of Jenderal Soedirman University has given a significant impact toward students' motivation in learning English. He could encourage the students to learn and improve their English particularly their speaking skill. By hosting a native speaker there, an English atmosphere can be created. It could occur since his existence has made the students to communicate with him in English no matter their English is. Consequently, by having the interaction, their speaking skill will get improved gradually.

With respect to the duration or the length of time of a native speaker, it is recommended that he/she a native speaker should stay at least one semester. One of the reasons is when he/she stays in such period of time, the language impact especially speaking will be greater. The longer a native speaker is hired in an institution, the bigger the effect is.

REFERENCES

- Brown, H. Douglas. 2000. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (4th Ed). Addison Wesley Longman Inc. New York.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. 2007. Research Methods in Education. (6th Ed.). Routledge. London.
- Cox, Carole. 1996. Teaching Language Arts. A Student- and Response-Centered Classroom. Allyn and Bacon. Boston
- Gilakjani, Abbas Pourhosein, , Lai-Mei Leong, N. Banou Sabouri. A Study on the Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching. I.J. Modern Education and Computer Science, 2012, 7, 9-16
- Harmer, Jeremy. 1998. How to Teach English. An Introduction to the Practice of English Language Teaching. Longman. Essex.
- Harmer, Jeremy. 2007. The Practice of English Language Teaching. Pearson Education Limited. England.
- Johansson, Andreas. What influences students' motivation for learning English grammar? in www.lnu.diva-portal.org
- Murcia, Marianne Celce-. Ed. 2001. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Third Edition. Heinle & Heinle. United States.
- Rehman, Abdur , H. Ahmad Bilal, A. Sheikh, N. Bibi, A. Nawaz. The Role of Motivation in Learning English Language for Pakistani Learners. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science. Vol. 4 No. 1; January 2014
- www.antimoon.com/words/native_speaker-n.htm
- <http://jakarta.usembassy.gov/relo.html>

THE ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' ENGLISH COMPETENCE IN THE GRAMMAR SECTION IN THE PAPER-BASED TOEFL: A CASE STUDY AT ENGLISH DEPARTMENT IN BUNDA MULIA UNIVERSITY

Jonathan Tanihardjo

tanihardjo@gmail.com

Universitas Bunda Mulia

Jalan Lodan Raya No.2, Jakarta Utara

Abstract

TOEFL is a standardized test used to measure non-native English speakers' proficiency. Even though the paper-based test (PBT) as well as the computer-based test (CBT) may seem obsolete and have progressively been replaced by the Internet-based Test (iBT), most universities and institutions still make use of PBT as a graduation requirement. There are three sections in PBT, namely listening comprehension, structure / written expression and reading comprehension. However, this study only aims to provide information on students' problems, particularly those in the grammar section in the PBT TOEFL. The study involved students of the Culture and English Department in Bunda Mulia University from semester 6 who are already finished with the whole grammar subjects: Grammar I – IV and whose scores in the structure / written expression section are below 50 in the pre-test. Two Random paper-based tests are opted for in the post-test, and therefore there are 80 questions in total. The purposes of this research are to find out (1) the most frequent types of questions to occur and (2) the mistakes students tend to make. The study is then expected to help both lecturers and students to have a clearer picture of types of questions in the PBT TOEFL structure / written expression and know how to overcome problems.

Keyword: *PBT TOEFL, structure / written expression, mistakes.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In Indonesia, English functions as a foreign language but not a second language. Second Language (SL) and Foreign Language (FL) are different in regard to the use; SL is widely used among people and coexists with the national language, whereas FL is not broadly used among the speakers of the country. In other words, it has never been accepted as an official language to exist side by side with the national language.

The Test of English as a Foreign Language, better known as TOEFL, is designed to measure the English proficiency of people whose native language is not English. TOEFL has been known as one of the most popular and widely accepted English-Language test in the world. In Indonesia, most universities widely use TOEFL test, particularly PBT TOEFL as a graduation requirement and the required score ranges from one university to another.

English Testing Service (ETS) first introduced the Paper-based test (PBT) TOEFL in 1976. The components tested in the test cover listening comprehension, structure / written expression and reading comprehension. Later, the computer-based (cBT) TOEFL, which demonstrates communicative competence models, and includes more constructed-response tasks and direct measures of writing and speaking, was introduced in 1998. Few years later the more advanced TOEFL test, specifically an Internet-based version of the TOEFL test (iBT TOEFL) was devised and launched in 2005. The iBT TOEFL assesses all four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) and emphasizes integrated skills to enable students to communicate in an academic setting and prepare them for academic coursework.

Despite the three components assessed in the PBT TOEFL, this study only focuses on the errors in the structure / written expression. The purposes of this study are to find out: (1) types of questions that are the most frequent to occur in the test, and (2) kinds of grammatical structure that still proves problematic for the students in the five most frequent errors.

2. REVIEW OR RELATED REVIEW

Realizing the significance of grammar proficiency for correct use of the language, many teachers or researchers have carried out research to find out the methods, approaches and techniques in the teaching of grammar. Gewerhr (1998) states that grammaticality plays a major role; making the teaching of grammar essential to focus on in a language classroom. Many teachers have been teaching grammar using various approaches, but still, errors are present in the students' performance in terms of grammatical accuracy.

According to Hughes (2003), a test is a tool to obtain information on students' successful accomplishment of a course in a form of score, result or grade and to diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, Harris (1969), Hughes (2003), McNamara (2006) asserted that there are types of tests based on the purpose of testing, namely: proficiency test, achievement test, diagnostic test, and placement test. TOEFL test is a proficiency test that is designed to measure test takers' competence in a language which content is based on what candidates need to be able to perform.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

The participants involved in this research are the 6th semester students of the English Language and Culture Department in BundaMulia University who have completed the whole grammar subjects: Grammar I – IV and whose scores in the structure / written expression section are below 50 in the pre-test.

In the PBT TOEFL, the structure / written expression section is categorized into two subsections; the first 15 questions are incomplete sentences, and the last 25 are sentence correction, which make 40 in total. Two Random paper-based tests were administered in the post-test, and therefore there are 80 questions in total.

In BundaMulia University, it is a necessity that students get no less than 500 for the total paper-based test score, with the score of 50 for each section at the very least. The TOEFL scale ranges from 31 to 68 for structure / written expression section. In order to find out who still failed to get the minimum score, about 40 participants were assigned to do the pre-test, and surprisingly, the result showed there were 21 students who failed to get over 50.

The post-tests, which were randomly chosen, followed a day after the pre-test was administered to 21 students to ensure that the pre-test did not wear the students down. To find out the most common types of questions in the structure / written expression part in the PBT TOEFL, the writer made use of two random tests. He then analyzed the whole questions, tally and categorized them into several types.

To answer the first question, that is to find types of questions that are the most frequent to occur in the test, the writer identified every question in the tests, and then categorized the questions in the PBT TOEFL into several groups that belong to the same types, and lastly, tally the questions in each category.

Lastly, to find out kinds of grammatical structure that still proves problematic for the students, the writer first collected answers from 21 students, and then figured the percentage of errors of each question. The writer then categorized each group of identical questions, and figured the percentage of errors of each category (there are 20 groups).

4. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

As the writer mentioned earlier, PBT TOEFL is still widely acceptable as the tool to measure students' capacity in English language in an academic setting. However, about half of the students, 21 students to be specific, still failed to achieve the minimum score of 50 in the structure / written expression section. The result shows that grammar still proves to be problematic to even students who are already finished with grammar subjects: Grammar I – IV.

4.1 Frequent errors

The writer discovered that there are so many types of grammatical structure in the two random paper-based tests, and further classified them into 20 topics: (1) compound sentence, (2) complex sentence, (3) noun phrase, (4) adjective phrase, (5) verbal phrase, (6) participial phrase, (7) appositive, (8) prepositional phrase, (9) relative pronoun, (10) preposition collocation with verb, (11) causative verbs, (12) conjunction, (13) negative opening, (14) passive construction, (15) comparative degree, (16) infinitive to, (17) gerund, (18) parallel construction, (19) word-choice, and (20) subject-object agreement.

Topic	Total
noun phrase	16
participial phrase	9
adjective phrase	9
relative pronoun	8
complex sentence	6
Conjunction	5
preposition collocation with verb	4
appositive	3
Gerund	3
passive construction	3
parallel construction	3
comparative degree	2
causative verbs	2
Infinitive to	1
negative opening	1
Prepositional phrase	1
verbal phrase (modifying adverb)	1
compound sentence	1
word choice	1
subject-object agreement	1
Total	80

Table 1. Type of the most frequent questions

The result shows that the majority of questions deal with clauses or sentences. As Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999) suggest, there are four components which form a hierarchical system in a language; that is, words form a phrase, phrases form a clause, and clauses form a sentence.

There are as many as 54 out of 80 questions from 10 groups which constitute a clause or sentence, namely: compound sentence, complex sentence, noun phrase, adjective phrase, verbal

phrase, participial phrase, appositive, prepositional phrase, relative pronoun and conjunction. This implies that questions related to clauses or sentences are the most type occurring in the PBT TOEFL. However, the study is limited to only analyzing the five most frequent errors.

4.2 Noun Phrase

A noun phrase (NP) is a group word with a noun or indefinite pronoun as its head word.

The table shows that questions about noun phrase take the highest occurrence. There are 16 questions which appear to be the most frequent in the PBT TOEFL.

No.	Questions
1.	<i>Born in Texas in 1890, Katherine Anne Porter produced three collection* of short stories before publishing her well-known Ship of Fools in 1962.</i>
2.	<i>Associated with the Denishawn company from 1916 until 1923, Martha Graham developed a powerful, ----- that was integral to the foundations of modern dance.</i> <i>(A) expressively stylish (C) stylishly expressive</i> <i>(B) a style expressive (D) expressive style</i>
3.	<i>According to most psychological studies, body language expresses a speaker's emotions and attitudes, and it also tends to affect the emotions and attitudes of the listen*.</i>
4.	<i>Today, modern textile mills can manufacture as much fabrics* in a few seconds as it once took workers to produce by hand.</i>

When talking about noun phrase, a noun is not the only matter to discuss, since either what modifies or what is modified is important. In the two tests, the writer spotted six variances in questions.

In question (1), the modifier must signify what it modifies. In the sentence, *three* as an adjective incorrectly modifies a singular noun *collection*; thus the correct one is that the noun should be in plural (i.e. *collections*).

In question (2), it is a question in the incomplete sentence section (part 1). It shows that since there is an article *a*, and adjectives, a singular noun is required. The noun *style* is modified by an article *a* as well as an adjective *powerful and expressive*.

In question (3), there is an article *the* as the modifier, thus a modified noun is essential (i.e. *listener*). To put it simply, should there be an article, a noun is compulsory.

In question (4), because *fabric* is an uncountable noun, it cannot be pluralized. Moreover, a modifier *much* demands an uncountable noun, making it impossible to go along with a plural noun.

All in all, the questions associated with noun phrases are about articles, adjectives which must modify nouns, a quantifier modifying countable or uncountable noun.

4.3 Participial Phrase

Participial phrase is a word group consisting of a present participle (also known as an -ing form) or past participle (also known as an -en form), plus any modifiers, objects, and complements. When participial phrase becomes a part of a sentence, a sentence must be a complex sentence, in which there is one independent clause and one (or more) dependent clause.

Participial Phrase is the category which takes the second highest occurrence. The result shows there are 9 occurrences in the test.

In question (1), the subject of the verb is the mango trees, thereby demanding a relative pronoun *which*. However, the option (d) is not necessarily the right answer, because the noun (mango trees) appears to be the subject of a sentence, which requires a passive construction. In other words, the mango trees are affected by the action of the verb (i.e. mango trees are densely covered). As a result, a combination of both a relative pronoun *which* goes with a plural verb *are* (option B).

In question (2), as it is about possession, a relative pronoun *whose* is essential. Here, the phrase *whose singing combined powerful vitality with great dignity* is only additional information.

4.6 Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is defined as a sentence that contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The sentence is connected by a subordinate conjunction, such as: *because, while, when, after, before, since, that, etc.* However, a complex sentence comes after a simple sentence. A sentence must be complete by itself, and contain a subject and predicate, conveying a statement, question, exclamation, or command.

In this category, the writer found six instances in the two tests as the type of questions which often take place.

No.	Questions
1.	<p><i>Any critic, teacher, librarian, or poet who hopes to broaden poetry's audience faces the difficult challenge of persuading skeptical readers _____.</i></p> <p>(A) <i>that poetry is important today</i> (C) <i>to be important poetry today</i> (B) <i>for poetry to be important today</i> (D) <i>poetry that is important today</i></p>
2.	<p><i>Because it was so closely related to communication, _____ art form to develop.</i></p> <p>(A) <i>drawing was probably the earliest</i> (C) <i>early drawing probably</i> (B) <i>draw early was probably</i> (D) <i>the earliest draw</i></p>

The result shows that questions having relevance to complex sentence most often deal with the basic notion of a sentence, that is to say, a sentence must have an independent clause, in which, it must have a subject and a predicate.

In question (1), a subordinate conjunction *that* is required to give more information on what is hard to persuade skeptical readers.

In question (2), it is clear that it is a complex sentence, since there is a subordinate conjunction *because*. Nevertheless, the sentence is not yet complete and cannot stand by itself, as it misses an independent clause. It clearly shows that option (a) is the correct answer; there is a subject *drawing* and a linking verb *was*.

4.7 Problematic questions

In this session, the writer wants to discover problematic types of questions in the five most frequent questions in the PBT TOEFL. The results turn out that the majority of questions relates to the sentence construction.

Types of questions	Percentage of correct answers
participial phrase	33,33
adjective phrase	42,86
noun phrase	48,21
relative pronoun	48,81
complex sentence	68,25

Table 2. The most major errors in 5 most frequent categories

In table 2, it clearly shows the participial phrase takes the most error; students with 66,67% made mistakes in this category. On the other hand, in the category of relative pronoun, the students seem to have done better; they knew how to combine clauses with relative pronoun.

Next, in the category of noun and adjective phrases, the students appear to have problems as well; they still made mistakes in the category of adjective phrase with 47,14% and category of noun phrase with 41,79%.

The last, although complex sentence is also part of sentence construction, the students still managed to deal with the problem pretty well. Sorts of questions in this group are mostly about constructing an independent clause, with a dependent clause provided.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the results shown, the writer concludes that students have done better when answering questions not related to sentence construction. However, when the questions are associated with sentence construction, they seem to have difficulty.

The reason which contributes to this situation to happen might come from the focus of the teaching of grammar. In Indonesia, when it comes to teaching grammar, many teachers generally aim for forms or structures. The teaching of tenses, for example, only focuses on the forms, but not on the sentence construction. In the grammar tests, the students eventually apply their knowledge in the fill-in the blank questions or even multiple choice questions. In other words, the centre of teaching is not in the production in the form of essays, but only structures. The teaching of structures and sentence construction should be inseparable, since in the end, students have to apply vast knowledge in the production, such as essays.

REFERENCES

- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Gewehr, W. (1998). *Aspects of Modern Language Teaching in Europe*. New York: Routledge.
- Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a Second Language*. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Ltd.
- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for Language Teachers* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- McNamara, T. (2006). *Language Testing: The Social Dimension, Vol 1*.

MODELING SINGAPORE SYSTEM SCHOOL'S ENGLISH EXAM PAPERS TO IMPROVE OUR LOCAL SCHOOLS' STANDARD OF EXAM PAPER WRITING IN THE PRIMARY WRITING

Choiriya

ria@merlionis.sch.id and she_shanette@yahoo.com

Merlion School

H.R. Muhammad 371 Surabaya

Abstract

Reading local schools' English test paper and English books and workbooks, I find so many flaws in the content, structure and language. If the local schools' English teachers cannot do much to change the content of those readily printed materials, they still have chances to improve the quality of their test or exam papers. This analysis will bring about the empirical data of the flaws and how to fix them. Excluding the language proficiency factor, this paper focuses on comparing the structure of the paper and the language content and logic. The English exam papers from one local school SDN Lirboyo IV Kota Kediri, and one Singapore curriculum based school, Merlion School Surabaya, will be taken for the samples. The data will be collected from Primary 5 and 6 end of term exam papers. The papers will be first compared in the content structure and style areas then the common mistakes from SDN Lirboyo IV paper will be listed and corrected. Next, the effectiveness of the exam papers from Merlion School to test the skills that have been covered in the English language learning is presented. Last, suggestions on how to improve the quality of the local schools English exam papers will be clearly stated.

Key words: *Vetter: a person who proof-reads exam papers and looks into the grammar, logic and student oriented questions*

Setter : a person who sets up exam papers

Vetting: the process of reading and fixing the exam papers until they are ready for printing

1. INTRODUCTION

This year Indonesia and the other nine ASEAN countries enter AFTA (ASEAN Free Trade Area) where movement of labour is greater than before. Professionals from ASEAN countries will be able to work in other member countries easier than before. We need to improve the English speaking ability of our young generation so that they can compete with labour from other countries both in Indonesia and abroad. To start with, we have to improve the quality of our education by preparing good and effective English test papers.

Merlion School is using Singapore curriculum based school whose English paper has been set in a way that will really show how students have learnt their topics in English. Our local schools of course have different level of English since they only use it as a foreign language while Singapore curriculum based schools use English as their first language. Adopting the method of the test paper making will help us to improve the quality of the local schools' to prepare the students in the AFTA era.

2. METHOD

The one of the considerations that is taken into account in the application of the comparative method is to find sets of cognate or putatively cognate forms in the two similar variable being compared [Ivic: 2015]. The two variables used in this comparative method are Primary 5 and Primary 6 English test papers (end of semester I and end of year tests) of Merlion School and SDN Lirboyo IV Kota Kediri.

The writes has no control on the variables. The framework of the comparative theory

research is deductive. It provides information that starts from certain estimation or speculation to explain the data [Senopah Putra: 2013]. So my speculation on why the quality of the local schools' English test is low because the language proficiency of the teachers and the making process of the test paper. The analysis will bring about the empirical data of the flaws and how to fix them. The flaws give hints to the test setter English proficiency factor.

3. FINDING

3.1 Typo

In two out of the four samples, typos are found in significant numbers as shown in the table below.

Primary 5		Primary 6	
End of Semester I Test	Mid Semestral Test II	End of Semester I Test	End of year Test
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pyjama → pyjamas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fruitstall → fruit stall • wheelchar → wheelchair • sthetoscope → stethoscope • prismoid → prism • ballon → balloon • scilboat → sailboat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • he → The • nort → north • isthe → is the • juntion → junction (twice) • erase → eraser • pensil → pencil • drugster → drugstore • stationary → stationery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prize → price • provinsi → province

Typos may be considered to be very common in the making process of the paper. This is due to the belief that we are not native speakers so it is okay and permissible to make spelling error in the exam papers. This wrong belief, we have to undo. In the primary education, we have to give a very strong basic of English to avoid fossilized errors. Something wrong that is learnt from young age and will be brought up to when language learners are adult. Even after they know what the correct one is, they keep on orally producing the wrong language.


In Merlion School, all the exam papers are vetted, first by the coordinator of the subject and then by the principal. The vetting circulation is usually three to four times before the exam papers are printed. Students sometimes still spot error in the papers. In that case, corrections are made immediately by the entire students and the setter of the papers will bear the embarrassment for the correction is noted on the exam minutes. This will affect the appraisal of the concerned teachers.

If the same practice is applied for the local schools or the institution where these exam papers are made, the long list of the typos would have been avoided. The exam setters are not able to spot their own mistakes due to pre-set psychological reasons. This is when the vetters take very important roles. The vetters even have to place themselves in the shoes of the students who try to understand the question given by the subject teachers.

3.2 Wrong Structure/Grammar and Style

There is no doubt that knowledge – implicit or explicit – of grammatical rules is essential for the mastery of a language: you cannot use words unless you know how they should be put together [Ur: 1998]. The aim of giving English exams is to test the students on the four language skills tailored for certain age group or ability such as: listen, read, speak and write. If the exam paper itself has flaws then it is no longer adequate for the purpose. Avoiding such errors in the

exam papers cannot be compromised.

Primary 5	
End of Semester I Test	Mid Semestral Test II
<p>Reading text Every Monday, he wears uniform at school. But, on the other day, he often wears a t-shirt, brown belt, and black trousers. (multiple errors) <i>Every Monday, he wears uniform at school. The rest of the working days, he often wears a T-shirt, brown belt and black trousers.</i></p> <p>Question no. 3 Is Mr Rahmadi goes to work on foot? (subject-verb agreement failure) <i>Does Mr. Rahmadi go to work on foot?</i></p> <p>Question no. 9 Sisri always take a nap at 3 p.m. (subject-verb agreement failure) <i>Sisri always takes a nap at 3 p.m.</i></p> <p>Question no. 16 Nindy is very <u>thirsty</u>, she wants to drink a glass of ice tea. (different meaning) <i>Nindy is very <u>thirsty</u>; she wants to drink a glass of iced tea.</i></p> <p>Question no. 46 Mention five kinds of traditional foods! <i>List down five kinds of traditional food.</i></p>	<p>Question no. 14 Vera is sick. He must stay in the <u>hospital</u>. (wrong pronoun and article) <i>Vera is sick. She must stay in a <u>hospital</u>.</i></p> <p>Question no. 16 Cart is pulled by horse. (absence of article) <i>A cart is pulled by a horse.</i></p> <p>Question no. 17 Fisherman go to the sea by <u>sailboat</u>. (absence of article and subject-verb agreement failure)</p> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <p><i>A fisherman goes to sea on his <u>sailboat</u>.</i></p> <p>Question no. 21 Busses stops at the bus station. (subject-verb agreement failure) <i>The busses stop at the bus station.</i></p>

Mistake on question no. 3 is the most common mistake that Indonesians so when they read and write in English. Instead of using auxiliary, they tend to use to-be to go with the verb in a question even though the question is not in present continuous. The mistake may not be intended by the exam setter. Mistake on question no.9 is also common because the idea of plural in Bahasa Indonesia and English are different. This is the one of the areas that both of the vetters and setters must be careful about. We are so use to saying ‘ice tea’ instead of ‘iced tea’ because of the direct translation of ‘*es teh*’. The actual meaning of ‘ice tea’ is a frozen block of tea drink, whilst the meaning of ‘iced tea’ is a tea drink that we put ice cubes in it. On questions no. 46, we have to bear in mind that the word ‘food’ is always uncountable

In the Mid-semester Test II, we find out that Indonesian English speakers are sometimes not aware of the use of ‘he’ and ‘she’ as pronouns as the result of the inexistence of gender pronoun in our Bahasa Indonesia. The same case in the use of English articles (‘the’ and ‘a’) by Indonesian English speakers; we either omit or use the wrong one. Questions no. 17 and 21 explain that the addition of ‘s’ or ‘es’ to the ‘to infinitives’ for singular subjects is not well practically applied when Indonesians say or write in English although they recognize the rules. And the concept of singular-plural is also different between Bahasa Indonesia and English.

Question no. 3 in the End of Semester I Test is interesting to discuss. In a list, ‘I’ is always put last for the reason of euphemism in the English language; we should put our self last before the others. This is practically different from the Indonesian culture where the word ‘aku’ is usually put at the front.

Whereas question no. 4 in the End of Year Test: ‘Denada likes cooking in the kitchen.’ actually means that Denada does not like to cook if it is not in the kitchen. So the place is more importance than the cooking itself. ‘Cooking in the kitchen’ is treated as one object phrase. If the sentence is change into ‘Denada likes to cook in the kitchen’, it means ‘whenever Denada is in the kitchen, she likes to cook’. The activity is more important. If the sentence is just, ‘Denada likes cooking’, it tells about Denada’s hobby, cooking. Verb + verb-ing and verb + to + verb have different meaning. For example: ‘I stop smoking’ means ‘I don’t smoke anymore’ but ‘I stop to smoke’ means ‘I stop doing something to smoke’. This is actually very tricky for Indonesian to learn. It is better to use the common statement, ‘Denada likes cooking’. In question no. 13, we have to be careful that not all adverbs has ‘ly’ suffix. Some adverbs have different forms such as ‘first’, ‘straight’, ‘hard’ and ‘well’.

Looking at the numbers of grammatical and style errors, it gives us a red alert on how the quality of the English teaching in the primary level. It may not reflect on the daily bases of the teaching learning process but the lack of proof reading shows an ugly picture. These exam papers are prepared and printed by the district. There should be more manpower to do the proofreading. Here I would like to emphasize the importance of proofreading to minimize errors on the exam papers to improve the quality of the testing system of the English Language in the primary levels. The vetters should be chosen from the most credible personals in the office. These mistakes, when we do not do anything about it, will be brought up until these students grow up and use the English in their professional lives. Let us see this in a larger scale and be more visionary. Opening ourselves for improvement will bring us immense benefit in the future.

In making questions for the students, vetters and setters must remember this question: what if the students don’t understand my questions or I don’t understand their answers? [Harmer: 1999]. Only then, we can restructure the questions to be more students friendly.

3.3 Wrong Diction/Word Choice/Word Family

Primary 5	
End of Semester I Test	Mid Semestral Test II
<p>Question no. 46 Mention five kinds of traditional games! List down five kinds of traditional games.</p> <p>Question no. 49 Arrange these words into a good sentence! Rearrange these words into good sentences!</p>	<p>Question no. 19 A stethoscope is used for Knowing the patient’s heartbeat. A stethoscope is used for listening to your heartbeat and lungs.</p> <p>Question no. 19 Translate into good Indonesia! Translate into good Indonesian language.</p> <p>Question no. 24 A: What is it? B: It is a</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> cuboid pyramid sphere prismoid

	<p>A: What is it? B: It is a _____.</p> <p style="margin-left: 20px;">a. cuboid b. pyramid c. sphere d. prism</p> <p>Question no. 46 Draw one triangle, two conicals and three circles! Draw one triangle, two cones and three circles.</p>
--	--

Choosing the right word for the students in term of their level and understanding is very important but it is sometimes that the words in our English text book are not the standard of the proper English language. This is a strong influence of direct translation from Indonesian Language to English. In Bahasa Indonesia question paper may sound like this, ‘*Sebutkan lima jenis permainan tradisional.*’ It will be translated as, ‘Mention five kinds of traditional games.’ Because the word ‘*sebutkan*’ is translated as ‘mention’. ‘Mention’ in English means to speak about something quickly without giving any details; no need to write it down on paper. This is an exam paper; students need to write down the answer, so the perfect word to translate ‘*sebutkan*’ is ‘list down’ or ‘write down’.

The word ‘knowing’ or ‘know’ means to have information in your mind. The use of stethoscopes is actually to hear or listen to the heartbeat, not only when the person is very sick and needs to be hospitalized but also in any other situation. It is better to make it general.

In Merlion School, option of the multiple choice question must be thought off very well. There should not be wrong words and all the options must make sense but not confusing. There is no such word ‘prismoid’ and so ‘prismoid’ should not be put in the option even if the word is not the right answer of the questions.

Primary 6	
End of Semester I Test	End of year Test
<p>Question no. 6 The boy likes to climb the mountain he likes Rock climbing <i>The boy likes to climb mountains. He likes hiking.</i></p> <p>Question no. 8 my father is 85 years old. He looks old. <i>My father is 85 years old. He is old.</i></p>	<p>Question no. 4 The students were in the zoo last month. <i>The students went to the zoo last month.</i></p> <p>Question no. 13 Do not entrance! The meaning is <i>Do not enter! The meaning is _____.</i> <i>No entrance! The meaning is _____.</i></p> <p>Question no. 33 I am studying the lesson <u>now</u> (‘I’ is at school learning something from the teacher) <i>I am reviewing the lesson <u>now</u>. (‘I’ is at home, preparing for exams)</i></p> <p>Instruction no. 47 Make negative and interrogative sentence from the sentence above! (+) We do homework everyday (-) _____ (?) _____ <i>Change the sentence below into the negative and interrogative forms.</i></p> <p>Question no. 21 The form of our country is <u>republic</u>. <i>The type of government of our country is a <u>republic</u>.</i></p>

3.4 Illogical Sentences/Questions

Logical sentences or questions are important to help the students to achieve good scores in their exam. The role of the Subject coordinator to vet the exam paper is to make sure that the questions are understood by the students without leaving the subject matters. And the role of the principal to vet the exam paper is to mend the error and maintain the standard of the exam paper to be the same as the rest of the subjects being tested.

Primary 5	
End of Semester I Test	Mid Semestral Test II
<p>Question no. 23 A: "Do you mind taking the raincoat overthere?" B: "Sure," a. it is b. for you c. here it is d. you are A: Do you mind passing the raincoat over here? B: Sure, _____. a. it is b. for you c. here it is d. you are</p>	<p>Question no. 50 A: What is it? B: A: What is a for? B: It is for measuring the patient's temperature A: What is it? B: It's a _____. A: What is it for? B: It is for measuring the body temperature.</p>

Primary 6	
End of Semester I Test	End of year Test
<p>Question no. 18 My father has three children. He is <u>older</u> than me. My brother is 15 years old and I am only 12. He is <u>older</u> than me.</p> <p>Question no. 23 The students wear scouting Uniform, on Friday they go to a. Market b. School c. Swimming pool d. Post office On Fridays, all the students wear scouting uniform. They are ready to go to the _____ to send their mails. a. market b. school c. swimming pool d. post office</p> <p>Question no. 29 Their cousin hat on the a. Hand b. Head c. leg d. body You wear your hat on your a. hand b. head c. leg d. body</p>	-

It is good that the Primary 6 End of Year Test, illogical sentences and questions are not found. This part of the discussion is the most important skills that exam setters need to master. Keep the question simple without leaving parts that will help the students answer the questions right.

The use of pictures is supposedly to help the students to answer the question and not to make them confused. If we put pictures, both the setter and vetter must be sure that they are clear when the master paper is copied.

3.5 Inappropriate punctuation

Punctuation is not paid attention. There may be miss conceptions of the use of exclamation mark (!) between English and Indonesian languages. In English, exclamation marks are to end emphatic declarations, interjections, or commands. On the other hand in Indonesian, exclamation marks are use to end and imperative sentences which are not that forceful such as the imperative sentences on the exam papers. Imperative sentences do not always end in exclamation marks. When they are not strong commands, it is better to use full stops.

Capitalization is not paid any attention at all to the degree that the paper was made with huge negligence. Small thing like not using good punctuation in the exam papers, when is neglected can be a serious problem. This is never found on exam papers made by Merlion School. If a small institution can pay detail to their exam papers, sure the local Dinas Pendidikan can do the same thing to the English exam papers that they set up.

4. CONCLUSION

Mistakes are not tolerable in exam papers. We can minimize mistakes on our local school exam papers by adopting what international standardized school like Merlion School has been doing. It may be very hard at the beginning but the benefit in the future is gigantic. If we want to prepare our students for the international competence, than we have to do this as soon as possible. English is not our second language like in some of ASEAN countries but it does not mean that we cannot produce good quality exam papers, even with the English level that our students have.

These are some practices to start with: always re-read your exam papers before being submitted, asked your colleagues to also read your exam papers, refer to dictionaries, websites or books if you are not sure about some grammar or words to use and always turn on your automatic spell/grammar check on your computer when you type your exam papers. On a larger scale, we can also set up a board of veters who will help you refine your exam papers.

REFEENCES

- Brown, H.D. (2007). *Prinsip pembelajaran dan pengajaran bahasa*. Jakarta: US Embassy Printing Press.
- Harmer, Jeremy, Ed. (1999). *How to teach Grammar*. Spain: Mateu Cromo.
- Ivic, Pavle. (2015, June 8). *Steps in the comparative method*. Retrieved from <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/342418/linguistics/>
- Rosyid, Muhammad. (2014, January 17). *Penelitian Comparatif*. (Journal) [Blog Post]. Retrieved from <http://pgsdberbagi.blogspot.com/2014/01/penelitian-komparatif.html>
- Senopa Putra, Raden. (2013, May 5). *Analisis Komparatif* (Blog Post). Retrieved from <http://radesanopaputra.blogspot.com/2013/05/analisis-komparatif.html>

Ur, Penny (1988). Grammar Practice Activities: A practical guide for teachers. Glasgow: Bell & Bain Ltd

THE IMPACT OF A LANGUAGE SKILLS-BASED CURRICULUM TOWARD STUDENTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Somariah Fitriani

maria_sf05@yahoo.com

Sekolah Tinggi Bahasa Asing IEC Jakarta

Jalan Jatinegara Barat 187 Jakarta Timur

Abstract

A language skills-based curriculum is a curriculum emphasizing English skills and its components as the main essential core to obtain students' proficiency. The use of its curriculum has been implemented in STIBA IEC since its establishment in 2001 with some development afterward. Thus, the aim of this study is to explore and describe the curriculum and to evaluate its impact on students' proficiency and competency by investigating the implementation. The qualitative approach was applied by using case study method. This study relied on interviews to students, alumni and lecturers, participant observation as a key instrument and documentary analysis. The data taken were the result of tests, GPA and TOEFL test and the length of study as well as presentation during undergraduate thesis defense as the indicators to see students' proficiency and competency from the 2005 class graduates until the 2014 graduates. The research findings have shown that: 1) students' GPA and TOEFL score have increased year by year of graduation; 2) students' capability of their English skills has been improved; 3) students are able to do presentation well, more accurately and systematically. These findings can be inferred that the use of language skill-based curriculum has affected students' proficiency and competency as well as the need for curriculum development to improve students' proficiency.

Keywords: *a language skills-based curriculum, curriculum development, proficiency*

1. INTRODUCTION

As a vital component in education, curriculum needs to be developed based on learners' needs, the development of language learning approach and the advancement of technology. Thus, it must consist of a well-designed program to meet those requirements, particularly to meet the challenge of the future. Curriculum conceptually is "the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blue print for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved". (Jack C Richard: 2013). In other word, curriculum affects not only students' learning outputs but also their outcomes. Curriculum is not just a list of courses that are broken down into the syllabus. It should not only include the philosophy of educational objectives but also include the planned impact of learning outcome or competencies of students in the present and future time. It includes normative aspects, expertise, social aspects, learning methods, assessment and evaluation, and required sources.

One of the laws of the fifth discipline by Peter Senge (1994:57) is that "today's problems come from yesterday's solution" was proven and occurred at STIBA-IEC. The previous policy about students recruitment had an impact on the quality and competence of the graduates, that is about 30% graduates have GPA under 2.5, quite many students who have score about 450 of TOEFL and less competence of English skills based on thesis presentation during defense. Therefore, STIBA-IEC attempted to revise it to respond the demand of change, the development of knowledge and technology as well as the globalization. By having such problems, curriculum development is one of the ways to cope with the issue, particularly in tertiary education that has

autonomy to design their own curriculum. Curriculum development is a strategic issue in tertiary education because it directly relates to the graduates' quality, competency and proficiency, which has a role as the main parameter in determining the college quality. Since its establishment in 2001, STIBA IEC Jakarta has implemented a curriculum that focuses on students' skills and language components for the first four semesters, so they are able to take part in content lessons in the next semesters which consists of literature, English language teaching and linguistics courses. STIBA-IEC, which, concerns a lot on students' quality and outcome, also realizes that curriculum needs developing to obtain qualified human resources and achieve its vision, mission and objectives. Based on this elaboration, the researcher conducted the study to see the impact of the curriculum development to students' proficiency and competency

2. METHOD

The qualitative research was employed in this study by using case study method since the unit analysis was STIBA – IEC Jakarta. For data collection, the researcher took it from the result of tests, GPA, TOEFL and the length of study as well as presentation during seminar proposal and defense from the 2005 class graduate until the 2014 class graduate. For validity, the researcher also used method triangulation that is participant observation as the researcher is a lecturer and students' thesis advisor, interview with several students and alumni and document analysis.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

One of the parts in language curriculum design stated by Nation and John Macalister (2010:1-3) is content and sequencing. The content and sequencing part of the inner circle represents the items to learn in a course and the order in which they occur, plus the ideas content if this is used as a vehicle for the items and not as a goal in itself. The curriculum implemented at STIBA IEC is accordance with the concept to meet the standard and to gain the competence as well as proficiency which emphasizes language skills and its components in the first four semesters. Whereas, the content lessons are taught in the fifth till the seventh semester consisting of literature, linguistics and English language teaching courses. Thus, if the students have mastered the language skills and components, they will be able to follow the content lessons much more easily. The basic standar of STIBA – IEC graduates is to have proficiency in both spoken and written English well, fluently and accurately as stated by Julie Hebert quoted by Jack C Richard (2002:188) that “to communicate effectively, language learners need to become proficient in using the semantic, syntactic, lexical, morphological and phonological elements of the language being learnt. They also need to understand its pragmatic use.” Those courses are also taught under linguistics aspects while students are taught literature and English language teaching courses as well to meet the students' need of being teachers and other professions. Therefore, the design of curriculum in line with the concept stated above is assumed to improve students' ability and skills.

As a living system, organization must see all problems as a whole instead of one part. It means that each part cannot be separated from other, as when you see is not a tree but a forest. Stephen G Haines (2000:17) stated that since the focus of organization in hierarchy of seven level thinking is individual, team, organization and community, the solution of the problem is to see the parts holistically. That's why, STIBA IEC sees each part of the causes and problems, as system thinking believes that every sub system is connected and affected one another. As an organization, STIBA IEC also needs to reframe its curriculum and management to find out the right solution from structural frame, human resource frame, symbolic frame or political

frame (Bolman: 2003). From those all frames, structural and human resource frame are the appropriate ones. The processes of structural frame that needs to be considered are strategic planning, decision-making, reorganizing, evaluating, goal setting, communication, meeting and motivation. From human resource frame, strategic planning process is to have a meeting to increase the participation of all individuals. In decision-making, it is essential to have an openness to generate every individual's commitment. Then, in reorganizing process, organization needs to maintain its balance between human need and formal role. While in communication process, exchanging information, needs and feeling among individuals is significant process to avoid misunderstanding. That's why in meeting process, informal events need to be held to share and involve them. The last one is the need of self-development and self-actualization for every individual in any organization. The process of finding solution toward the problems that occurred in STIBA-IEC can be seen from these two frames to attain the success of innovation. It is important to plan the strategies, set goals and how to measure indicators as an evaluation tool to determine the effectivity of implementation of curriculum as in table 1 below.

Table 1

The goals	The indicators	Strategies
1. To improve students English skills and competence 2. To increase GPA and TOEFL score 3. To improve human resources	1. Test : quiz, mid test and final test 2. Lecturers' observation 3. Presentation 4. GPA and TOEFL score 5. Thesis products 6. Students evaluation	1. Develop the curriculum 2. Update materials 3. Vary teaching methods and techniques 4. Improve human resources 5. Select the input more tightly 6. Revise the scoring system and policy for graduates

In addition to curriculum development as essential input in education, other components also need attention to cope with the problems mention above. Several solutions of problems are elaborated below:

1). Curriculum modification

It is believed that good learning process will result good output. As a system, education is a process, which has four stages: 1) input (student, curriculum, teachers/lecturers, materials, facilities etc.); 2) process (learning process, research and management process); 3) output (GPA score, the study period, graduates, etc.); 4) outcome (acceptance and recognition of community toward graduates). As curriculum is one of inputs, the need for developing the curriculum is one of the factors why STIBA-IEC concerns a lot about this. Therefore, STIBA-IEC develops the curriculum by modifying the distribution of the courses, particularly for skill and language component subjects in the first of four semesters and revises some content subjects which are more practical and beneficial for improving students' competence. If students are mastering the skills of language and its components, they will have no difficulties to follow the following semesters. Because mastering the skills and component of language is a basic to comprehend English textbooks for content subjects. Eventually they will be able to improve their own competence. So the purpose of modifying the curriculum is to improve the standard of students' language skills as an indicator of the success of students' English ability. As stated by Tricia Hedge (2000:54-55) that communicative curriculum must consist of linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and fluency, which have significant implication for teaching and learning a language.

2). Human resource development

Lecturers are also one of the most important inputs in learning process. Because competent and qualified lecturers will result competent students, some strategies must be implemented to improve their competence; equip them with some trainings and facilities provided by the management; encourage them to pursue higher education (having master degree is a must in 2014); only teach the subjects based on their expertise; hold lecturers' internal seminar and publish scientific journal.

3). Learning model and evaluation modification

Some models in competence based curriculum such as small group discussion, role-play & simulation, case study, collaborative learning, discovery learning, problem based learning and inquiry must be also applied for the purpose of student learning center. The socialization of these models needs to be done by the management in order that lecturers have an effort to improve learning process, not only for themselves but also for their students. Those models have positive impact to improve students' ability so they are able to do presentation and master the subjects. Tests as one of the measurement tools is essential to improve the quality of students by giving the test appropriate with the learning material and syllabus.

4). Selecting the input

The selection of new students is somewhat difficult due to the need of the large number of students to run the college up to now. However, there is other alternative, which can be done, that is an interview test for transferred students. By such a test, STIBA-IEC management obtains the information about their speaking ability, which is used for evaluation input and to know whether presentation and collaboration model affects their speaking ability during the learning process.

5). Revising the scoring system and policy for graduates

Scoring system is revised to increase GPA and encourage students to improve their quality and competence. The first strategy is to classify the grade into more specific one, that is A, A-, B+, B, B-, C+, C, D, and E started in 2008. The second one is to increase standard of graduates with minimum passing score that is 2.75, no D grade and minimum score of TOEFL from 450 to 475 started in 2008 and 500 in the year of 2014.

After implementing the solutions above, some elements are quite significantly improved particularly with the GPA, TOEFL Score, and the length of study, which is stated in the below table:

Table 2: Recapitulation of GPA in the year of 2005- 2014

GPA	2005		2008		2010		2011		2012		2013		2014	
	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%
3.75 – 4.00	12	17.15	5	02.94	7	4.47	17	27.42	3	4.28	7	10.14	10	16.13
3.00 – 3.74	16	22.85	97	57.05	110	70.06	19	30.65	16	22.86	17	24.63	22	35.48
2.75 – 2.99	25	35.72	56	32.94	34	21.6	18	29.03	27	38.57	33	47.84	16	25.81
2.00 – 2.74	17	24.28	12	07.05	6	3.82	8	12.90	24	34.29	12	17.39	14	22.58
Total	70	100	170	100	157	100	62	100	70	100	69	100	62	100

Seeing the above table, particularly after the first graduate in the year of 2005, it can be inferred that there was an increase of GPA above 2.75 from 75.70% to 92.93% in 2008 and 96.13% in

2010. However, students GPA from 2011 until 2014 graduates fluctuated from 87.1% in the year of 2011, 65.71% in 2012, 82.61% in 2013 and 77.42% in 2014 because of management change. Even though it's fluctuated, it is somewhat significantly increased. It means that students' competence increased with average percentage 12.65%.

Table 3: Recapitulation of TOEFL score in the year of 2005- 2014

TOEFL Score	2005		2008		2010		2011		2012		2013		2014	
	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%
551 – 667	5	7.14	9	5.29	18	11.47	5	8.07	2	2.86	4	5.8	9	14.51
501 – 550	17	24.28	48	28.25	64	40.76	24	38.71	22	31.42	24	34.78	14	22.58
475 - 500	23	32.87	85	50	59	37.58	12	19.35	25	35.71	19	27.54	16	25.80
350 – 474	18	25.71	25	14.70	16	10.19	20	32.25	20	28.57	22	31.88	22	35.49
< 349	7	10	3	1.76	0	0	1	1.62	1	1.4424	0	0	1	1.62
Total	70	100	170	100	157	100	62	100	70	100	69	100	62	100

TOEFL is one of the tests to measure students' proficiency, which has valid and reliable test and is recognized internationally. Since STIBA-IEC increased the minimum score for test, from 450 to 475 and 500, the percentage of the score is as well increased. The above table shows that the students' scores having 475 to 500 increased 12.35% while score of 501 to 550 increased 6.9% and score above 551 increased 4.71%. It means score of test that is above 501 increased 8.1%.

Table 4: Recapitulation of the length of study in the year of 2005- 2014

The length of study	2005		2008		2010		2011		2012		2013		2014	
	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%	Ss'	%
8–10 years	-	-	-	-	1	0.65								
5 - 7 years	15	21.42	21	12.35	7	4.45	3	4.84	4	5.71	10	14.49	4	6.45
4 years	55	78.58	149	87.65	149	94.90	59	95.16	66	94.29	59	85.51	58	93.55
Total	70	100	170	100	157	100	62	100	70	100	69	100	62	100

As one of the indicators of the students' progress, the length of study is also an important aspect to evaluate to find out the students' capability that they can manage their study on time. Seeing the above table, the number of students' graduates is significantly increased 6.21%.

The findings obtained above showed the success of the implementation of curriculum development which emphasis on the modification of the distribution of English skills and component subjects for the first four semesters as well as the improvement of other elements. As stated by Roger in Ellworth (2000:51) that to implement innovations, organization needs to consider five (5) things; 1) *relative advantage* which focuses on a question about “is it better than I get?”. Based on the interview with students, their performance of communication skill is better and more improved.; 2) *compatibility* is something to do with the fitness of their needs. One of students' needs is to be able to communicate effectively and well so they can compete in finding jobs; 3) *complexity* that deals with the question “ is the implementation of curriculum too difficult?. Based on observation and interview, it's inferred that they don't find it difficult to understand the content subjects since they have mastered the skill ones.;4) *trialability* that focuses on the question “if I don't like it after trying, is it possible if I can change it with the previous one?”. The implementation of curriculum has no negative comment from students and lecturers so far.; 5) *observability* is related to a question “can I see other people before deciding to take it or not?”. The idea of curriculum development itself is based on previous experience and observation from the success of IEC as an English course, which emphasized on speaking

ability. The involvement of the founder has also contributed to organization development as stated by Lee G Bolman (2003:170) that “leadership style had a powerful impact on both productivity and morale”.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

One of the curriculum development or innovations created in STIBA-IEC is actually modifying the distribution courses, which the language skills (listening, speaking, reading and speaking) and components (vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) are in the first of four semesters. This idea is assumed to make students able to comprehend the content subjects starting from the fifth semester until the last one. They are also expected to be able to do the presentation by using English fluently and accurately as the presentation is one of the techniques mostly used. Others are to enhance the GPA and TOEFL score and overcome the difficulty in writing the final paper. By implementing this modification, it is proven that STIBA-IEC graduates are able to compete which finally raise its image in the eyes of society and other stakeholders. Innovation itself in education, one of them is to develop curriculum, is intended to improve the quality of education, which brings success for every element so that the organization can survive with every change. The curriculum development itself must follow the process as stated by Jack C Richard; a) need analysis; b) situation analysis; c) planning learning outcomes; d) course organization; e) selecting and preparing teaching materials; f) providing for effective teaching and g) evaluation. Therefore, based on the findings, the curriculum has an impact of students' proficiency and competency by seeing their performance on their GPA, TOEFL, the length of study as well as the product of thesis and presentation.

To improve the organization of education, other factors, beside curriculum development, needs to be determined such as leadership factor that will bring great impact to the success of every individual. Leader needs to consider the academic and non-academic staff needs and empower them by involving them more in many aspects.

REFERENCES

- Bolman, L.G. and Deal, Terrence E. (2003). *Reframing Organization* (3th Ed.) San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.
- Direktorat Akademik, Sub Direktorat KPS. (2008). *Buku Panduan Pengembangan Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi Pendidikan Tinggi: Sebuah Alternatif Penyusunan Kurikulum*. Jakarta: Direktorat Jendral Pendidikan Tinggi.
- Ellsworth, J.B. (2000). *Surviving Change: A Survey of Educational Change Models*. Syracuse University: Eric Clearinghouse
- Haines, Stephen G. (2000). *The Systems Thinking Approach to Strategic Planning and Management*. Washington D.C: St Lucie Press
- Hedge, Tricia. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. New York: Oxford University Press
- Nation, I.S.P and John Macalister. (2012). *Language Curriculum Design*. New York and London: Routledge
- Richard, Jack C and Willy A. Renandya (Ed). (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Richard, Jack C. (2007). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Richard, Jack C. (2013). Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching: Forward, Central, and Backward Design. *RELC Journal* 44 (1) 5-33. SAGE
- Senge, P.M. 1994. *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of The Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday.

USING COMPUTER APPLICATIONS TO PROMOTE NOTICING STRATEGY TO IMPROVE GRAMMAR LEARNING

Nuria Mufidah

nuriamufida@hotmail.com

Pusat Bahasa - Fakultas Ilmu Budaya- Universitas Airlangga Surabaya

Jln. Dharmawangsa Dalam, Surabaya

Abstract

Grammar in EFL classroom has been perceived as one of difficult subjects to learn, especially for students with low grammar competence. This might be due to direct instruction in grammar teaching without considering the SLA processing stages which play an important role in developing grammatical competence. Additionally, grammatical rules are frequently taught as objects of learning to be memorized, not as what aids learners in developing their grammar competence. For this reason applying four SLA processing stages as suggested by Skehan (2002) would be one solution to help students in grammar learning in EFL classroom: noticing, patterning, controlling and lexicalizing. Noticing, as agreed by some researchers, is a prerequisite for learning to take place. Various Strategies are proposed to promote noticing activities, and one of them is using highlighting technique which becomes the focus in this study. For this purpose, the researcher is trying to explore the use of highlighting technique in developing the learners' grammar competence. To support this strategy, computer applications will be used for two major reasons. First, many empirical evidence have proven that the use of computer has successfully improved students' learning. Second, computer applications provide tools with multi-sensory features which meet the need of today's students and accommodate students' different learning styles. Three basic applications proposed in this study are PowerPoint, Snipping Tool and Paint, which provide the highlighting features but have rarely been used in EFL classroom

Keywords:*grammar learning, noticing strategy, computer applications*

1. INTRODUCTION

Grammar has been perceived as one of difficult subject in language learning. It also has become one source of students' frustration in EFL classroom. The failure in grammar achievements also indicates that grammar needs specific attention. This grammar issue appears to become both teachers' and students' problems in EFL classroom. Problems in teaching difficult grammar concepts to the students may inhibit the learning process. Informal talks of teachers from different institutions indicate that teachers have problems in helping students memorize the grammatical forms. This is supported by the evidence from students' exercise report conveying the students' problem in memorizing the grammar concept.

Addressing this issue, we should investigate the grammar teaching in the classroom which in practice never considers the language processing stages. According to Skehan (2002) grammar teaching should apply these four stages: noticing the input, patterning the input for further analysis and generalization, controlling the analyzed knowledge in production, and lexicalizing or variegating the patterns learned to suit different communicative or situational context. This paper will focus only on the first required stage, noticing.

Noticing, as part of conscious learning, is agreed by some researchers to be a prerequisite for learning to take place. Both Long (1983, 1988) and Ellis (1990) have concluded that, overall, conscious learning seems to contribute to successful L2 development. This issue has invited debates among experts in applied linguistics. However, Bialystok (1978) has provided a

theoretical framework that allows a role for conscious knowledge, and Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) have argued that ‘consciousness raising’, drawing learners attention to the formal properties of language, facilitates language learning. The proponents of this theory is that the notion of consciousness is useful because it ties together such related concepts as attention, short term memory, control vs. automatic processing, and serial vs. parallel processing. Dealing with this, Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995), Schmidt & Frota, (1986) proposed a hypothesis related to conscious learning that focuses on what Skehan argues is “the crucial concept of noticing” (Skehan, 1998, p. 48).

Apart from the pros and cons, various strategies are proposed to promote noticing activities, and one of them is using highlighting technique which becomes the focus in this paper. To support this strategy, computer applications will be used for two major reasons. First, many empirical evidence have proven that the use of computer has successfully improved students’ learning. Second, computer applications provide tools with multi-sensory features which meet the need of today’s students and accommodate students’ different learning styles.

Three computer applications are selected for their features which can be used to promote noticing strategy: PowerPoint, Snipping Tool and Paint. The easy and quick access to those applications are the main reasons for integrating them in grammar teaching. These applications will be used to assist learning, complementing the teaching strategy being used.

2. UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES

2.1 Noticing

Grammar learning and teaching have been the focus of many researchers, addressing the idea of implicit and explicit knowledge. If explicit knowledge is conscious of grammar rules, implicit is the contrary, unconscious internalized knowledge of a language. These two different concepts have also brought controversy to claim which is more effective in enhancing grammar learning. Many theories stated that implicit knowledge will play a more important role in grammar learning. It is based on the assumption that explicit knowledge can never become implicit because they are located in different parts of the brain (Krashen, 1981). They asserted that explicit instructions are not necessary since sufficient exposure to the target items can lead into learning those items.

On the other hand, many researchers agree that explicit knowledge can have some impact on implicit knowledge. Additionally, some research data reported that students experiencing explicit grammar instruction achieve a better grammar accuracy than those who do not (Ellis, 2002, p.19). The proponent of this position, Schmidt (1990), identifies three aspects of consciousness involved in language learning process: awareness, intention and knowledge. The first sense, consciousness as awareness, embraces noticing. According to Batstone (1996), noticing is the idea that if learners pay attention to the form and meaning of certain language structures in input, this will contribute to the internalization of the rule. Many researchers have conducted study to investigate the role of attention to formal features in the input in second language acquisition. Sharwood Smith (1993) proposed consciousness-raising ; Long (1991) suggested focus on form approach; Schmidt (1990, 1993) presented ‘noticing hypothesis’ ; Tomlin and Villa (1994) asserted model of input processing; and Robinson (1995) contributed model of the relationship between attention and memory. The underlying claim of all these theoretical approaches is that “some form of attention is crucial in promoting further processing of grammatical information in adult learners’ L2. This can be done by making more salient grammatical forms in the input. (Sharwood Smith, 1993). In grammar learning, among the

techniques employed to enhance input include input modification and manipulation of the text (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995, Leow 1993, 1995; Shook 1990, 1994). Additionally, Leow (1997) stated that attempts to draw L2 learners' attention to targeted form can be done by highlighting or making salient the forms through the use of typographic manipulation (e.g., larger type sizes and different typefaces) and typographic cues, (e.g., bolding, colour shading and coding, underlining, and uppercasing etc.). (p.167).

2.2 Computer-Enhanced Language Learning

The rapid growth of technology has brought great changes in many areas, including education which deals with learning and teaching activities. The new generation characteristics which are quite different from the previous one have forced educators to make major changes in the classroom. They are fast thinkers, multitaskers, and adopt various learning styles. They are more visual, critical and analytical learners, Technology which has become part of their life can facilitate these changes. For this reason the integration of computer application will fit the requirement. Dunkel (1990), for example, asserted that the possibilities of computer technology as a tool could include increasing language learners' self esteem, vocational preparedness, language proficiency and overall academic skills. Hypermedia technology with its linking and interactive capabilities was used as a tool to enhance vocabulary learning (Liu, 1994), and reading comprehension (Hult, Kalaja, Lassila, & Lehtisalo, 1990).

3. APPLYING NOTICING STRATEGY IN GRAMMAR LEARNING:

Creating input enhancement needs more preparations before teaching. For this purpose, Cross (2002) summarizes factors that draw attention to certain features in input: *Explicit instruction* (instruction explaining and drawing attention to a particular form), *Frequency* (the regular occurrence of a certain structure in input), *Perceptual Salience* (highlighting or underlining to draw attention to a certain structure), *Task Demands* (constructing a task that requires learners to notice a structure in order to complete it).

Dealing with grammar learning, Ellis (2002) outlines five teaching activities to develop grammatical knowledge of a problematic feature (pp. 30-31):

- 1. Listening to comprehend a text that has been structured to contain several examples of the target form.
- 2. Listening to notice:
Students listen to the same text again, but are given a gap-fill exercise. The target form is missing and the students simply fill it in exactly as they hear it to help them notice the form.
- 3. Understanding the grammar point:
With help from the teacher, the students analyze the data and “discover” the grammar rule.
- 4. Error identification
Students are given a written text containing errors and are asked to correct them.
- 5. Application
Students apply their knowledge in a production activity.

Ellis also added that this is not designed to develop implicit knowledge but simply to develop awareness of grammar. It may aid in the eventual acquisition of implicit knowledge when it is supplemented with other forms of input and communicative tasks.

3. COMPUTER APPLICATIONS WITH FEATURES TO PROMOTE NOTICING

As digital media, these computer applications have specific features that can be used to apply noticing strategy to enhance grammar learning. These three applications can be used to help teachers draw students' attention to grammar items. They are selected for specific reasons: They can be found in Windows platform, simple to operate, they provide features which can be used to promote noticing strategy

PowerPoint™

Microsoft PowerPoint is commonly and widely used by teachers all over the world for lesson presentation in the classroom, but it is rarely used to apply noticing strategy using the provided features. In fact, PowerPoint™ has several interesting features to attract learners' attention visually. The most feasible is the animation feature. This feature is easy to use but give attractive effects. The animation can help learners understand difficult concept in grammar such as main clause and sub clause, identify subject and verbs and the other parts of speech. This animation also can be used to highlight words, phrases or sentences. In addition to animation feature, PowerPoint provides three types of movements:

1. Entrance, emphasis, and exit of elements on a slide itself are controlled by what PowerPoint calls Custom Animations.
2. Transitions, on the other hand, are movements between slides. These can be animated in a variety of ways.
3. Custom animation can be used to create small story boards by animating pictures to enter, exit or move.

Example :

Snipping Tool™

Snipping Tool's main function is to capture everything on the computer screen. With this application we can select objects or anything in one click. Another major advantage of this application is the highlight feature which can be used to apply noticing strategy in grammar learning. The pen feature will give additional function to attract the learners' attention on specific grammar form that they are learning. The eraser feature will clear all highlight and pen scratch we have made on the captured text.

Example :

Paint™

Paint has more complete feature than SnippingTool but it cannot highlight text clearly. It can be used to capture texts on the screen and convert it into images.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Using computer application in the classroom will certainly help teachers in conveying difficult concepts in grammar through visual presentation which is preferred by today's students rather than using plain text and teacher's explanation only. One thing that should be considered is the preparation time. Teachers would need more time to prepare the materials supplementing the existing textbook. Besides, they must be familiar with the applications, meaning additional

time to learn the applications. The cost of providing the facilities also become one of the considerations since at least the classroom should have a computer and LCD projector. Unfortunately, this strategy will exclude schools or institutions with low technology.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Despite the differing theories about consciousness raising strategy and the students' characteristics in learning supported with the suitable integrated technology, it can be summarized that noticing strategy can improve students' grammar learning since the technology can attract or draw students' attention visually which is crucial in language learning process before entering the next stages of learning. Even though the use of technology cannot replace the major task of teacher in facilitating the teaching and learning process, integrating technology in the classroom would give benefits for both teachers and students. In line with the rapid development of technology which eventually require changes and adaptations over time, sophisticated classroom is recommended to maximize the use of technology for teaching and learning, especially in EFL classroom where English grammar is considered to be one of difficult subjects. In brief, using technology in the classroom is expected to bring two-fold benefits: to bridge the gap between teachers and students and to improve learning better. Additionally, since this paper focuses only the use of computer applications in complementing the commonly used teachers' grammar teaching strategies, further exploration is needed to maximize the use of computer applications to invent new teaching strategies to improve grammar learning, replacing the traditional method.

REFERENCES

- Batstone, Rob. (1996). *Key Concepts in ELT: Noticing*. ELT Journal, Volume 50/3, 8 paragraphs.
- Bialystok, E. 1978. 'A theoretical model of second language learning.' *Language Learning* 28:69-84
- Cross, Jeremy. (December 2002) 'Noticing' in *SLA: Is it a Valid Concept?* TESL-EJ. Vol. 6, No.3.
- Dunkel, P. (1990). *Implications of the CAI effectiveness research for limited English proficient learners*. *Computers in the Schools*, 7(1/2), 31-52
- Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Ellis, Rod. (2002). *The Place of Grammar Instruction in the Second/Foreign Language Curriculum*. In Fotos, Sandra and Eli Hinkel (Eds.), *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms* (pp. 17-34). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Hult, S., Kalaja, M., Lassila, O., & Lehtisalo, T. (1990). *HYPERREADER-An interactive course in reading comprehension*. *System*, 18(2), 189-198.
- Jourdenais, R., Ota, M., Stauffer, S., Boyson, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). *Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis*. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 183-216). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Krashen, Stephen. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Leow, R.P (1993). "To simplify or not to simplify: A look at intake." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 15: 333-355.
- Leow, RP (1995). "Modality and intake in second language acquisition." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 17:79-89.
- Leow, R.P (1997a). "Attention, awareness, and foreign language behaviour." *Language Learning* 47: 467-506.
- Liu, M. (1994). *Hypermedia assisted instruction and second language learning: A semantic-network-based*

- approach*. Computers in the Schools, 10(3/4), 293-312.
- Long, M. (1983). *Does second language instruction make a difference?* A review of the research. TESOL Quarterly 17, 359-382.
- Robinson, P. (1995). *Attention, memory and the noticing hypothesis*. Language Learning, 45, 283-331.
- Rutherford, W., & Sharwood-Smith, M. (1985). *Consciousness-raising and universal grammar*. Applied Linguistics 6, 274-282.
- Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). *Developing basic conversational ability in a second language. A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese*. In R. Day (Ed.), Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition, (pp. 237-326) Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). *The role of consciousness in second language learning*. Applied Linguistics 11, 129-158.
- Schmidt, R. (1993). *Awareness and second language acquisition*. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 13, 206-226.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). *Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: Of artificial grammars and SLA*. In N. Ellis (Ed.), Implicit and explicit learning of languages (pp. 165-209). London: Academic Press.
- Schmidt, R. (1995). *Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness*. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language teaching and learning* (Technical Report No. 9) (pp. 1-64). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i at Manoa.
- Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). *Consciousness-raising and the second language learner*. Applied Linguistics, 2, 159-169.
- Shook, DJ (1990). *The Processing of Grammatical Structures Via Written Input*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
- Shook, D.J. (1994). *"FL/L2 reading, grammatical information, and the input-to-intake phenomenon."* Applied Language Learning 5: 57-93.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tomlin, R., & Villa, V. (1994). *Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition*. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 16, 183-203.

USING MACHINE TRANSLATION: ACCURACY AND METHODOLOGY

A Case Study of Students' Translation Result at Buddhi Dharma University

Riris Mutiara Paulina. S.

rirismutiarasimamora@gmail.com

Shenny Ayunuri Beata. S.

shennysitindjak86@gmail.com

Buddhi Dharma University

Abstract

Most translation theorists agree that translation is understood as a transfer process from a foreign language or a second language to the mother tongue. However, market requirements are increasingly demanding that translators transfer texts to a target language that is not their mother tongue, but a foreign language (Gerding-Salas, 2000). Translators need translating tools to solving their problems. Nowadays, there are many tools for translating text that commonly used. One of the tools is machine translation. When learning translation course, students sometimes use machine translation as their tools to translate the text. The subject of this research is fourth semester students of English Department at Buddhi Dharma University. This research is focused on the students' translation result of chosen newspaper articles and student's method in translating the text by using machine translation. The machine translation in this research represented from "freetranslation" and "imtranslator" software. Researchers analyze the result of student's translation based on translation methods by Newmark (1988:45-47), they are 1) word-for-word, 2) literal, 3) faithful, 4) semantic, 5) communicative, 6) idiomatic, 7) free, and 8) adaptation translation. This research used a qualitative approach with descriptive research. Researchers also give questionnaire to 15 students to find out students' opinion about learning translation with machine translation. The goals of this research are a) to know which translation method that commonly used by students, and b) students' perception about machine translation in learning process.

Keywords: *machine translation, translation, translation methods*

1. INTRODUCTION

The Translation subject is one of compulsory subjects at Buddhi Dharma University. This subject divided into two stages, Translation 1 for third semester students and Translation 2 for fourth semester students. Translation 1 goal is translating English sentences into Bahasa. It focused on grammar and the patterns of sentences. While Translation 2 goal is translating various text from English to Bahasa and vice versa. According to Newmark (1988), the translation aims to shift the meaning of a text into another language in accordance with the intentions of the author of the text. While Baker (2011) emphasized that translating is the search of an equal meaning of the source language (SL) to the target language (TL) and consider the lexical level at an equal, phrasal, textual, grammatical, and pragmatic. From Newmark and Baker, researchers come to conclusion that translation is the process of transferring meaning from source language to target language by considering various aspects to produce a translation which is accurate and acceptable.

Basically, able to translating many kinds of text is one of the purposes of translation subject at English Department of Buddhi Dharma University. For instance, translating informative text, it required method so that the information from the text can be delivered to the reader, not only the message but also the word choices. According to Newmark (1988:45-47) there are 8 methods in translation, they are 1) word-for-word, 2) literal, 3) faithful, 4) semantic, 5)

communicative, 6) idiomatic, 7) free, and 8) adaptation translation. Meanwhile, to make an equal and accurate translation is not easy for students even for the translators. Accuracy also has an important aspect in translation. As stated by Larson (1998:530), accuracy refers to the precise understanding of the SL message and the transfer of the message as accurate as possible into the TL. This means, to make an equal and acceptable translation, students need precise method and accuracy.

Teaching translation in the classroom with limited time needs a good time management. The class was held 120 minutes, with this limited time sometimes students didn't need enough time to finish translating the text. They usually bring dictionary to help them translating the source language in the classroom but that was not enough, they still have problem with the limited time. To handle this problem, students need another tools to help them. We consider to use machine translation because it is easy to carry and has open access.

2. METHOD

This study was a case study which investigated students' translation result at English Department in Buddhi Dharma University. There were 32 students as participant in this study. They are divided into two classes which consisted of sixteen students in each class. This study was conducted in even semester academic year 2014/2015. Researchers used informative text from The Jakarta Post online newspaper.

In this research the data was taken from students' translation result from Translation 2 course and questionnaires. The machines translation that used in this research are imtranslator.net and freetranslation.com.

The data collecting was taken from 20th April, 27 April and the last meeting on 11th May 2015. In the first meeting, students used freetranslation.com as their tools. The second meeting, they used imtranslator.net and the third meeting, they were free to choose one of the tools. Researchers processing the data by comparing the last meeting results of student translations with both machine translation. The next step is to compare the results of students' translation with lectures' translation. Finally, the researchers analyzed which method is the most used by students and used the questionnaire to know the students' perception about machine translation.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The total students' translation results are 32 scripts. From the data analysis found that, there are 7 students (21.8%) used freetranslation.com and 25 students (78.2%) used imtranslator.net as their machine translation to help them translating the text. The findings are divided into four parts, part a as freetranslation.com and students' result, part b is imtranslator.net and students' result then, part c is the lectures and students' result and the last part is questionnaires result.

a. freetranslation.com and students' result

Researchers took two paragraphs out of five paragraphs in informative text and compare it with students' translation result. Below is the data compare to freetranslation.com:

SL paragraph 1

Rupiah to range between 13,000 - 13,400 per dollar in 2015.

The Jakarta Post, Jakarta | Business | Mon, May 11 2015, 12:56 PM

Business News Economist Destry Damayanti has said the rupiah exchange rate is projected to range between Rp 13,000 and Rp 13,400 per US dollar, far above the assumption of Rp 12,500 per dollar as detailed in the revised state budget for 2015.

freetranslation.com

Rupiah untuk jangkauan antara 13.000 - 13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015.

Jakarta Post, Jakarta | Bisnis | Senin, 11 mei 2015, 12:56

Berita Bisnis

Destry ekonom Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diproyeksikan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 dan Rp 13,400 per dolar AS, jauh di atas andaian Rp 12.500 per dolar seperti yang diperincikan dalam revisi anggaran negara untuk tahun 2015.

Table 1

Paragraphs 1 of students' translation result using freetranslation.com

Lestari	<p>Jangkauan rupiah antara 13,000 - 13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015. Jakarta Post, Jakarta Bisnis Senin, 11 mei 2015, 12:56 PM Kabar Bisnis Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13,000 - 13,400 per dolar Amerika Serikat, jauh diatas asumsi Rp 12,500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015.</p>
Andinia	<p>Rupiah untuk jangkauan Antara 13,000 – 14,000 per dolar pada tahun 2015. The Jakarta Post, Jakarta Bisnis Mon, 11 Mei 2015, 12:56 PM Bisnis Berita Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diproyeksikan berkisar antara Rp 13,000 dan 13,400 per dolar Amerika Serikat, jauh diatas andaian Rp 12,500 per dolar seperti yang diperincikan dalam anggaran Negara untuk 2015.</p>
Ono	<p>Rupiah untuk jangkauan antara 13.000 – 13.400/ dollar pada tahun 2015 Jakarta post, senin, 11 mei 2015 Berita bisnis Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diproyeksikan berkisar antara Rp. 13.000- Rp. 13.400/Dollar US, jauh di atas asumsi Rp 12.500/Dollar seperti yang diperincikan dalam revisi anggaran Negara untuk tahun 2015.</p>
Rena	<p>Rupiah untuk jangkauan antara 13.000 – 13.400 per dollar pada tahun 2015 Jakarta Pos, Jakarta Senin, 11 Mei 2015. 12.56 WIB Berita bisnis Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diproyeksikan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 – dan Rp 13.400 per dollar AS, jauh di atas asumsi Rp. 12.500 per dolar seperti yang diperincikan dalam revisi anggaran Negara untuk tahun 2015</p>
Grace	<p>Rupiah jangkauan antara 13.000 – 13.400 per dollar di tahun di tahun 2015 The Jakarta post, Jakarta Bisnis senin, 11 mei 2015, 12.56 Berita bisnis Destry Damayanti, ahli ekonomi mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diproyeksikan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 - Rp 13.400 per dollar AS, jauh di atas asumsi Rp 12.500 per dolar seperti yang diperincikan dalam revisi anggaran negara untuk 2015.</p>

From the data above, there are some changes that students did from freetranslation.com result. One out of five students changed an irrelevant sentence “*rupiah untuk jangkauan*” with “*jangkauan rupiah*”. 2 students changed “*berita bisnis*” into “*kabar bisnis* and “*bisnis berita*”, 5 students changed “*Destry ekonom Damayanti*” into 1) *ekonom Destry Damayanti*, and 2) *Destry Damayanti, ahli ekonomi*. Another words like “*diproyeksikan*” change into “*diperkirakan*” and “*di atas andaian*” become “*di atas asumsi*”. One student changed sentence “*yang diperincikan dalam revisi anggaran negara untuk tahun 2015*” into “*secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015*”

SL paragraph 2

“Currently, the market is waiting to see whether or not the government can start the groundbreaking of its infrastructure projects” she as quoted by Antara in Jakarta on Monday.

freetranslation.com

“Saat ini, pasar yang sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah atau tidak dapat memulai terobosan dari proyek-proyek infrastruktur” ia seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.

Table II

Paragraph 2 of students’ translation result using freetranslation.com

Lestari	“Saat ini, pasar yang sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai pencanaan- gan proyek infrastruktur ” katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.
Andinia	“Saat ini, pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah atau tidak dapat memulai terobo- san dari proyek – proyek infrastruktur” dia yang dikutip Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.
Ono	Saat ini pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah bisa atau tidak untuk memulai terobosan dari proyek – proyek infrastuktur katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta senin.
Rena	“saat ini, pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah bisa atau tidak memulai terobosan dari proyek-proyek infrakstruktur”, katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada senin.
Grace	Saat ini pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah atau tidak pemerintah dapat memulai tanah sengketa dari proyek-proyek infrastruktur” katanya sebagai kutipan di Antara Jakarta, Senin.

The table 2 shows that there are 4 students eliminated words “pasar ini sedang” and changed into “pasar sedang”. 4 students changed sentence “apakah pemerintah atau tidak dapat memulai terobosan dari proyek-proyek infrastruktur” with 1) apakah pemerintah dapat memulai pencanangan proyek infrastruktur, 2) apakah pemerintah bisa atau tidak untuk memulai terobosan dari proyek – proyek infrastuktur, 3) apakah pemerintah bisa atau tidak memulai terobosan dari proyek-proyek infrakstruktur and 4) apakah atau tidak pemerintah dapat memulai tanah sengketa dari proyek-proyek infrastruktur. Three students changed words “ia seperti dikutip” into “katanya seperti”, two students change it into “dia yang dikutip” and “katanya sebagai kutipan”

b. imtranslator.net and students’ results

Below are the descriptions about imtranslator.net and students’ result:

SL

Rupiah to range between 13,000 - 13,400 per dollar in 2015.

The Jakarta Post, Jakarta | Business | Mon, May 11 2015, 12:56 PM

Business News

Economist Destry Damayanti has said the rupiah exchange rate is projected to range between Rp 13,000 and Rp 13,400 per US dollar, far above the assumption of Rp 12,500 per dollar as detailed in the revised state budget for 2015.

imtranslator.net

Rupiah untuk berkisar antara 13.000-13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015.

Bisnis Berita

Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 dan Rp 13,400 per dolar AS, jauh di atas asumsi Rp 12.500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015.

Table III

Paragraph 1 of Students' translation result using imtranslator.net

Dennis	<p>Rupiah berkisar antara 13,000 - 13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015 The Jakarta Post, Jakarta Bisnis Senin, 11 Mei 2015, 12:56 PM Berita Bisnis Pakar Ekonomi Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13,000 dan 13,400 per dolar Amerika Serikat, jauh diatas asumsi Rp 12,500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk tahun 2015.</p>
Maria	<p>Rupiah untuk kisaran antara 13,000 - 13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015 Jakarta Post Jakarta Bisnis Senin, 11 Mei 2015, 12:56 Berita Bisnis Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13,000 dan Rp 13,400 per US dolar, secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015.</p>
Yuana	<p>Rupiah berkisar antara 13,000 - 13,400 per dolar pada tahun 2015. Jakarta, Jakarta Post Bisnis Senin, 11 Mei 2015, pukul 12:56 PM Usaha Berita Ekonomi Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13,000 dan 13,400 per dolar AS, jauh diatas asumsi Rp. 12,500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015.</p>
Kaleb	<p>Rupiah berkisar antara 13.000 – 13.400 per dolar pada tahun 2015 The Jakarta post, Jakarta Bisnis senin, 11 mei 2015, 12.56 Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 dan Rp 13.400 per dolar AS, jauh di atas asumsi Rp 12.500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015.</p>
Windi	<p>Rupiah berkisar antara 13.000-13.400 per dolar pada tahun 2015 The Jakarta post, Jakarta Business senin, 11 may 2015, 12.56 Berita bisnis Ekonom Destry Damayanti berkata kurs rupiah telah terhitung berkisar antara 13.000 dan 13.400 per dolar Amerika, jauh di atas perkiraan dari 12.500 per dolar sebagaimana tercantum dalam revisi APBN untuk tahun 2015.</p>

The data above shows that two students change words “*rupiah untuk berkisar*” into “*rupiah berkisar*” and “*rupiah untuk kisaran*”. The words “*bisnis berita*” changed into “*berita bisnis*” and “*usaha bisnis*”. One of 5 students changed sentence “*Ekonom Destry Damayanti mengatakan nilai tukar rupiah diperkirakan berkisar antara Rp 13.000 dan Rp 13,400 per dolar AS, jauh di atas asumsi Rp 12.500 per dolar secara terperinci dalam revisi APBN untuk 2015*” into “*Ekonom Destry Damayanti berkata kurs rupiah telah terhitung berkisar antara 13.000 dan 13.400 per dolar Amerika, jauh di atas perkiraan dari 12.500 per dolar sebagaimana tercantum dalam revisi APBN untuk tahun 2015.*”

SL paragraph 2

“Currently, the market is waiting to see whether or not the government can start the groundbreaking of its infrastructure projects” she as quoted by Antara in Jakarta on Monday.

imtranslator.net

“Saat ini, pasar ini menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat mulai inovatif proyek-proyek infrastruktur” dia seperti yang dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.

Table IV

Paragraph 2 of Students' result using imtranslator.net

Dennis	“Saat ini, pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai perancangan proyek - proyek infrastruktur” katanya , seperti yang dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.
Maria	Saat ini, pasar ini menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat mulai pencanangan proyek - proyek infrastuktur,” katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.
Yuana	Saat ini, pasar ini menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai pencanangan proyek - proyek infrastruktur, katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari Senin.
Kaleb	Saat ini, pasar ini menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai perancangan proyek-proyek infrastruktur, katanya , seperti yang dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari senin.
Windi	“ Kini, pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai menggali proyek in-frastruktur.” Katanya seperti dikutip oleh Antara di Jakarta pada hari senin.

From the table above, the translation result from imtranslator.net “saat ini, pasar ini menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat mulai inovatif proyek-proyek infrastruktur” changed into “Saat ini, pasar sedang menunggu untuk melihat apakah pemerintah dapat memulai perancangan proyek - proyek infrastruktur”. Two students changed only some words like “inovatif” into 1) pencanangan, 2) perancangan and 3) menggali. The words “dia seperti” changed into “katanya” by 2 students, and the others use words “katanya seperti dikutip”

c. Lectures and Students' result

This part describe about translation result of lectures and students.

SL paragraph 3

Destry said Indonesia's economic structure was still being affected by several factors, especially in the industrial sector, which had not yet developed optimally.

LT

Destry mengatakan, struktur ekonomi Indonesia masih dipengaruhi oleh beberapa faktor, terutama dalam sektor industri yang masih belum dikembangkan secara optimal.

Table V

Paragraph 3 of Lectures and Students translation result

Icca	Kata Destry struktur ekonomi Indonesia masih menjadi terpengaruh oleh beberapa faktor, terutama dalam sektor industri yang tidak belum mengembangkan secara optimal.
Agus	Destry mengatakan, struktur ekonomi Indonesia masih menjadi terpengaruh oleh beberapa faktor, terutama dalam sektor industri, yang belum dikembangkan secara optimal.
Meny	Destry berkata , struktur ekonomi Indonesia menjadi terpengaruh oleh beberapa faktor terutama di sektor industri yang tidak telah dikembangkan secara optimal.
M. Zainuddin	Katanya struktur ekonomi Indonesia masih terpengaruh oleh beberapa faktor-faktor, terutama di sektor industri yang belum dikembangkan secara optimal.
Imelda	Kata Destry struktur ekonomi Indonesia masih terpengaruh oleh beberapa faktor, terutama dalam sektor industri yang mana belum dikembangkan secara optimal

Table V shows that 4 students changed words “Destry mengatakan” into 1) kata Destry, 2) Destry berkata and 3) katanya. Three students changed words as “dipengaruhi” into “menjadi terpengaruh” and “masih terpengaruh”. The sentence “sektor industri yang masih belum

dikembangkan secara optimal” changed into 1) sektor industri yang tidak belum mengembangkan secara optimal, 2) sektor industri yang tidak telah dikembangkan secara optimal and 3) sektor industri yang mana belum dikembangkan secara optimal.

SL paragraph 4

“When our economy grows, consumption will grow and this will be followed by increases in imports, including imports of raw materials such as steel. If we use these in productive sectors, this will attract investors” said Destry, highlighting that 76 percent of Indonesia’s imports were of raw materials.

LT

“Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi juga tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti dengan meningkatnya barang impor, termasuk impor bahan baku mentah, seperti baja. Jika kita menggunakan bahan baku mentah dalam sektor – sektor produktif, hal ini akan menarik para investor” kata Destry, menyoroti bahwa 76 persen dari barang impor Indonesia adalah bahan baku.

Table V

Paragraph 4 of Lectures and Students translation result

Rossalia	“Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi akan tumbuh dan akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor , termasuk impor bahan baku seperti baja. Jika kita menggunakan ini dalam sektor - sektor produktif, hal ini akan menarik investor ” kata Destry, menyoroti bahwa 76 persen impor di Indonesia adalah bahan baku.
Meylina	Ketika ekonomi kita berkembang konsumsi akan tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya import , termasuk import bahan baku seperti baja. Jika kita menggunakannya dalam sektor-sektor produktif ini akan menarik investor kata Destry menyoroti bahwa 76% dari import Indonesia adalah bahan baku.
Satria	Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi akan tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti oleh peningkatan impor, termasuk impor bahan baku seperti baja. Jika kita menggunakan ini dalam sektor - sektor produktif, hal ini akan menarik investor, kata Destry, menyoroti yang 76 persen Indonesia impor bahan baku.
Christi	Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, pemakai akan bertambah dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor , termasuk impor bahan baku baja. Jika kita investor kata Destry, menyoroti bahwa 76 persen dari impor Indonesia yaitu bahan baku.
Michael	‘Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi akan tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor , termasuk impor bahan baku seperti baja. Jika kita menggunakan ini dalam sektor-sektor produktif, hal ini akan menarik investor,’ kata Destry, menyoroti bahwa 76 persen impor di Indonesia adalah bahan baku.

The data above shows that sentence “ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi juga tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti dengan meningkatnya barang impor, termasuk impor bahan baku mentah, seperti baja” changed into 1) ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi akan tumbuh dan akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor, termasuk impor bahan baku seperti baja, 2) ketika ekonomi kita berkembang konsumsi akan tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya import, termasuk import bahan baku seperti baja, 3) Ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, pemakai akan bertambah dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor, termasuk impor bahan baku baja and 3) ketika perekonomian kita tumbuh, konsumsi akan tumbuh dan ini akan diikuti oleh meningkatnya impor, termasuk impor bahan baku seperti baja.

d. Questionnaires result

Researchers used questionnaire in order to find out students’ perception about machine

translation. There three statements and two questions in it. They are:

1. I enjoy using machine translation as translation tools.

From the questionnaires, 19 students like used machine translation, while 13 students didn't like use machine translation. This means, 59.4% students like using machine translation and 40.6% students didn't like using machine translation.

2. Machine translation is very useful for helping me.

84.4% students agree that the machine translation is not useful and 5 students or 15.6% students agree that using machine translation is very useful for them.

3. After using machine translation, I always review my TL before I submit it.

There are 27 students (84.4%) review their TL before they submit their translation result and 4 students (12.5%) didn't do review their TL before they submit their translation result.

4. What are the advantages of using machine translation?

Most of students answered that machine translation is faster and easier, the other reasons are 1) it helps students to finish their translation problem, 2) they can compare machine result with their TL and 3) to help them find the meaning of SL into TL.

5. What are the disadvantages of using machine translation?

Their reasons are 1) sometimes difficult to understand the meaning because the grammar isn't correct/ungrammatically, 2) they have to do double check, 3) make them lazy to translate by themselves and 4) there is no challenge if they use machine translation.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the data analysis, we concluded that from 32 students and five paragraph of SL they use some methods, like:

- Paragraph 1 = communicative (14 students), semantics (8 students), word to word (5 students), literal (3 students) and free translation (2 students).
- Paragraph 2 = communicative (4 students), semantics (18 students), word to word (3 students), literal (5 students) and free translation (2 students).
- Paragraph 3 = communicative (5 students), semantics (12 students), word to word (14 students) and free translation (1 students).
- Paragraph 4 = communicative (11 students), semantics (6 students), word to word (6 students), literal (7 students) and free translation (2 students).
- Paragraph 5 = communicative (6 students), semantics (9 students), word to word (14 students), literal (2 students) and free translation (1 students).

REFERENCES

- Baker, Mona. 2011. *In Other Words*. Routledge. New York.
- Larson. 1998. *Meaning - Based Translation*. University Press of America, Inc. Oxford.
- Newmark, Peter. 1988. *A Textbook of Translation*. Prentice Hall Inc. New Jersey.
- <http://www.bokorlang.com/journal/13educ.htm>

AUDIO VISUAL EXPOSURE (AVE) AS OPPOSED TO AUDIO EXPOSURE ALONE (AEA) FOR EFL LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Lasim Muzammil

lasim.muzammil@gmail.com

University of Kanjuruhan Malang, Indonesia

Abstract

Listening Comprehension is a crucial skill to understand spoken English. It requires appropriate ways to develop this particular skill and one of them is through the use of audio visual exposure. This is a research-based article elaborating different result on English listening comprehension using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone). The subjects of the study are freshmen in Kanjuruhan University of Malang taking different field of study such as economics, counselling, physics, and civics. Thirty three (33) participants are treated to be experimental group and thirty (30) participants are treated to be control group. AVE for Experimental group uses video lessons from real-english.com's collection while AEA for Control group uses audio lessons from podcastsinenglish.com's collection, in which both of them discuss real English for real communication and after eight meetings of treatment the participants do listening comprehension test and the result of the test is analysed using independent sample t-test since two intact groups are used in this study. The experimental and control group are ascertained to be homogenous in terms of English performance from the pre-test analysis. The post-test are carried out for both groups after the treatment is done and the results of the test are computed statistically and compared in order to prove if the null hypothesis is rejected indicating that there is significant difference performance between the two groups. The result of the study is expected to be beneficial not only for English teachers and EFL learners, but for furthur researchers as well.

Keywords: *Audio Visual Exposure (AVE), Audio Exposure Alone (AEA), Listening Comprehension Skill*

1 INTRODUCTION

Four basic skills in English including listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be mastered by EFL learners in order to be able to communicate with English-speaking people. These skills are categorized into receptive and productive skills which influence our communication both in written and spoken. Listening, as one of the receptive skills, plays important role in oral communication since the goal of listening comprehension for EFL learners is to undestand spoken English of a native speaker. Yet, problems are inevitable when EFL learners listen to native speakers' sound either through the tape recorder or through watching videos. These types of problems may be caused by pronunciation, speakers' speech speed, limited vocabulary, unfamiliar with context and background knowledge, and informal colloquial phrases. The presence of Audio Visual Exposure (AVE) can be the alternative to solve the listening comprehension problems sincae the native speakers' sound can be understood by the help of picture motion which is suitable with the context and the help of subtitles.

Several studies on listening comprehension using videos have been conducted and various findings were obtained from different authors. Wagner (2007) investigated test-taker behavior on an L2 video listening test and found that the test-takers seemed willing and eager to watch the video texts. In addition, the data provided limited evidence that test-takers tended to orient to the video at a higher rate during the dialogue texts than the lecture texts, possibly because they found the dialogue texts more interesting to watch, and possibly because they

found the nonverbal information in these texts more useful in comprehending the aural text and in answering the comprehension items.

A study on extensive listening in ELT conducted by Renandya (2011) elaborated that a text spoken at normal speed, or even at a slow speed, is usually perceived as being very or even too fast by beginning language learners. For example, any increase in speech rate tends to result in a decrease in comprehension, and when speech rate reaches a critical level, comprehension becomes all but impossible. He defines extensive listening as all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input. These activities can be teacher-directed dictations or readalouds or self-directed listening for pleasure that can be done outside the classroom. The key consideration here is that learners get to do a lot of meaningful listening practice. We believe that just like reading, listening is best learnt through listening. We believe that extensive listening might just be the kind of approach that may help EFL students deal with their listening problems.

The effects of subtitles in the video were found by these authors. Cross (2011) explores the role of the visual content in L2 listeners' comprehension of news videotexts and concluded that dual coding theory provided a useful perspective for explaining possible reasons for why there is notable variability among learners in the degree to which they report exploiting the visual content in news videotexts, and it is hoped the implications for L2 listening pedagogy presented offer a way forward for practitioners using news videotexts (or other types of videotexts) in their listening lessons. Grgurović & Hegelheimer (2007) investigated the students' use of subtitles and the transcript claim that participants interacted with the subtitles more frequently and for longer periods of time than with the transcript. Winke & Gas & Sydorenko (2010) investigated the effects of captioning during video-based listening activities and stated that captioning was more effective than no captioning and captioning during the first showing of the videos was more effective for performance on aural vocabulary tests.

In terms of listening strategy, Soboti and Amiri (2014) investigated the impact of listening strategy instruction on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' comprehension of news videotexts and concluded that direct strategy instruction was effective enough to improve listening comprehension ability of the participants and the findings of the study could be employed in teaching listening to the EFL learners.

In general, the freshman of EFL learners from non-English Education Department in the University of Kanjuruhan Malang still have problems to understand native speakers' utterance when they have oral communication. The use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) to attain listening comprehension is offered to answer the following research problems.

1. Does EFL learners' listening comprehension improve better by using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) than those using AEA (Audio Exposure Alone)?
2. What are the students' responses about listening to native speakers using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure)?

This research-based paper aims, in general, at investigating the different achievement between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) to attain listening comprehension. More specifically, the objective of the present paper is to:

1. investigate the different achievement of EFL learners' listening comprehension using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and using AEA (Audio Exposure Alone).
2. find out the students' responses about Listening to native speakers using AVE (Audio

Visual Exposure).

It is assumed that there is significant difference performance between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone), therefore, the theoretical hypothesis of this study is stated that the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) in teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language outperforms the AEA (Audio Exposure Alone).

1.1 AVE (Audio Visual Exposure)

Real English is an online **video** library of spontaneous dialogues of people interviewed on the streets of English-speaking countries, organized according to grammatical, lexical, and functional criteria used in the **interactive exercises**. In other words, Real English is based on a very simple idea, the organization and pedagogical exploitation of **spontaneous speech**. This notion of **spontaneity** in language learning goes way beyond today's tired catchword of "authentic" video, which most often is limited to Hollywood films or news broadcasts. There are no actors in Real English. Students identify with ordinary people, i.e., the famous **interviewees**, especially when we put them on the spot with our questions. Listening comprehension comes naturally to learners, given the magnetic quality of the people chosen to appear and speak in our clips.

The interactive lessons cover very short, easily digestible extracts of the main videos for the step-by-step exercises. There is so much **natural repetition** that even the difficult passages are appropriated by learners in a natural way, as they enjoy real people being themselves. Ideal for all teaching and self-study situations, & perfect for blended learning! The topics discussed for AVE group are: (1) Introducing people, (2) Astrological signs, (3) How old are you?, (4) What time is it?, (5) The Jones' family, (6) Dream job, (7) Music and movies, (8) How long does it take?

1.2 AEA (Audio Exposure Alone)

Podcasts in English are not just listening activities for EFL and ESL students to improve their conversation. The worksheets and transcripts provide valuable English language lessons and improved learning opportunities for those who learn English and teach English at all levels. All podcasts are free for language learners and teachers, but only members receive the learning English worksheets, vocabulary tasks, webquests and transcripts. The episodes are generally very short (3-4 minutes), which is perfect for those who do not have much time or desire to listen to an hour episode. They are also perfect for short trips in the car! The podcasts are in British English and are spoken very clearly in practice, whatever your level these podcasts might help you with your listening.

These podcasts can be used in your classroom or computer lab to supplement course book listenings. The conversations are more authentic and so the language is more natural. They therefore provide a refreshing alternative to scripted listenings. The topics discussed for AEA group are: (1) Richard's family, (2) The Isle of Man, (3) A town called Hamilton, (4) Sunny spell, (5) Jobs, (6) Ballarat-where is that?, (7) Goodbye Thailand, (8) Refugees.

2. METHOD

This study was conducted to the freshmen at the University of Kanjuruhan Malang which aimed at investigating the different achievement between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in order to develop learners' listening comprehension achievement. An experiment was carried

and *quasi-experimental study* was used since the two existing groups were employed. The data obtained from listening achievement test were analyzed using *independent sample t-test* since the result of the test were taken from two different group—the experimental and the control group. Questionnaire was given to the freshmen in order to get a clear picture of the learners' feeling and opinion after using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure).

The participants were taken from the freshmen at University of Kanjuruhan Malang taking English subject for non-English Education Department. There were sixty-three (63) EFL learners in the second semester majoring different field of study. The rationale behind choosing these particular learners to be the subjects of this study is that they still have difficulties to understand native speakers using English. Thirty three (33) EFL learners become experimental group and thirty (30) become control group. Pre-test was assigned to both groups, experimental group and control group, and it was done in order to get a clear picture of the homogeneity of the group (See Table 1). Based on the *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*, it can be shown that both experimental and control group were equal in terms of listening comprehension achievement before the treatment was done. Therefore, the treatment was carried out after ascertaining that the two groups are homogeneous.

Table 1. Mean Difference in Listening Comprehension Test before the Treatment

No.	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	Sig.*
1.	Experimental (AVE)	33	38.0455	8.65878	.865	.356	.080	.937
2.	Control (AEA)	30	37.8667	9.18013				

* Significance was set at .05 level.

Data obtained from listening comprehension test was to answer the first research question and from questionnaire was to answer the second research question. *Listening comprehension test* was done by the participants after having experience in AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) teaching learning process for experimental group and having experience of teaching learning process using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) for control group. Both experimental and control group have eight meetings of English instruction before the test was conducted. The participants did the post test and the scores of the post test were analyzed in order to see the different achievement between the two groups after testing the null hypothesis.

Data from questionnaire were required to obtain learners' perspective about the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) in the classroom instruction. There were six questions from this questionnaire addressed to learners in order to obtain listening comprehension opinion based on their experience during the experiment. Data of test being collected were analyzed by means of statistical program (SPSS) and *independent sample t-test* was used to find out the different achievement between experimental and control groups. This sort of t-test performs all the measures of listening comprehension based on the listening test from watching English video and from listening to native speakers on the tape.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 FINDINGS

The finding of this study was divided into two parts. Part one is the experimental result to answer the first research question, and part two is the learners' perspective on using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) to answer the second research question. The first part is related to

the finding of the study before and after the treatment of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) toward two different group—the experimental and control group. The experimental group is a group using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and the control group is a group using AEA (Audio Exposure Alone). The result of the test after the treatment was measured using *independent sample t-test* in SPSS software program and it was found that the listening comprehension of the two group was not significantly different at .05 level since the probability due to sampling error was .469 which was higher than the significance level set by the researcher (.469>.05) as it was seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Mean Difference in Listening Comprehension test after the Treatment

No.	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	Sig.*
1.	Experimental (AVE)	33	54.5152	10.15542	.233	.631	-.729	.469
2.	Control (AEA)	30	56.3333	9.58567				

* Significance was set at .05 level.

From Tabel 2, we can say that the null hypothesis which was stated that “there is no different achievement between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) in teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language” cannot be rejected since the probability due to sampling error is .469 which is higher than the significance level which is set at .05 ($\rho = .469 > .05$). It means that there is no significant different listening achievement between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone). On the other hands, the researcher’s hypothesis which was stated that “the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) in teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language outperforms the AEA (Audio Exposure Alone)” in this study cannot be claimed to perform better since the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

The second part of the finding was related to the perspectives of learners which contain six questions on the listening comprehension of English native speakers using AVE (Audio Visual Exposure). It was found that most participants (82%) respond that listening to a native speaker of English is difficult and only a few of them (9%) state that it is not difficult and they (9%) do not know about it. In response to the second question, many participants (55%) respond that watching while listening to English video is more difficult than listening to a native speaker of English using a tape recorder and almost half of them (45%) respond that listening to a native speaker of English using a tape recorder is more difficult than watching while listening to video. The help of subtitles in the videos help learners to understand the conversation is the third question and most participants (91%) agree that the subtitles help them understand the conversation on the videos. The fourth question is related to the emphasis when listening while watching video with subtitles is mostly to the text (39%), the picture (33%) and the sound (27%). The fifth question is related to reasoning why listening while watching to native speaker is difficult is that because the conversation is too fast (91%), the sound is not recognized (9%). The last question is related to factors influencing the learners’ understanding most on the conversation while listening to a native speaker of English is that factor of sound (48%), vocabulary (36%), and grammar (15%). The result of questionnaire for learners was summarized in Table 3 as follows:

Table 3: Learners' Response from Questionnaire

No.	Pertanyaan	Respon		
		A	B	C
1.	Do you think listening to a native speaker of English is difficult? <i>(Apakah mendengarkan penutur asli dalam bahasa Inggris menurut anda sulit?)</i>	Ya 27 (82%)	Tidak 3 (9%)	Tidak Tahu 3 (9%)
2.	Which one do you think is more difficult—listening to a native speaker of English using a tape recorder or watching while listening to video? <i>(Lebih sulit mana antara mendengarkan penutur asli dengan tape recorder atau dengan mendengarkan sambil melihat video?)</i>	Tape 15 (45%)	Video 18 (55%)	Tidak tahu 0 (0%)
3.	Do you think listening to a native speaker while watching video with subtitles make you easier to understand the topic of conversation? <i>(Apakah mendengarkan penutur asli sambil melihat video disertai dengan teks (subtitles) bisa mempermudah memahami topik percakapan?)</i>	Ya 30 (91%)	Tidak 3 (9%)	Tidak Tahu 0 (0%)
4.	Which one do you think to get more emphasis when listening while watching video with subtitles? <i>(Pada saat mendengarkan sambil melihat video disertai teks (subtitles), bagian mana yang lebih anda fokuskan untuk memahami percakapan?)</i>	Gambar 11 (33%)	Bunyi 9 (27%)	Teks 13 (39%)
5.	Why do you think listening to a native speaker of English is difficult? <i>(Mengapa mendengarkan penutur asli dalam bahasa Inggris menurut anda sulit?)</i>	Terlalu cepat 30 (91%)	Tak kenal Bunyinya 3 (9%)	Tidak tahu 0 (0%)
6.	What factors influences you to understand conversation while listening to a native speaker of English? <i>(Faktor apa yang paling mempengaruhi dalam memahami percakapan penutur asli pada saat Listening?)</i>	Bunyi 16 (48%)	Kosa kata 12 (36%)	Tata Bahasa 5 (15%)

DISCUSSION

Answering the first research question is based on the result of the listening comprehension test. By looking at Table 2 from the finding discussed earlier from this paper, it can be claimed that the measures of listening comprehension of the two groups was not significantly different at .05 level since the probability due to sampling error was .469 which was higher than the significance level (.469>.05) set by the researcher. Therefore, the null hypothesis which was stated that “there is no different achievement between the use of AVE (Audio Visual Exposure) and AEA (Audio Exposure Alone) in teaching and learning English as a Foreign Language” cannot be rejected since the probability due to sampling error is .469 which is higher than the significance level which is set at .05 ($\rho = .469 > .05$). In this case, there is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis by looking at the mean difference between AVE and AEA (54.51

and 56.33) even though AEA is 1.82 higher than AVE.

Since the difference performance on listening comprehension between the two groups is not significant from the result of *t test for Equality of Means*; that is, by looking at the probability that is due to sampling error ($p = .469$), the researcher can not discuss further about the mean difference between the two groups. He might have an idea to elaborate why the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Factors which commonly influences this matter are the samples, the design, and the truth. If the samples are too small then the researcher enlarges the sample so that we can see the effect of the sample size; if the design is not appropriate then the researcher changes the design; and if the samples are large enough and the design is appropriate with the condition of the experiment then it can be claimed that it is the truth that there is no significant difference achievement between the experimental and control group.

Answering the second research question is based on the result of the learners' perspective on listening comprehension experience. There are six questions related to the answer of the second research question. *The first question* is that "Do you think listening to a native speaker of English is difficult?" and 82% of the participants state that the answer is difficult. It indicates that most EFL learners in this study face difficulties in understanding the native speaker's conversation. *The second question* is that "Which one do you think is more difficult—listening to a native speaker of English using a tape recorder or watching while listening to video?" and 55% state that watching while listening to video is more difficult and the rest 45% participants state that listening to tape recorder is more difficult. It indicates that listening while watching video and its subtitles at the same time make them concentrate more. *The third question* is that "Do you think listening to a native speaker while watching video with subtitles make you easier to understand the topic of conversation?" and 91% of the participants agree by choosing "Yes" that watching video with subtitles make them easier to understand the topic of conversation. It is in line with Wagner (2007) stated that non verbal information in these texts were more useful in comprehending the aural texts. It means that the sounds accompanied by the picture motion and text are a great help to understand the conversation of an English native speaker.

The fourth question is that "Which one do you think to get more emphasis when listening while watching video with subtitles?" and 39% of the participants emphasize to the text, 33% to the picture, and 27% to the sounds. It is also in line with Wagner (2007) stated that the test taker seemed willing and eager to watch the video text. Since the focus of participants are not only at one thing but more including text, sound, and picture, it indicates that all text, sound, and picture are great help of making them understand more about the conversation. *The fifth question* is that "Why do you think listening to a native speaker of English is difficult?" and 91% of the participants state that because the conversation is too fast and 9% state that they do not recognize the sound. It is in line with Renandya (2011) stated that any increase in speed rate tends to result in a decrease in comprehension. It means that the speech speed and sound recognition influence the comprehension. *The sixth and the last question* is that "What factors influences you to understand conversation while listening to a native speaker of English?" and 48% of the participants state that sounds (48%) influence the comprehension, vocabulary (36%) influence the comprehension, and grammar (15%) influence the comprehension. It indicates that recognizing sounds is the biggest factor for EFL learners in understanding the conversation of native speakers.

4. CONCLUSION

The present study was to examine the improving of EFL learners language listening performance using AVE applied to two different groups of participants—experimental and

control groups—on listening comprehension using audio visual exposure. There is no significant different achievement between the experimental and the control group after the treatment. The findings show that learners on experimental group using AVE do not achieve better than using AEA in their listening comprehension. This study could be beneficial for language learners, language users, and teachers in the field of listening skill used for EFL learners.

Language users should be aware that listening to native speaker of English can be highly motivated after watching picture motion with English sound and English subtitles to develop their listening comprehension skill. Therefore, language users are recommended to watch English videos with English sound and English subtitles to develop their listening comprehension skill. For practical implication, teachers are recommended to emphasize the learners' goal in listening skill and the use of AVE and AEA are clearly guided and hopefully it is useful to encourage learners to motivate their learning English successfully.

REFERENCES

- Cross, Jeremy. (2011). Comprehending News Videotexts: The Influence Of The Visual Content. *Language Learning & Technology* Volume 15, Number 2 pp. 44–68. Retrieved at <http://llt.msu.edu/issues/june2011/cross.pdf> June 2011.
- Grgurović, M. & Hegelheimer, V. (2007). Help Options and Multimedia Listening: Students' Use of Subtitles and the Transcript. *Language Learning & Technology*. 11(1), 45-66
- Renandya, Willy A. & Farrell, Thomas S.C. (2011). 'Teacher, the tape is too fast!' Extensive listening in ELT. *ELT Journal* Volume 65/1 January 2011; doi:10.1093/elt/ccq015.
- Sobouti, Fatemeh & Amiri, Mehrdad. (2014). The Impact of Listening Strategy Instruction on the Improvement of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Comprehension of News Videotexts. *Academic Research International* Vol. 5(2) March 2014. Retrieved at www.savap.org.pk 334 www.journals.savap.org.pk.
- Wagner, E. (2007). Are They Watching? Test-Taker Viewing Behavior During an L2 Video Listening Test. *Language Learning & Technology*. 11(1) 67-86
- Winke, P. & Gass, S. & Sydorenko, T. (2010). The Effects of Captioning Videos Used for Foreign Language Listening Activities. *Language Learning & Technology*. 14(1), 65-86.
- <http://podcastsinenglish.com>
- <http://real-english.com>

THE ROLE OF CAMPUS CLIMATE, FACULTY AND PEER ON ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS' SUCCESS

Bayu H. Wicaksono

bayuhw@yahoo.com; bayu.wicaksono@umm.ac.id

University of Muhammadiyah Malang

Jl. Raya Tlogomas No. 246, Landungsari - Malang, East Java

Abstract

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students, enrolled in English Education Department of University of Muhammadiyah Malang, have lower graduation rates compared with students from other departments. One of the most important predictors in student retention is their perception of academic success. The purpose of this study was to explore EFL students' perceptions of campus climate, faculty and peer social support, and sought to determine whether or not there is a relationship between these factors and EFL students' perception academic success. The study was carried out at University of Muhammadiyah Malang (UMM). The inclusion criteria for this study were: undergraduate students enrolled in English Education Department. A survey consisting of three scales: peer and faculty support, campus climate, and academic success were distributed to the participants. The content validity and reliability of each scale were tested. Generalized estimating equations (GEE) were used to test the study hypothesis. The majority of participants were students with ages between 18 up to 24 years. The GEE analyses showed that campus climate was significantly associated with academic success, p -value=0.01, but peer and faculty support was not, p -value=0.07. EFL undergraduate students' perception of campus climate may have an influence on their perception of academic success. Students' perception of peer and faculty support was not significantly associated with academic success. The findings were hampered by the small sample of EFL students recruited.

Keywords: EFL, students' perception, academic success

1. INTRODUCTION

It is argued that students who enrolled in the English language education department are coming from range of cultural and academic background. This diversity is considerably the culprit and plausible reason for the students retention in their study. And also it becomes the predictors that students are not readily choosing to enter English language education program. This condition may lead to the situation in which students may have difficulty graduating.

The population of students on academic campuses is growing more diverse than ever (Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005). Academic campuses worldwide have acknowledged the need to evaluate and assess their ethnic and cultural climates in an effort to better prepare their students for life in a multicultural and global society (St. Juste, 2006). The present study adds to the limited body of research regarding students' perceptions of faculty and peer support, and campus climate. It brings into focus the relationship between these factors and students' perception of academic success.

The role of culture in human life is crucial to the understanding and regulation of the educational process. Moreover, people perceive academic institutions as the means by which each society endeavours to communicate and perpetuate its assumption of a good life, which derives from the society's assents about the world, its knowledge and philosophy. Moreover, these assumptions vary from society to society and culture to culture (Adler, Pai, & Shadiow, 2005). Consequently, as each society has its own predominant culture, each person has his/her own private culture, which is a combination of individual's community culture and several

distinct cultures of other individuals of which he/she is aware (Milstone, 2005).

Therefore, when referring to a culture, generalizations do not apply to all members. Cultures are not completely homogeneous but heterogeneous, as every culture is comprised of several subcultures. Members of these groups share many characteristics of the larger culture, but are distinct in significant ways by virtue of their ethnic background, work affiliation, religious convictions, or other significant factors (Decapua & Wintergest, 2004). Assembling these characterizations for the purposes of this study, culture is described as persistent patterns of norms, values, attitudes, expectations, beliefs, and assumptions that frame the behavior of individuals and groups in a university, which are echoed in its academic and social events (Milstone, 2005).

Language is, in more ways than one, the expression of our cultural identity. We use language for knowledge about our environment, history and science (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), n.d.). Language is an issue for EFL students whose command of English is not what is defined by some universities as adequate for academic success (McQueen & Zimmerman, 2004). Having a distinct language or even pronouncing words incorrectly is in most cases a barrier to communication with EFL students. Sometimes, it is source of teasing or ridicule (Bolderston et al., 2007). In addition, other students felt that faculty and administrators are making incorrect assumptions about their English language difficulties based on their ethnic minority status (Villarruel et al., 2001). Therefore, Rogan et al. (2006) caution the academic community against the impetuous assumption that EFL students academic problems are simply related to the language.

Academic success of EFL students has become a growing priority for most universities. The reason is that students' poor academic outcomes are frequently associated with the quality of the tertiary institution and therefore, influencing its reputation (Mills et al., 2008). Moreover, as Mills et al. (2008) suggest academic success is the strongest predictor of first year student retention. Academic performance is affected by student knowledge acquisition and the ability to demonstrate and utilize learned information. Academic success is seen as a complex process which involves the interplay of many institutional factors such as support programs and type of degree, and individual student factors. Retention, on the other hand, is associated with the number of students who continued to be enrolled in a program after a certain period of time (Mills et al., 2008).

2. METHOD

This research seeks to expand upon previous research of English as Foreign languages (EFL) undergraduate students' perceptions of campus climate, faculty and peer social support and seeks to determine whether or not there is a relationship between these factors and EFL students' academic success. While, worldwide, there is dearth of studies concerning EFL students enrolled in undergraduate studies (Amaro et al., 2006; Colalillo, 2007).

The purpose of this study was to survey EFL undergraduate students perceptions of campus climate, faculty and peer support, and academic success. Furthermore, the research sought to determine if there is a relationship between these variables and demographic factors, such as, age, ethnicity, first language and secondary education, and an institutional factor – the degree or program these students were admitted.

2.1 Conceptual Framework

The primary goal for the current study was to examine in which ways heterogeneous psychosocial variables, identified in other studies, are important predictors of student academic

success (Dennis et al., 2005). The conceptual framework for this study was a synthesis of Tinto's (1993) theory of student retention and Shelton (2003) model of student retention. Findings from other studies had, also, a significant contribution to the formulation of the study's conceptual framework, especially in regard to certain demographic variables included in this study.

2.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research objectives considered in this study were to:

1. Examine EFL students' perceptions of the campus climate.
2. Explore EFL students' perceptions of the peer and faculty social support.
3. Investigate if there is a relationship between EFL students' academic performance and their perceptions of the campus climate.
4. Discover if there is a relationship between EFL students' academic performance and their perceptions of the peer and faculty social support

Based on the stated purpose, the following hypothesis was examined:

There is no relationship between peer and faculty social support, campus climate and EFL students' academic success.

Specifically, the study attempted to answer to the following research question:

Is there a relationship between campus climate, faculty and peer social support and EFL students' academic success?

My study has attempted to investigate the relationship between campus climate and EFL students' self-perceived academic success. Consequently, I focused on recruiting EFL undergraduate students enrolled with the faculty of Teacher Training and Education. These undergraduate students, at the time my study was carried out, were studying, predominantly, on their odd semester.

2.3 Research Design

The observational study I carried out had a cross-sectional design. The study was non-experimental; all variables were studied in their natural setting (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) and no interventions were carried out (Mann, 2003), as the aim of the study was to determine relationships and effects occurring between variables (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). The study had also a cross-sectional design, which is the simplest variety of descriptive or observational studies that can be conducted on representative samples of a population (Last, n.d.). One of cross-sectional studies advantages is that all measurements are made at one point in time, which means that they are relatively quick (Mann, 2003). Moreover, they are less costly than other research methods and rather useful at identifying associations between variables, before larger and more expensive studies are performed (Mann, 2003). The main disadvantage of cross-sectional studies is

that they cannot identify cause and effect relationships (Last, n.d.) and they do not offer an explanation for their findings (Mann, 2003). However, they are less costly than other research methods and rather useful at identifying associations between variables, before larger and more expensive studies are performed (Mann, 2003). My study aimed at identifying relationships between three variables: peer and faculty support, campus climate, and academic success and therefore, I considered that the cross-sectional design employed in this study conformed to the research purpose.

My study has attempted to investigate the relationship between campus climate and EFL students' self-perceived academic success. Consequently, I focused on recruiting EFL undergraduate students. These undergraduate students, at the time my study was carried out, were studying, predominantly, on their odd semester.

Data collection began on 11th of August 2014 and it was projected to end on the 15th of September 2014. Due to the small number of respondents, the data collection interval was extended to thirteen weeks in total and it ended on the 20th of November 2014.

2.4 Participant

The sampling technique chosen for this exploratory research was convenience sampling, which is according to McCormack and Hill (1997) a quick and inexpensive non-probability sampling method. Other sampling technique used to recruit participants was homogenous sampling, which is especially adopted when the aim of the study is to focus on a particular subgroup (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). In this study, the focus was on students studying on University's campuses. Furthermore, as the number of participants did not reach the expected size, close to the end of the four weeks initially allowed for data collection, I attempted to increase the size of the sampling group by using a snowball technique. Three EFL undergraduate students had contacted the researcher, during the recruitment stage, expressing their willingness to participate in research. I took this opportunity to ask the students to encourage other eligible students to participate in research.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Overall, 310 students replied to the survey. All respondents were examined for eligibility criteria. Of the 310 surveys submitted, only 270 were eligible, as the other students declared "Not Returning the Result". A survey response rate cannot be precisely estimated, as the size of the study population cannot be exactly determined. However, based on data retrieved from UMM records, the response rate is likely to fall between 2.7 and 5.4%.

The next step in my statistical analysis was to determine if the significant finding in the previous crude analyses were independent or confounded. I considered as candidate for inclusion in multivariable analyses only the campus climate factor which was associated with the outcome at $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ in the bivariable model. Potential confounding variables, such as age, ethnicity, first language, secondary education and program of study, were also subjected to initial bivariable analyses. Because of the very small sample size, I considered only binary potential confounding variables, such as age, program of study and secondary education. These variables were assessed by comparing the log likelihood of the intercept model to the log likelihood of the model containing the intercept and variable in question. Each potential confounding variable was included to a baseline model including campus climate. Following the recommendations of Sun, Shook and Kay (1996), the significance of potential confounding variables associations with the outcome at $p\text{-value} < 0.15$ was used to select which confounding variables will be considered in a multivariable model. I used the backward elimination of potential confounding variables adopting a statistical significance level of 5%, until a final main effects multivariable model was derived. The results of the bivariable analyses performed on the binary confounding variables and campus climate are presented in Table below

The descriptive statistics for peer and faculty support scale revealed that most EFL students have a positive perception of peer and faculty support. Between 74 and 89% of the participants answered, "Agree" to the six statements presented in the Peer and Faculty Support scale. The highest percentage (89%) was obtained by the question: "*I have many friends among the campus*'

students”, while the lowest (74%) was attained by the question: “*Academic staff on the campus are always warm and friendly*”. I tried to analyse the EFL students’ perceived faculty and peer support by arbitrary components. The final scale used to assess students’ perception of peer and faculty support had six items, 2 concerning peer support, 2 referring to allied staff support and other 2 for academic staff support. The highest agreement percentage was obtained by the peer support questions (82-88%) and the lowest by the faculty support (allied and academic staff) statements (74-82%). There is also a difference in the way participants perceived the allied and academic staff support. They found allied staff to be more warm and friendly (82%) than academic staff (74%), while academic staff were found to make them feel more accepted (82%) than allied staff (78%). It’s difficult to interpret these results when such a small number of students responded to my survey. However, one possible explanation regarding the difference in students’ perception is that they interact with allied staff in a different environment than academic staff and for completely different reasons.

Burns (1991) in an Australian study of international students, suggests that students feel when faculty staff are unaware of students social, emotional or health problems and especially, when they are not particularly interested in helping students with other than academic difficulties. It can be argued that social, emotional and health problems are not always easy to detect and moreover there are special student support systems implemented in most universities just to address these special issues. Yet, Burns (1991) argues that such problems are a major source of academic failure.

Campus climate scale consisted of nine statements which overall were also favourably perceived by the respondents. The statement “*Faculty students and staff are genuinely interested in my point of view*” received the lowest percentage of agreement (48%) from the whole scale. The highest percentage (82%) was achieved by the commentary “*At the campus EFL students are valued and respected.*”

For the academic success scale, the percentages varied between 85% at the following statements: “I feel confident that I can deal in a satisfactory manner with future academic challenges” and “Overall, I consider my educational experience a rewarding one”, and 70% at the commentary “I think my teachers are satisfied with my results”.

Overall, EFL students regard the campus, their peers and the staff of the Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences as supportive and encouraging. However, the low percentage acquired at the commentary “*Faculty students and staff are genuinely interested in my point of view*” leads to the conclusion that EFL students are accepted by the campus community, in spite and not because of, their cultural diverse status. This conclusion is supported by the 52% agreement reached by the commentary “*My own culture is recognized and respected on this campus*”.

3.1 Interpretation of findings for Inferential Analyses

I found a significant relationship between academic success and campus climate before and after adjustment for the confounding variables, secondary education and program of study. These findings add to the existing research that suggests that campus climate plays an important role in student academic success (Hurtado et al., 1998).

The relationship between peer and faculty support was statistically non-significant (p-value=0.07), likely because of the relatively small sample size. The estimated OR for the peer and faculty support implies that students who have agreed with the peer and faculty support scale are less likely, by 49% to agree with the academic support scale. The result contradicts other studies on faculty support which found that an increase in student support has a positive

influence on their academic performance (Cabrera & Padilla, 2004; Mills et al., 2008; Shelton, 2003). Shelton (2003) suggests that the feeling that faculty cares and wants them to succeed creates an atmosphere more conducive to academic success and encourages students to persist. Nevertheless, my findings were consistent with those who did not find social support to be a strong predictor of either retention or academic success.

A possible explanation for these findings is that the study included not only traditional students, but also older students. According to Metzner and Bean (1987), academic success is not related to non-traditional students' persistence or withdrawal from university. The peer and social support is less important for older students who have families, may be likely to work and have less time to socialize on campus.

The type of degree was also found statistically significant associated with academic success (p -value=0.03). The adjusted OR=0.10 shows an inverse relationship between EFL students' (who have specified their program of study) perception of campus climate and their perception of academic success. Based on this result, I can reason that the relationship between campus climate and academic success is stronger for those students enrolled in a specific program of study. According to Mills et al. (2008), there are few studies, which attempted to measure the importance of degree type on academic success. Mills et al. (2008) looked at the type of degree in terms of student degree preference (i.e. student who has received a first preference or not). The authors found that the type of degree was not associated with academic performance or retention. In my study I aimed at finding or not significant differences between students', enrolled in EFL undergraduate programs, perceptions of campus climate, academic success, and peer and faculty support.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The present study had three notable strengths: the web design chosen to “communicate” with the study participants, the choice of GEE and principal component analyses used to explore the data, and the standardized instrument employed to collect data. Firstly, the web-based survey was one of the study strengths as it saved considerable time for researchers. Online survey as suggested by Wright (2005, April) save time by allowing researchers to collect data while working on other projects. Moreover, responses to online surveys can be more easily exported to statistical software packages. Last but not least, online survey circumvent costs which, even when using a relatively small sample can be enormous (Wright, 2005, April). There are also some supports for the use of web-based recruitment and data collection, especially in large longitudinal studies. The authors advise that “traditional mechanisms of data elicitation” are becoming less inviting for robust epidemiological studies and they advocate other for embracing this new technology.

REFERENCES

- Adler, S. A., Pai, Y., & Shadiow, K. L. (2005). *Cultural Foundations of Education* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Amaro, D. J., Abriam-Yago, K., & Yoder, M. (2006). Perceived Barriers for Ethnically Diverse Students in Nursing Programs. *Journal of Nursing Education, 45*, 247- 254. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>
- Bolderston, A., Palmer, C., Flanagan, W., & McParland, N. (2007). The experiences of English as second language radiation therapy students in the undergraduate clinical program: Perceptions of staff and students. *Radiography, 14*, 216-225. doi:10.1016/j.physletb.2003.10.071

- Burns, R. B. (1991). Study and Stress among First Year Overseas Students in an Australian University. *Higher Education Research & Development, 10*, 61-77. doi:10.1080/0729436910100106
- Cabrera, N. L., & Padilla, A. M. (2004). Entering and succeeding in the “culture of college”: The story of two Mexican heritage students. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 26*, 152-170. doi:10.1177/0739986303262604
- Colalillo, G. (2007). Mentoring as a retention strategy in a diverse, multicultural, urban associate degree nursing program. *Teaching and Learning in Nursing, 2*(2), 28-33. doi:10.1016/j.teln.2007.01.005
- Decapua, A., & Wintergest, A. C. (2004). *Crossing cultures in the language classroom*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Dennis, J. M., Calvillo, E., & Gonzalez, A. (2008). The Role of Psychosocial Variables in Understanding the Achievement and Retention of Transfer Students at an Ethnically Diverse Urban University. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*, 535-550. doi:10.1353/csd.0.0037
- Dennis, J. M., Phinney, J. S., & Chuateco, L. I. (2005). The Role of Motivation, Parental Support, and Peer Support in the Academic Success of Ethnic Minority First-Generation College Students. *Journal of College Student, 46*, 223-236. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>
- Escotet, M., & Alvarez, C. (2000). *Cultural and Social Foundations of Education: An Interdisciplinary Approach* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Custom Publishing.
- Gurin, P., Dey, E. L., Hurtado, S., & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and Higher Education: Theory and Impact on Educational Outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*, 330-366. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>
- Hurtado, S., Carter, D. F., & Kardia, D. (1998). The climate of diversity: Key issues for institutional self-study. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 98*, 53-63. doi:10.1002/ir.9804
- Inkelas, K. K. (2003). Diversity's missing minority: Asian Pacific American undergraduates' attitudes toward affirmative action. *Journal of Higher Education, 74*, 601-638. doi:10.1353/jhe.2003.0044
- Last, J. M. (n.d.). Cross-Sectional Study. *Encyclopedia of Public Health*, Retrieved January 12, 2009, from <http://www.enotes.com/public-healthencyclopedia/cross-sectional-study>
- Mann, C. J. (2003). Observational research methods. Research design II: cohort, cross-sectional, and case-control studies. *Emergency Medicine Journal, 20*, 54-60. doi:10.1136/emj.20.1.54
- McCormack, B., & Hill, E. (1997). *Conducting a survey: the SPSS workbook*. London, England: Cengage Learning EMEA.
- McQueen, I., & Zimmerman, L. (2004). The Role of Historically Black Colleges and Universities in the Inclusion and Education of Hispanic Nursing Students. *The Association of Black Nursing Faculty Journal, 15*(3), 51-54. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>
- Metzner, B. S., & Bean, J. P. (1987). The estimation of a conceptual model of nontraditional undergraduate student attrition. *Research in Higher Education, 27*, 15-38. doi:10.1007/BF00992303
- Mills, C., Heyworth, J., Rosenwax, L., Carr, S., & Rosenberg, M. (2008). Factors associated with the academic success of first year Health Science students. *Advances in Health Science Education*, doi:10.1007/s10459-008-9103-9
- Milstone, D. M. (2005). *An examination of the relationship between outsourcing and perceptions of campus climate* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3172765)
- Milem, J. F., & Hakuta, K. (2000). The benefits of racial and ethnic diversity in higher education. In D. Wilds (Ed.), *Minorities in higher education: Seventeenth annual status report* (pp. 39-64). Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education.
- Post, J. B. (1998). *The Effect of Freshmen Year Programs on Academic Success* (Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University). Retrieved from <http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-4398-225418/>.
- Roy-Woods, S. M. (2007). *Reflection on Diversity: Graduate Perceptions of Campus Climate at Dallas Theological Seminary, 1996-2005* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3276462)
- Rogan, F., San Miguel, C., Brown, D., & Kilstoff, K. (2006). *You find yourself*. Perceptions of nursing students'

from non-English speaking backgrounds of the effect of an intensive language support program on their oral clinical communication skills. *Contemporary Nurse*, 23, 72-86. Retrieved from <http://www.atypon-link.com>

Shelton, E. N. (2003). Faculty Support and Student Retention. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 42, 68-76. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>

St. Juste, E. (2006). *An Exploratory Study of the Multicultural Responsiveness of Higher Education Faculty at Two South Florida Universities* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3221822)

Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition* (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Tylor, E. B. (1871). *Primitive culture: researches into the development of mythology, philosophy, religion, art, and custom*. London, England: John Murray.

Villarruel, A. M., Canales, M., & Torres, S. (2001). Bridges and Barriers: Educational Mobility of Hispanic Nurses. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 40, 245-251. Retrieved from <http://proquest.umi.com>

Willingham, W. W. (1985). *Success in College: The Role of Personal Qualities and Academic Ability*. New York, NY: College Board Publications.

Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2009). *Research Methods in Education: An Introduction* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education

Wright, K. B. (2005, April). Researching Internet-Based Populations: Advantages and Disadvantages of Online Survey Research, Online Questionnaire Authoring Software Packages, and Web Survey Services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(3). Retrieved from <http://jcmc.indiana.edu>

THE IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILL IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS THROUGH THE MONTESSORI METHOD

Herlina

herlinanoldy@yahoo.com

Faculty of Education

State University of Jakarta

Abstract

The aim of this study is to develop students' speaking ability by using the Montessori Method. The speaking ability here means the ability of knowing letters, words, phrases, and simple sentences in English. These speaking abilities consist of three aspects of assessment; accuracy, fluency, and activity. This study was conducted in an elementary school in south Jakarta on the fourth grade students, for six months. This study was conducted in two cycles by applying the Kemmis dan Mc. Taggart Models. Each cycle consists of planning, action, evaluation, and reflection. The second cycle is to give an additional treatment based on the reflection of the first cycle. Each sub-cycle was discussed and analyzed in accordance to some components. The improvement of the students' ability in the speaking component then were discussed and studied. Collaboration and observation were applied to collect the action that was done in this research. The data evaluation and reflection were also applied in order to know the result of the research. Therefore the analysis of the data was done qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative data were analyzed based on Spradley theory. The result of the quantitative data analysis shows that the students' English speaking ability are increased. Students were able to know the letters, words, phrases, and simple sentences in English. Thus, it can be said that, statistically, there is a significant growth in speaking ability by using Montessori Method in the process of learning speaking skill.

Keywords: Speaking ability, elementary school students, montessori method.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Background of the Study

The purpose of teaching English is students are able to listen, speak, read, and write. Those skills are very important. The ability to speak is the most important skills of other subjects. This is supported by the statement (Harris and Sipay: 2000: p.5) "At school, speaking ability is the most useful and important skill since it is used as a means for learning other subjects." Without a good background of speaking skill, a child is going to face difficulties as the skill of learning to speak is mostly needed in a process of learning.

Children can learn foreign language faster than adults, that is why teaching children to speak from their early age is recommended. This is because the children's cognitive is more flexible that they are easily absorb foreign vocabulary and grammar, and also can practice naturally and enthusiastically. Max-Planck Institute in Germany, (Wolf Singer: 2000 p.102) states that the golden age of children's language development does exist - the first year of age until the beginning of school-age children. The same thing also expressed by Montessori that in the early years of a child, he/she has what is called **Sensitive Periods**. During the sensitive periods children receive certain stimulus that makes children tend to succeed if they were taught to speak. At this time a child will experience rapid growth as their brain is like a sponge that can absorb easily, as termed by Montessori "The Absorbent Mind."

Deborah Ruuskanen: 2004: p.73 said that children were able to be taught two or three

languages at once. The main requirement is that parents speak language that suited the mother tongue that the children will be encouraged to learn a variety of languages even outside the home environment. If the language used in the home environment is the third language, children will learn the language easily when they play with other children in the neighborhood. Therefore the teaching of English to primary school level are allowed as long as not to burden and make children become stressed, it should be fun and in the form of a game.

By using the Montessori Method, the emphasis is more on the early speaking stages of words, phrases, and simple sentences. Initially students are first introduced to the sounds of the letters of through themoving alphabet or what is usually called LMA (Large Moveable Alphabet). Once accustomed to all the alphabet sounds then the first step is the formation of letters into words.

In this way, students are ready and able to start speaking well because they fully understand the words that have been formed. Other materials can also be used such as images and objects. In addition, the Montessori method is able to cope with other problems such as limited vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling of words, which in turn is expected to make the student learning activity grow better, fun, natural, and creative. More importantly, the materials that are specially prepared by Montessori make students to be able to perform more independent speaking activities as the speaking materials in the Montessori Method are designed correcting-ready if an error occurred.

2. RESEARCH METHODS

This research is a classroom action research. The respondents are students in the fourth grade of primary school in Labschool Setia Budi, South Jakarta. The overall participants in this class consists of various levels of ability, family background, as well as the diversity of subjective view towards English learning. The English language learning materials that were being studied is speaking skill specifically early speaking skills which are: letters, words, phrases, and simple sentences. The research method is action research by using two cycles in which each cycle has the following steps:

- 1) **Preliminary observations:** (1) collecting initial information about the condition of teaching English in fourth grade students, (2) identifying problems and difficulties faced in the process of teaching speaking, reading, writing, and pronunciation skills.
- 2) **Planning:** (1) Determining the target competencies; the competency standards of speaking skill and the increasing willingness of students to speak English; (2) Designing the learning process in the first cycle and the second cycle; (3) designing a test that consists of oral and written questions, learning schedules, the first and second learning cycles.
- 3) **Implementation of the actions:** (1) Before implementing the actions, students are tested to know their initial capability which will be compared with the results of their first and second cycle tests; (2) the implementation of the first cycle of actions is held in ten meetings; (3) the follow-up of the first cycle of learning is done through trial of the speaking materials of the Montessori method. The second cycle was implemented to achieve the result that has not been achieved in the first cycle (the repair of the first cycle).
- 4) **Observation and Interpretation:** (1) the observation of the actions is carried out by using notes after the implementation of actions. The teacher continued to implement the new teaching techniques as shown by the researcher; (2) during the observation, researcher will be assisted by collaborators who will record what is seen, heard and observed during the

teaching process takes place in the form of field notes.

- 5) **Reflection:** (1) Analyzing the results of the improvement rate of students' behavior before and after the action is taken; (2) assess the successes and failures as a preparation for further action.

3. RESEARCH FINDINGS

In general, students on average already recognize letters well and can speak with correct pronunciation. Most students are able to pronounce words and simple sentences, but they do not yet know the phrase well. Based on observation, the way of teacher deliver the content and teach English at this school is not maximized and this is very influential on their speaking ability. On the other hand students' interest in learning and pronouncing the letters and words in the English language is very high. Based on the observations result, the planning of the action research then made in order to improve the English language skills on elementary school students through the Montessori method.

3.1 The first cycle actions

The result of collaborator's assessment in general is the English speaking skill of the students learned through the Montessori method is changing and advancing, but the changes are still not maximized. Students got high score in only one of three aspects that were set by the researchers and collaborators, at other aspects students are still lacking or still far from the expected results. This happened because the implementation of actions in the first cycle was carried out only in 6 meetings with duration of 40 minutes / meeting so that the improvement of English speaking skills through the Montessori Method is not so good. In accordance with the action plan, the second cycle then proceeds. In the second cycle, the activities are carried out by emphasising on improving the techniques and the ability to speak properly, fluently, and understand the meaning of sentences in English. Thus the duration for the implementation of teaching and learning activities is added so that an increase in students' English speaking skills can be achieved as expected.

3.2 Results of the second cycle action

Based on the above explanation, the findings of this study are that students can recognize letters, vowels, and consonants in English well enough. Students also are able to distinguish and analyze the sound of the letters in the beginning, middle, and at the end of a word. Students can speak accurately, fluently, and understand English sentences. Students are able to know the meaning of a word with the help of objects, pictures and LMA. Lastly, students can compose and write sentences appropriately.

4. CONCLUSION

Language as a means of communication is a form of performance. Language learning should be more emphasis on the function of language as a communication tool rather than learning about the language system. Moreover, the learning aspect of speech is a skill. Learning should focus on practice and training. Learning must be programmed and planned activities for the sake of significance and success of achieving the goal of these activities

Speaking skill should be given to the fourth grade of primary school students because at this age the students have a sensitive period in speaking. Unfortunately, this sensitive period is often overlooked that the students have lost interest in exercise speaking mainly in English

lessons. Besides there are many unpreparedness factors and lack of success of students in speaking English such as; a limited time, inadequate facilities, lack of creativity and innovation of teachers, and others.

In this study the Montessori method then used as an alternative method in order to increase the students motivation in speaking English. Learning to speak English with the Montessori Method was able to enhance students' skills in speaking English. The strength of the Montessori method are; first, it provides a lot of supporting materials such as pictures, objects, pink cards, and LMA in which were able to stimulate the interest and abilities of students in the process of learning to speak English. Second, the Montessori Method is able to train accuracy, fluency, and comprehension of students in speaking English. Third, the Montessori method systematically preparing students sensitivity in speakingenglish fluency in pronunciation, analyzing, and distinguishing the sounds of letters. Fourth, the Montessori Method prepares and teaches the pronunciation of words, letters, phrases, and simple sentences in English gradually. Fifth, the Montessori Method is able to train students to be more independent in speaking English.

The process of teaching and learning activities that was provided is using aspects of improvement of speaking skills which are: aspects of precision (accuracy), fluency, and understanding. The stages in its activities in general are: (1). preparatory phase; teachers prepare all materials to be used, determine competence, and others, (2). stage presentations or presentation; the teacher shows how to use the Montessori Method materials, (3). rehearsal stage, and (4). evaluation stage.

The analysis of the data was done by testing the difference (t-test). A calculation result in the first cycle was obtained $t = 14.08$ with $\alpha = 0.05$, and the second cycle's $t = 21.04$ is obtained with $\alpha = 0.05$. Thus in the first cycle of $14.08 > 2.09$ hence there is an improvement in students English speaking skills after conducting action research through the Montessori method. In the second cycle $21.04 > 2.09$ hence there is an improvement in students English speaking skills after conducting action research through the Montessori method. To sum up, the results of the action research shows that through the Montessori method the ability of speaking English of the fourth grade elementary school students in Labschool Setia Budi, South Jakarta shows some changes, differences and improvements.

REFERENCES

- Bialstock, Cognitive Complexity and Attentional Control in the Bilingual Mind, Child Development, New York: New York University Press, Inc, 1999.
- Burns R.B, Introduction to Research Methods, Melbourne: Longman, 1994.
- Cohen L dan Manion, Research Methods in Education, 4th Ed, London : Croom Helm, 1994.
- Dopyera M. & Dopyera J. Becoming A Teacher of Young Children, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1985.
- Ebbutt D dan Elliot J, Action Research for Educational Change, Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1991,
- Elliot S.N, Kratochwill T.R, et al, Educational Psychology: Effective Teaching, Effective Learning, Boston: McGraw-Hill Companies Inc., 2000.
- Fernald L.D dan Fernald P.S, Introduction to Psychology, Delhi: Wm.C. Brown Publishers. U.S.A, 2005.
- Hainstock E.G., Metode Pengajaran Montessori Untuk Anak Pra-Sekolah, Jakarta: Pustaka Delapratasa, 1999.
- Hainstock E.G., Teaching Montessori in the Home Pres- School Years, 2nd Ed, New York: Elizabeth E.G, 1997.
- Heaton J. B, Writing English Language Test, Longman Group: UK Limited, 1988.

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

- Kember David, *Action Learning and Action Research (Improving The Quality of Teaching and Learning)*, London: Bidlles Ltd, Guildford and King's Lynn, 2000.
- Kemmis S dan Taggart Robin MC, *The Action Research Planner*, 3rd Ed, Victoria Deaken University, 1988.
- Lillard A.S, *MONTESSORI; The Science Behind the Genius*, Oxford University Press, Inc., 2005.
- Lillard P. Paula dan Lynn L. Jessen, *Montessori from the Start; the Child at Home, from Birth to Age Three*, New York: Schoken Books, 2003.
- Manaf Sherisada, "Mandiri dengan Metode Montessori; Penjiwaan dan Enjoy Learning", *Koran Seputar Indonesia*, Senin 27 November 2006.
- Moleong.J.Lexy, *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*, Bandung: PT. Remaja Rosdakarya Offset-Bandung, 2005.
- Morrow L. mandel, *Literacy development in the Early Years* 2nded, London: A division of Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1993.
- Motz, Mary S.N.D. de N., *Montessori Matters a Language Manual*, 6th Ed, Columbia: Sisters of Notre Dame de namur, 1980.
- Nunan David, *Research Methods in Language Learning*, Cambridge :CUP,1992.
- R.C. Orem, *Montessori: Her method and the Movement What You Need to Know*, New York: Canada Longman Limited, Toronto,1974.
- Riduan dan Akdon, *Rumus dan Data dalam Aplikasi Statistika*, Bandung: Alfabeta, 2006.
- Rohanah F. Adiyati, *Membaca & Menulis Seasyik Bermain*, Bandung : Read! Publishing House (Kelompok Mizan),2006..
- Savignon J. Sandra, *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*, Tokyo: Addison Wesley Publishing Company,1983.
- Uyanto S. Stanislaus, *Pedoman Analisis Data dengan SPSS*, Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2006.
- Wolf.d.Aline, *A Parents' Guide to the Montessori Classroom*, New York : Aline D Wolf, 1980.

FIRST LANGUAGE APPROACH IN EFL LEARNING: HOW DO STUDENTS AND TEACHERS SEE IT?

Magdalena Kartikasari Tandy Rerung

mrerung@bundamulia.ac.id

Bunda Mulia University

Jl. Lodan Raya no. 2 Jakarta Utara

Abstract

The dominant use of English in the EFL classroom can either motivate students to increase their language skill or not. On the other hand teachers believe that whenever possible they expose English with the expectations that their students will be able use it more often however there are always language gap between L1 (Bahasa Indonesia) and L2 (English). It is believed that the existence L1 can offer another solution in language learning. As Schweers (1999) argues that the L1 involvement could help students understand the difficult concept, make them comfortable, and able to explain some new vocabulary items. Therefore, this research attempted to discover whether both students and teachers have the same belief that L1 can offer solution to understand English in better way. The questionnaires adopted from from Wafa Al Sharaeai (2012) and Mizuka Tsukamoto (2011) and interviews with the English teachers were delivered. The data were gathered from 80 students majored English Language and Culture and 14 Lecturers who teach the same major. The research question asked is How do students and teachers view the use of Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom?, result shown that 58% of the students agree that L1 should be used in their classroom whereas 38% of teachers prefer say no, and there rest they agree to use it sometimes. Both teachers and students agree that they should use L1 in the classroom whenever one could not find the word in English.

Keywords: *bilingualism, first language approach, translanguaging*

1. INTRODUCTION

Bilingual education in Indonesia comes to its popularity in the early 2000, and nearly a decade later Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional (SBI) has started to promote the use of mixed English-Indonesian in their subject lessons (Astika, 2009). It noted that the instructions should be given in English to maximize the students' exposure to the target language. Moreover it is also assumed that the more students are exposed to English, the more quickly they learn; as they hear and use English, they will internalize it to begin think in English and the only way they will learn it is if they forced to use it. Regarding to this belief many English language teachers attempted to have either a monolingual or bilingual interactions in the classroom. Unfortunately the situation make students who have lesser language ability would be passive learners, unconfident and tend to rely on their language teacher. Harbord (1992) added that it has failed to get the meaning across, leading to student incomprehension and resentment. The debate over whether English language classrooms should include or exclude students' native language has been controversial issue for a long time (Brown, 2000). In order to overcome this situation, several studies have been conducted to find out the students' perception toward the monolingual or bilingual approach in their classroom. It was started in the 1990s where mother tongue was attached in the language classroom. Auerbach (1993) stated that "Starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners' lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English". At first teachers still believe that dominant use of L2 should be promoted in the classroom and avoiding to the L1, some have even excluded the L1 with the belief that the natural process of

mother tongue can be applied in L2 as well. In addition the immersion between L1 to L2 should be kept separated without any translation needed. (Cummins, 2006). Many English language teachers have tried to create English-only classrooms, but have found that they have failed to get the meaning across, leading to student incomprehension and resentment (Harbord, 1992). Auerbach further reports that the use of L1 shows positive results among researchers and learners, Furthermore, the use of L1 in the classroom apparently help students to understand several tasks such as “language analysis, presenting grammar rules, discussing cross-cultural issues, giving instructions, explaining errors and checking comprehension”.

Several reasons that underline monolingual research in class is that the more L2 is being exposed in class, the faster the students learn (Ellis, 2008). However this condition should be related with the students language environment. In EFL setting, mostly L2 are being used only when students engaged with the subjects like in English classes. There are many cases teachers like to underestimate students who use L1 in their classroom, some teachers without hesitate give consequences to those students who dominantly speak L1. Cook (2001) argued that teachers tend to try their best separating L1 from L2 in their teaching by using various number of techniques such as ask their learners to imitate how the teachers construct the target language. Thus the students attempted to minimize the gap in their language production by making connections the language elements from what they have heard into what they have known, here the connection between L1 and L2 is built, therefore no matter how much exposure done by the teachers, students would likely involved the L1 in order to process the information before they produce it in L2. Nazary (2008) mentioned that the role of L1 in L2 acquisition for Iranian University students, it is mentioned that the use of L1 can be a “learning tool” and also “as a facilitator for an efficient communication”

Vivian Cook (2001) elaborates approaches in bringing L1 into L2 situations. First she mentions it as “alternating language approaches” which reflected in her “Key School Two-way Model” that teaches classes of mixed English and Spanish speakers through English in the morning and Spanish in the afternoon (Rhodes, Christian & Barfield 1997, taken from Cook 2001). Another alternating languages were also adopted for Pilipino students (Tucker, Otones, & Sibayan, 1971) and in European with the program called *Reciprocal Language Teaching* (Hawkins, 1987 taken from Cook, 2001). Second, methods that are actively create links between L1 and L2, which called the *New Concurrent Method* (Jacobson 1990, taken from Cook 2001) which was the language switching from one language to another at key points according to particular rules. The method was conducted for English to Spanish-speaking children. Other method is *Community Language Learning (CLL)* that encourages students talking to each other spontaneously in the L2 by the medium of L1 (Curran, 1976). The last method mentioned by Cook was *Dodson’s Bilingual Method* where the teachers read aloud an L2 reading passage and then interpreted into L1 and asks the students to repeat the sentence. (Dodson, 1967)

The following phenomena also occurred in the university level, there is students who have been started their language learning with a little experience in English. However since they have chosen English as their major therefore they have to start use English dominantly in the classroom. Unfortunately some passive learners are having difficulties in several subject areas such as in speaking and writing classroom where they have to expose their English most of the time. Other subject areas such as grammar class, they are having difficulties especially in retrieving the lessons given, some of the students even admit that they prefer to have it delivered in Indonesian. Further reasons will be explained in the result part.

Based on the following problem, I would like to find out how do students and teachers perceive this phenomena? Which language that has become their preferences in the classroom? And how do students and teachers see the use of Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom? In order to answer the following questions some questionnaires were conducted both for the students and teachers.

2. METHOD

This current study employed a mixed method design where both qualitative and quantitative data collection are conducted mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2008). Furthermore the data collection and analysis was further elaborated in order to find out how do Indonesian students majored in English, as well the teachers, perceive the use of the L1 and the role it plays in the classrooms.

2.1 Participants

For this study the participant were selective through purposive sampling using homogeneous sample which has intention to study a small group in depth (Patton, 1990). Results from the selected group will give valuable information especially in contributing views in language learning progress.

The selected participants gathered from different academic year under the same major. There were 80 students from semester three up to five and fourteen English lecturers. These students have been through their first academic years where most of the language skills are being taught. All of the students are Indonesian and most of them have been studying English since the elementary level. For the English lecturers, all of them have experience in teaching English for 5 years and above.

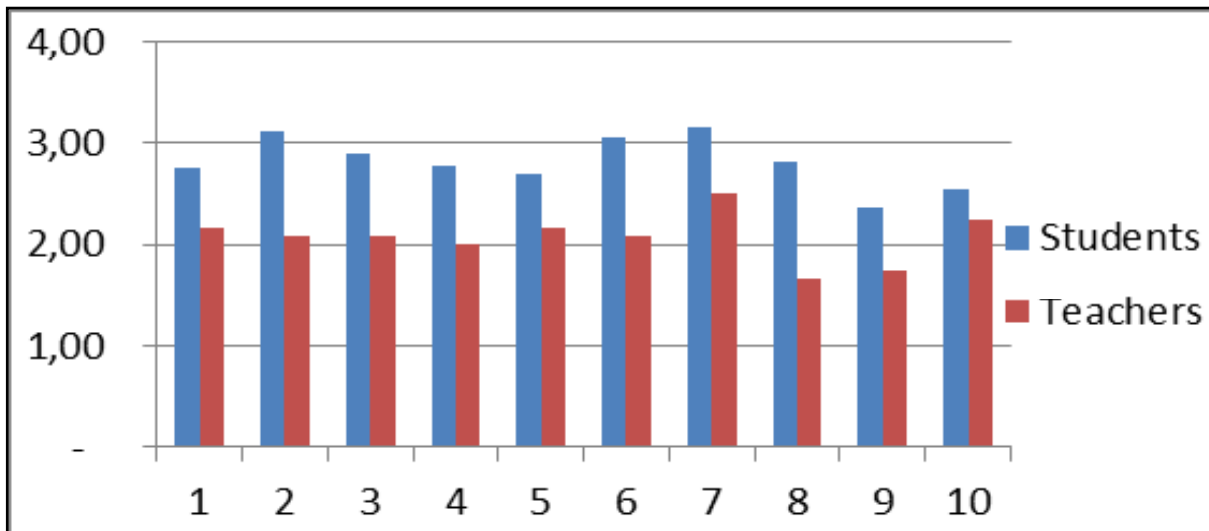
2.2 Data Collection and Analysis

Data used for the following study is by delivering questionnaire which was adopted from Wafa Al Sharaeai (2012) and Mizuka Tsukamoto (2011). There were 20 items in the questionnaire which were divided into two parts the first one is to find out the reasons from participants, both for teachers and students in using Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom and part two were designed only for students in order to ask their further opinion in using L1 in their English classroom. Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of occurrence on a 4-point Likert scale (Strongly disagree, Disagree, Agree, Strongly Disagree). The third part of the questionnaire are asking two kind of question and be explained in the next section. The questionnaires were distributed to both the teachers and students with exchanging the subject on each item. The results were further analyzed statistically and elaborated descriptively in order to gather the finding on patterns that suggest trends in practices and preferences.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Part A

The first part of the questionnaire was asking about how do students and teachers apply both languages in the classroom, and viewed them as a preference. Result is shown as follows,



Mean criteria:

1 – 2,5 = Never - Sometimes

2,6 – 4 = Usually – Always

The result shows that Bahasa Indonesia is frequently used by students whenever they talk with their classmates about unrelated topic (71%), and for the teachers, although most of the score shown in range between “never to sometimes”, but teachers at least sometimes use L1 when they talk about personal things with their students (38%). This can be seen that teachers try to speak English more to their students almost in every circumstances. Furthermore, the following is listed the situations where both teachers and students use Bahasa Indonesia in most of the classroom activities. Items were sorted based on category “usually-always”

Teachers' statements	Students' statements
<i>“I let my students to speak Bahasa Indonesia in (during) English class because (whenever) ...”</i>	<i>I speak Bahasa Indonesia in (during) English class because (whenever) ...”</i>
They talk about personal things with their classmates	I talk about personal things with my classmates
They cannot think of the correct word in English when talking to their classmates	I chat with my classmates about topics that may not be connected to class.
Because they can't think of the words in English, and when they speak in my first language, even when others may not understand me.	My classmates start talking to me in my first language while we are working on a task

From the questionnaires, it can be seen that both students and teachers show different reasons regarding the use of Bahasa Indonesia in class. Overall result, the teachers use lesser frequency than the students, the reasons probably because some teachers believe that they have to expose English as much as possible in the classroom in order to motivate the students in speaking the language. However there are some situations that the teachers let their students to speak in Bahasa Indonesia such as when they talk about personal feelings or work with their classmates also when they cannot find the English words.

On the other hand, students often use Bahasa Indonesia with their classmates especially when they are speaking with their classmates either to finish a task or speaking about things

unrelated with English subjects.

Part B

For the second result, it shows how do students view the use of Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom and the questionnaires listed ten opinions. Based on the result, the following is the list on what most students *agree* at:

- 1) Having English teacher that can understand Bahasa Indonesia.
- 2) Speaking English only if they feel their language skill improved.
- 3) Use English whenever they need to, meanwhile they prefer to communicate in Bahasa Indonesia.
- 4) They think that they use Indonesia more often in the class.
- 5) To have an “English only Policy” in class.

Some *neutral* answers are reflected in the following opinions:

- 6) Sitting next to a classmate who prefer to speak Bahasa Indonesia
- 7) English is used only to finish their course tasks.
- 8) It is okay to speak English whenever they are not discussing English-related subjects.

Generally both students and teachers view the use of L1 in the classroom differently, such as when teachers are more restricted while students tend to use L1 more in the classroom. Secondly, the significant result is showed in the item *where students prefer to finish the activities earlier in order to finish the class activities faster*; 41% students usually do this while 58% teachers do not let this happens. For both teachers and students have a nearly similar perspective on using L1 if the person couldn't think the word in English and when others may not understand him/her.

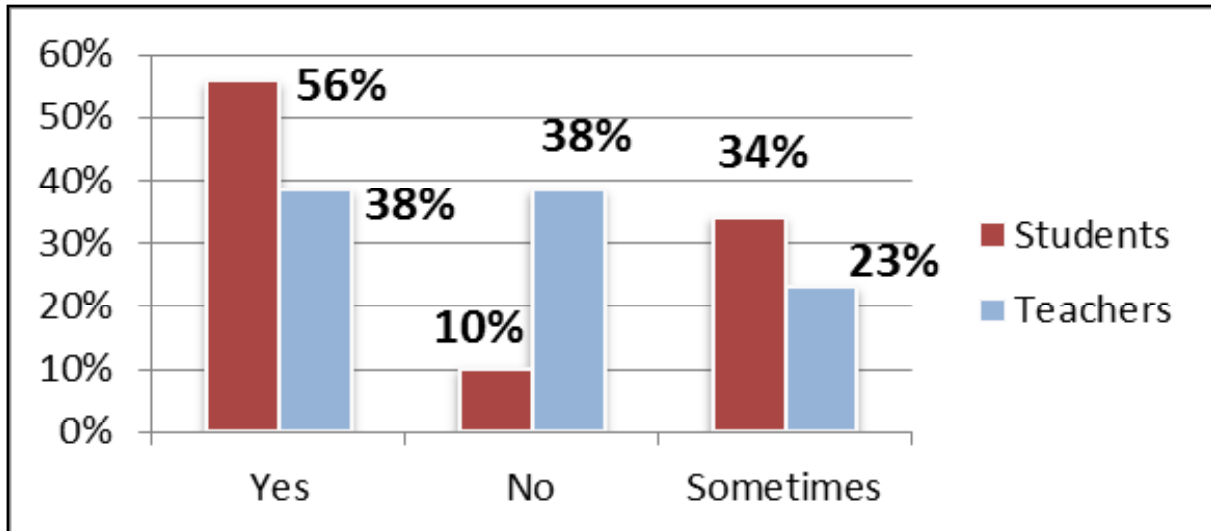
Half of the students also agree that they would be agree if their teacher gives rules on English-only policy, which sometimes this situation occurred whenever they have to speak English more often like in the listening and speaking classes.

For the *neutral* responses, students prefer to speak Bahasa Indonesia with their classmate and sometimes they could feel awkward when they use English most of the time, this situation happen when students feel their English ability is lesser than their friends therefore they are being reluctant to maximize their English exposure. There are also situations where students back to use Bahasa Indonesia while chatting with their friends after they have done with their tasks and they think that would be permissible by the teachers.

Part C

In this part there are five questions delivered, all of them have the purpose to find out both teachers and students' perspective in using Bahasa Indonesia, the following are the result.

Do you think that Bahasa Indonesia may be used in your class?



The result is shown that more than half students agree with the statements, which mean that they probably will have liberty in expressing their ideas, moreover in getting the information clearer, especially when they are dealing with subjects that require deeper understanding. On the contrary, teachers are more like to disagree with the statements, however some of them also agree to use the language in the classroom meanwhile for the rest respondents will occasionally allow their students to use Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom.

In response to this question, the following item was asking about *when do they feel to use Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom*. Regarding the productive (speaking and writing) and receptive (listening and reading) skills, the needs in using Bahasa Indonesia occurred in both ways.

In productive skills, students responded that they would need to use L1 especially whenever they want to explain new ideas or concepts also when they have new vocabularies. In other words they would like to deepen the meaning by discussing it further in L1. Also when they face complicated theories and would like to make it clearer by discussing it with their friends.

In receptive skills, the students will choose to use L1 specifically in grammar class such as in giving instructions and functions. The needs to listen and read in L1 also occurred whenever they want to understand some complicated theories such as in cultures, linguistics, and translation. There are some students who feel exhausted on reading lots of English books, which have complicated sentences.

On the other hand, teachers listed more reasons whenever they use Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom. They tend to use the language mostly in giving explanations whenever they see their students got confused with the lessons delivered. Specifically, when they come to some terminologies explanation and keywords. Bahasa Indonesia also used in thesis discussion and when the material is considered very difficult. Teachers are also more tolerable when they see their classroom show a very weak language skills, here they hope that by they can motivate the students by speaking in L1 and minimizing the gap among them.

Furthermore, in informal situations teachers use L1 more often such as in texting, talking casual topics, during the break, and having small chats outside the classroom. Here teachers do not focus too much on their students language skills. However there are conditions they mix the languages. The following are the overall responses made by teachers and students.

Students' responses:

- explaining new words
- explaining functions
- when the instructor hard to explain
- when the lesson is hard to explain
- in grammar class and translation class
- in theory class
- talking theory
- to make it clearer
- complicated theories
- during the material introduction
- explaining some important

Teachers' responses:

- during the break
- thesis supervision
- finding the meaning
- new concepts
- to motivate students speaking English
- students can learn English faster
- when they can't continue in English when giving opinions
- when they are very weak (language skills)
- when the material is to difficult
- talking unrelated things
- emphasizing

The similarities perception between teachers and students can be seen that, firstly both of them agree that is Bahasa Indonesia would be best used whenever they are discussing new concepts. Here teachers may do bilingual approach by translating the theories into L1, and on the other hand students also may ask questions in L1 in order to gain more understanding. Secondly, teachers and students also agree to use L1 when they are talking subjects other than English, such as in casual conversation. Another similar opinion also reflected in explaining difficult points, here the students even specified more like in grammar classes where they are challenged to understand some complicated formulation.

3 CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This research is intended to show how do teachers sometimes putting too much pressure on the students by keeping the classroom only allowed English and sometimes isolating Bahasa Indonesia even though it will contribute students deeper understanding. On the contrary, the questionnaire results revealed that most students did not feel the strong need to use English most of the time. In the receptive language skills, students prefer to use Bahasa Indonesia for deeper discussion especially when it talks about instructions and complicated theories. In productive language skills, students are expected to speak and write in English thus students with weaker skill are still considered to be able to use English only in expressing their ideas. Teachers, on the other hand even though they are being reluctant in using Bahasa Indonesia in their classrooms seemed quite tolerable and try to make the students more comfortable in using English whenever they want to. They understand that isolating Bahasa Indonesia will only demotivate students in exploring more English.

There were some limitations to the study; Students' comments towards the English only interactions only come from their self-awareness on their language productions due to the English only interactions with the teacher. There is no clear evidence that the students have become more proficient in English.

It suggested that when teachers use L1 in English classroom for language learning purposes like conveying word and sentence meaning which are closely linked in the mind; explaining grammar. Using L1 also can be used whenever the teacher organize the class to do some tasks; maintaining discipline, and getting contact for individual feedback. Atkinson (1987) and Auerbach (1993) summarize how do teachers can apply L1 into the following;

- 1) Providing instructions; concepts; grammar; explaining concepts.
- 2) Classroom management duties which do not exist in L2 in order to have time efficiency.
- 3) Humanistic approach, in order they have ideas deal with culture and habits.
- 4) learner-preferred strategy.

Based on the results, undoubtedly that the role of L1 in the classroom management, instructing language learning skills and performing all types of activities and language assessment of students should be repeated emphasized. As teachers, we should finally free ourselves of the old misconceptions on using English exclusively in the classroom and shift our views to involving L1 in our teaching practices which can hopefully assist the process of the foreign language learning. It is better to have the students more proficient in their English language rather than deficient native speakers.

REFERENCES

- Al Sharaeai, Wafa Abdo Ahmed, "Students' Perspectives on the Use of L1 in English Classrooms" (2012). Graduate Theses and Dissertations. Paper 12898.
- Astika, G. 2009. "The Role of Needs Analysis in English for Specific Purposes. TEFLIN Journal: A publication on the teaching and learning of English", Vol 10, No 1,(Online), accessed on February 6, 2013.
- Auerbach, E. (1993). "Re-examining English only in the ESL classroom". *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32
- Brown, H. D. (2000). "Principles of language learning and teaching". Fourth edition. White plains, NY: Pearson Education
- Cook, Vivian. 2001. "Using the First Language in the Classroom". *Key Topics in Second Language Acquisition*.
- Cummins, J. (2006). "Identity texts: The imaginative construction of self through multiliteracies pedagogy". In O. Garcia, T. Skutnabb-Kangas, & M.M. Torres-Guzman (Eds.), *Imagining multilingual schools: Languages in education and glocalization* (pp. 51-68). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). "Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach"
- Ellis, Nick C. 2008a. "The dynamics of language use, language change, and first and second language acquisition". *Modern Language Journal* 41 (3):232-249.
- Harbord, J. (1992), "The use of mother tongue in the classroom", in *ELT Journal*, 46 (4) , 350-355
- Tsukamoto, Mizuka. (2011) "Students' perception of teachers' language use in an EFL classroom".

APPLYING THE ACTIVITIES OF CASE BUILDING TECHNIQUE FOR THE STUDENTS' WRITING IMPROVEMENT

Nur Fitri, S.

pipieq.nurfitri@gmail.com

Fatimah Hidayahni Amin

Aminfatimah2@gmail.com

Universitas Negeri Makassar
Jl.Dg.Tata UNM Parangtambung

Abstract

The study focuses on investigating the implementation of the case building technique to the students' writing improvement. Specifically, the study aims to find out and describe the activities of case building technique to the students' writing improvement within five areas: content, organization, vocabulary, structure, and mechanics. The study used quasi-experimental method with two groups, experimental and control. The populations were all students of English Department in university level. The samples were taken randomly. Data of the study were collected by employing a writing test. The analysis of data was obtained by using inferential statistics with 17.0 version SPSS and descriptive interpretation. The research results showed that the students' writing improvement in experimental group was enhanced after treated by the application of Case Building Technique but the students' writing improvement in control group remained the same. Based on statistical analysis, the alternative hypothesis was accepted and that means the students' writing improvement in experimental and control groups was reliable. Thus, it is inferred that the activities of case building technique can become one of the promising ways for the students' writing improvement.

Keywords: *case building technique, writing improvement*

1. INTRODUCTION

In language learning, writing is considered as one of the productive skills which covers many aspects of language. It initially requires learners' knowledge of language use and knowledge of content. Undeniably, writing is used as a way of communicating messages for a purpose similar to other language skills. In line with that, Byrne (1990) states that writing is the expression of ideas in a consecutive way which is ultimately aimed to be able to express the utilization of a special vocabulary and certain refinement of a structure. To be able to write needs practices in expressing systematic ideas, incorporating learners' prior experiences, and utilizing learners' understanding of vocabulary and grammar.

Nevertheless, the importance of learning to write in English becomes a high demand for language learners in Indonesia. As it has been quoted from Governmental Regulation of National Education Department of Indonesia No. 23 in 2006, students are required to achieve the standard and basic competence of English (Depdiknas, 2006). This means that high school students have an obligation to study and, most importantly, to master the use of English. One of the competences that students can do to achieve English mastery is being able to write in English. It is without a doubt that being able to write in English is one of the ways students can communicate their ideas as well as practice their English use.

Despite its importance, the significance of writing ideas is invariably for the development of human life. By writing, learners can write out their ideas about certain topic and can practice their progress in using the aspects of language. As a result, by reading learners' writing, readers can get information about ideas, opinions, or suggestions that relate to particular content. In

other words, learners' writing can become a valuable input for readers.

Furthermore, doing writing activity requires extra work. Oshima and Hougue (1997) assure that writing is a progressive activity. When learners write something down first, they have already been thinking about what and how they are going to write. After finishing their writing, they read over, correct, and make some changes. The process of writing, ultimately, is not a one phase activity but has several steps. As it has been mentioned before in the process of writing, learners incorporate their understanding of English use. What is more, they have to set and build their prior knowledge or experience before producing written product. Jacob, et.al. (1981) categorize five components in writing, namely: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. *Content* has to do with the writer's point of view, including his experiences and his common knowledge. *Organization* is the arrangement of ideas. *Vocabulary* deals with the appropriate use of words based on context. *Language use* encompasses the use of correct English in grammar. *Mechanics* is the writing format. The understanding of these five components can afford learners to write good English and, most importantly, to deliver meaningfully written messages. However, to master the understanding of these components is always a matter of process. Heaton (1998) assumed that writing skill is complex and is quite difficult to teach because learners need to be taught to be competent in grammatical and rhetorical devices as well as conceptual and judgment elements. Very often in being able to express their ideas in a written form, learners' English use and their ideas structure become prime problems. This phenomenon is an aching need that always calls for the implementation in English teaching learning process.

Therefore, teacher, who holds the primary role in the classroom, has the biggest charge to help learners with their problems in learning English, particularly in learning to write. Until now, many studies have been invented in contributing to writing skill improvement by implementing various teaching techniques. Recently, Sahbaz and Duran (2011) with Clustering technique, Christmas (2013) with his Brainstorming technique, and Dewi (2013) with her Weblogs technique have been found useful to contribute in the learners' writing improvement. The variety of these teaching techniques has ignited the writers to introduce and describe one teaching technique in writing, that is, Case Building Technique. The implementation of the technique is an attempt to research its possible use in improving learners' writing skill.

Case Building is one of the debate contest features. The part of case building takes places in the initial session of the two most debate contests, *British Parliamentary System* and *Australasian System*. It is served to compose and build structured ideas about the side of position's case. Since debate contest has two opposite sides, each side has to argue to win its case. Each side has to promote, defend, and convince the judges which ideas are outweighed. Therefore, preparation of each side's case is set in case building. In relation to that, the writers use the part of case building in those debate contests as the writing activity in Case Building technique.

The nature of building cases in writing out ideas is typically based on the principle of constructivism. Principally, learners learn by using what they know to construct new understanding (Piaget, 1967). Their learning process is based on what they have harbored in their previous experiences and prior knowledge. In relation to that, when learners write down their ideas, they incorporate their schemata or what they know about the writing topic. They expand their understanding by linking their prior knowledge with information they found in their circumstances. The process of information incorporation and expansion is crucially undertaken in the case building technique.

Specifically, Case Building technique comprises four main activities, namely: grouping, brainstorming, mentoring, and evaluating. The activities are done in order. By grouping, learners

collaborate with their peers to unite their ideas about the given topic. In brainstorming, they give out ideas and list possible ideas for the writing development. In this activity, learners incorporate their prior knowledge and previous experiences and expand their understanding. By mentoring, learners unite their group ideas. They classify and highlight possible points. By evaluating, they criticize and comment upon their group's consensus. The implementation of these activities is served to help learners to prewrite or write their English composition. Having considered the aforementioned learners' issues in writing improvement, this paper will describe the ways of Case Building Technique applied in their writing improvement.

2. METHOD

The study used quasi-experimental method with two groups, experimental and control groups. Both groups were given a test before and after the treatment of case building technique in their writing activity. The study involved 80 second semester students of 2012-2013 academic year of English Education Study Program in State University of Makassar with 40 students from class A as an experimental group and the other 40 students from class B as a control group who were chosen randomly by using lot.

A writing test was used to gather the data on the students' writing improvement. The test was conducted before and after the treatment from experimental and control groups. The treatment for experimental and control groups was conducted in four meetings. Each meeting lasted 90 minutes. In every meeting, the lecturer gave different topics of writing. He also explained and gave examples of writings with good categories of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. For the experimental group, the first 5 minutes of the treatment, the lecturer grouped the students. The next 30 minutes, the students in group brainstormed their given topic to write. After that, the students were mentored by the teacher in 30 minutes. The last 25 minutes, the students evaluated their writing in group per group. On the other hand in the control group, the students were given a topic of writing and asked to write their ideas about the topic in 60 minutes. The next 30 minutes, the lecturer checked and explained the correction of the students' writing.

To analyze the data, scoring, tabulation, classification, and calculation using SPSS 17 version were administered. The scoring data used Jacob's scoring rubric (Jacob, et.al. 1981). Data classification used the scoring system of State University of Makassar (Tim Badan Penerbit UNM, 2008).

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

It was found that the students' writing improvement in the experimental group was enhanced after the application of Case Building technique. However, the students' writing improvement in the control group remained the same before and after the treatment. The difference of the students' writing improvement in experimental and control groups will be illustrated in the following tables of classification scores, of mean scores, and of t-test score.

Table 1. Classification score of the students' writing improvement in pretest

Classification	Score	Experimental Group		Control Group	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Very Good	91 – 100	0	0	0	0
Good	76 – 90	0	0	0	0
Average	61 – 75	19	47.5	31	77.5
Poor	51 – 60	13	32.5	7	17.5
Very Poor	≤ 50	8	20	2	5
Total		40	100	40	100

In table 1, it is shown that both experimental and control groups have the same classification score with different frequency and percentage. For experimental group, the students' writing improvement was classified into Average with 19 (47.5%) students, Poor with 13 (32.5%), and Very Poor with 8 or (20%) students. On the other hand, the students' writing improvement in control group was classified into Average with 31 (77.5%) students, Poor 7 (17.5%) students, and Very Poor with 2 (5%) students. The finding implies that both groups have low understanding in writing English composition. It can be proven with the mean score of every component of writing as follows.

Table 2. Mean score of the five components of writing in pretest

Writing Components	Mean Score		Difference
	Experimental	Control	
Content	18.65	18.75	0.1
Organization	12.08	13.15	1.07
Vocabulary	11.05	13.05	2
Language Use	13.43	15.68	2.25
Mechanics	2.83	3.08	0.25
Total Mean Score	58.04	63.71	5.67
Standard Deviation	8.36	6.23	

The table 2 shows the difference of the mean scores in five writing components is 5.67 with the control group which is higher than the experimental group. This implies that the students in both groups have slightly similar competence in writing. To further prove the significant difference of the mean score for both groups, the t-test value is given as follows.

Table 3. The t-test value of the students' mean scores in pretest.

Variable	A	P. Value	Remarks
Pretest	.05	.002	Significantly different

The t-test result shows that the probability value (.002) is smaller than the level of significance (.05). This means that the alternative hypothesis is accepted and the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant difference of the mean score of five components for both experimental and control groups. That means the students in the control group has slightly higher competence in writing than those in the experimental group before conducting the treatment.

To see the difference between the results before and after the treatment, the subsequent findings are given.

Table 4. Classification score of the students' writing improvement in posttest

Classification	Score	Experimental Group		Control Group	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Very Good	91 – 100	3	7.5	0	0
Good	76 – 90	18	45	1	2.5
Average	61 – 75	18	45	24	60
Poor	51 – 60	1	2.5	12	30
Very Poor	≤ 50	0	0	3	7.5
Total		40	100	40	100

In table 4, the classification score between experimental and control groups is different. For experimental group, the students' writing improvement was classified into Very Good with 3 (7.5%) students, Good and Average with 18 (45%), and Poor with 1 or (2.5%) student. On the other hand, the students' writing improvement in control group was classified into Good with 1 (2.5%) student, Average with 24 (60%) students, Poor 12 (30%) students, and Very Poor with 3 (7.5%) students. The finding shows that the students in the experimental group after treated with the application of Case Building technique, their writing improvement is enhanced. However, the students' writing improvement in the control group remains the same even though one student reaches Good category. The mean score of every component of writing in posttest can be seen as follows.

Table 5. Mean score of the five components of writing in posttest

Writing Components	Mean Score		Difference
	Experimental	Control	
Content	22.85	18.68	4.17
Organization	15.50	13.13	2.37
Vocabulary	15.65	12.68	2.97
Language Use	18.95	15.15	3.8
Mechanics	4.25	3.03	1.22
Total Mean Score	77.2	62.67	14.53
Standard Deviation	8.12	8.09	

The table 5 shows the difference of the mean scores in five writing components after the treatment in both groups is 14.53 with the experimental group which is higher than the control group. This implies that the students in both groups have different writing improvement after conducting a distinctly different treatment. To see the significant difference of the mean score for both groups, the t-test value is given as follows.

Table 6. The t-test value of the students' mean scores in posttest.

Variable	A	P. Value	Remarks
Posttest	.05	.000	Significantly different

The t-test result in posttest shows that the probability value (.000) is smaller than the level of significance (.05). That means that the alternative hypothesis is accepted and the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be said that there is a significant difference of the mean score of five components for both experimental and control groups in posttest. Thus, the students in the experimental group have higher writing improvement than those in the control group regarding the five components of writing.

Having proven with the findings above, it is noteworthy that applying Case Building technique in the process of teaching and learning English writing is one promising way. The comparing results between the students' writing improvement in control and experimental groups prove that Case Building technique has given a new nuance and has contributed successfully to the teacher's teaching methodology and to the students' learning strategy in writing. Some possible ways which are noted to be successfully improve the students' writing competence

depicted in the application of Case Building technique.

First of all, the teacher in Case Building technique plays vital roles as a facilitator and a manager. Marzano, et.al. (2003) points out that teachers as a classroom manager are in charge of managing a classroom which includes rules and procedures to guide behavior so that teaching and learning can flourish. In another point, Subedi (2005) states that teachers as a facilitator is played to inspire students to create favorably learning environment. Thus, as a manager and a facilitator, teachers are not just teaching but they are also helping students to figure out the best way for students to learn, which is highly important in an educational setting. Respectively, he inspires the students to keep up the learning pathway and he directs them to find and undertake possibly feasible ways in the learning process. When the students encounter problems in learning to write, the teacher is ready to show them way out and direct them to proceed to the solution of the problems.

Another vocal point of applying Case Building technique is the topic that is given to the students to write is level-based. The level-based topic is the one that is suited with the students' competence level. It can be determined by the teacher, if he already knows what suits with his students' needs, or it can be chosen by the students themselves. If the students' competence level is gradually improved, the topic can be global so as to improve the students' thinking process. Furthermore, the topic in Case Building technique is mostly about debating or arguing two opposite sides. The students have to provoke and promote their ideas about one of the sides' case so as to convince their readers that their ideas are reliable and attainable. In relation to that, Piaget (1967) has promoted that students learn something by constructing what they have already known. Therefore, by provoking and promoting the students' prior knowledge and experiences, they can learn to construct ideas and sharpen their understanding. In this way, the students' thinking process is necessitated.

Next, the application of Case Building technique starts with grouping. The students, particularly, in a big class are assumed to group the students so the teacher can organize and control his class well. The grouping can be three to five students. It can be determined by the teacher himself, ask the students to choose whom they want to be with, or order them based on the sequential number in the attendance list. By grouping, the students are encouraged to collaborate and cooperate with one another to finish the given task. Basically, the grouping engages the students' solid unity so the students have to be ready to work together.

The second activity, brainstorming, helps awake the students' cognitive skill. In a group, one per one student expresses and contributes his ideas about the given topic. The brainstorming can be based on the students' prior knowledge and experiences. The students may also look through the dictionary, article, or other sources of information to back up their ideas. By brainstorming, they list possibly outstanding ideas, define some points, and highlight alluding examples or facts. Their job in this activity is gathering pieces of ideas as if knotting the broken strings.

The third activity is mentoring. After putting pieces of ideas into unity, the teacher checks the students' first draft. By mentoring, the teacher corrects if there is a mistake in the students' writing regarding the use of five components of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics). If the students have corrections in their writing, they fix them and compile them into a good arrangement of writing.

The last activity is evaluating by which the students have come up with the second draft of writing and are ready to be given comments and suggestions by other fellow students as the readers.

During the teaching and learning process, it can be seen that the students are benefited from undertaking collaborating work and having corrected from the lecturer and their fellow students. The students feel engaged to work with their group peers because they are assigned and set in time to finish one given writing task. Their learning supports as the teacher roles, their fellow students, and the level-based topic help step up their way to improve their writing competence. As noted from Oshima and Hougue (1997) that writing activity is a progressive process. The students are constantly doing phase per phase of the writing activity to understand the five components of writing. They have to start with the engagement of participation as being grouped and brainstorm ideas, and the understanding intake as being mentored and evaluated.

However, some flaws might take place as if the students are not watched to pay attention and participate in the group work and as if the students are lack of sources of information about the given topic. Since working in a group with three to five students can retreat other students' participation, particularly the low level students, the teacher has to manage the grouping well. The teacher has to encourage and direct the students too to look for supporting information which add on their writing content. Therefore, more practices and variation of the topic are highly promoted to get the students accustomed with the application of Case Building technique.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

To sum up, the application of Case Building technique has been one of the promising teaching techniques in writing. The technique has four activities: grouping, brainstorming, mentoring, and evaluating which are undertaken to enhance the students' writing improvement. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the students in the experimental group has improved their writing competence after treated by the application of Case Building technique with 18.72 average score, from the mean score in pretest 58.48, to the mean score in posttest 77.2. On the other hand, the students' writing improvement in the control group stays steady from the mean score in pretest 63.70 to the mean score in posttest 62.65. The statistical analysis found that both in pretest and posttest, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. That means the students' writing improvement in five components of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics) for both groups is reliable.

Based on the conclusions, it is highly suggested that for the teachers and students of English to apply Case Building technique as one of the possible ways in the teaching and learning process particularly in writing English composition, and that for other researchers to further investigate the effect of applying Case Building technique in the students' writing improvement.

REFERENCES

- Byrne, Donn. (1990). *Teaching Writing Skills* (Longman Handbook for English Teachers). New York: Longman Group.
- Christmas, Bradley. 2013. *The Role of Brainstorming in Improving Students' Writing Performance in the EFL Classroom*. (<http://sydney.edu.au/cet/docs/research/Writing.pdf>) Retrieved on August 1st 2013.
- Depdiknas. (2006). *Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris*. Jakarta: Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan.
- Dewi, W. Rosita. 2013. *Weblogs: An Alternative Solution in Improving Students Writing Skill*. (<http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED54875.pdf>). Retrieved on August 2nd 2013.
- Heaton, J.B. (1988). *Writing English Language Test*. New York: Longman Inc.

- Jacobs, H.L., Zinkgraf, S.A., Wormouth, D.R., Hartfiel, V.F & Hughey, J.B. (1981). Testing ESL composition : A practical approach. Rowely, MA: Newbury House.
- Marzano, R.J., Marzano, J.S., & Pickering, D.J. (2003). Classroom Management that Works. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Oshima, Alice and Hogue, Ann. (1999). Writing Academic English. Third Edition. New York: Longman.
- Piaget, J. (1967). Biologie et connaissance (Biology And Knowledge), Paris: Gallimard
- Sahbaz, K & Duran, G. 2011. The Efficiency of Cluster Method in Improving the Creative Writing Skill. (<http://www.academicjournals.org/ERR>). Retrieved on August 2nd 2013.
- Subedi, Hira Lal. (2005). English Language Teaching Method. Kathmandu: Pradhan Book House.
- Tim Badan Penerbit UNM. (2008). Buku Panduan UNM. Makassar: Badan Penerbit Universitas Negeri Makassar

IMPLEMENTING TEAM TEACHING IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR YOUNG LEARNER

Fida Anisah

fidaanisah@yahoo.com

Fathin Anjani Hilman

fathinanjani@student.upi.edu

Lestiyani Sunarto

lestiyanis@gmail.com

Indonesia University of Education

Abstract

In Indonesia, classroom is set to large classes consisting of 30-40 students and one of the problems that encountered by teachers is due to classroom management. This condition encourages teacher to discover a solution to overcome this problem. Team teaching is a teaching method in delivering certain material that conducted by two or more teachers. Team teaching is an effort to provide an opportunity to get an equal attention from teacher and a supportive environment for students. This research aimed at investigating how team teaching is implemented in teaching English to young learner and to see how the team teacher work cooperatively in the 3 stages of teaching and learning process (preparation, learning and evaluation process). Qualitative case study using classroom observation and semi-structured interview was employed to reveal the implementation of team teaching in teaching English to young learners. The participants who are involved in this research are students and team teacher of 3rd level in one of private school in Bandung. The result of this research showed that team teacher were worked cooperatively in the three stages of teaching and learning process with different proportion of tasks and responsible and the classroom was were also managed well as reflected from the learning process. Therefore this study is expected to provide a clear picture of team teaching implementation in teaching English to young learner as well as a recommendation for teachers of young learner. It is also purposed to be a suggestion to who are in charge in the field of primary education.

Keywords: *team teaching, young learner, classroom management, large class*

1. INTRODUCTION

English is taught and used in Indonesia as a foreign language. As the world globalization development, it demands all people of all nations in the world to possess proficiency in English. Without mastering English, one cannot communicate with other people in other countries. To equip Indonesians with an ability to communicate at the international level, English is determined as the first foreign language officially taught begins from junior secondary school. Since the curriculum 1994 established, English is taught to the primary school students (Mistar in Braine, 2005)

Previously, English was first taught in junior high school. This will be the end for children to learn English at that age. In fact, the study says that learning English will be better and more effectively taught in the previous period of time. It is said that childhood is the best time to acquire language. In this age, children easily understand and use a language. "The acquisition of speech and the learning of language is one of the areas where critical periods appear to operate quite strongly, centered in early childhood (Pinker, 1994; Greenfield, 2000 cited in Latham 2002)

Teaching English to young learner is not easy. There are some obstacles that the educator

concerning in teaching young learner often faces. Teachers have to set a supportive teaching learning process and also they have to create an attractive learning activity. Thus, to make the young learner enjoy the teaching learning process and keep them focusing in material for long time. Crosse (2007) said younger children are less inhibited than older children and once they feel comfortable in their new surrounding they will join whole heartedly with activities, contributing in as many ways as possible and eventually joining in and developing their language skills.

In Indonesian public school, classes are set in large class. This is how we find in most of elementary school in our country. This is become one factor that handicap teaching learning process. This condition encourage teacher to find the best method to manage the class to be the place for effective learning and to deliver material effectively. Team teaching is one method that is now emerging as one of the solutions used to overcome these problems.

Team teaching is a teaching method in delivering certain material that conducted by two or more teacher. Quinn and Kanter (1984) define team teaching as a team work between two qualified instructors who together make presentations to an audience. In addition, Ahmadi & Prasetya (1997) said that team teaching is a teaching learning process conducted by several people. The team teacher work collaboratively in preparing, practicing and evaluating student learning result. Team teaching is considered as an effort to provide an opportunity to get an equal teachers' attention and a supportive environment for students.

There are many type of team teaching based on how the team teachers practice it in their teaching. Some expert have been classified the type of team teaching. Goetz (2000) said that there appear to be two broad categories of team teaching, those are:

- **Category A:** Two or more instructors are teaching the same students at the same time within the same classroom.
- **Category B:** The instructors work together but do not necessarily teach the same groups of students nor necessarily teach at the same time.

There are several model of team teaching category A such as traditional team teaching where the teachers actively share the instruction of content and skills to all students. The second is collaborative teaching in which the team teachers work together in designing the course and teach the material not by the usual monologue, but rather by exchanging and discussing ideas and theories in front of the learners. Next is complimentary/ supportive team teaching when one teacher is responsible for teaching the content to the students, while the other teacher takes charge of providing follow-up activities on related topics or on study skills. The next is parallel instruction where the class is divided into two groups and each teacher is responsible for teaching the same material to her/his smaller group. The fifth is differentiated split which divides the class into smaller groups according to learning needs. And lastly, monitoring teacher when one teacher assumes the responsibility for instructing the entire class, while the other teacher circulates the room and monitors student understanding and behavior

Team teacher in this method is considered as a main factor. Team teachers must be able to collaborate and work together for more effective teaching and learning process. By the clear and balance division of roles and responsibilities, team teaching is expected to provide an opportunity for each member of the team to work together and complement each other in managing the learning process. So that problems that arise in the learning process can be addressed together.

There are some researches that have been conducted related to the issue of the use of team teaching. Previously team teaching is widely used for teaching academically able students

with disabilities, including a large number of students with learning disabilities (Gerber & Popp, 2000; Dieker & Rodriguez, 2013). Team teaching also used in inclusive classroom with deaf students (Cawthon, 2001). In addition, Team teaching also can be used in teaching a dual language program as in studied by Pardy (2004). Furthermore, another research found the benefit of team teaching when team teacher consist of native and non-native speaker with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds they can work together to provide students with more opportunities to improve their communicative competence (Tajino & Tajino, 2000). Those researches however investigate team teaching practice with students with disabilities. Only a little research investigate how team teaching work in teaching English in primary education context

Based on the explanation above, this research tries to investigate how team teaching implemented in teaching English to young learner.

2. METHOD

2.1 Research Design

This research employed a qualitative case study. David Williams (1995) cited in Moleong (2011) said that qualitative research is data collecting in natural setting with natural method and done by a researcher who is naturally interested in the research Descriptive method is used in presenting data. This method deals with the purpose of the research that is to describe deeply about the implementation of team teaching in teaching English to young learners.

2.2 Data Collection

Data will be collected through two data collection techniques, namely Interview and Observation. Observation collected the data teaching learning process. The data taken from the interview is the specific data about teaching learning process including the preparation of the teacher and also teacher's evaluation of teaching learning process.

2.3 Observation

Observation is technique of monitoring and systematic recording toward observed phenomenon (Suryana & Priatna, 2009). In this research, observation is to observe directly the teaching learning process that implement team teaching. The purpose of the observation is initially to find out the teaching learning process in teaching English to young learners by using team teaching and also to know the evaluation process that was conducted by the team teachers.

2.4 Interview

In this research, interview is used to get more information about the implementation of Team Teaching. The interview begins by interviewing the team teacher's preparation before attending the class and how they implement team teaching in their English class and lastly about the evaluation process that they conducted in implementing team teaching during English class.

2.5 Site and Participant

Lofland and Lofland (1984) as cited in Moleong (2011) said main data source in qualitative research is words and action, while other is only additional data such as document etc. This research was conducted in one of private primary school in Bandung. This school is one of the most favorite elementary schools in Bandung as reported in "Dunianema" magazine (Volume 1/0510:32). This school is well known by its superior on implementing interactive learning model. The participant of this research is team teachers of Level 3 in one of private primary school

Bandung which consists of 4 teachers and 2 helpers.

2.6 Data Analysis

The collected data will be analyzed by using the flow data analysis model those are data collection, data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Data collection is conducted by using an instrument while data reduction is the process of summarizing the important things that taken from the research place. In this study data is displayed in the written form or word based form by describing implementation of team teaching in teaching English to young learner. Lastly, conclusion is done by analyzing the data obtained.

3. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Preparation

The first step in implementing team teaching is forming the team itself. The school choose the member of team. Based on the finding from interview, the process of forming the team teacher is done by the school management in the beginning of the academic year. The criteria of teacher for the lower level (1-3 level) are those who cheerful and attractive. Thus, teacher can create an interesting learning environment for young learner so that they feel comfortable in their new surrounding (Crosse, 2007). In addition, other criteria that the team teacher have to own is related to their subject mastery, personality and gender. Related to their subject mastery there are four important points such as language proficiency, *ruhiyah*, math, science. Each team consist of teacher who possesses these four criteria. This process is in line with the theory suggested by Wang (2010) that said in forming the team, administrator or teachers must initially identify the philosophies of each member of team, thus to know about their basic thought of teaching learning. In addition, Goetz (2000) said that team teachers should list their philosophies, classroom environments, methods of discipline and personality types as their main concerns when teaming up with another teacher.

Before implementing the teaching learning process the team teacher make some preparation. The preparation process includes determining the method, material, media etc. According to Asmani (2010) in the planning process team teacher should consider several items; lesson plan, learning method, material, and sharing responsibility. The preparation begins with the weekly meeting that held by the school management with the level coordinator. In this meeting the team teacher discuss about the curriculum, syllabus, theme of the subject, and students' problems. This meeting aimed to control the quality of teaching learning process. This is related to the theory that the team teachers demanded to serve an extra time to share their thought, ideas, and opinions Asmani (2010).

The second regular meeting is called level meeting where the team teachers of each level meet and share their ideas. In this meeting the level coordinator share the information that has been discuss in the previous meeting and the other teachers also share their comment and ideas about what will be done in the next week. Not only discussing about how will the teaching learning process will be in that one week but also they set a target what their student should able to do. The meeting also talking about the special event related to the students activities, such as *My Conference* where the student speak in front of public and present their project, *Pekan Prestasi* similar to *Ulangan Umum*, *Assembly*, *Book Week*, or special project that generally held in the end of theme. Before conducting this kind of agendas, the English teacher makes the general concept of the project, after that the team teachers meet and discuss about this project. They share about what the properties they need, how to manage the students, how to arrange the

class and how to create the interactive and attractive learning process.

The planning of teaching learning process is done by the teacher of the subject. The English teacher prepares and writes the lesson plan after discussing with the team teacher about how the learning process will be. The partners of the team teacher should know how the learning process will be, and also they must fully understand what the standard competences that the student should achieve are. By understanding the target of what the student should be able to do the team teacher will collaborate to achieve this target.

There are some contributions that the members of the team give in the preparation process. Each member was contributed in preparing the students until they are all ready to learn, sharing ideas while the English teacher prepares the lesson. Furthermore, when the English teacher was stuck with the ideas of how to make interesting classroom activities the other teacher can discuss with the team about how to make interesting activities for the students. The team also can help in preparing the properties or media that the teacher need in delivering the material.

3.2 Teaching Learning Process

In collecting the data about the teaching learning process that implement team teaching the classroom observation was done in 3 hour meeting. In the process of learning the whole team teachers work collaboratively. Every team member have their own responsibilities. One teacher is the responsible of delivering the material, the other teacher help for preparing the media, managing students and helping students with their individual work. By this division, classroom was managed effectively and students receive an equal attention from the teachers. In addition, the material was delivered effectively without any disturbance from students' misbehavior.

From the explanation above we can infer that the type of team teaching used in teaching learning process is team teaching Category A with the model used is complimentary/ supportive team teaching. The complimentary/ supportive team teaching model is when one teacher is responsible for teaching the content to the students, while the other teacher takes charge of providing follow-up activities on related topics or on study skills (Goetz, 2000).

There are four teachers and two helpers in the classroom. In the beginning of the lesson, the English teacher stands in front of the students to give some instruction while the other member of team teacher help in managing the class until the students are ready to learn. The English teacher begins the lesson and two teachers are helping to prepare the media and another one is helping in managing the students. Teacher greets the student

The theme of the lesson is all about "fruit". The English teacher begins with introducing the ingredient of mix fruit soup by mentioning several kinds of fruits. The two teachers assist with the fruit. These two teachers also help to mention the name of the fruit. All the fruit has been mentioned and the next step is explaining how to make it. In the explanation session, the English teacher explains of how to make mix fruit soup while the two teachers help to demonstrate the step.

With the team teachers, explanation and demonstration can be done together by 3 teachers. One teacher acts as the presenter and another two teachers act the demonstrators. The other 2 teachers are walking around the student, helping in managing the student who are not listening or playing by their selves. Thus, the teaching learning process run smoothly and the material is delivered effectively. The students are really enthusiastic to see the demonstration. They watch carefully to every activity that the teachers are doing.

From this teaching learning process we can see that there is sharing responsibilities among the member of the team teachers. The division of the teacher is 1 teacher deliver the material 2 teacher help to demonstrating the material 2 teacher evaluating and managing the students and

1 other teacher prepare the students task.

3.3 Evaluation Process

The data about the evaluation process were gained through an interview with the team teachers and observation. In this research, teacher use project based learning as an evaluation method. Students are designed in group to do a project of making mix fruits soup and vegetable salad on their own.

English teacher is the responsible for planning the evaluation method. English teacher was arranged the instrument of the evaluation. Even though the teacher of the subject arranges the instrument and determines the method of evaluation by himself, collaboration is still present in this process. The teachers always keep communicating with the member of the team. Before the evaluation process the teacher explains about his planning to the team teachers so that the team understands how the evaluation process will be.

Beside, this collaboration is needed in the scoring process of students' work. All members of the team are involved in the assessment. The assessment done in this way to avoid subjective judgments and the score given will be more objective and accurate. The finding from the observation this strategy is effective in teaching Young Learner, especially in teaching English. In teaching English there are so much classroom activities that require students to move in one place to another and also there are so much drilling and practicing. With these kinds of activities it is so hard for the teacher to manage the class by himself, the teacher need a hand of the team in order to fully deliver the material. By this collaboration the teaching learning process is run smoothly and classroom is managed effectively.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This research aimed at investigating the implementation of team teaching in teaching English to young learners. The research conducted in one of private primary school in Bandung. Here are three main conclusion related to preparation, process and evaluation in the teaching learning process. From the result it can be conclude that team teaching begins by forming the team teachers. Team Teachers are formed by school management based on several criteria. The preparation is done by the English teacher but there is still collaboration in the implementation. The teaching learning process used team teaching category A with the model used is complimentary/ supportive team teaching. In the teaching learning process there is task division between teachers. 1 Teacher is responsible to deliver the material and giving the instruction, 2 teachers are help to demonstrate the project, 2 teachers were helped to manage the students and to assist the students with their task and another 1 was prepared the next students' task. There is also collaboration between the members of the team in the evaluation process

With respect to the findings, there are several suggestions to propose. The particular school management is suggested to maximize the effectiveness of team teaching in the teaching learning process. Since many of the teachers don't really understand about team teaching itself, the school management should conduct further training about team teaching. This research also expected to give a clear picture of how to implement team teaching in teaching English to young learner and further research are expected by involving students and larger participant.

REFERENCES

Ahmadi, A dan Prasetya. 1997. Strategi Belajar Mengajar. Bandung. CV Pustaka Mulia

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

- Asmani, Jamal Ma'mur. 2010. *Micro Teaching dan Team Teaching*. Yogyakarta. Diva Publishing
- Braine, George. 2005. *Teaching English to The World*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. London
- Cawthon, S. W. (2001). Teaching strategies in inclusive classrooms with deaf students. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 6(3), 212–225.
- Crosse, Kay. 2007. *Introducing English as an Additional Language to Young Children*. London. Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Dieker, L. A., & Rodriguez, J. A. (2013). Enhancing Secondary Cotaught Science and Mathematics Classrooms Through Collaboration. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 49(1), 46–53. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1053451213480028>
- Dunianema Apresiasi Dunia Anak. Volume 1/ 0510. Bandung
- Gerber, P. J., & Popp, P. A. (2000). Making Collaborative Teaching More Effective for Academically Able Students: Recommendations for Implementation and Training. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 23(3), 229–236. <http://doi.org/10.2307/1511166>
- Goetz, Karin. *Perspectives on Team Teaching*, Volume 1, Number 4, 2000.
- Latham, Dorothy. 2002. *How Children Learn To Write, Supporting and developing children's writing in school*. London. Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*, 2nd Edition (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Moleong, Lexy J. 2011. *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*. Bandung. Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Pardy, D. (2004). The perceived effectiveness of simultaneous team-teaching in a dual language programme. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 3(2), 207–224.
- Quinn, S. & Kanter, S. 1984. *Team Teaching: An Alternative to Lecture Fatigue*. Paper in an abstract: Innovation Abstracts
- Suryana, Yaya & Priatna, Tedi. 2009. *Metodologi Penelitian Pendidikan*. Bandung. Azkia Pustaka Umum
- Tajino, A., & Tajino, Y. (2000). Native and non-native: what can they offer? Lessons from team-teaching in Japan. *ELT Journal*, 54(1), 3–11.
- Wang, Dianjin. 2010. *Team Teaching and the Application in the Course English Teaching Methodology by CET and NSET in Chin. English Language teaching (CCSE)vol.3*.

IELTS SPEAKING TEST: REVIEW, LIMITATION, STANDARDISATION AND REVISION TO ENSURE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Andy

andyuni23@yahoo.com

University of Kanjuruhan

Malang, East Java

Abstract

IELTS is a high stakes and gate keeping test for international students to participate at institutions and universities in English speaking countries. Considering its big impact to the future of test-takers (the students) as well as fulfilling the demand of language proficiency to succeed in the study at universities, and to understand better the need of different stakeholders. Therefore, ongoing research for development, revision, and also evolution have been done by the British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and Cambridge English Language Assessment (jointly are the owners of IELTS) in order to address the problem, limitation and disadvantages, moreover mainly to assure its validity, reliability and consistency in doing the assessment, particularly of IELTS speaking test. This paper illustrates the review, limitation, standardization and revision. In terms of review, Brown and Hudson (2002, p.72) suggest that the disadvantages of performance test are “difficult to create; take considerable time to administer; may result in increased costs; causes logistical problems; creates reliability and validity problems; increase the risk of security breaches”. For the limitation, verbal interview has subjective interpretation and also factor of gender of raters and test-takers that influence the scoring procedure. To maintain scoring consistency and steadiness, standardisation of test management is done through training, retraining, certification, monitoring, multiply rated, and video-rating. In 2001, interview format and criteria underwent revision to ascertain IELTS speaking test remains fair and unbiased. This paper tries to enlighten necessary consideration to speaking assessment developers to successfully provide evidence of representativeness of the skills and knowledge required.

Keywords: IELTS speaking test, review, limitation, standardisation, revision, validity, reliability, speaking assessment developers.

1 INTRODUCTION

The need to pursue higher education opens access to national even international tertiary institutions; it is therefore standardized language preparatory system to enter those institutions is needed to ensure the readiness and the success of the teaching and learning process. Institutions in English-speaking countries use test to measure the preparedness of international students (non-native speakers of English), one of English language test that is growing internationally trusted to be able to provide evidence of representativeness of linguistics and language skills required to succeed is the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) test. Considering its high-stakes and gate keeping test for international students both to study and work in English-speaking countries, therefore, the British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and Cambridge English Language Assessment (jointly are the owners of IELTS) have done ongoing research for development, revision, and also evolution to address the problem, limitation and disadvantages of the IELTS test. Mainly to assure the validity, reliability and consistency of it in doing the assessment. There are four English skills tested in IELTS test: listening, reading, writing and speaking, among those skills, testing speaking skill has many drawbacks considering that it is performance test. As claimed by Brown and Hudson (2002, p.72) that

performance test are “difficult to create; take considerable time to administer; may result in increased costs; causes logistical problems; creates reliability and validity problems; increase the risk of security breaches”. Moreover, the limitation of IELTS speaking test which employ verbal interview has subjective interpretation and also factor of gender of raters and test-takers that influence the scoring procedure. Considering many variables and factors influencing the IELTS speaking test, therefore to maintain scoring consistency and steadiness, standardisation of test management is done through training, retraining, certification, monitoring, multiply rated, and video-rating.

2. IELTS BACKGROUND

IELTS, the International English Language Testing System, is designed to assess the language proficiency of candidates who need to participate in academic courses at institutions in English-speaking countries. It is produced by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), and jointly managed by British Council and IDP: IELTS Australia. IELTS was launched worldwide in 1989 in order to replace its original English Language Testing Service (ELTS), which was developed in the late seventies and had been used around the early eighties.

IELTS functions as high stakes test as well as gate keeping test. Apart from the UK, Australia, and New Zealand, where IELTS is the preferred entry qualification among universities, over 170 universities in the USA now welcome students with the required IELTS score. Moreover, Low, E., Chong, S., & Ellis, M. (2014) affirm that “IELTS has been used by many universities in more than 120 countries as a means for ensuring baseline levels of proficiency in English required for entry into their respective programmes”.

3. TEST PURPOSE

McNamara (2000) discusses that IELTS is a performance-based test of English for academic purposes used to measure the English of international students wishing to study in universities in the English-speaking world. Even though the test modules are categorised into academic and general training versions, the only objective is education; either higher education or vocational and secondary education. According to IELTS Annual review 2001/2002, 81.06 percent of all academic candidates took IELTS in order to get higher education.

Low, E., Chong, S., & Ellis, M. (2014) state that “IELTS is not meant to certify whether candidates have passed or failed the test. Instead, institutions must determine the minimum selection band score for entry into their programmes and courses”. The International. Moreover, English Language Testing System (IELTS) has been selected because it has a high reputation as an internationally accredited test of language proficiency with a strong track record for language profiling purposes (Taylor & Jones, 2006).

4. TEST FORMAT

IELTS covers the four language skills; listening, reading, writing and speaking. The first three modules; Listening, Reading and Writing, must be completed in one day. The Speaking Module may be taken, at the discretion of the test centre, in the period of seven days before or after the other modules. All candidates take the same Listening and Speaking Modules but need to elect to take either the Academic or General Training versions in the Reading and Writing modules. While the Academic version assesses readiness to study in higher education, the General Training version focuses on the survival skills necessary in social and secondary education contexts. The tests are task-based, and are designed based on the criterion of the reality

in which candidates are likely to encounter. Candidates must complete all four components in order to receive a score. The total test time is 2 hours and 45 minutes.

A band score is awarded for each module, ranging from 1, where the candidate has no ability to use the language beyond a few isolated words, to a maximum of 9, where the candidate is the expert user of language. Each of the component scores is equally weighted and the overall band score is obtained by taking the mean of the sum of scores obtained in all four components. The overall band is calculated from the average of the band scores of each module, and this is reported on a scale at 0.5 intervals. There is no standard required band score for entry to academic courses as they vary in terms of linguistic demands. However, very generally speaking, a band score of around 6.0 is required for most undergraduate studies and 6.5 to 7.0 for post-graduate studies. Some institutions also specify a minimum score in each module. (IELTS Handbook, 2003)

5. THE REVIEW OF IELTS SPEAKING TEST

IELTS Speaking sub-test is concerned here in this essay since it is claimed to be the direct test, which is the most valid test of speaking. According to O'Loughlin (2001):

"speaking component' of the IELTS is an example of direct speaking tests and direct tests are the most valid procedures as measures of global speaking proficiency because of the close relationship between the test context and 'real life'. In other words, direct tests more authentically reflect the conditions of the most common form of 'real world' communication, face-to-face interaction" - O'Loughlin, 2001, p.6

Fulcher (1997, p.77) asserts the benefit of direct test that "...the oral proficiency interview (OPI) was popular...as a direct test of speaking ability, the OPI was seen to have high face validity". These claims are supported by Weir (1990, p. 12) who said "Tests of communicative language ability should be as direct as possible (attempt to reflect the 'real life' situation) and the tasks candidates have to perform should involve realistic discourse processing"

However the topic of reliability in the direct test and speaking test has been argued. While Cronbach's alphas has been used to report the reliability and consistency of the Reading and Listening tests, Writing and Speaking tests' reliability is assured through training, certification and monitoring of examiners. (IELTS Annual Review 1998/1999. p.18) Speaking test, moreover, is performance test, not paper-and-pencil test like the other modules, so it's quite hard to make the score reliable and constant. This review, therefore, specifically focuses on the Speaking test.

6. IELTS SPEAKING TEST FORMAT

The Speaking module consists of an oral interview between the candidate and an examiner, which is recorded on audio cassette. Regarding task types, the revised version used since July 2001 has three main parts. In part one, candidates answer general questions about themselves and their life, then in part two the candidate is given a card about particular topic on which the candidate need to talk. The candidate has one minute to prepare before speaking at length one or two minutes. The examiner then asks one or two rounding-off questions. Finally in part three, the examiner and candidate discuss more abstract issues, which are thematically linked to the topic in part two. The overall interview takes about fifteen minutes in maximum.

7. LIMITATIONS

Brown and Hudson (2002, p.72) suggest that the disadvantages of performance test are "difficult to create; take considerable time to administer; may result in increased costs; causes logistical

problems; creates reliability and validity problems; increase the risk of security breaches”.

IELTS Speaking test is the direct, controlled-interview, performance test based on eliciting tasks. The more specific limitations found in this sort of speaking test are general practical constraints, e.g., the high administrative costs and payment for a large number of examiners as well as time consuming problem. Also claimed as another limitations are the test authenticity, and reliability and standardisation of examiners. In detailed and descriptive interviews, it is difficult to replicate all the feature of real life communication such as motivation, purposes and role appropriacy, so the test authenticity and criterion need to deal with the problem of reality (Weir, 1990)

The reliability of the test material, which is item-based, cannot be reported by Cronbach’ alpha as done with Reading and Listening modules. So it depends on examiners who need to be highly qualified and experienced. It is thus very necessary for UCLES to make sure that the face-to-face training and re-certification process of examiners have to be done consistently.

Regarding examiners’ steadiness, there is still no guarantee that candidates will be asked the same questions in the same manner, even by the same examiner. (Weir, 1990, p.66). A recent study by Brown (2003, p.1) asserts that “The interviewers differed...An analysis of verbal reports produced by some of the raters confirmed that these differences resulted in different impressions of candidate’s ability: in one interview the candidate was considered to be more ‘effective’ and ‘willing’ as a communicator than in the other”. She supports this idea that the unpredictable or impromptu nature of the test interaction is also likely to lead to a lack of standardisation of examiners across interviews. Moreover, she mentions that the revised version of IELTS Speaking uses ‘interlocutor frames’ which constrain interviewer behaviour.

As the issue of examiner has been considered, the impact of gender is also concerned as a problem. O’Loughlin (2002) discusses the gender effect on IELTS interview. As a number of research in the field of language and gender (cited in O’Loughlin, 2002 as, Maltz and Borker, 1982; Tannen, 1990; Coates, 1993; Thwaite, 1993) suggests that male and female conversational styles are quite different, female conversational style is assumed to be collaborative, co-operative, symmetrical and supportive whereas its male equivalent is portrayed as controlling, unco-operative, asymmetrical and unsupportive. Reed and Cohe (2001) also claim by citing the work of Sunderland, 1995, and Porter, 1991, that gender of both raters and test-takers plays a role. Such claims imply that gender neutrality does not exist in the construct of communicative ability. However, O’Loughlin (2002) argues that most of this research reveals some kind of gender effect on test scores but the effect is not always the same; some studies point that candidates received higher score by male interviewers while others argue that female interviewers scored more. A case study, thus, was raised in O’Loughlin (2002) by having sixteen different students (eight male and eight female) and eight accredited IELTS interviewers (four male and four female) participated. Each of candidates were interviewed on two different times by a male and a female interviewer, totally 32 interviews, and each of the interviews were audio-taped as done in the real IELTS Speaking test. At the end, the results from the discourse and test score analyses were compared and it was claimed that gender did not have a significant impact on IELTS Speaking test in this case study. Both male and female participants showed their ability to make supportive and collaborative contributions to the interviews. Test scoring also does not depend on gender either. O’Loughlin concludes this case study, which seems to contradict former researches, that there might be other factors enhancing the impact of gender difference, such as characteristics of the test context and participants, the purpose of the test, the language being tested as well as the social identities of the interviewer and candidate (including their gender, age, ethnicity, and perceived status). It can be assumed from the case study that gender

bias is not the big issue in IELTS Speaking test compared to the other limitations.

The issue of gender, therefore, is concerned by IELTS stakeholders and owners which is portrayed by The IELTS Annual Review. (2010). In this review, the scores of both male and female candidates were displayed as part of the report for further research and future consideration regarding to IELTS validity and reliability. These figures below show the mean overall and individual band scores achieved in 2010 by Academic and General Training candidates according to their gender.

Table 1. The IELTS Annual Review (2010)

Mean band scores for female candidates					
	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Academic	6.1	6.1	5.6	5.9	6
General Training	6.2	5.8	5.9	6.3	6.1

Mean band scores for male candidates					
	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Academic	5.9	5.9	5.4	5.8	5.8
General Training	6.2	5.8	5.8	6.2	6.1

8. TEST DEVELOPMENT AND REVISION

UCLES itself has acknowledged the limitations in IELTS Speaking sub-test, so that the revision has been planned and done in order to develop a clearer specification of tasks, in terms of input and expected candidate output; to increase standardisation of test management by the introduction of an examiner frame; and to revise the rating scale descriptors. (Boddy, 2001) The plan for the IELTS Speaking test Revision Project was first draw up in 1998 and introduced worldwide in July 2001.

The revision project set out to revise the assessment criteria and rating scale as described below.

9. ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

From July 2001 IELTS employs new Speaking test format, with similar length to the former format. The revised Speaking test format comprises three phases as mentioned above, while the prior one comprises five phases which is claimed to push the candidate progressively to his or her 'linguistic ceiling' in phases 3 and 4. It has been argued that these phases of the test did not always elicit a richer performance; moreover, it led to variations in amount and type of examiner-talk. As a result, these 2 phases has been deleted so that candidates need no longer to move towards a 'linguistic ceiling'. (Taylor, 2001)

10. RATING SCALE

The former holistic or global rating scale for IELTS has been replaced with four analytical subscales: fluency and coherence, lexical resource, grammatical range and accuracy, and pronunciation. This decision is in line with the claim of Canale and Swain in McNamara (1996) that language knowledge includes sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and

grammatical competence. The last competence includes “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology; syntax; sentence-grammar semantics; and phonology” (McNamara, 1996, P. 61) . As a result, the four subscales need to be discretely concerned.

In addition, Taylor and Jones (2001) raise the question from Lazaraton (1998)’s work that how well the holistic scale and its descriptors could articulate the key features of candidates’ performances at different levels or bands. They point out that a clearer specification of performance features at different proficiency levels might enhance standardisation of assessment. For this reason, they support the IELTS’ deconstruction of rating scale.

UCLES believes that the analytical scales are able to allow key features of candidates’ spoken language production at different proficiency levels to be recognized more easily. Overall speaker performance then can be reflected more sensitively in the assessment. The analytical approach also helps to focus raters’ attention on salient features and so contributes to standardization of assessment. (IELTS Annual Review, 2000/2001).

11. TEST VALIDATION

A high quality language proficiency assessment therefore begins with a test that has been validated by research and that shows close alignment between what the tests set out to measure and the assessment modes. In addition to selecting a reliable, internationally benchmarked test of language proficiency, it is equally important for teacher education institutes to be knowledgeable about how to interpret the test scores (Banerjee, 2003)

After the revision of IELTS had been done, UCLES’ validation work was carried out by focusing on “setting up an experimental study to investigate the assessment criteria and scale functioning. The research design involved gathering a sample of video performances using the revised IELTS test format and then arranging for these to be multiply rated by experienced IELTS examiners. The video-rating option was preferred on the grounds that examiners rating audio-performances are inclined to under-rate...” The subjects are 10 male and 10 female candidates with 15 different first languages scoring from IELTS Band 3 to Band 8. (Taylor and Jones, 2001)

12. EXAMINER TRAINING

With the new IELTS Speaking format, the retraining procedure is necessary due to test revision. Since 1999, UCLES has encouraged IELTS examiner to have face-to-face training. (Boddy, 2001). During the revision of IELTS speaking test, the new examine training material was developed to be collaboratively used with the prior method of face-to-face training. The new set of materials included an IELTS Examiner Introduction pack with accompanying video and work sheet and an IELTS Examiner Training pack with 2 accompanying videos and detailed Notes for Trainers. These training materials are given to examiners to train themselves before being ‘(re)trained’ during the face-to-face training session in IELTS centre.(IELTS Annual Review, 2001/2002)

Fulcher (1997, p.83) asserts “Rater training is designed to change an individual’s perception of the world so that he or she conforms to an institutional standard of rating; this is the definition of rater reliability...”

Bachman (1990, p. 76) supports that “Tests such as the oral interview ... involve the use of rating scales are necessarily subjective scored, since there is no feasible way to ‘objectify’ the scoring procedure”. IELTS Speaking test employs oral interview, therefore it is a ‘subjective’ test. He points out that (1990, p.76) “In an objective test the correctness of the test taker’s response is determined entirely by predetermined criteria so that no judgment is required on the

part of scorers. In a subjective test, on the other hand, the scorer must make a judgment about the correctness of the response based on her subjective interpretation of the scoring criteria". In relation with this, IELTS examiner training is really worthwhile to be conducted to maintain consistencies.

13. FEEDBACK AFTER REVISING

UCLES claims that "... feedback from both trainers and examiners was very positive and this is one measure of the success of the world-wide (re)training programme" (IELTS Annual Review, 2001/2002). Taylor (2001) also supports the benefit of the examiner frame developing during the revision that in the feedback, examiners appreciate the examiner frame since it allows them to focus their attention on assessing rather than thinking what to say next.

14. CONCLUSION

It can be said that the development and revision of IELTS Speaking test UCLES has progressed for many years is effective in terms of the ability to solve the problem of limitations, consistency and validity. The outcome of the IELTS revision consists of evolution of assessment criteria and rating scale; standardisation of test management is done through examiner training and (re)training as well as examiner frame, in addition also examiner certification, monitoring, multiply rated, and video-rating. Therefore, it can be assumed that IELTS Speaking test has been standardised worldwide to maintain scoring consistency and steadiness.

This paper tries to enlighten necessary consideration to speaking assessment developers to successfully provide evidence of representativeness of the skills and knowledge required. Assessment criteria and rating scale is worthwhile to be considered since it is the starting point of deciding the scoring rubric and doing the rating. Maintaining the rating by standardisation of test management is the next step to be paid attention to remain fair and unbiased. Consistency and clear cut format is compulsory for speaking assessment developers, especially those at local or national level to be at approximate level to the international calibre test like IELTS in order to replicate and ensure its quality and representativeness in providing necessary evidence of the English speaking proficiency. Doing interrater (or in IELTS terminology multiply rated) is another attempt to ensure test validity. Factors like subjective interpretation and also gender of raters and test-takers can possibly influence the scoring procedure in a test involving verbal interview like the IELTS speaking test.

Upon completion of addressing these aforementioned factors, local and national speaking assessment developers are able to create and develop a testing system with a sound approach to reliability and validity in providing evidence of the test takers representative language mastery to adequately succeed in studying and working in English-speaking countries both at higher educational institutions and workplaces.

At smaller scope namely English teachers who are willing to run a speaking test at their local institution, by starting to put those factors mentioned earlier into consideration in developing their own version of speaking test; the issue of validity and reliability can help them in facilitating their effort to be fair and unbiased to their students in doing the rating. In fact, if their speaking test version has adopted and adapted the IELTS speaking test format; this experience of sitting the test can be as preliminary practice in joining the real IELTS test in the future. As we know that joining the real IELTS test is quite a rare chance for most of the students in Indonesia. Limited cities which have IELTS authorised centers and also the costly test fees are the obstacles for the test takers. Therefore, the opportunity to join test like version of IELTS is necessary, since it is growing internationally accepted English test for

studying and working in English-speaking countries. As gate keeping test, IELTS opens the access to participate in international connection with possible better earnings and future both for the students as individual and as human resources of Indonesia (support the development of national human resources).

REFERENCES

- Alderson, J.C., Krahnke, K. & Stansfield, C. (1987). *Reviews of English Language Proficiency Tests*, Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations In Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Banerjee, J. (2003). Using Language Proficiency Test Scores: The Admissions Process in British university. Paper presented at the Language Testing research Colloquium, University of Reading, 22 -25 July.
- Boddy, N. (2001). The revision of the IELTS Speaking test. *JALT Testing & Evaluation SIG Newsletter*, 5 (2), 2-4.
- Brown, J. D. & Hudson, T. (2002) *Criterion-referenced Language Testing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, A. (2003). Interviewer Variation And The Co-Construction Of Speaking Proficiency. *Language Testing Journal*, 20 (1),1-25.
- Davies, A., Brown,A., Elder, C., Hill, K., Lumley,T., & McNamara,T. (1999) *Dictionary of Language testing (Studies in language testing 7)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fulcher, G. in Clapham, C. & Corson, D. (eds), (1997), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education. Language Testing and Assessment*, 7, 75-85.
- Low, E., Chong, S., & Ellis, M. (2014). Teachers' English Communication Skills: Using IELTS to Measure Competence of Graduates Froma Singaporean Teacher Education Program. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(10). Retrieved at <http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n10.5>
- McNamara, T. F. (1996) *Measuring Second Language Performance*. London and New York : Addison Wesley Longman
- McNamara, T. (2000). *Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- O'Loughlin, K. (2001). *The Equivalence of Direct and Semi-Direct Speaking Tests*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Loughlin, K. (2002). The Impact Of Gender In Oral Proficiency Testing. *Language Testing Journal*, 19 (2),169-191.
- The IELTS Annual Review. (1998/1999). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.
- The IELTS Annual Review. (2000/2001). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.
- The IELTS Annual Review. (2001/2002). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.
- The IELTS Annual Review. (2010). British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations(Cambridge ESOL).
- The IELTS handbook. (2003). Cambridge: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.
- Taylor, L. (2001). Revising the IELTS Speaking Test; Development In Test Format And Task Desing. Research Note 14. [online] : cambridge-efl.org Directory: news/index.cfm
- Taylor, L. & Jones, N. (2001). Revising the IELTS Speaking Test. Research Note 11. [online] : cambridge-efl.org Directory: news/index.cfm
- Taylor, L., & Jones, N. (2006). *Cambridge ESOL Exams and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Research notes 24/1* (pp 2-5), University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations.
- Weir, C.J. (1990). *Communicative Language Testing*, Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International.

“DELIVERING ENGLISH E-LEARNING: A STRATEGY FOR IMPLEMENTATION” (A REVIEW OF BEST PRACTICES IN JAPAN)

Ben Porter

Irene Irawaty

inreallyenglish@gmail.com

RE Online Indonesia

DBS Bank Tower, 28 F, Ciputra World One

Website : www.reallyenglishonline.id

Jl. Prof. Dr. Satrio Kav 3-5, Jakarta 12940 Indonesia

Abstract

In recent years, e-learning has become an increasingly popular format for delivering instruction, including English language training. Secondary schools, colleges and universities, the public and private sectors, and non-profits have all come to rely on electronic learning as a valuable instructional tool. However, many organizations still struggle to determine if e-learning is the appropriate platform to deliver English training and instruction to their members. Many are unsure about costs, technologies, and the potential of e-learning to achieve positive learning outcomes. Drawing from our extensive experience of using e-learning for English training in Japan and other countries, by the end of this workshop we hope you will be able to: identify some strengths of e-learning and obstacles to successful deployments, recall strategies for implementing e-learning programs, and make informed judgments about how e-learning might meet your organization's needs.

Keywords: e-learning, instructional design, best practices, blended learning

1 INTRODUCTION

In the very early days of e-learning (the late nineties to early years of this century), e-learning (like CD-ROMs and even video before it) held great promise for people. However, when the benefits failed to materialize, there was a backlash. Educators and users began to doubt its efficacy – “it’s boring”, “students aren’t using it”. Moreover, people started to argue that bringing computers into the classroom would remove that human element so vital to learning.

In more recent times, however, advances in technology combined with the sustained effort of educators and educational companies have led to more effective products and a much deeper understanding of how best to use e-learning to complement classroom-centered instruction, and in some cases have allowed institutions to envision new opportunities to provide learning where they hadn’t previously existed. With the very recent spread of smartphones and tablets, the promise of ubiquitous learning opportunities and more engaging user experience is coming to fruition as never before, and e-learning (or mobile learning) is at last emerging as an indisputably beneficial training delivery medium.

Nonetheless, it is not obvious to many educators how to best to use e-learning with their students. This is the key question we now need to unravel. How e-learning is implemented will vary between organisations and it is true that there are a variety of ways to use e-learning, but the variety is neither vast nor complex. So, choosing the way or ways you want to deploy e-learning at your organisation is not as complicated as it may seem.

What is certain is that e-learning should be used for its strengths, especially those things it does better than the classroom; there is no need to look to e-learning to compete with or replace

what a teacher and a classroom do better. E-learning is part of the learning ecology, not the whole picture.

2. WHAT IS E-LEARNING?

For the sake of simplicity, we will use the terms e-learning and m-learning (mobile learning) interchangeably in this paper. E-learning can be defined as the delivery of learning, training or education programs by electronic means. E-learning involves the use of a computer or electronic device (e.g. a mobile phone) to provide and receive training and educational materials. (Derek Stockley 2003). E-learning is delivered through a network (internet, intranet, or mobile apps). E-learning can be asynchronous or synchronous: Asynchronous e-learning might include self-study interactive drills, or assignments to be handed in and returned with feedback, or collaborative forums, etc. Synchronous e-learning refers to live real-time sessions, such as live conversation practice using a video over the internet (VoIP) application or live chat, etc. In summary, e-learning means learning done over an electronic platform that allows participants to learn almost anytime from anywhere.

3. HOW EFFECTIVE IS E-LEARNING?

Reports on the effectiveness of e-learning include a nine-year survey of the research literature in training published by Fletcher and Tobias in 'Training and Retraining', commissioned by the American Psychological Society, and published in 2005, concluding that:

'Learners learn more using computer-based instruction than they do with conventional ways of teaching, as measured by higher post-treatment test scores.'

Specific studies from Fletcher (1999), Kulik (1994), Willett, Yamashita & Anderson (1983) all confirm that learners learn more using computer-based instruction than they do through traditional classroom methods.

We think that this conclusion needs to be interpreted carefully or put into context - not all e-learning is alike, not all subjects are well-suited to e-learning, and classroom instruction combined with e-learning should often be more effective than just e-learning alone - but we nonetheless do believe this research resolutely affirms the notion that e-learning is highly efficacious if well implemented and more so than classroom training for certain aspects of knowledge and skill acquisition.

E-learning carries many benefits over traditional classroom-based instruction – here are some:

Self-study is a critical part of language acquisition. E-learning can organize self-study into a guided easy-to-follow learning path. While students often don't know how to study effectively with paper-based materials, e-learning solves the how-to by embedding it in the instructional design – the wits and experience of the teacher / designer are *inside* the program.

At the same time, new technologies are making e-learning tutorials increasingly personalized. Personalized learning is the tailoring of learning environments to meet the needs and learning styles of individual learners. Personalization is broader than just *individualization* or *differentiation* in that it affords the learner a degree of choice about what is learned, when it is learned and how it is learned.

E-learning is very effective for drilling and repetitive practice. It is more efficient than classroom-based practice in this way because students don't have to wait for their turn nor be

distracted by late or disruptive students.

E-learning builds learners' confidence. Learning requires some failure, but no one likes to fail in a classroom full of other people. E-learning lets learners fail without fear. This encourages exploration, trial and effort, and thus increases learners' motivation.

E-learning improves knowledge and skill retention. The combination of multimedia and instructional design can produce a very rich learning experience that is *repeatable*.

E-learning provides the opportunity to spend more time with material because devices, especially mobile apps, give you access to the materials wherever you are.

E-learning nurtures independent study habits, including time management, a crucial life skill. Lastly, a huge benefit unique to e-learning is that a well-implemented Learning Management System (LMS) makes it easy to track and demonstrate learning progress. This can be essential for compulsory courses where proof of mandatory training is required.

4. IS E-LEARNING THE RIGHT CHOICE?

In fact, this is the wrong question. E-learning is unquestionably right for the vast majority of learners for all the reasons given above (excluding very young children, for example). The question is rather *how e-learning can be used effectively for your students – what role should e-learning play in your program?*

We do not believe in full learner autonomy. In fact, any e-learning course already has embedded in it expert guidance (instructional design); it is the job of experts (teachers, companies with writers and instructional designers, etc.) to provide a learning program that will guide students to success. That learning program may be fully online or it may be blended with classroom training. For most students the latter – *blended learning* – is preferable and more successful, though not always available.

Given the above qualification, a significant instructional benefit of e-learning is its ability to accommodate individual students' levels, skill profiles, strengths, weaknesses, and learning styles. Diagnostic tests and adaptive learning algorithms enable personalisation to make individual learning paths more efficient.

In contrast, the great benefits of classroom learning are due to the presence of the teacher and peers. A good teacher motivates, encourages, cares, while peers provide practice partners – the classroom is much better than most e-learning for practicing speaking skills, and for collaborative work. E-learning is better for vocabulary, listening, reading, many kinds of repetitive practice, etc.

When it comes to blended learning then, the challenge is to combine personalisation and repetition with the conditions of a classroom and standardised grading requirements. If the class is meeting once a week, then how do you blend the e-learning materials into classroom activities if students are studying different lessons in their personalised learning paths? How do you give the same test to all?

5. DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE E-LEARNING PROGRAM

Granting learners greater autonomy has been shown to increase learners' motivation. It is often beneficial to free up course navigation and give learners more control over their learning experience. This facilitates students' responsibility and initiative by promoting ownership of learning. However, the risk of students not using their e-learning regularly and failing to achieve the course goals can be a problem and requires strong instructional support, both within the program (embedded in the instructional design or through automated follow-up) and without (from the educators overseeing the program at your institution).

E-learning implementation must coordinate four components of online instruction: *participants*, *the facilitator*, *the course design*, and *technology support*. All these four should be well integrated to ensure the success of an e-learning implementation.

Evaluating the effectiveness of E-learning involves :

- Reaction - How participants like the training
- Learning - How much participants learned from the training
- Behavior - How actual performance changed as a result of the training
- Results - How well the training program overall met your organization's needs

6. BEST PRACTICES OF REALLYENGLISH E-LEARNING PROGRAMS IN JAPAN

Reallyenglish e-learning products and services are almost entirely asynchronous – the focus is on self-study interactive practice and “non-live” follow-up through email and the system user interface. We also provide some printable activities for use in classrooms.

Reallyenglish e-learning is most commonly delivered through a web browser and as a mobile app; with the app, students can study offline and the data synchronises between their different devices.

Some clients request an SSO (Single Sign On) setup, whereby students can login to the client's system and then click on the Reallyenglish course from their own interface. In an SSO, the students bypass the Reallyenglish login page.

Other clients prefer to run the e-learning on their own LMS (Learning Management System), for example using Moodle. In this case, Reallyenglish provides a SCORM-compliant content package for the client to upload to their LMS.

Reallyenglish has provided e-learning to over 130 educational institutions in Japan, mostly tertiary institutions (universities, colleges, vocational schools), but also secondary institutions and language schools (both chains and smaller schools). One special case is a client who is a fully accredited fully online tertiary institution.

We have served over 200,000 unique students at these educational institutions in Japan (not including our corporate training clients), many of whom will have used Reallyenglish more than once. The English proficiency levels of these students has varied dramatically from elementary to advanced, but the most common range at the tertiary level is low intermediate to upper intermediate (about A2 – B2 in CEF). In addition to educational institutions, several hundred companies have used Reallyenglish for corporate training, but this paper is focused on educational institutions.

The first and second items in the list above are relevant to almost all deployments and are based on: (1) the belief that learning a language takes a lot of time and students must use time outside of class if they are to improve substantially – they must do homework, review, and practice fundamentals; and (2) and the fact that individuals learn at different speeds and have different weaknesses, so that even after assessment and class placement, some students in a class will need to study more than others to keep up.

7. HOW HAVE REALLYENGLISH CLIENTS USED E-LEARNING?

There are a number of ways to deploy e-learning, but as we noted above in the introduction to this paper, the variety is in fact limited (though there may be almost infinite permutations in the details).

In most of our cases, e-learning is used as a supplement to class work. E-learning rarely replaces classwork entirely, though it may be offered in cases where there never were classes

previously (i.e. for pure distance learning).

In its supplementary role, then, one could call most of our deployments *blended learning*; however, below we use the term “blended learning” more narrowly to mean a thorough integration of the online content with the in-class materials.

In most of our cases, e-learning study requirements (e.g. to pass a certain number of lessons) are set by the institution and are used in calculating the grade. Both from our own experience and from observing the experience of other e-learning providers, e-learning ends up highly under-used when it is not required as part of a grade, or when it is purely “self-access”.

Below is a list of nine different **types of deployment**. Some institutions might use more than one type, usually different types for different groups in their institution.

1. E-learning for homework (example: Aoyama Gakuin University)
 - a. Faculty of Languages and literature
 - b. All 1st – 3rd semester students (about 500 per semester, about 20 classes)
 - c. Organisational needs: increase listening practice
2. E-learning in a CALL-equipped (CALL = Computer Assisted Language Learning) classroom (example: Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University)
 - a. All first-year students (about 700 students in about 20 classes)
 - b. Organisational needs:
 - i. Increase practice time without increasing teacher workload;
 - ii. ensure some standardisation of learning materials and practice across a large number of classes with many different teachers;
 - iii. improve self-study habits
3. Blended learning for large classes (example: Fukuoka University)
 - a. Remedial students (1600 students per semester)
 - b. Workbook provided by Reallyenglish to go with the online content.
 - c. Organisational needs:
 - i. provide English training to a large number of students who haven't yet completed enough English credits on time, without the need for increasing the number of classes too substantially (classroom space and teacher numbers were limited)
 - ii. improve self-study habits
 - iii. increase practice time
4. Blended learning for small conversation classes (example: Geos Language Schools)
 - a. Employees of a large Japanese corporation; students meet weekly at classes held at their employer's facilities.
 - b. Class materials (provided by Reallyenglish) were 100% based on the online topics and vocabulary and were designed to extend online work and focus on conversation practice.
 - c. Organisational objectives:
 - i. the corporation had employees spread across the whole country (in 7 locations) and wanted to provide them the same standard of education;
 - ii. the company also believed that classroom time wasn't enough to deliver substantial improvement and firmly believed in e-learning for self-study.
5. *Light blended* learning where class sessions are few (example: Kyoto University)
 - a. Remedial students (1500 students per semester) – students only meet 3 times a semester for exams.
 - b. The exam content was developed from the online lessons provided by

Reallyenglish.

- c. Organisational needs:
 - i. Provide English training to a large number of students who hadn't yet completed enough English credits on time.
 - ii. Previous to using Reallyenglish, they had used a CD-ROM series for many years for this same purpose.
 - iii. Develop independent learning skills.
6. Self-access (Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages)
 - a. Available to all students at the institution.
 - b. The content was not required for courses or as a part of credit and ended up being underused. This institute has since decided to make Reallyenglish a requirement for certain courses.
 - c. Organisational needs:
 - i. Nurture independent learning skills.
 - ii. Provide extra resources for teachers to send their students to do.
7. Pure e-learning accredited courses (example: Meiji Gakuin University)
 - a. Second year students in the International Economics department (about 250 students)
 - b. Organisational needs:
 - i. create a new opportunity to learn outside class;
 - ii. to develop independent learning skills;
 - iii. to make the most of an adaptive program to focus on individual students' levels and weaknesses.
8. Pure e-learning for remotely located students (example: Ritsumeikan University)
 - a. Students (about 250) in their final year of secondary school spread around the country at multiple schools. The university issued them the accounts to use before entering the university.
 - b. Organisational needs:
 - i. get students to make a headstart on improving English skills before university begins;
 - ii. nurture independent learning habits;
 - iii. strengthen the bond between the institution and the students before entering the institution (and dissuade them from choosing another institution).
9. Customised content (example: Kyoto University)
 - a. Students in various years at the university
 - b. Organisational needs:
 - i. EAP (English for Academic Purposes) - use university academic lectures in various subjects as the materials around which to create an English learning syllabus focusing on *Listening for Academic Purposes*. Reallyenglish developed the materials based on the university's lectures.

8. HOW DO WE MEASURE SUCCESS?

Here are a few cases where we have been able to obtain before and after test data.

Case 1:

- Result: avg. 88.15 pt increase in TOEIC over 4.1 months
- Students: 201 fourth year university students (from many universities)
- Products: Practical English (core skills course), Test Center (test practice)

- Deployment type: e-learning only
- Case 2:
- Result: avg. 83.2 pt increase in TOEIC over 3 months (estimated avg. study hours = 21)
 - Students: 103 working adults (from a Japanese bank)
 - Product: Need to Read (news reading course)
 - Deployment type: e-learning only
- Case 3:
- Result: avg. 125 pt increase in TOEIC over 1.5 semesters (20 weeks); avg. starting score 474.3, avg. ending score 598.9
 - Students: 20 second-year university students (from Juntendo University, Japan; Prof. Makoto Shishido)
 - Product: Practical English (core skills)
 - Deployment type: e-learning for homework (combined with regular class)
- Case 4:
- Result: WPM (Words Per Minute reading speed) increase avg. 13.76 WPM (from 77.1 to 90.87); at the same time, reading comprehension increased avg. 10.35 (from 117.51 to 127.87).
 - Students: 39 (Waseda University: Prof. Eiichi Yubune)
 - Product: Effective Reading
 - Deployment Type: combination of e-learning in lab and for homework

9. CONCLUSION

The starting point is appreciating the key benefits of e-learning, which are that it gives students more practice time, personalizes learning, and tracks performance. Once you accept that e-learning is valuable, then to make your deployment successful, you need to make the practice time a requirement, as you would with any other homework or lab time. Moreover, your teachers need to be partners in the implementation. Final thought: There is no good reason not to give your students access to powerful e-learning resources. They need the benefits now.

REFERENCES

- Fletcher, J. D., & Tobias, S. (2000) (Eds.). *Training and retraining: A handbook for business, industry, government, and the military*. New York: Macmillan
- Kulik, J.A. (1994). Meta-analytic studies of findings on computer-based instruction. In E.L. Baker, and H.F. O'Neil, Jr. (Eds.). *Technology assessment in education and training*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

USING BLENDED ON LEARNING, WEBLOG AND E-LEARNING TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' WRITING ABILITY OF STUDENT FOURTH SEMESTER ENGLISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT FACULTY OF LANGUAGE AND SCIENCE WIJAYA KUSUMA UNIVERSITY

Supeno

bana.supeno@gmail.com

Lusy Tunik

yahdilla@yahoo.com

Universitas Wijaya Kusuma Surabaya

Jln. Dukuh Kupang XXV/54 Surabaya (60225)-JATIM

Abstract

This research describes about using three of tools that are blended on learning, weblog and e-learning to improve students' writing ability in the fourth semester English Education Department Faculty of Language and Science Wijaya Kusuma Surabaya University. Those students have some problems in learning writing. They might get struggle when they try to write and were confused what they must write for the first time and they were lack of vocabularies, and they were passive and looked un-interested in teaching and learning writing process. Based on the implementation of the study, the researcher found out that after being treated with blended on learning, weblog and e-learning as a tool to improve students' writing ability, the students had positive response and enjoyed the strategy when they practiced to post their writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning with their friends. Furthermore, they can cooperate in group, learn to make a draft, learn to give comment to their friends' writing, learn to revise their writing, and learn to publish their writing. The objective of this study were 1) to describe the implementation of using blended on learning in ordering to can improve writing ability for students fourth semester English Education Department, 2) to understand application of the concept of writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning for students. The result of this study showed that 1) the implementation using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing ability is effective to use because it can attract the students and motivate them in writing and through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning the students can get enough stimuli. 2) The students could develop their idea in writing, they also can write better, their spelling and grammar become be better and the average score was 75. In conclusion, the implementation of using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning and the students' ability in writing improved as the media

Keywords: *Blended on Learning, weblog, e-learning, and writing ability*

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing as one of productive and complex skills, is important to learn and to consider. This skills are also logical instructional starting points when learners have low literacy levels (in English or their native language) or limited formal education, or when they come from language backgrounds with a non-roman script or a predominantly oral tradition. Further, with the drive to incorporate workforce readiness skills into adult ESL instruction, practice time is being devoted to such writing ability as reporting, negotiating, clarifying, and problem solving (Grognet, 1997). However, students may face difficulties how to compose it. The teacher needs to engage them, from early levels with activities which are easy and enjoyable to take part in, so that writing activities not only become a normal part of classroom life but also present opportunities for students to achieve.

Moreover, the result of questioners for students to indicate that the problem when they

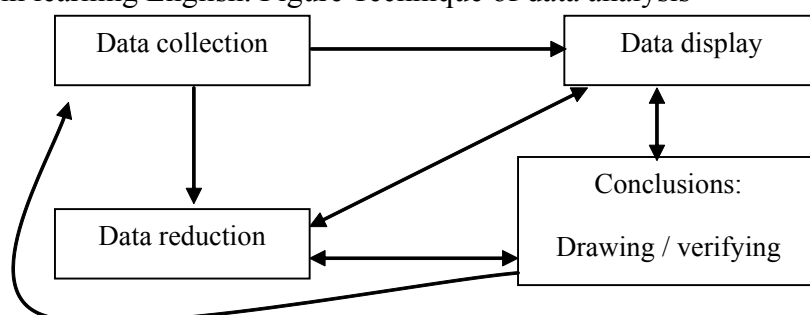
learn writing, they do not know more about the elements or the generic structures. Therefore, teachers need to be able to be creative attitude characterized by an attitude of openness to new experience and ready to shape reform, flexibility in thinking, freedom of self expression, respect for fantasy, an interest in creative activities, confidence in his own ideas, self-reliance in providing their own considerations. Referring to the problems above, the researcher wants to conduct the research by applying alternative tools that are called blended on learning, weblogs and e-learning as a solution to overcome those problems

2. METHOD

In this research, the problem is the difficulties of students' writing ability in the fourth semester English Education Department. It has four stages in each cycle: planning, acting, observing, and reflecting (Arikunto, 2010: 3). Here is the explanation of each stage: 1. Planning stage→Firstly the researcher looked at the syllabus to know the competence standard and basic competence of teaching writing. Then, the researcher prepared and made lesson plan related to the appropriatematerial and topic used. The researcher also checked the availability of teaching media (LCD) and data collections' instrument to implement blended on learning, weblog and e-learning like the observation checklist and prepares the test which would be given in the end of each cycle. In addition, the researcher prepared an internet access, here was computer labolatory and the researcher asked the students to make personal blended on learning, weblog and e-learning by guiding them how to create it, 2. Acting stage→Firstly, the teacher started the lesson with the identification and explanation about recount text. After explaining what a recount was, the teacher asked the students to answer some questions and do the assignment collaboratively and individually. Then, the teacher gave some worksheets containing the table of generic structures in recount text as a guidance in writing recount text. The teacher asked the students to make drafts on the topic they have. Finally, the teacher asked the students to print out their writing that had been revised and discussed together, 3. Observing stage→the researcher was accompanied by the independent observer who helped the researcher to note all the changes in the classroom, and observationsmadebythe writerto identify theobstaclesandlearning process thatfaced bystudentsusingblended on learning to improve writing ability for fourth semester English Education Department, 4. Reflecting stage→The researcher made the analysis of the result from the first cycle. If the result and the goal of using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning shows and gains maximally, the researcher will finish doing research in this cycle due to the students' writing ability is improving. On the other hand, the researcher will continue to the next cycle until the goal is reached if their writing ability have not achieved yet. The success indicator in this study is if the data gained in first cycle shows that the improvement of the students' achievement percentage standard $\geq 70\%$ who get score ≥ 75

2nd Paragraph

The subject of this study is the fourth semester consists of 18 students who are still not motivated yet in learning English. Figure Technique of data analysis



Data analysis is used for analyzing, simplifying and organizing data systematically and rational to answer the research problem. It can be done by comparing the result of the students' writing in one cycle to the success indicator. After the data has been collected, the researcher begins to analyze it. The researcher analyzes the data by descriptive qualitative. The data of this study is the result of students' writing, observation sheet and questionnaire. Then, the researcher describes the students' improvement in writing ability by referring to the result of students' writing and describes observation checklist and questionnaire. Firstly, after collecting the students' writing test, the researcher analyzes each writing and giving the score. Score 70 is the standard score of English in English Education Department. The researcher uses the comparison between the first cycle and the next cycle whether it can reach $\geq 70\%$ of the students' score who get ≥ 75 . Next, to know the improvement of students' writing, the researcher counts the improvement percentage by using this formula:

$$P = \frac{\sum Improved}{N} P = \frac{\sum Improved}{N} \times 100$$

Explanation:

P = percentage of improvement
 \sum improved = total students who reached success indicator
 N = population (the number of students)

If the percentage reach $\geq 70\%$, it can be said that the implementation is success and improve. And the research can be stopped. On the other hand, if the result less than 70%, the cycle will be continued to the next cycle. In addition, the researcher will describe the students' activities by referring to the observation sheet. The researcher also describes and analyzes the problem that found during teaching and learning process. Success indicator:

Writing ability	Criteria	Score	Explanation
60 % - 100 %	Very good	7 – 9	Success
40 % - 59 %	Good	4 – 7	Less success
	Poor	0 – 4	No success

And the last data is questionnaire. The researcher also describes the result of the questionnaire. The purpose is to know about students' responses during learning writing recount text using weblog. Finally, the researcher makes a conclusion by describing the implementation of weblog as tool to improve students' writing ability from the first meeting until the last one whether it has improved or not.

SUB FIELD

The researcher analyzed the data in a descriptive way, described the result from the observation checklist and field note which consisted of the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning as teaching aid and also the phenomena which happened during the process of the teaching and learning writing ability. It uses to know the result of the students' writing ability after using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning, the teacher asked the students to make a dialog or describe ourselves orally at the last of cycle 1. The researcher used the ESL Composition profile scoring guide to assess the students' speaking. Observation Checklist → The observation that is done by the observer is direct observation to the teacher during the

teaching learning process concerning the use of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing in the classroom. The data is the result of the observation checklist about the teacher and students activities in learning process. Test → The researcher uses subjective test to measure students' writing ability by asking them to write recount text through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. So, the data can be gained from the result of their writing. The researcher uses scoring list to construct the students' score that refers to the profile of writing based on FSI (Foreign Service Institute).

No	Name	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Language Use	Mechanic	Total

Questionnaire → The researcher makes questionnaire and ask them to write about the difficulties they get during teaching and learning process and also suggestion they have.

The way to get Technique analysis data is: a. Reduction → check and write the data that have been collected by the researcher, b. Interpretation → interpretsomethingthat isembodiedin the statement, c. Inference → the phase conclude whether speaking improve or not, d. Follow up phase → formulateremedialstepsforthe nextcycle, e. Deduction → analysisbasedon the observationthatadapted tothe purpose ofthe study

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The preliminary study was conducted on April 22th 2015. It was started by observing the students' and teacher's activities during the teaching learning process. By that observation, the researcher found that the students were very passive. The interaction in the class was limited in the activity, the teacher explained the lesson in front of the students and they just answered the questions on the students' worksheet. Most of the students were not motivated by the teacher's explanation. They were confused to distinguish between verb 1 and verb 2 and did not know from which they write and how to write. So they were confused by themselves. They just kept silent and listen to the explanation of the teacher during teaching learning process. Moreover, when the teacher asked them some questions only a few of the students who could answer and looks active in the class. After doing observation, it could be stated that there were some problems found, those are: 1) the students were afraid and got difficulties to express their idea in writing, 2) they were lack of vocabularies, 3) there was no motivation of students; they felt bored and lazy in responding the teacher's instruction, 4) there was no media used except the students' worksheet.

These problems seemed occur because of the teachers' technique in teaching writing which tend to be the teacher centered classroom activities. As the effect, the students joined the teaching learning process of writing passively even though the teacher asked the students to answer some questions. Based on the findings, a plan of action was set up in order to solve the problems. The action was intended to improve the students' writing ability. Before the researcher started to do Classroom Action Research (CAR), the researcher asked the students to write recount text to get the data for pre- test in order to compare the score before and after using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. And the result of students' writing in pre- test showed that there were just 5 students out of 20 students who got the standard score 75 or only 28 % of students who got standard score 75.

The researcher conducted the research only in one cycle to improve the students' writing.

It is due to the researcher has proved that by using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning the students' writing can improve well in the first cycle. So, the researcher did not continue to the second cycle. Here is the explanation in every stage in the first cycle:

Cycle 1 → the researcher had implemented blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing. The main focus was to find the students' improvement in writing ability. It was conducted in 4 stages; planning, acting, observing, and reflecting.

3.1 Planning Stage

conducted a plan in order to arrange the best way in teaching learning process, covered some steps as follows: (1) preparing lesson plan based on the syllabus provided, (2) preparing the research instruments such as test, observation checklist, and questionnaire (3) blended on learning, weblog and e-learning implementation, the researcher checked the availability of computer laboratory.

3.2 Acting Stage

implemented blended on learning, weblog and e-learning as tool in teaching writing through process and the material was recount text. Getting the data the researcher finished cycle I into five meetings. Below is the description of every meeting:

Meeting 1 → The first meeting was conducted, April 24th, 2015. It was done in eighty minutes. The teaching learning activities were described as follows:

- (a) Pre-activity → greeted to the students, asked the students' condition and checked the students' attendance list. Finally, gave brainstorming by asking some questions about the topic that would be discussed.
- (a) Whilst-activity → gave series of pictures through LCD to build the students' knowledge about what the pictures told about. Then, showed two examples through LCD. After that, gave the questions text such as what the story told about, when and where it happened; it's about the comprehension both of those texts. Next, asked the students about what kind of the texts, generic structure, and the grammatical features of those texts. Then, gave a text to the students. It contained some questions focusing on text; first, it was about the writing comprehension, second generic structures and language features, and the last vocabulary. Next, asked the students to answer all of the questions individually. After that, discussed together and asked to the students whether they had understood or not. In addition, divided the students into some groups; each group consisted of two students or pairs. After that, asked the students to make a draft based on the topic they have; it was about their experience. Before they made a draft of recount text, gave the example of making draft by giving outline of text such as orientation, complication, re-orientation and the researcher explained what they must write. During the lessons some students looked active to discuss their stories with their friends also asked some words that they did not understand. The students sometimes still got confused of the verbs and the structure of the sentences. The researcher also repeated to give explanation about the sentence and its structure at a glance.
- (b) Post-activity → reviewed the materials, evaluated, asked the students to continue of making draft in their home because of limited time and asked them to study again about the materials they had learned. Finally, the researcher closed the lesson.

Meeting II → The second meeting was conducted on May 4th, 2015. It was done in eighty minutes. The teaching learning activities were described as follows:

- (b) Pre-activity→asked about their condition and the students spontaneously answered, asked some questions related to the materials that had been discussed in the previous meeting, asked the students whether they had finished making a draft of text or not.
- (c) Whilst-activity→asked the students to activate their blogs and post their writing because they had made their draft of text. Here, the researcher guided the students how to post their writing through their blogs. They seemed enthusiastic of doing the instruction from the researcher. And they were motivated because it was the first time they could post their writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning, so they tended to know more about the ways how to post their writing. So, here explained and guided them properly, also reminded them to consider the aspects of their writing that would be scored. It was helpful for them to write and rethink about their writing before they posted.
- (d) Post-activity→after all of the students had finished their postings, gave the instruction to give comments to the postings of their classmates in the next meeting.

Meeting III→The third meeting was conducted on Mei8th, 2015. It was done in eighty minutes. The teaching learning activities were described as follows:

- (c) Pre-activity→asked the students whether they had prepared to give comments for their friends' blogs.
- (e) Whilst-activity→before the students started to give the comments, the researcher asked the students to activate their blogs and look at TAWON's blog in the home page where the name of their classmates' blogs was provided. Then, explained the aspects that should be considered when they give comments to their friends' blogs. After that, asked the students to give comments directly. Here, the researcher guided the students how to give comments for their friends' blogs.
- (f) Post-activity→ After all of the students had finished giving the comments, gave the instruction to revise their writing based on the comments given by their friends.

Meeting IV→The fourth meeting was conducted on Mei22th, 2015. It was done in eighty minutes. The teaching learning activities were described as follows:

- (d) Pre-activity→asked the students had commended on their blogs.
- (g) Whilst-activity→revised their writing based on the comments given by their friends. Here, asked the students to consider whether the comments could be accepted by them or not. So, the researcher asked the students to think again. After that, asked the students to repost their writing and collected in TAWON's blogs that had been provided.
- (h) Post-activity→after all of the students had finished revising their writing, gave the instruction to print out the result of their writing to be discussed in the next meeting.

Meeting V→The last meeting was conducted on Mei28th 2015. Discussed the result of students' writing in the classroom with the student, here, the students kept their paper and considered their writing which would be discussed together. The researcher showed their writing in TAWON blog through LCD where their writing posted for the last time and asked the students to pay attention, then discussed the students' result one by one. Next, gave the students questionnaires and asked them to answer the questions provided, then, called the captain of the class to collect the questionnaire. Lastly, said thank you very much for joining CAR and apologized if there were some mistakes and weakness during the research. The researcher ended the class and said good bye.

3.3 Observing stage

During the classroom action research, the researcher observed the students in teaching and learning process. Observation was done by the classroom teacher by monitoring the researcher as the teacher and students' activities in the classroom. In the process of writing activities, the classroom teacher observed the process by using the observation checklist. In general, the result of the observation was satisfying because the students accustomed to share their ideas and writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. They interested in learning writing using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning; they paid more attention to the teacher's instruction, that's why they understood and accepted the teacher's explanation, they could answer the teacher's questions, they were motivated to do the task or instruction from the teacher, they also looked active in asking some questions to the students. They felt that they need more knowledge about blended on learning, weblog and e-learning especially how to design it. Considering the result of the observation sheets, the researcher discussed with the classroom teacher to know what the difficulties of implementing blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing.

3.4 Reflecting Stage

The researcher tried to find the success and failure of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning implementation. This could be seen by analyzing the score of the students' writing in cycle I. The score of the students' writing was obtained from the test given in the end of each cycle. The researcher had the guidance of scoring the students' writing by FSI.

The score of students' writing test in cycle I showed that: there were 16 students who got score ≥ 75 and 4 students who got score ≤ 75 . The students' average score in cycle I was 81. The students score in cycle I was satisfying because the students' average score was great and achieved the criteria of success. The result of percentage in cycle I was 77.77%. It was beyond the target level of the researcher that was just 70 %. (See appendix V). Therefore, the researcher did not continue to the next cycle because the students' writing had improved.

After checking the students' score in writing test, the researcher concluded that in the case of students' motivation there was a significant improvement and the target had achieved. The students were able to produce their writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. They were motivated to write in their blogs, and the criteria of success had been achieved. The researcher also compared the result of their writing in pre- test and cycle I. And the result showed that their writing in cycle I or after using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning was greater than in pre test or without using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning.

4. DISCUSSION

The finding of the research showed that there was the strength of the implementation of weblog to improve students' writing ability. The students also had motivation and improvement of writing ability. The students not only improved their writing but also liked writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning even in another subject they wanted the teacher to implement it. The researcher also found out the result of questionnaire that 1) they interested in teaching writing ability because they never applied before, 2) teaching writing using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning was interesting and effective for them, 3) they wanted to apply blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in another subject, 4) by using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning the students were easier to write through process because they could generate their ideas, organize them, easy to make draft, easy to revise, and also easy

to publish it. And there were some difficulties when they implemented blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in learning process: they are lack of computer knowledge; they do not know the features of blended on learning and weblog and how to apply it. Based on the result of research finding before conducted the research, there were just 5 students out of 20 students or 28 % students who got the standard score 75. And the result of cycle I, the researcher found improvement of the students' writing ability. There were 16 out of 20 students or 77.77 % students who achieved the success indicator in the cycle I. So, in this cycle the students' score improved. Based on the data, the result of writing test had fulfilled the criteria of success that was ≥ 70 %.

In this discussion, the researcher discussed about the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning to improve students' writing ability at fourth semester English Education Department. The result of the test was good. And the classroom condition was also supported and comfort, so the teaching learning process was better through the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing. Based on the clarification above, the researcher concludes that by implementing blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing could help students easier, clear, and interested in learning English because it helps the students to generate or explore their ideas, organize ideas, and post their writing easily. Each student has the same chance to write or share their writing for public through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. It makes students keep spirit in learning English, especially in writing. It also gives more motivation to the students' writing ability

5. PLANNING

The finding of the research showed that there was the strength of the implementation of weblog to improve students' writing ability. The students also had motivation and improvement of writing. The students not only improved their writing but also liked writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning even in another subject they wanted the teacher to implement it. The researcher also found out the result of questionnaire that 1) they interested in teaching writing because they never applied before, 2) teaching writing using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning was interesting and effective for them, 3) they wanted to apply blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in another subject, 4) by using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning the students were easier to write through process because they could generate their ideas, organize them, easy to make draft, easy to revise, and also easy to publish it. And there were some difficulties when they implemented blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in learning process: they are lack of computer knowledge; they do not know the features of blended on learning and weblog and how to apply it.

Based on the result of research finding before conducted the research, there were just 5 students out of 20 students or 28 % students who got the standard score 75. And the result of cycle I, the researcher found improvement of the students' writing ability. There were 16 out of 20 students or 77.77 % students who achieved the success indicator in the cycle II. So, in this cycle the students' score improved. Based on the data, the result of writing test had fulfilled the criteria of success that was ≥ 70 %. In this discussion, the researcher discussed about the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning to improve students' writing ability at the fourth semester English Education. The result of the test was good. And the classroom condition was also supported and comfort, so the teaching learning process was better through the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing.

Based on the clarification above, the researcher concludes that by implementing blended

on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing especially recount text could help students easier, clear, and interested in learning because it helps the students to generate or explore their ideas, organize ideas, and post their writing easily. Each student has the same chance to write or share their writing for public through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning. It makes students keep spirit in learning, especially in writing. It also gives more motivation to the students' writing ability. The finding of the research showed that there was the strength of the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning to improve students' writing ability. The students also had motivation and improvement of writing. The students not only improved their writing but also liked writing through blended on learning, weblog and e-learning even in another subject they wanted the teacher to implement it. The researcher also found out the result of questionnaire that 1) they interested in teaching writing because they never applied before, 2) teaching writing using blended on learning and weblog was interesting and effective for them, 3) they wanted to apply blended on learning and weblog in another subject, 4) by using blended on learning and weblog the students were easier to write through process because they could generate their ideas, organize them, easy to make draft, easy to revise, and also easy to publish it. And there were some difficulties when they implemented blended on learning and weblog in learning process: they are lack of computer knowledge; they do not know the features of blended on learning, weblog and how to apply it.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusion

Based on the objective of this study which is to describe how blended on learning, weblog and e-learning can improve students' writing ability, the researcher found that the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning was very helpful fourth semester English Education Department or the students at fourth semester English Education Department in learning writing. The researcher conducted the research only in one cycle because the result of students' writing in cycle I by using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning has improved, so the researcher does not continue into cycle II. Cycle I was conducted on April 22th to Mei 30th, 2015. In cycle I the researcher also found some problems during the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning: the connection of internet that often gets problem, and time limitation because the implementation of blended on learning, weblog and e-learning needs long process, it is the first experience the students' get to use blended on learning and weblog in learning writing, so they need more guidance how to apply blended on learning, weblog and e-learning.

The students' writing score of the fourth semester English Education Department in post test of cycle I has fulfilled the criteria of success. There are 16 out of 20 students or 77.77 % students who get score 75 (standard score). So, in this cycle the students' score has improved. Based on the data, the result of writing test has fulfilled the success indicator that is ≥ 70 % students who get score ≥ 75 . Based on the findings above, the researcher concludes that using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning in teaching writing to improve students' writing ability is successful because the students feel interested in learning English especially in writing. By using blended on learning, weblog and e-learning the students' not only can improve their writing but also like writing.

Suggestion

To improve the students' writing ability, it does not only depend on the teachers' material and techniques but also the students' own motivation and the facilities used in teaching and

learning process. Therefore, the researcher wants to give some suggestions which hopefully can improve students' writing ability.

REFERENCES

- Boas, V. (2011) Process Writing and the Internet: Blogs and Ning Networks in the Classroom. Retrieved September 29, 2008, from <http://English teaching Forum Journal>, Vol. 49 (2) pp. 26-33
- Brown, 2000; Feasey, 2001. Pembelajaran e-learning. <http://yantismk.blogspot.com/2014/01/pembelajaran-dengan-menggunakan-alat.html>
- Brown, D.H.2004. *Language Assessment: Principles and Classroom Practices*. San Francisco State University: Longman.
- C.Villalta Ochoa, komunikasi elektronik, agustus 2009 . Solomon schrum, 2011. web 2.0.Panduan bagi para pendidik
- Clyde, A.L. 2004. *Weblogs and Libraries*. Great Britain: Chandos Publishing (oxford) Limited.
- Dudeny, Gavin & Hockly, Nicky. 2007. *How to Teach English with Technology*. England: Pearson Longman.
- Duffy, Peter and Bruns, Axel. 2006. The Use of Blogs, Wikis and RSS in Education: A Conversation of Possibilities. In Proceedings Online Learning and Teaching Conference 2006, pages pp. 31-38, Brisbane.<http://eprints.qut.edu.au>
- Huette, Scott. 2006. *Blogs in Education*. Retrieved April 4, 2006, <http://awd.cl.uh.edu/blog/>
- Husamah, S.Pd, 2014. Pembelajaran Bauran(Blended Learning)
- Kamarga ,H. 2002. Belajar Sejarah melalui e-Learning:Alternatif mengakses sumber Informasi Kesejarahan.Jakarta: Inti media
- Margaret Rouse in <http://searchcio.techtarget.com/definition/ICT-information-and-communications-technology-or-technologies> Accessed on September 2005
- Martindale, Trey & Wiley, A.D. 2004. *An Introduction to Teaching with Weblogs*. http://teachable.org/papers/2004_techrends_bloglinks.htm
- Nafisah, N. and kurniawan, E. (2007). *Writing English for General Communication*. Bandung: UPI PRESS
- Nunan, David. 1991. *Language Teaching Methodology*. UK: Prentice Hall International.
- Richards, C.J, & Renandya, A.W. 2002. *Methodology in Language Teaching*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Rusman,dkk, 2009. Pembelajaran berbasis Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi
- Scrivener, Jim. 2005. *Learning Teaching*. England: Macmillan
- The Meriam-Webster dictionary (dalam Retno: 2008). <http://dewamegantara.wordpress.com/2012/07/25/pemanfaatan-weblog-sebagai-media-pembelajaran-bahasa-inggris/>
- William Horton and Katherine Horton (2003), *E-learning Tools andTechnologies: A consumer's guide for trainers, teachers, educators, and instructional designers*, (USA: Wiley Publishing, Inc.), pp. 12 – 24

POWER AND LANGUAGE: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN THE CLASSROOM

Majid Wajdi

mawa@gmail.com

State Polytechnic of Bali

Kampus Bukit Jimbaran, Kuta Selatan, Badung, Bali

Abstract

Using a language can be interpreted as an activity of performing power. Power in language use will be realized in speech acts – acts such as making questions, making commands, expressing statements, having promises and so on. We cannot avoid of using language when having a talk, making explanation, giving information, showing feelings and so on. The language used by teachers and students in classrooms determines how learning processes takes place and what is learned. Some experts on language teaching have argued strongly that students should have significant opportunities to integrate oral and written language in the language classroom, since these experiences could encourage and support the development of literacy of learners or students. This study aimed at explaining and describing the use of the language in the classroom in term of (1) the types of speech acts, (2) the functions of speech acts, (3) the function of instruction of speech acts and the analyses of classroom speech acts. This study was executed to observe an English class of the second year of a private senior high school. The observer or researcher himself becomes the key instrument in collecting the data, by using audio and video recorder to record the activity of class of learning of English. The activity of a class of learning of English which involved the teacher and the students – differed with respect to the distribution of time when using language in the classroom. The findings show that the teacher took up 79% of the time of speaking; while the distribution of time of speaking to students' favour was 21%. There are twenty participants studying English with the topic of speaking. It means one student only took a chance to produce one utterance during 70 minutes of the time of learning activity. It is clear that most of the students often enjoy playing a predominantly inactive role, and feel 'happy' with the initiative of the teacher. It is obviously shown that the students who practise listening comprehension, whereas the practices of oral proficiency were on teacher's side.

Key Words: *power and language, teaching and learning, speech acts, classroom discourse.*

1. INTRODUCTION

The study and observation of how students and teachers employ language in the classroom are important not only for language teachers, but for all those who concerned with the social functions of education (Lemke, 1989). Learners or students of all languages tend to face difficulty understanding the intended meaning communicated by a speech act, or making a speech act by using an appropriate language and manner in the language being learned or studied. Research has found and concluded that classroom instruction on speech acts can help learners or students to improve their performance of speech acts and thus their interactions with native speakers run well (<http://www.carla.umn.edu;16080/speechacts/why.html>). To a great extent, the language used by teachers and students in classroom determines what is learned and how learning takes place (<http://www.readingonline.org/articles/handbook/wilkinson>). Teachers' speech acts are greatly important, not only for the classroom organization but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for management and organization of the classroom because it is through language the teachers either succeed or fail to implement their teaching plans. In term of acquisition, teachers' language is important because it is probably the major

source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive. In Cullen's term (1998), as it was quoted by Celce-Murcia (2000: 222) that the primary functions of teachers talk (teachers language) is to support and enhance learning. Cullen stated more that the need to recognize the importance of pedagogical function of teachers talk or teachers of language within the classroom context and to view it as genuine communication. It is generally stated that language has a central role in social, emotional and intellectual development of learners or students and also as a determinant key to reach successfulness in learning or studying all subjects according to curriculum at school. It is important to consider the language functions or the functions of language, not only as one of school subjects, that should be learnt or studied, a language curriculum of high school necessarily prepares learners or students to reach competency that enables them to express ideas and feeling, understand some meanings, and reflect their own and others' experiences. In the language curriculum, as an example in Competence Based Curriculum (CBC) 2004, Junior High School graduates are expected to gain functional level for "survival" communication, while Senior High School students are targeted to be able to reach informational level because they are prepared to continue their further study at university. It is too high for Senior High School students to gain epistemic literacy, because of Indonesia's objective condition and the position of English as a foreign (or second) language.

The standard competency of English, as required in CBC, that students are able to communicate in spoken and or written English smoothly and accurately based on the context. There are four skills that students have to gain: the first and the second are listening and speaking, the third and the fourth are reading and writing. In listening, students or learners are hoped to be able to understand various meanings (textual, interpersonal, ideational) in various spoken text. In speaking skill, students are able to express various meanings (textual, interpersonal, and ideational) in various spoken text. In reading skill, students are hoped to understand various meanings (textual, interpersonal, and ideational) in various written text. In writing skill, students are able to express various meanings (textual, interpersonal, and ideational) in various written texts.

This foreign language classroom study or research was carried out in the English language classroom for the purpose of answering some important questions about the learning and teaching of a foreign language, in this case, English. This classroom research focuses on the interaction among teacher and students or learners. How speech acts are produced or used and their functions in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language are observed. Teacher's speech acts includes the kinds of questions that teacher makes, the amount and the type of speech acts that teacher and students produce and use, the type of error correction and feedback that teacher provides and gives, and the speech acts modification that the teacher makes when talking to learners of foreign language, in this case, English. Specifically the purposes of this study are to describe, analyze, and explain the language of the classroom in the form of (1) the types of speech act, (2) the general functions of speech act, (3) the instructional functions of speech act produced and used in the teaching and learning of English.

Teachers-students interaction and teachers' language have a very important role in management of learning. The language or the types of speech acts mostly produced in the classroom interaction was greatly observed. As part of speech acts, questions are merely important, and here in this study, the observer would like to monitor the types of questions the teacher does, particularly in term of teacher potential to stimulate extended students responses. The aspect behaviour of questioning worth looking at is the use of referential question and display question (Nunan, 1991: 194, cf. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 221—222; cf. Bearne et al. (ed.), 2003: 39; cf. Long and Richards (eds.), 1987: 332; cf. Richards and Nunan, 1997: 7,

9; cf. Brown, 2001: 171). Referential questions or genuine questions, as it is stated by Trosborg (1994: 159), on the other hand, are those to which the askers have not known the answer or answers yet. On the other hand, display questions are the questions that we have already known the answer (for instance, when we hold a pencil and ask, 'Is this a pencil?').

Someone performs speech acts when he/she offers a greeting, an apology, request, complaint, compliment, refusal, or invitation. In another statement that speaking or using a language is performing speech acts or language acts, acts such as giving commands, making statements, making promises, and delivering questions on so on (Searle, 1985: 16). A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication in a certain context. A speech act might contain just one or a word, such as in Sorry! to perform an apology, or some sentences or words: I'm sorry I forgot the birthday of yours. I just let it slip my mind. Speech acts include real-life interactions and require not only knowledge of the language but also appropriate use of that language within a given culture.

A speech act is best described as "in saying or stating something, we do or perform something", such as in asking questions (Is it snowing?), describing something (It is snowing), making a request or giving an order (Drop your weapon or I'll shoot you!, could you pass the salt?), or making a promise (I promise I'll give it back). Schiffrin (1994: 54) quoted Searle's (1985: 17; 1969: 21) proposal that 'the speech act is the basic unit of communication'. Everyone really communicates his or her ideas, feeling, intentions etc. through his or her utterances he or she made. Searle places the speech act at the center of study of language, communication, and meaning and he proposes that: the basic unit of human communication is the illocutionary act (Searle, 1979: 1 see Schiffrin, 1994: 57). Statements, requests, promises and apologies are examples of the four major categories of communicative illocutionary acts: directives, constatives, commissives and acknowledgments. This nomenclature is employed by Kent Bach and Michael Harnish (1979: 39—57), who built and developed a detailed taxonomy in which each type of illocutionary act is individuated by the type of attitude expressed. (1) Constatives: A constative is an utterance used to express the speaker's belief and his intention or desire that the hearers have or form alike belief. It is described that constatives can be used to serve predictives, assertives, retrodictives, descriptives, ascriptives, informatives, concessives, confirmatives, retractives, assentives, disputives, dissentives, responsives, suppositives, and suggestives functions. (2) Directives: A directive is an utterance used to express the speaker's attitude toward some prospective action by the hearer and her/his intention that her/his utterance, or the attitude it expresses, be taken as a reason for the hearers' actionc. Directives are always concerned with getting people to do something or things or. Directives also can be used to serve requestives, requirements, questions, prohibitives, advisories, and permissives functions. (3) Commissives: A commissive is an utterance used to express the speaker's intention and belief that his utterance obligates him to do something (perhaps under certain conditions). Here commissives serve two main functions namely (1) promises (swear that, guarantee that, guarantee x, contract, bet), (2) Offers (bid, volunteer). A promise function is an utterance used to swear, to promise, to vow. An offer function is an utterance used to propose, to offer. (4) Acknowledgments: An acknowledgment is an utterance used to express feelings regarding the hearers or, in cases where the utterances satisfy a social expectation to express certain feelings and her/his belief that it does. Acknowledgments can be used to serve condole, apologize, congratulate, greet, accept, thank (acknowledge and or acknowledgment), and reject functions. The function of apology is an utterance of acknowledgment used to apologize. Condole function or the function of condoling is an utterance used to commiserate, to condole. And congratulate function is an utterance used to felicitate, to congratulate, to compliment.(5) Didactives. A

didactic speech act is a speech act which is mostly used in the context of teaching and learning. Didactic speech act, such as *correct*, *repeat*, and *evaluate*, is the term used by Edmonson-House as stated by Trosborg(1994).

2. RESEARCH METHOD

Research design used in this study is qualitative since the source of the data is the teaching and learning activity in naturalistic environment of the classroom. Bogdan and Biklen (2003: 3-5) stated that qualitative study uses naturalistic background or entity context as the source of the data of the research. In Nunan's statement (1996: 91—92), the data of this classroom observation is collected in *genuine classroom*. A *genuine classroom*, as in Nunan's term (1996) above, is a classroom which is specifically designed for teaching and learning purpose, not a single purpose of collecting data for the sake of a research. Here teaching and learning activity occurs as it should be without any changes: *first* the studying time follows the given schedule, *second* the topic subject taught is the topic subject that has to be executed that day, *third* the teaching and learning activity runs properly by minimizing the negative impact on the presence of researcher.

This research was carried out in a private senior high school, observing teaching and learning processes in term of language use of English. The sample data of language use is taken from an English teacher, conducting learning and teaching process of one class of the second year students. This English class consists of twenty participants: thirteen female students and seven male students. The observation applies qualitative research method through observation procedures. The observer or researcher himself is the key instrument of collecting data and the observation is aided by audio and video recorder to record all the classroom activity during the English class.

The forms of collected data are (1) speeches uttered by the subjects: the teacher and students, (2) notes on contexts in which certain interaction modes and speech acts occurred. The technique of data analysis is as follows. *The first* is transcribing (syntactic or orthographic transcription) the data from spoken (recorded form) to become written form or text. *The second* is coding and categorizing the data of the research. *The third* is counting the data, and the last step is data analysis. As this is a qualitative observation, descriptive analysis is applied to interpret the findings of the study. Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT) analysis is used to facilitate analyzing classroom interaction between teacher and students (Moskowitz 1971, in Brown, 2001: 170 and Easthope *et al* 1990: 219).

Researcher looked at some managerial and pedagogical aspects of feedback to learners. Instructing learners or students and providing feedback on performance are probably the two most commonly conceived classroom functions of a teacher. Error correction and feedback are other important aspects of teacher speech acts. Here observer or researcher needs to monitor and not only how and when such feedback is provided, but whether the feedback is positive or negative, and the most important thing to note here, who receives the feedback.

This study more directly focuses on interaction in the classroom namely teacher-students, and students-teacher interactions. This study of observation aims at studying the language used in the classroom and describing educational activity as related to three interactive moves: soliciting, responding, and reacting (van Dijk (ed.), 1997b: 288; Coulthard, 1983: 97). Of course, the component of classroom interaction that most interests is the exchange in the classroom, that is (teachers') initiate, (students') response, and (teachers') feedback. This tripartite structure (van Dijk (ed.), 1997: 289; Bearne *et al.* (ed.), 2003: 47/81; Trosborg, 1994: 159) is important to be studied in depth and found to be an organization principle in classroom interaction or in

Edmund's *et al* term: 'the pedagogical exchange' (Trosborg, 1994: 159).

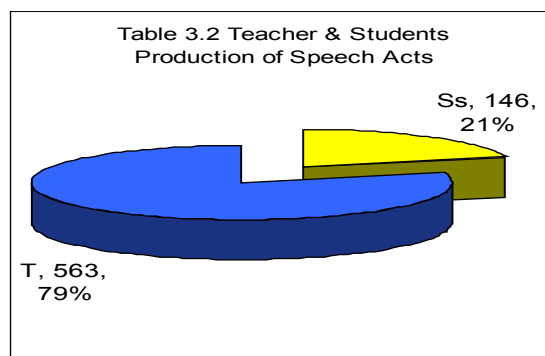
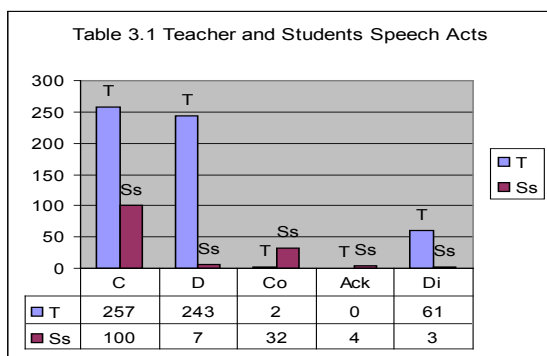
Pedagogically this study will hopefully contribute to education especially in teaching and learning processes. The description of language use in the classroom can be methodologically useful for the teachers. It will hopefully contribute to teaching and learning of English. This study also hopefully becomes a reflection 'tool' for every teacher to observe their own teaching executed so far. Through studying and observing an English class, the observer and as well as researcher gains the chance to put the ideas about teaching into practice, in order to examine how the teaching and learning activity works with students in error correction or how to treat errors done by students. The observation gives the researcher and or observer ideas about what to do next in the researcher or observer own classroom besides gaining an invaluable research experience or field research or observation. Through studying and observing a language class it gives the researcher or observer many different views of teaching and learning processes. It is not simply to look at the content of the lesson but it makes the observer and or researcher aware of 'how' the lesson is taught (have to be studied), what the observed teacher manages the classroom and students activity during the language class, and what media are used to aid teaching and learning processes.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Teacher and the Students Languages

It is really interesting to observe how power is reflected in the language use. It can be said also how the use of a language reflects power, whether it is in the classroom or outside the classroom or society in general. Classroom where students and teachers are doing an activity in this case teaching and learning processes is a miniature of society. Teachers and students are the members of a society and classroom is a kind of miniature society. Here in the analysis, the writer would like to see and to show how power and language use exists in the classroom during learning and teaching processes. How (a) teacher(s) and students distribute the use of the language is important to study here. In order to be more specific, then the term language will be specified into what it is called by speech acts.

The distribution of each type of speech acts between the teacher and the students is illustrated on Table 3.1, and 3.2. They are constatives, directives, commissives, acknowledgments, and didactives. These two tables show us how the teacher and the students produce the language or in this case speech act. How every type of speech acts are distributed by the teacher and the students. Teacher's constatives are 257 utterances while the 100 utterances of students are constatives. On the other hand, directives which are produced by the teacher are 243 utterances and the students' utterances are 7 directives. Commissives appear in 2 utterances produced by the teacher and 32 commissives belong to the students or participants. Acknowledgments, as they are seen clearly, are only produced by the students. In this analysis, didactives speech acts



that have to add by borrowing Edmonson-House's term (Trosborg, 1994) are 61 utterances done by the teacher and 3 utterances of didactives belong to the students.

The teacher shows her existence in producing constatives of 72%, while the students' constatives are only 28%. In general, what it means by a constative is the expression of a belief – it is together with the expression of an intention that the hearer form (or continue to hold) a like belief (Bach and Harnish, 1979). The constatives produced by the students are answering/ replying/ responding. In a classroom context, the students answer or reply the teacher's questions and or respond the teacher statements when the teaching and learning of English.

Looking at the use of the language used and produced by the teacher. Teacher's directives is really powerful compared to the students' production of directives during 70 minutes of teaching and learning time. The teacher posits her figure and her existence in dominating the use of directives. It is good to note that, although as a whole, the production of directives are not mostly used in the teaching and learning activity, if it is compared to the students' production of directives, it can be interpreted that the teacher seems to be an unavoidable figure who determines everything in the classroom. It is understandable that the teacher is the only conductor who is responsible to guarantee to run the classroom activity smoothly. The teacher, as a conductor, produced 243 utterances or 97% of directives, while on the other hand, the students produce 7 utterances (3%) of directive. In the teaching and learning activity, directives are used for the purpose of getting the students to do things, in this case behaving or answering according to the teacher's desire or want. It is clearly understandable, and it is considered logical that the use of directives is on the teacher's privilege. The teacher has a dominant role or the only figure who is responsible in the classroom in teaching and learning processes. It is seen that the relative power or status indicates that the use of directives toward the students shows how the superior (in this case the teacher) tends to use imperative to the subordinate. Here in the classroom, the teacher is superior and on the other hand, the students are the subordinates. The teacher can use very direct expressions of their meaning because of their high status relative to their students (Holmes, 2001: 263).

Directives, as normally understood, are concerned with getting people to do things. Superiors tend to use directive to inferiors. It is easy to find who is a superior in a classroom and who is inferior. Of course we can guess it that superior in the classroom is the teacher and the inferior is the student or students. The teacher's directives that are produced in the classroom are concerned with getting the students to do like the teacher's desire such as answering or responding the teacher's questions. It is stated that the psychological state of directives is "want" (Schiffrin, 1994: 58); the teacher, of course, wants the students to do something or thing. It is known that the speech acts which express directive force vary in strength. In the classroom context, the teacher can attempt to get the students to sit down properly in the classroom during the class, for example, by commanding or ordering them to sit down or to have a seat, besides suggesting or inviting them to do so. Command and orders are speech acts which are generally expressed in directive form or imperative form. In other words, the students consider everything that the teacher says as a possible directive. It is well-known in general that the imperatives or directives are used between people who know each other well or to address subordinates or students in teaching and learning context. The teacher is superior and students are the subordinates. Relative power or status and social distance clearly influence the use of the form of directives. Let us take an example, in the teacher's language of control in classroom discourse might rely heavily on the use of imperatives such as 'Open your book', 'Read it loudly', 'Speak up', 'Keep silent please', both for reason of efficiency and because of asymmetrical relations, in this case between the teacher and the students in the classroom. The definition of acts is very general:

elicitation for instance has its function ‘to request a linguistic response’, directive ‘to request a non-linguistic response’ from the subordinates or students (Coulthard, 1983: 104). What the students have to do is just follow what the teacher says and behave like what the teacher wants without giving a verbal response; but the most important think is non-verbal response or non-linguistic response. Commissives appear in 2 utterances produced by the teacher and 32 commissives belong to the students or participants. Acknowledgments, as they are seen clearly, are only produced by the students. In this analysis, didactives speech acts that have to add by borrowing Edmonson-House’s term (Trosborg, 1994) are 61 utterances done by the teacher and 3 utterances of didactives belong to the students.

The production of commissives is on the students ‘favour’, the same as the production of acknowledgments. Here the students produced 32 utterances of commissives (94%), while the rest are for the teacher. It is obvious that acknowledgments are exclusively for the students or learners. Two utterances of greeting and two utterances of thank are produced by the students. Here in the classroom, it is the students business to greet the other or the teachers in educational setting, and the same as the production of thanks from students or learners. It is clear that the students routine task are to greet their teachers every time they appear in the classroom before the class starts and it is the students task also to say ‘thank’ to their teachers every time the teachers end their classes. Whether it is English class or non-language classes, it will be always opened by the students greetings and then the class will be closed by the students acknowledgment or acknowledgment from the students – the students will say in chorus ‘thank you sir’ or ‘thank you miss’ at the end session of the class. Students are educated to express pleasure (by saying greeting) at meeting or seeing someone. The students or learners are also educated to express gratitude (by expressing thanking) for having received something: – lesson and knowledge – during classroom activity from their teachers as educators and facilitators.

The fifth types of speech acts produced during the English class are didactives. Utterances such as repeat, correct and evaluate are didactives speech acts which are mostly found and produced in the classroom. In teaching and learning of English, didactives speech acts are mostly used by the teachers. Here in the classroom, there are utterances of 61 didactives or 95%, while the students only produced 3 utterances of didactives or 5% of the total utterances of didactives.

3.2 General Function of Language in the Classroom

The functions of directives based on the findings are *requestives*, *advisories*, *requirements*, *prohibitives* functions. *Requestives* functions of directives are used to tell, to ask, to invite the learners or students to do something or to act, such as to answer the questions or to do like the teacher’s desires or want. *Advisories* function of speech acts produced in the classroom are used to suggest, to advise, to warn students to do or not to do something or thing. *Prohibitives* functions of speech acts are used to forbid or to prohibit students from doing thing or something. *Requirements* function of teacher’s speech acts are used to order, to command, to direct, to instruct, to require students to do something or thing which is required by the teacher. Because of her power, the teacher is ‘free’ and ‘permitted’ to use bald imperatives. It seems that the imperatives (bald imperatives) will be easily understood by the students rather than indirect speech acts. The effectiveness reason and efficiency in general which drives to the teacher uses directives during the processes of teaching and learning. Directives produced and used by the students serve one function i.e. *requestives* function. *Requestives* function of speech acts produced by the students are used to request, to ask, to beg such as *Can I choose a partner of mine?*

Constatives produced by the teacher serve three functions namely (a) *assertives*, (b) *informatives* and (c) *descriptives* functions. In the function of *assertives*, the utterances of constatives speech acts are used by the teacher to say or to state the topic they are going to study or learn. In *informatives* functions, the utterances of constatives are used by the teacher to inform or to announce the topic they are going to study etc. The utterances of constatives are used to categorize, to characterize, to identify, to describe, for instance, the expressions for offering help. In *descriptives* functions, The constatives produced by the students express *responsives* and *assertives* functions. The constatives speech acts uttered by the students are mainly used to reply, to answer, and to respond the teacher initiation, i.e. teacher questions or statements.

Commissives are used as *promises* function (by the teacher) and *offer* function (by the students or learners). The utterances of *commissives* are used by the teacher to promise to have the next week class and to promise to give mark on the students' task. Commissives produced by the students serve *offer* functions. An offer is used to volunteer or speak for other or to bid in the exchange in order to show that the students are taking part in the lesson. If we borrow Halliday's (1977) functions of language, commissive is really expression of feeling of personal, and expression of participation, expression of interest shown and done by the students. A student (unnominated one) answers or replies the teacher's question about the name of someone. The unnominated student acts as another 'speaker' or in Schiffrin's term (1994) 'speaking for others'. 'Speaking for others' and or 'bidding' without being nominated by the teacher is an expression of feeling of personal, expression of participation, expression of interest and pleasure.

Acknowledgments can be used to serve *greet* and *thank* functions. In the classroom (and also any where) acknowledgments, that are mostly produced by the students, are used to express *greet* and *thank* functions. They are used by the students to greet their teachers at the beginning of the class and to thank their teachers at the end of the class. They are functioned (and they are introduced and drilled to students) as a kind of oil of social interaction. Here it is students' task to use and express *greeting* and *thanking* every times they meet the teachers. Didactives produced by the teacher serve *disputives*, *descriptives*, and *informatives* functions. The utterances of *disputives* are used by the teacher to question a student's answer or a student's statement. In *descriptives* functions, the utterances of *constatives* are used to categorize, to describe, to characterize, to identify the expressions for offering help for others. In *informatives* functions, the utterances of *didactives* are used to advise students to do or not to do something (*don't be shy to speak, don't be afraid*), to point out, to inform or to tell that today the students are going to study speaking practice. Didactives produced by the students have *confirmatives* functions. It means that an utterance of *didactives* speech acts is used by the students to testify, to confirm, to verify that the first utterance is not correct and it is verified, confirmed, and testified by the second utterance. Here, didactives speech acts are speech acts which are widely and mostly used in the classroom context. Sub-types of didactives are *correct, repeat, and evaluate* which are not easy to find outside of the classroom context. It is unusual to find and to have repeating, correcting and evaluating our addressees when conversing with them outside the classroom. The most possible occasion is in language acquisition, besides inside the classroom, to have correction and repetition on our addressees. A language caretaker such as parents will do have repetition and correction when exposing target language to their child.

2.3 Instructional Function of Language in the Classroom

Discourse, in this case classroom discourse, has a didactic aim. The teacher is responsible for educating the students and has powerful communicative privilege due to expertise in the

subject and the teacher's responsibility for attaining the aims of a given subject (Trosborg, 1994: 159). Trosborg states further that by virtue of the teacher's social role, of course the teacher is responsible for topic development and topic selection, just as it is the teacher privilege to regulate the interaction and provide evaluative feedback.

Interpersonal aspect of classroom discourse is divided into three modes: control, organization, and motivation (Johnson, 1997: 274). *Control* and *organization* functions are realized in such utterances as 'Stand up!', 'Sit down', 'Why do you come late?' and 'Move into your discussion groups'. There are three instructional functions of speech acts produced in the teaching and learning activity, i.e. *control*, *organizational*, *evaluative* and *motivational* functions of speech acts. All instructional functions of speech acts are produced by the teacher.

Constatives, used and produced by the teacher, can be used to serve *organizational*, *control*, and *motivational* or *evaluative* functions. Here the utterances of *constatives* are used to control and organize the students and classroom activities. On the one hand, the teacher utterances of *constatives* are used to motivate as well as to evaluate the students' performances. Directives, commissives, and didactives produced by the teacher all are functioned as *control* and *organizational* functions. The utterances of *directives*, *didactives*, and *commissives* are directly used by the teacher to control and organize the students and classroom activities. *Evaluative* or *motivational* functions of speech acts are realized by such utterances as 'Well done' and 'That was a good try', 'very good'. *Motivational* or *evaluative* functions realized in 'very good' appear 21 times during the English class based on the data.

As a result of the asymmetrical status and the fact that one participant controls the topic and the right of the others are to contribute in classroom activity. There are several acts in classroom discourse solely concerned with turn-taking. Of course, there has to be some linguistic etiquette inside the classroom; if twenty students shouted out in answer to every elicitation there should be chaos or out of control. There are several ways in which teachers select next speaker. The teacher sometimes nominates a student. The students sometimes are required to *bid* by raising their hands or shouting 'miss' and the teacher then nominates one of those who has bid. What the teacher does most is that the teacher always nominates the students to answer or give response.

2.4 *F-Moves: Teacher's Feedback*

It is really interesting to observe how the teacher gives feedback to students. The feedback from the teacher can include praise or picking up an idea suggested by a student and developing it, suggestions that sometimes should be corrected, or criticism (Richards and Nunan (eds.) 1997: 7). Feedback, in this case the feedback from the teacher, tended to encourage and praise rather than inform (Bearne *et al*, 2003: 30) and there are '101 Ways to Praise a Child' ('Wow!', 'Neat!', 'Nice Job', 'Beautiful sharing!', 'Way to go!', 'Bravo' etc.)

The findings show how the teacher provides feedback by picking up the students' idea, and then followed by a praise 'very good'. Here, the teacher of course appreciates the students' responses and idea and then the teacher picks them up and gives a praise by shouting a nice expression of a praise 'very good'. The teacher's praise is not only 'good', but the teacher qualifies it by adding 'very'. The students, whether they are beginners or advanced are familiar with the expression of praise 'good' or 'very good'. The word 'very' as an adverb is usually used for emphasis, in a high degree as the following expression: *very large*, *very quickly*, *very much*. The adverb 'very' with superlative or own is used to emphasize that the following description applies without qualification: *the very best quality*; *his very own bike*. The word 'very' as an adjective can be used to express 'actual', 'precise' or used to emphasize the exact identity of

a particular person or thing: *those were his very words; he might be phoning her at this very moment; transformed before our very eyes.* The word 'very' can be used to emphasizing an extreme point in time or space: *from the very beginning of the book; at the very back of the skull.* The word 'very' is also with the meaning 'with no addition of or contribution from anything else'; 'mere': *the very thought of drink made him feel sick.* In an archaic use, 'very' can be 'real' or 'genuine': *the very God of Heaven* (New Oxford American Dictionary, 2008). Here we see how the teacher emphasizes that the students' responses have high degree, have quality, precise, and exact that should be appreciated. Who will appreciate the students' responses? No other human being but the teacher.

Effective praise also includes use of an idea of students. This type of reinforcement acknowledges that a student's contribution is important, thus encouraging more involvement of student. The teacher is likely to include words of instruction, praise and reinforcement or criticism when giving feedback to the students. Praise and reinforcement or criticism are important psychological tools (Kindsvatter *et al*, 1996: 56). Praise can encourage the development of a positive self concept, which should increase a student's motivation to learn, to participate, and to become more self-directed. Reinforcement can take many forms. It can range from praise using one word such as "good" or "great", to using students' ideas, to nonverbal types such as smile or clap (give applause by clapping our hands).

The use of a student's comment or idea signals acceptance by the teacher and can give the students a stronger feeling of self-worth (Kindsvatter *et al*, 1996: 57). Again here, in the classroom, how the teacher shows her wise before the students. It seems that the teacher thinks that an error is a 'necessary' manifestation of interlanguage development. Therefore sometimes the teacher does not obsess with her instant correction with the students error. On the other hand, sometimes the way the teacher corrects the students errors is by asking the students another alternative choice.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

4.1 Conclusion

The findings and the discussion in the preceding section can be concluded as follows.

The language or the types of speech act mostly produced and used both by the teacher and the students are constatives (50%), directives (35%), commissives (34.5%), acknowledgments (1%), and didactives (9%).

Constatives of the teacher serve *assertives, descriptive, and informatives* functions. Teacher's directives produced in the classroom present *advisories, requestives, prohibitives, and requirements*. Student's directive is used to serve *requestives* function. Commissives produced by the teacher serve *promise* and serves *offer* functions when produced by the students. Acknowledgments (by the teacher) serve *greet* function and by the students express *greet* and *thank* functions. Didactives produced by the teacher are used to serve *disputives, descriptives, and informatives* functions. Didactives by the students serve *confirmatives* functions.

Three instructional functions of language of the classroom or speech acts: *control, organizational* and *motivation or evaluative* functions. Constatives express *control, organizational, and motivational or evaluative* functions. Directives, commissives, and didactives speech acts are functioned as *control* and *organizational* functions.

The talking time measured by the production of the language or speech acts during the teaching and learning of English are 79% by the teacher and the rest of 21% by the students during 70 minutes of learning time. Refers to speaking class, the production of teacher speech acts (79%), it means that the teacher who practises speaking and the students who execute

listening comprehension. The teacher is active speaking while on the other hand the students are active listening.

In so-called traditional language classes, the teacher talk or language is dominant, in which each student takes a few seconds of a class period to talk (Brown, 2001: 178). The teacher's use of speech acts nearly entirely in the target language during the teaching and learning is really the strongest power which should be appreciated.

4.2 Suggestions

Three suggestion points which are considered to be important presented as follows.

The students' productions of English (speech acts): (*constatives, directives, and commissives*) need to be improved. It is admitted that speech acts are difficult to perform in a foreign language, and most of them are idiomatic expressions, therefore it is important to build up the students awareness to have opportunity to practise using speech acts like the awareness to practise having acknowledgments (*greet and thank*) spontaneously.

The students' ability to produce acknowledgments (*greet and thank*), can be used as a model how to give some opportunities for the students to initiate practising the target language from the beginning as much as possible. It is necessary to give a significant opportunity for the students to initiate using the target language like the opportunity to perform acknowledgments speech acts.

Student active learning approach needs an appropriate opportunity for the students to have experiences in using and producing some utterances of the target language. Speaking practice needs an appropriate opportunity for students to practise producing and using the target language, not many opportunities to practise listening, whereas speaking practices are on teacher(s).

REFERENCES

- Bach, Kent and Robert M. Harnish. 1979. *Linguistic Communication and Speech Acts*. USA: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Press.
- Bearne, Eve et al (eds.). 2003. *Classroom Interactions in Literacy*. England: Open University Press.
- Bogdan, Robert C. and KS. Biklen. 2003. *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Method*. Boston: Allen and Bacon Inc.
- Brown, H. Douglas. 2001. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc. 2nd Edition.
- Celce-Murcia, Marianne and Elite Olshtain. 2000. *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Coulthard, Malcolm. 1983. *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. England: Longman Group Ltd.
- Halliday, M.A.K. 1977. *Explorations in the Functions of Language*. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
- Holmes, Janet. 2001. *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Kindsvatter et al. 1996. *Dynamics of Effective Teaching*. USA: Longman Publishers. Third Edition.
- Lemke, J.L. 1989. *Using Language in the Classroom*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Long, Michael H and Jack C. Richards (eds.). 1987. *Methodology in TESOL: A Book of Readings*. USA: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.
- McDonough, Jo & Steven McDonough. 1997. *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London: Arnold.

- New Oxford American Dictionary. 2008. (Available in Mac Computer).
- Nunan, David. 1991. *Language Teaching Methodology*. UK: Prentice hall International Ltd.
- Nunan, David. 1996. *Research Method in Language Teaching*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, Jack C and David Nunan (eds.). 1997. *Second Language Teacher Education*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Searle, John R. 1985. *Speech Acts, An Essay in The Philosophy of Language*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Schiffrin, Deborah. 1994. *Approach to Discourse*. USA: Blackwell Publishers.
- Trosborg, Anna. 1994. *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Requests, Complaints and Apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- van Dijk, Teun A. (ed.). 1997. *Discourse as Social Interaction*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd. Vol. II.
- Wilkinson and Silliman, 2006. "Classroom Language and Literacy Learning", in <http://www.readingonline.org/articles/handbook/wilkinson>.

DEVELOPING A MODEL OF TEACHING WRITING BASED ON READING APPROACH THROUGH REFLECTION READING STRATEGY FOR EFL STUDENTS OF STKIP YPUP

Eny Syatriana

Higher Education of STKIP YPUP Makassar

Rita Roswita Duyo

Higher Education of STKIP YPUP Makassar

Abstract

The purpose of the recent study was to develop a learning model on writing, based on reflection strategy. The strategy would allow the students to read the text then they would write back the main idea and to develop the text by using their own sentences. The writing practice was begun by reading an interesting text, then the students develop the text which has been read into their writing. The problem questions are (1) what kind of learning model that can develop the students writing ability? (2) is the using of the strategy effective to develop students competence in writing? (3) what level are the students interest toward the using of a strategy In writing subject? This development research consisted of some steps, they are (1) need analysis (2) model design (3) implementation (4) model evaluation. The need analysis was applied through discussion among the writing lecturers to create a learning model for writing subject. To see the effectiveness of the model, an experiment would be delivered for one class. The instrument and learning material would be validated by the experts. The research used development design. The researcher would do need analysis, creating prototype, content validation, and limited empiric experiment to the sample. In each step, there should be an assessment and revision to the drafts before continue to the next steps. The second stage, the prototype would be tested empirically to four classes In STKIP YPUP for English Department. Implementing the test greatly was done through the action research and followed by evaluation and validation from the experts.

Keywords ; Learning model, Reflection, Strategy, Reading, Writing, Development.

1. INTRODUCTION

Technology development and social interactions among countries definitely put English as a means of communication. Many countries use English to communicate around the world. Learning media and understanding of English become very important to our life. English in Indonesia is as a foreign language. It is only taught in the classroom, not in general use in society. The condition, however, creates problem in learning English, students have less time to practice English, also in getting interaction in the classroom and they do not practice it properly outside the classroom. This situation should alert the teachers, professors or educators to find the way out. In everyday reality, based on the researcher experience to observe in the classroom, many students were not seen as learning. Teachers still focused on textbooks. They do not care about the thoughts, feelings, and the students learning progress.

During the learning process, the English teacher did not empower his all potential yet, so that, most of the students have not been able to achieve the basic competence in English lessons development. Besides that, most of the students, again, have not been hardly serious to study English. (Melvin, 2006). New students are not yet able to learn, read, memorize vocabulary, write, and recall the rules of English.

English department students of STKIP YPUP are facing the same problem. They seem difficult to analyze the different types of texts. They are usually misunderstanding to determine particular text. One of the reason because there is no enough reinforcement in high school level.

So that, when they learn writing subject, there is no basic competence left. It raises problem for the lecturers to develop the knowledge.

Through writing we can convey the contents of thoughts and feelings, both imaginary or real condition. In this case, we can write something based on our experience; funny, weird, thrilling, embarrassing or the experience of painful. However, it should be well understood that the results of education in Indonesia is still far from expectations. Graduate school in Indonesia are still placed in low level of competition. Parawansa, 2001; Siskandar, 2003; Suyanto, 2001).

Based on the description above, the research attempts to develop a model-based approach to teach writing through reflection strategy for students of English Department of STKIP YPUP Makassar. This study intends to design the learning model of writing courses at STKIP YPUP through reading and reflection strategies. Its goals is to train students to write effectively and efficiently in English.

The objective of the research is to describe the needs and characteristics of the field which relate to the development of learning writing model. It includes: writing course descriptions, syllabus and Learning Design. Furthermore, to design learning model which is associated to some important concepts in creating a learning environment that provides high motivation in writing activity. To define the concepts that can be used to improve the learning process. So, the students can improve their writing skills. Furthermore, the writing prototype would be validated before being implemented in the learning process. Afterwards, a Test will be carried out on a writing class.

Atkinson (1985) divides the four basic competences that must be mastered by language learners, namely: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Writing and speaking are output while reading and listening are the inputs. They must be trained in order to produce an excellent output. Writing is as a skill in absolute language. It always gets attention in terms of improving the quality of the writing result. Students' ability to communicate, can be showed from two aspects, they are: oral communication and written communication. In oral communication, teacher must equip students by good pronunciation; while on written communication, teacher should equip them with the correctly knowledge of writing and spelling. In fact, errors in spelling and writing words may cause misunderstanding.

Writing cannot be separated from human life. It is a form of communication in which one can express ideas, feelings, or knowledge. Learning to write is an important activity of the whole process of learning experienced of the learners. As in reading, learners also need to think about the main idea, supporting idea, and how supporting idea build the main ideas to convey the message or information. In general, the writing components consist of: content, organization, vocabulary and mechanics.

Reflection Learning Strategies

Reflective learning deals with the brain and body functions such as higher order thinking and problem solving. Recently, reflective system relives mentally the past while thinking of the future. According to Perkins (In Dharma, 2007) reflective system allows us to become whatever we could, if reflective intelligence is seriously developed.

Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock in its reflective learning article states:

The practice of reflective learning is part of a continuous process of learning and developing: I Become aware of my next experience, reflect upon it and Evaluate it in relation to my other experiences and reinforce or revise my self knowledge. (Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock, 2006).

From the opinions above, it can be concluded that the reflective learning system is a

learning system where lecturers provide the opportunity for participants to perform the analysis or individual experiences, and to facilitate learning from the experience.

Reflective learning also encourages students to think creatively and reflectively, questioning the attitude and to encourage learner's independence. Reflective learning shows that the process is the product of thought and thought is the product of a process. The aspect of who we are to be learned and achieved becomes the mind ware. The mind ware is all things that can be learned and used to help students to solve the problems, to make decisions, to understand difficult concepts and to perform better the several of tasks. Accuracy and reflective thinking need to be sharpened because they are both as intelligence that can absolutely be learned.

Reflective Writing

The reflection, as a result of learning development in this research, is being placed under the concept of John Dewey's. It deals with the ability on thinking and behaving reflectively. Reflective thinking ability consists of five components: (1) to recognize or to feel the difficulty or problems; (2) to locate and to define the problem (3) to suggest the possible solutions (4) to elaborate the ideas (5) to test the problem solving and to make conclusion. Reflective attitude that will walk together with reflective thinking skills, are developed based on the Dewey's concept. The concept has been applied by some professional in the field of teacher education. In the journal article of *Teaching and Teacher Education* (vol.12.no.1, January 1996), Helen L. Harrington develops a reflective attitude, the three components are: (1) open-minded. In learning, there are three basic patterns to focus on. They are teachers, students, and inclusive; (2) responsibility or liability, as a moral attitude and professional commitment that regard to the learning impact of students only, students and teachers, and also students, teachers and others; (3) faithfully in action and doing the task.

In this study, reflective learning model was developed based on the concept of Zeichner and Liston (1996) which is well known as "critical reflection", consisted in three stages, namely (1) a technical level. The reflections is made through the knowledge application efficiency in the form of "method or technique" in achieving the set up learning objectives. (2) The contextual level. The reflection is conducted to find the relationship between the problematic situation and the action taken through the application of the theory based on the context; (3) Critical level. It was based on the critical reflection, and moral values or/ etiquette.

2. METHOD

This study uses research and development approach, In general, the development procedure consists of six stages, they are: analysis, design, prototype development, evaluation, implementation, and evaluation (ADDIE, 1981) Explanations of each stage: (1) In the analysis phase, it carried out literature studies and requirements analysis; (2) the stage of drafting a model design; (3) developing and editing stages of product development; (4) the evaluation phase, it conducted formative and summative evaluation. The formative evaluation was conducted by an expert product, then the material should try out in small group or limited. In the summative evaluation, it was conducted for more extensive evaluation of test results.. Field Analysis and Needs Survey for Instructional Materials Writing Model and Empirical Test Limited (Stage 1, 2015) At this stage, there will be three types of activities, namely: conceptual analysis, which examines some of the concepts in learning the English language, such as basic English skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) as well as related concepts that influence English language learning through library research. Survey the needs and characteristics of the field, to understand the needs and characteristics of the field for preparing the learning model in

the course of writing through quantitative and qualitative approaches. Design and prototype validation I. There are three phases of the development of this prototype: (1) designing phrase, to make the draft design models, (2) development phrase, which develops a design into a prototype first draft, and (3) formative evaluation, assessing the prototype I, which includes an assessment or review of aspects: internal, content-based, instructional, accuracy and coordination. There are two stages namely: (1) one-on-one tryout, it refers to one trials, regarding the validity of the content and to construct prototype through a consultative interview. Prototype I, to revise Prototype II, and (2) small group of test pilots, the acceptability and feasibility assessment Prototype II by the target user groups (lecturer and learners) and it is followed by a discussion to improve the model. Prototype II, to revise Prototype III to be tested Relieve in the second stage.

3 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The Result of Need Analysis

Many research activities were conducted to answer the research questions of the study. As noted in previous explanation, the purpose of this research is to design a course book for EFL students OF STKIP YPUP through reflection strategy to improve writing skill of the students the course book is designed based on the research competition which organized by directorat of general education, and the writing design was based on the process of reflecting stages that is read independently then compose writing based on the procedures of reflection strategy with the result of writing analysis based on the four component of writing: organization, language use, vocabulary use and mechanic writing developed by Zeichner and Liston (1996), and the ADDIE procedures by identifying the existing problem, conducting the analysis of instrument, conducting survey of students' need. The step of materials development consist need analysis, design, development, and evaluation. Need analysis, which is meant to find information relates to the design of instructional materials. It begins from an analysis of field such as finding out about students needs by studying the curriculum, indentifyingbook courses design, interviewing teachers' opinion about learning materials, syllabus and lesson plans. There were several techniques used in data collection. This study used the intruments:

3.2 Questionnaires:(Students' need analysis andteachers questionnaire).

The questionnaire for need analysis was conducted to measure the students' self perceptions, prior knowledge of the content of the basic competencies , and their expectations in learning English.

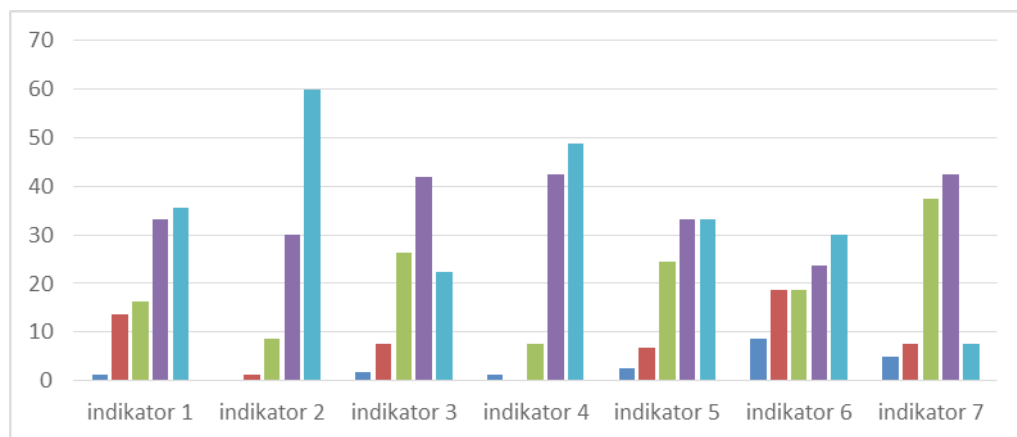
The teacher's questionnaire was given to determinethe instructional material or the course book they used in case of the motivation, conceptual knowledge, real learning, strategy use, learning interaction, lecturer instruction, lecturer involving and evaluation, those indicator to know the students responses toward the reflection strategy. In addition, the questionnaire measured the attractiveness of teaching materials, teacher involvement, providing reinforcement, evaluation, and learning in the real world. Questionnaires were administered to teachers and students to measure the aspects of acceptability, feasibility, and affectivity. Interviews and deep discussion were carried out to obtain details about English instruction and the teaching model development. Documents were used to design the course books, are important to understand.

3.2 Analysis of the validity and reliability of instruments

In analyzing the data, instrument should present the validity and reliability. There are two aspects of instrument of this research, namely (1) the validity and reliability testing and (2) the

instrument assessment by the experts in their fields.(on going)

Validity testing of this research instruments were conducted by applying out a questionnaire to 20 students at English Education of STKIP YPUP. The validity test used SPSS statistical program version 16.0 for windows with Pearson product Moment Correlation technique to correlate the scores on each item with the total score of questionnaire items. Based on the result of the instrument analysis, the students' English proficiency was presented and students' perception about the instructional materials was delivered to know the coefficient of Pearson product moment correlation were then compared to the value of r table at 0,05 significance level and degree of freedom (df) = n-2. Value r-count > r-table shows that items of questionnaire were valid, if the value r count ≤ r table the item of questionnaires were invalid, significant level is 0,312. The reliability testing in this research was done by calculating the reliability coefficient of Cronbach Alfa using SPSS 16 for windows as follows: The validity and reliability of teacher's questionnaire. All the items of the questionnaire are valid based on the t-test with two tailed, and reliability according to Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items is 0.685. The overall result for the questionnaires based on students perceptions The data was collected based on the questionnaire that divided into 7 categories, namely: 1. Motivation. It consists of a. the lecturer's role to guide the students in writing, b. only half of the lecturer's role that helped students in writing, c. lecturers inspired the students to write, d. lecturers did not inspire the students to write. 2. Conceptual knowledge. They are; a. lecturers used various easy words in writing, b. lecturers are supposed to use various easy words. 3. Real learning, consists of a. lecturers used various formal words in writing, b. students writing have met to the lecturers guidance, c. students were able to write a long text as lecturers guidance once, d. students were able to write a long text as lecturers guidance more times. 4. Strategy, consists of a. Using more easily words as lecturers guidance, b. lecturers supervised the students using interesting method. 5. Learning interaction, consists of a. Students were able to write a text, b. students were difficult to write a text, c. students like writing subject, d. students like writing a long text. 6. Lecturers' involving, consists of a. students can write a text under the lecturers guidance, b. students cannot write a text even under the lecturers guidance.



Based on the data that have been gather, it can be concluded that, (1) Motivation. The data indicates that almost 60% students felt happy when the lecturer guided them to write well. Besides that, the students were very inspired by the lecturer's writing. (2) Conceptual knowledge. The graphic shows that almost 50 % students likewhen the lecturer used various easy words on teaching, and lecturer is supposed to use various easy words in teaching. (3) Real learning. The data tells us that 68% students felt right if the lecturer used various formal words in his writing.

Some of the students assumed that they wrote the text based on the example as given by the lecturer. In writing, the students could compose simplify a long text as lecturer guidance. (4) Strategy. The data shows us that 67 % students felt comfortable in writing when using simple words as lecturer's guidance. To do so, the lecturer used good method, that made students easily to write.(5) Learning Instruction. The data indicates that there were 38% of students, could write a text. It caused some students like writing a long text.(6) Lecturer Involving. Out of 54% students felt happy when they were given clue on writing process. Only few of them seemed unlike to the lecturer clue. (7) Evaluation.

The figure above covered the process of a developing a model of teaching writing based on reading approach through reflection strategy in general this model of writing instructional material consists of five stages:

Analysis

The analyze phase is identifying the probable courses for a performance gap. The procedures in the analyze phase are validated the performance gap. Determine instructional goals, confirm the intended audience, identify resources required to complete the entire reflection process. In practice this stage of analysis was based on the criteria of the process of writing concept of John Dewey's. It deals with the ability on thinking and behaving reflectively. Reflective thinking ability consists of five components: (1) to recognize or to feel the difficulty or problems; (2) to locate and to define the problem (3) to suggest the possible solutions (4) to elaborate the ideas (5) to test the problem solving and to make conclusion. Reflective attitude that will walk together with reflective thinking skills, are developed based on the Dewey's concept.

Design

The second step in course design is planning goals and outcome based on the needs of the students. The researcher also examines some of the concepts in English language learning, such as basic English language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and the related concept of learning influence the learning process, such as habit, attitude, motivation. This study hasdesign a syllabus, writing course books, and English lesson plans based.

Development

Another researcher describes the process in designing aprototype: (1) designing phase, namely a draft design model, (2) development phase, which is developing a draft design of the first prototype, Then develop the instructional coursebook andvalidate the instruction to ensure it accomplishes all goals and objectives.

Implementation

This aimed to prepare the learning environment that engage to the students. The main procedure often associates with the implementation phase where preparing the teacher and the students. The focus in this stage is on how the teaching process can be characterized and how the quality of the teaching process using reflectionprocedure is effective. In language teaching programs, teaching model is often on the following approaches that Richards (2001) states: The communicative approach, The cooperative learning model,The process approach. Evaluate. The next point is to evaluate the performers, coursebook, and audit-trail throughout the five phases and in the working environment to ensure it is achieving the desired results.

Review and evaluate each phase:analyze, design, develop, implement, and valuate to ensure that it is accomplishing what it is supposed to perform such as external evaluations, observation

the tasks that were trained can actually be performed by the learners in their working environment.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The essential part of development process is aligning the material with student's needs and interest. The tryout of the material should be specifically and firmly designed and carried out since it reflects whether or not it has been well develop. In this research the researcher develop several units of material and the tried out in one class to see the acceptability of the model design. After conducting the need analysis of the instructional materials and the evaluation of material design step then the syllabus and lesson plan form as follows: Syllabus In this research the syllabus were designed by the researcher with lecturers consultation. The syllabus were design based on 1) competency standard, 2) basic competence, 3) learning resources,4) course material.

The content of designed book meet the students needs, specifically to types of text. The designed book is designed based on the process of writing reflection strategy. The newly designed book is relevant to the contend standard, and it provides the relevancy with the competency standard . The course book could improve the students English achievement because it was designed based on the students' need. The newly designed course book improve the students' English skills. Both teachers and students agree that the use of the course book is very important in improving the English language skills of the students.

In designing an English course book teachers should consider the students' need so they can encourage themselves to develop their own learning strategies and to become independent learners without afraid of making mistake. It is suggested that instructional materials based on the students' need meet the learning outcome of the students basic and the standard competence of language learning. Another positive impact of professional development was teacher were exposed to wider exposure of teaching and learning. It is suggested that all activities that were carried out would be of benefit to the teacher if they willing to cooperate with other teachers as a team. That is why, this English course book which entitles Developing Writing may be useful for English students.

REFERENCES

- Atkinson, R. H., & Longman, D. G. (1985). Reading enhancement and development. NY: West Publishing Company.
- Bulletin ReflectivePractice in Social Studies, No.88. Zeichner, K. & Liston, .P. (1995).
- Cox, K. E. & Guthrie, J.T. (2001). Motivational and cognitive contributions to students' amount of reading. Contemporary Educational Psychology, vol. 26, 116-131.
- Journal TEFLIN (2010) Volume 21 Number 1 February 2010. The association of teachers of foreign language in Indonesia.
- Sims, R.R & s.j. (1995). The importance of learning styles: Understanding the implication for learning, course design, and education. Westport Greenwood press.
- Syatriana E,(1998) The levels of Reading Comprehension of the fifth semester students of STKIP-YPUP. Unpublished Sarjana's Thesis, STKIPYPUP. Ujung Pandang
- Richards.J.C.2001. Curriculum Development in Language Teaching, Cambridge: ambridge University Press.
- Sorensen, G. A. & Christophel, D. M. (1992). The communication perspective

- Webster's New Dictionary. (1984). Oxford University Press.
- Parawansa, P. 2001. ReorientasiterhadapstrategiPendidikanNasional.Makalah. Malang, 13 Oktober 2001.
- Punch, K.F. (1988). Introduction to social reserach: Quantitative and qualittitative approaches. London: Sage Publications
- Perkins, D. N., & Unger, C. 1999. Teaching and learning for understanding. DalamReigeluth, C. M. (Ed.): Instructional-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructiontheory, Volume II. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlboum Associates, Publisher
- Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock.2006. "Reflective Learning".DalamApplied emotional intelligence[Online] Tersedia:<http://www.jca.biz/microsites/iete/pdf/Scale%2016%20Reflective%20learning.pdf>. [8 Januari2011].
- Silberman,Melvin.2006.ActiveLearning.Nusamedia.Bandung.
- Syatriana E. (2011) Developing a model of teaching of reading comprehension.Makassar
- Syatriana E (2013) A model of creating instructional materials based on the school curriculum for Indonesian secondary school. Journal of Education and Practice, ISSN 222-1735 (paper), ISSN 2222-288X (ONLINE), Vol 4 No 20.

INVESTIGATING THE TEACHER'S TEACHING APPROACHES IN BILINGUAL CLASSROOM

Syarifah Kurniaty K

mammengdirga@gmail.com

Khairun University, Ternate, Maluku Utara, Indonesia

Jl. Sultan Baabullah, Ternate, Maluku Utara

Abstract

The study focuses on finding out and describing the teaching approaches that teacher uses in bilingual classroom. The study is a descriptive qualitative. The data source is one English teacher and twenty nine students took bilingual class of English and Indonesian purposively random. To collect the data, the study uses direct observation and interview. The data are analyzed using Constant Comparative Method with completed narration after several observed meetings. The results showed that (1) the teaching approaches which the teacher applies are insufficiently required the principles of contextual teaching and learning approach and total physical response method, (2) the teacher integrates various teaching approaches, such as computer based learning, cooperative learning, problem based learning, task based learning, and (3) the teacher dominantly uses problem based learning as his teaching approach.

Keywords: *teaching approaches, bilingual classroom*

1 INTRODUCTION

These days many countries have introduced English classes to elementary schools, and many adults study English even after graduating from universities (Lee, Kyoung and Rebecca Oxford, 2008). Language learning process is a very complex problem. No one knows exactly how people learn languages because it is an internal process. The internal learning process that is experienced by a student cannot be directly observed. In English language teaching and learning situation, this internal process experienced by the students is often hampered by lack of supporting factors. One of the main factors influencing the success of students in language learning circumstance is the teachers' approaches. Because of this, a teacher should pay attention to any indicator that reflects the learning process experienced by her or his students. The proliferation of approaches and methods is a prominent characteristic of contemporary second and foreign language teaching... invention of new classroom practices and approaches to designing language programs and materials reflect a commitment to finding more efficient and more effective ways of teaching languages (Richards, Rodgers, 1995). "A recent trend in second language teaching is a movement away from "method" and other "external ortop down" views of teaching toward an approach that seeks to understand teaching in its own terms (Richards & Lockhart Charles, 2000). In the Junior High School English taught is not as the contain course but as the skill course. Problems appear when globalization in any aspects of life take place where ability of adaptation is more and more needed and demand of professional increases. Recent changes in student demographics have prompted researchers and practitioners to examine how public schools can improve teaching, learning, and academic achievement for students in special populations (August & Hakuta, 1998). The aforementioned studies are important in understanding teacher behavior and attitudes towards bilingualism, teaching approaches, and bilingual education. However, Sosa (1996) apprised researchers that some of the effective bilingual teacher research has been limited, because only low inference

(i.e., measurable) behaviors have been examined. Presage variables such as teacher beliefs have not been adequately examined in relation to bilingual teacher behavior. Sosa suggested that these beliefs often propel teachers to utilize a variety of approaches while assisting students' learning.

Concerning the explanation above, the researcher is interested in investigating the case of "the teachers' teaching approaches to the improvement of the students' English skills in bilingual classroom" by focusing on what approaches does teacher use in his teaching and learning process in bilingual

2. METHOD

This part describes the methodology and procedures that the researcher uses to describe the teacher's approaches, the approaches impact for the students' English skills, and the students' attitude regarding the English language teaching and learning process toward bilingual education program.

2.1 Research Design

A case study approach is used as the design of this research. Case study is an ideal methodology when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed (Feagin, Orum, & Sjoberg, 1991). Case studies have been used in varied investigations, particularly in sociological studies, but increasingly, in instruction. The design of the research uses qualitative research (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). Qualitative research is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and visual data and order to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest. The purposes of qualitative research are broad in scope and center around promoting a deep and holistic or complex understanding of a particular phenomenon, such as an environment, a process, or even a belief.

2.2 Data Sources

The researcher takes one English teacher and the second grade of bilingual class of SMPN 6 Makassar as data sources. Sekolah Menengah tingkat Pertama 6 Makassar is in down town of Makassar Sulawesi Selatan. The number of the first grade students is 317. The number of the second grade students is 376. The number of the third grade students is 389. Each grade is divided into 10 classes.

The participants of the research are the English teacher of second year students of bilingual classroom in SMPN 6 Makassar especially for VIII.A class and the second year students of bilingual class VIII.A in SMPN 6 Makassar.

2.3 Gathering Data Instruments

The instruments of the research consist of (1) the researcher is the main instrument in collecting the data of observation, interview, (2) diary to make field note and interview transcripts, (3) recorder to record interview, and (4) camera to take photo or pictures.

2.4 Classroom Observations

Observation involves visiting a class to observe different aspects of teaching (Richards, 2000). The researcher proceeds to observe the classroom, scripting observations or writing anecdotes of activities in the classroom that related to teaching approach, the cognitive, affective, and linguistic needs of English Language Learners. The researcher regularly reviewed the observations and anecdotes to identify the English teaching/ learning process in bilingual

education program.

The observation guide is used by an observer during one of the regular class times. The guide asks for details of any instances of note taking, reading of handouts or other material, asking questions, talking to other students, using a dictionary, or any other behaviors which seemed to indicate that students were employing strategies to assist their language skills development.

2.5 Interview Guide

The interview guide is used to conduct semi-structured interviews with students who achieved and pass at the end of the course. These students are asked about the teaching approaches they had found most useful for developing skills in English, about which skills they had found most difficult, and about the strategies they had used to overcome these difficulties. Any other useful insights were also noted.

2.6 Data Analysis Technique

The data taken from observation, interview, and comments are analyzed by using Constant Comparative Method (Moleong, 2007). The data are organized and coding. Coding involves analyzing data and identifying themes or topics. The data are categorized and labeled. After labeling the data, the data are interpreted, explained, and connected to review of related literature and previous research findings.

This research uses constant comparative analysis, a method of analyzing qualitative data where the information gathered is coded into emergent themes or codes. The data is constantly revisited after initial coding, until it is clear that no new themes are emerging. It can be used in a study with a single method of data collection, for example, the researcher use S1 for student one, PBL for Problem based Learning, CTL for Contextual Teaching and Learning,

After final coding was complete, code files were printed and stored in files are labeled with each code name. The quality of data analysis depends on repeated, systematic searching of the data (Hammersley, 1981). In an attempt to achieve this, repeated coding was performed to review interpretations, in the light of new data gathered and as new codes were generated, until no new insights were being gleaned (Riley, 1990). Established coded sections were compared with other similarly coded segments to ensure consistency of application, as well as adherence to the definition of the code (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Where events or conversations had been recorded in more than one of the methods used (for example, in observation and interviews), both transcripts were reviewed together after initial coding. On some occasions, events from interviews, observations, or learning diary entries in the field diary had also been recorded. Then diary entries were reviewed to check if there was any evidence of extraneous circumstances influencing the researcher's interpretation of events, or impinging on the event being recorded, to review any other interpretations that were perceived at the time.

The next is categorizing, the categories derived from each data collection method were then clustered around each research question they contributed to answering. A list was compiled of categories that related to each research question, and some categories were used to address more than one question. Once all the research questions had been allotted input from the categories, the information pertaining to each question was examined and reviewed to compile a report. The findings were finally checked against the diary entries to identify whether the researcher's views recorded before or during the study had unduly influenced interpretation of the data gathered, for example the researcher open the diary, recorded, video to strength the data from teacher and students interview.

The interpretation of the responses and emergent findings were discussed with the case

study participants. Nolan and Behi (1995) suggest that in qualitative research, the findings should be presented to participants and their views explored. Others suggest that this should also be applied to qualitative data analysis (Silverman 2006).

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study are to show the teaching approaches which the teacher applies in the bilingual classroom. Rothenberg et. al. (1993) found that students and teacher were uncertain about specific methods to be used when teaching students of different language backgrounds. The current study reveals that Secondary teachers in Indonesia hold some of the same uncertainties. While they generally agree that teachers should not teach students in the same manner, when asked about specific methods and language use there is either uncertainty or a lack of flexibility.

3.1 Teacher's approaches in teaching English in bilingual classroom

The English teacher considers the importance of teaching English at junior high school. He thinks that teaching English is very important at junior high school. In teaching English, the teacher is based on junior high school English curriculum (content standard), but he prefers to try to be more creative in teaching by using many medias in classroom. There are many approaches that the teacher uses in bilingual class; they are Contextual Teaching and Learning strategies, Total Physical Response, computer based learning, cooperative learning, problem based learning, task based learning, and problem based learning as his teaching approach. Teacher said: "In this new curriculum the approaches that I use in applying this curriculum is contextual teaching and learning". Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) helps us relate subject matter content to real world situations and motivate students to make connections between knowledge and its applications to their lives as family members, citizens, and workers and engage in the hard work that learning requires".

3.1.1 Contextual Teaching and Learning

The teacher has his own unique perception on the elements of Contextual Teaching and learning, he adds one more approach namely Total Physical Response (TPR) which is not included as one of the elements of CTL according to Elaine B. Johnson on her book Contextual Teaching and learning (2002; 24). The teacher said "There are seven aspects that we have to know in Contextual teaching and learning strategies, they are questioning, inquiring, modeling, constructivism, learning community, authentic assessment, and total physical response"

There are some CTL activities applied by the teacher namely, questioning; the teacher asked the students some ideas related to the topic of the study, inquiring; by using laptop and LCD the teacher displayed on wall the article and then asks the students to do the instruction. For example, recount text labeled to show the students the structure and language features of a recount text. Modeling; the teacher has never performed model in teaching activities, he just write down on the board the form of the things which is discussed, e. g the picture of rain. The teacher also uses laptop to show the picture of rain in power point form.

The modeling approaches is not used by the teacher, teacher does not have any preparation of instruments or model to show in class, that is why the researcher assumes that modeling approaches is not applied by the teacher, the teacher does not do the CTL approaches completely. Constructivism, the teacher asks the students to draw the rain and then the students write down some advantages and disadvantages of the rain and then the students demonstrate their work in front of the class. The teacher asks the students to write composition of sentences each student

must write one word, and it is done one by one until it becomes one complete sentence. This activity focuses on learning rather than teaching, so learners are given autonomy to have their own will and purpose. To gain the learner's purpose in learning, motivation is an important aspect for the learner. So teacher should always encourage learner's inquiry, curiosity, and initiative. From the observation data above, researcher reports that the using of constructivism approach is good to stimulate the students in solving problem and to arouse the students in finding some new information by their own critical thinking. The teacher success to be the facilitator in the class, teacher sets and prepares the plan of the activity and organize the activity, and then the teacher guides the students well, the teacher becomes a good counselor, he gives guidance, counseling, shows the direction, and modeling to the learner, the teacher makes suggestion, gives recommendation, challenges creativity, and encourages independent thinking. And the last is the teacher assess individual learner, teacher assess learners' possibilities, strengths, needs, and feelings. Learning community; the teacher's achievement in this approach is observed directly by students' activity, communicative competences, and ability in finishing the assignment given by the teacher. In learning community the students finish their assignment faster rather than working individually, the researcher conclude that this approach is effective to be applied in bilingual class. Authentic assessment; it is used to monitor student progress and inform teaching practices

Many of these strategies are used in the SMPN 6 Makassar includes bilingual classroom. Activities such as team teaching, cooperative learning, integrated learning, work-based learning, service learning, problem-based learning, and others support CTL and are already occurring in that school especially in bilingual classroom. The teacher routinely uses the above activities to encourage inquiry, creative problem solving, and use of higher order thinking skills. The teacher sees these teaching/learning processes as methods to help all students meet state and local standard.

Teacher said "For CTL to be effective, all strategies must be present in the teaching/learning experience. Implementation of CTL may not require drastic changes in practice for all educators. It may require enhancement of practice in one characteristic and not another. Continual use and reflection on CTL processes broadens and deepens educators' knowledge and ability to facilitate learning."

A variety of Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) strategies surface in bilingual classroom of SMPN 6 Makassar: learning in multiple settings, students learning from one another and teamwork, learning being related to the real world, critical thinking, and problem solving. The collective impact of these on students' engagement and mastery was also evident. My observations of teacher's approaches in bilingual class also led me to believe that the assignments and in-class activities also cause the students to look at everyday situations in different ways. Many of the teacher's assignments required students to figure out what they did not know, and then to figure out how to construct/acquire that knowledge. While the aforementioned evidences of CTL inclusion are relatively obvious, they appear greater in breadth than depth. The teacher runs an excellent job of developing a variety of creative activities for his class; however, what appear to be lacking is specific conversations with his students to be sure they understood the rationale behind the projects as a different way of learning rather than doing "stuff" to take up class time. It seemed this also was a reflection of the way the teacher viewed/understood CTL. I am not convinced he had a deep understanding of either the theory or practice. His perception, to me at least, appeared that CTL has seven elements including Total Physical response. While clearly, TPR is a kind of teaching approaches like CTL itself, as previously stated, I find two approaches that teacher use in his classroom teaching and instruction. It is supported from

Richards argument on his book *Approaches and Methods in language teaching* (1995) that concluded TPR as one kind of approaches in language teaching. I do believe the effect of teacher's approach being involved in the CTL project on his practice, as abilingual teacher, is significant. Without that experience, he may well have relied on a verytraditional means of instruction, one that is significantly more teacher-centered than student-centered.

3.1.2 Total physical response (TPR)

The teacher applies TPR approach by communicate actively to the students in doing or making something like a game. The example of TPR activity in bilingual classroom is by doing a game called "Bringing me a..."

The teacher sits in front of the class. Then teacher prepares the picture cards to make game. The teacher divides students into six groups. Each group consists of five students and they form a circle in front of the teacher. Each group chooses a runner and only the runner can take things to the teacher. Group collaborates in trying to find the object and the delegate then takes it to the teacher. As an evidence of Total Physical response approach, this success leads to a high degree of motivation. The basic tenets are: Understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking. Imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information. The student is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the student feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances.

3.2 Employing a Combination of Teaching Approaches to Improve the Quality of Teaching and Learning

The teacher employs a combination of teaching approaches to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Teacher said: "I try to use student-centered approach means that teachers should think about how the learners learn and make the students actively involved in the teaching process."

3.2.1 The Teacher Implementing Problem Based Learning (PBL)

The following is a very good example of how PBL is used in The Bilingual class of SMPN 6 Makassar. The objectives of this course are learn about science (Physics), learn about volume and cylinder, and learn to make chart related to the theory. The teacher dominantly use PBL because bilingual class in SMPN 6 uses English not just for English subject, but English is used for others sciences subjects, for examples biology, physics, and mathematics. Students construct knowledge; they do not take it in as it is disseminated, but rather they build on knowledge they have gained previously (Cross, 1998). They benefit from working together, and they may learn best from teaching each other.

3.2.2 The Teacher Using Computer Based Learning Approaches

In the bilingual class, the English teacher uses computer as a media in teaching and learning activities. Teacher said: "If students receiving Computer assisted language learning better and faster than students receiving conventional instruction alone, do they also retain their learning better? The answer is yes".

Based on the observation, the researcher found the students use computer to assist their language learning and the teacher shows to the student how to check email.

3.2.3 Cooperative Learning

The teacher uses game to gain the students' collaboration in learning. Based on the observation the teacher plays "Getting Together" game. The teacher gets children sitting beside each other to work in pair. Then teacher gives them some simple instructions to carry out together as a way of getting them used to working as pairs. Game is always interest and fun activity for students. Such this game motivates students to share and actively communicate with their partner or group friends. This activity is considered as the effective tool which is adopted by teachers. Students explored themselves.

3.2.4 Task Based Learning

The teacher used to give the students assignment or task to do in class for they can practice the theory or lesson. Through the tasks the teacher guide the students to construct and broaden their knowledge.

From the observation, researcher reports that teacher used to give homework to the students. For examples, making 10 sentences of some different English tenses.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In conclusion, based on findings and discussion the researcher concluded that the teacher understand well and attempt to apply Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) approaches and Total Physical response (TPR) in histeaching and learning process in bilingual classroom. Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) helps the students relate subject matter content to real world situations and motivate students to make connections between knowledge and its applications to their lives as family members, citizens, and workers and engage in the hard work that learning requires, whether Total Physical response (TPR) help the student not to be forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the student feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances. The teacher also combined various teaching approaches, such as computer based learning, cooperative learning, problem based learning, task based learning, and contextual teaching and learning, and the teacher dominantly uses problem based learning as his teaching approach. The teacher dominantly use Problem Based Learning approach in his class.

Based on the conclusion above, the researcher suggests English teacher at bilingual class have to develop their teaching approaches including their teaching strategy, the English teacher must be creative in applying some new approaches in English teaching strategy. The researcher suggests the teachers to use Problem Based learning, Contextual Teaching and Learning approach and Total Physical Response in their teaching activities because they are good to stimulate the students in teaching and learning, it is proved by the students' ability to do some various kinds of activities given by the teacher. Besides that, these approaches also give some motivation to the students in order they can actively participate during learning process.

REFERENCES

- August, D., & Hakatula, K. (1998). *Educating Language-Minority Children* Washington,DC: National Academy Press.
- Feagin, J. R., Orum, A. M., & Sjoberg, G. (Eds.). (1991). *A case for the case study*. UNC Press Books.
- Hammersley, M. And Atkinson,P.(1981:2004).*Ethnography. Principles in Practice*,London: Routledge.274 + x pages.
- Johnson, E. B. (2002). *Contextual teaching and learning: What it is and why it's here to say*. Corwin Press.

- Lee, Khyoung.(2008). *Understanding EFL Learners' Strategy Use and Strategy. Awareness*.ASIAN EFL Journal Volume 10 issue 1.
- Marshall, C. (86). Rossman., GB. (1995). Designing qualitative research.
- Moleong, Lexy J.Prof Dr. (2007).*Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*.Bandung:PT.Remaja Rosdakarya Bandung.
- Nolan, M., & Behi, R. (1995). Triangulation: the best of all worlds?. *British Journal of Nursing*, 4(14), 829-832.
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (2000). *Reflective teaching in second language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers. (1995). *Approaches and Methods in Languang Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Riley, R. W. (1990). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(1), 164-187.
- Rothenberg, J. J., McDermott, P. C., & Gormley, K. A. (1993). A comparison of student teacher and supervisor perceptions of students teaching. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 19(3), 273-277.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analyzing talk, text and interaction*. Sage.
- Sosa, A. (1996). *Special Response to the Social Impact Strand. 20 years after LAU: In Pursuit of equity not just a language response program. In Revising the LAU decision 20 years after*. Proceeding of a National Commemorative Symposium (see Eric ED 406 402) held on Nov. 3-4, 1994, San Francisco, California (pp. 34-42).
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basic of Qualitative Research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, Californio: Sage.

WASHBACK EFFECT OF NATIONAL EXAMINATION ON EFL TEACHING

Sholeh Setiaji

setia.aji10@yahoo.com

SMA IT AL Irsyad Al Islamiyyah Purwokerto

Purwokerto, Central Java, Indonesia

Abstract

Though National examination (NE) does not determine the students' graduation any longer, the Indonesian government through the ministry of education still consider administering NE which is used as the standardization of education and the consideration of state universities admission. As a high stake testing which can causes various washback effects, NE in Indonesia has triggered never-ending debates. However, either the proposition or the opposition are not grounded on the basis of research results. This study tries to investigate the phenomenon of washback effects in a secondary school teacher context by conceptualizing a teacher's perceptions of English National Examination. Theoretically relevant concepts were derived from qualitative interviews and classroom observation with an experienced English teacher of a senior high school in Banyumas regency. Iterative data collection and analysis revealed: (1) the dimensions of the washback effect of the NE which are strong, positive and negative, specific and for a short term; (2) the NE influences on the teacher's teaching including the areas of curriculum, teaching method, materials, feeling, and assessment; and (2) a set of local conditions that make the teacher divert language teaching towards preparing students for the NE including teacher's belief, school's expectation, parents' expectation, students' motivation and students' academic competence. The great tendency of the teacher in focusing the teaching on NE seems too strong to be erased. Therefore, it is suggested for the NE administrator to start formulating an examination which can turn the direction of the washback effect to the real goal of EFL teaching that is communication.

Keywords: *Washback Effect, National Examination, Teachers' Teaching.*

1. INTRODUCTION

A high-stake test like national examination (NE) is commonly administered in many countries. In the Indonesian context, NE is used as the measurement of the graduates' competence nationally. As many research findings suggest, such tests will influence the teachers' teaching and students' learning as they should be to prepare students to be successful on the test (Amengual Pizarro, 2010; Munoz & Alvarez, 2010; Kennedy & Lui, 2013; Özmen, 2011; Chang, 2014). This kind of phenomenon is commonly known as "washback" effect of test (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Hughes, 2003). Various explanations of the term 'washback' are stated throughout the published researches and literature on language testing. Broadly defined, washback is viewed as the effect of test beyond the classroom to the whole stakeholders of education system and society (Ostovar-Namaghi, 2013). The narrower definition suggests that washback refers to the effects of tests on the instruction in terms of the preparation for the tests (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). In this study, the narrow definition of washback will be adopted. It is addressed to washback at a micro level within the classroom to investigate NE influence on teacher teaching.

Watanabe (1997b in Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004) conceptualizes washback on some dimensions each of which represents one of the various aspects of its nature: (1) *Specificity*: washback may be general or specific. General washback means a type of effect that may be produced by any test. On the other, specific washback refers to a type of washback that relates

to only specific aspect of a test or one specific test type. (2) *Intensity*: washback may be strong or weak. If the test has a strong effect, then it will determine everything that happens in the classroom, and will lead all teachers in the same way toward exams. On the other hand, if a test has a weak effect, then it will affect only a part of the classroom events, or only some teachers and students, but not others. (3) *Length*: the influence of exams, if it is found to exist, may last for a short period of time, or for a long time. (4) *Intentionality*: Messick (1989 in Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004) implies that there is unintended as well as intended washback when he wrote that judging validity in terms of whether a test does the job it is employed to do... requires evaluation of the intended or unintended social consequences of test interpretation and use. (5) *Value or direction*: examination washback may be positive or negative. Because it is not conceivable that the test writers intend to cause negative washback, intended washback may normally be associated with positive washback, while unintended washback is related to both negative and positive washback. When it comes to the issue of value judgment, the washback research may be regarded as being a part of evaluation studies. The distinction between positive and negative could usefully be made only by referring to the audience.

In the educational practice, washback is deemed to affect some areas. Spratt (2005) shows in detail what areas in teaching and learning considerably affected by washback. The first affected area is the *curriculum*. The results of some studies carried out on washback revealed that examination had a demonstrable effect on the content of language lesson (Alderson & Wall, 1993). This effect was that of the narrowing of the curriculum to those areas most likely to be tested. Moreover, washback is believed to affect *teaching materials*. As the exam getting closer there is greater spending of time working with past paper and exam-related published material (Andrews, Fullilove, & Wong, 2002). At last, *teaching methods* are also considered to be affected by washback. The type and amount of washback on teaching methods appears to vary from context to context and teacher to teacher. It varies from no reported washback to considerable washback.

Despite the big number of researchers' claims on the existence of washback effect, the complexity of this phenomenon remains unclear (Barletta & May, 2009). The findings of washback studies regarding teachers' teaching are disparate and too varied to provide an explicit conclusion. Several empirical studies even show contradictory results regarding the effect of high-stakes test on the EFL classroom. Some evidences from research findings reveal that certain high-stakes tests do not appear to increase the number of teachers teaching to the test (Cheng, 2005; Green 2007; Pan, 2013). Furthermore, in the Indonesian context Sukyadi & Mardiani (2011) states that NE doesn't have any impact for teachers and students of tenth and eleventh grades. This conditions reflects that washback doesn't always emerge and can vary in form of intensity and indicates that there seems to be other factors beside the exam which determine the existence of washback (Spratt, 2005). Moreover, little attention is given to the factors determining washback. In conclusion, investigating influence of a high-stakes test or exam on EFL teaching and the local conditions shaping the effects is still an area in need of research.

In regard to the intricacy of washback effect, it is essential to propose a qualitative research which can draw this phenomenon in the Indonesian EFL teaching and learning context. This study aims at revealing how an English teacher perceives and acts in accordance with the administration of NE. More specifically, it aims at portraying the teaching and learning activities and uncovering the factors behind the mode of the actions and insights. The findings of this study are expected to enrich the literature on the English Language testing, more specifically about the washback effect of high-stakes tests. Practically, this study are projected to give new

insights among EFL practitioners and test NE developers which can result in a better picture on which to base any effort to improve the EFL classroom instruction and the test development. As this study was intended to uncover the washback phenomenon on a single case of teacher, the findings are only true to the respondent involved in it. There is no attempt of generalization; therefore, there might be other interpretation to the issues raise in this study.

2. METHOD

This research employed a case study method which focused on the case of an individual teacher (Malik & Hamied, 2014). The investigation of the washback was targeted to Mrs. Ani (alias), an English teacher of a state high school in Banyumas regency. Mrs. Ani was purposefully and theoretically (Hood, 2009) selected for the subject of the study. “Purposeful sampling is based in the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned” (Merriam, 2009). In other words, she was selected because her thinking and acting as a XII grade teacher held promise for answering the research questions. Her high attention and “extreme” decisions in preparing her students for NE was deemed to have huge potentials to uncover the washback phenomenon.

Teacher’s interview and classroom observation were used as the data collecting techniques in this case study to explore the effects of NE on the EFL classroom instruction and the factors influencing the teacher’s decisions in related to the preparation of NE. In the development of the interview guideline, the prepared questions were constructed considering the issues pointed in the literature by Watanabe (1997b in Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004; Spratt, 2005). To eliminate the potential problem in the use of the interview, the first draft of the interview guideline was then piloted with a teacher who was also experienced in dealing with NE. This aimed at finding out if the questions were yielding the expected data and excluding any questions which were potentially ambiguous and confusing to the interviewee (Nunan, 1992). To ensure the content validity of the instrument, the rate of each question was based on the criteria of the clarity of the meaning of the question and the appropriateness of the question in representing the topic.

The interview was audio-recorded to be transcribed verbatim and meticulously analyzed soon after the interviews were done. The total time for interviewing was 31 minutes. All in all, 6 pages of transcribed interviews and field note were analyzed through coding processes suggested by Malik & Hamied (2014) to derive transient and final concepts and categories. In open coding, the data were initially examined, fractured and eventually collated the data to find transient concepts and categories. In axial coding, the concepts and categories were elaborated by specifying their dimensions and properties and then fining the interrelationships between concepts and categories. And finally selective coding helped the researcher find the core category that pulled the concepts and categories together into a unified whole. Final concepts and categories were verified through member-checking.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This research is guided by two research questions which were formed as follows: (a) How does NE influence the teacher’s practice? and (b) What are the factors causing the mode of action? The first research question is answered by the results of the data analysis on the dimensions of washback and the areas influenced by NE. Furthermore, the second research question is answered by the results of the data analysis on the factors, as the research question suggests.

3.1 The dimensions of the Washback Effect

To reveal the dimension of washback, the data analysis was based on the theory suggested by Watanabe (1997b in Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). The findings revealed that the dimensions covers specificity, intensity, length, value, and intentionality.

1) Specificity

In the context of this study, the specificity of the washback effect of NE is specific to certain test types. The data from teachers' interview and classroom observation indicate that the teacher focused the teaching and learning process more on reading and listening skills than on communication skill. The reason why she did this is because reading and listening are the two skills which are tested on NE. The students were drilled with several text genres and questions about general information, specific information, and reference.

2) Intensity

The intensity of the washback effect of NE in the context of this study is strong. The data from teacher's interview clearly indicate that the teacher strongly committed to reach the success in national examination. The commitment was apparently reflected on the way she made the decision in her classroom. The data from class observation revealed that the teaching and learning process was totally designed and prepared the students for NE. There was no focus but drilling students with reading and listening exercises.

3) Length

The length of the washback effect in this study is considered lasting for a short period of time. The data from the interview and classroom observation reveal that the effect of national exam started from the beginning of the first semester of XII grade until the national examination has been administered. In other words, the teacher taught as the curriculum and syllabus suggest without any intentional effort to focus on the preparation of NE.

4) Value

In this study, NE gives both positive and negative impacts. The data from the teacher's interview shows that on one side NE examination can enhance the students' motivation in learning. It decreased the students' absence rate and motivated the students to do their assignments. The awareness of the students on the importance of NE made the students seriously prepare and do many efforts to achieve the best scores. However, on the other side NE created anxiety among teachers and students. The teacher worried about the students in the NE because she thought that most of her students have low motivation.

5) Intentionality

The data from the interview and class observation indicate that NE has caused intended and unintended washback. The intended washback is indicated by the fact that the materials which are tested in NE are included in the curriculum (Sukyadi & Mardiani, 2011). Whereas, the unintended washback is showed by the fact that the teacher focused their classroom teaching on the NE preparation (p.13)

3.2 Areas Affected by Washback

The areas of the teacher's teaching affected by NE are referred to the areas that are suggested by (Spratt, 2005). The results of the data analysis from teacher's interview and classroom observation revealed some areas of teaching that are influenced by the administration of NE as described in the following table:

Areas Affected by washback

No	Areas	Aspects
1	Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Curriculum compression • Time extension
2	Teaching Method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavier use of practice tasks • Explanation of test-taking strategies • NE-oriented Homework • Students' confidence enhancement. • Encouraging students to get the best score in UN.
3	Materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Published materials • Past papers
4	Feeling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher's anxiety
5	Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Try out

1) Curriculum

In relation to curriculum, the data from the teacher's interview indicates a significant impact of NE examination. The data shows that in the second semester, the teachers did not teach her students the materials as delineated in the curriculum. The materials which were supposed to be taught in one academic year were all compressed and delivered in the first semester. The second semester was used by the teacher to drill the students with exercises related to the materials that were tested in NE, particularly reading and listening skills (Bailey, 1999). It was also clear that no attention was given to teaching English for communication. In other words, in the second semester the curriculum was narrowed to those areas most likely to be included in the test (Spratt, 2005; Pizarro, 2010).

Besides the compression of the curriculum, more time was also allocated in regard to the preparation of NE. The teacher gave extensive class which was held after school started from the first semester of XII grade until the administration of NE. Again, that extra time allocation was used to emphasize the materials that are most likely to be tested instead of communication skills.

The results show that in terms of curriculum NE has created a negative tendency on the teacher in making the decision for their teaching practice. Such negative tendency towards focusing reading and listening skills over the others might be tolerated in some context considering the learner needs. However, undermining the other language skills is far from ideal for most of the Indonesian high school graduates.

2) Teaching Method

In this research, teaching method refers to the teaching approaches or techniques used by the teacher. The findings on this area show that a high tendency on drilling students with exercises was caught from the way the teacher taught the students. The data from the classroom observation reveal that the entire class time was used to ask the students to answer questions and to discuss together. Apart from the heavy use of practice tasks, NE-related homework and test-taking strategies were also become the focus of the teaching and learning process (Spratt, 2005). The findings show how the teacher tended to focus the teaching method on the NE examination preparation by emphasizing students on practicing the test. It strengthens the claim that NE gives negative washback as the teacher will do whatever methodology she considers to be the most appropriate to help her to succeed in the NE (Alderson & Wall, 1993).

In related to the students' motivation, the teachers tried to always enhance the students' confident in facing NE. It was done because her students' motivation is the matter that she always worried about. The data from the classroom observation indicates that a high frequent encouragement to get the high scores was continuously given to the students to boost the students' motivation and confidence (Spratt, 2005).

3) Materials

The term 'materials' is used in this study to refer to exam-related textbooks. The findings in this area shows that NE examination has led the teacher to use the materials which is highly exam oriented. The data from the teacher's interview and classroom observation clearly indicate that the teacher spent almost her class time working on published materials of which the contents closely represent the materials which are tested in NE (Andrews, Fullilove, & Wong, 2002). Besides the heavy use of published exam-related material, she also relied on the use of past papers to drill the students (Spratt, 2005). As the exam gets closer, there was heavier use of past papers and commercial exam-related publications. These findings show that NE examination which has changed the focus of language teaching directed the teacher to undermine the importance of the use of various and innovative materials in language classroom. Though the decision in using the materials was in line with the learning objectives, the use of monotonous materials will not be helpful and ideal for the improvement of students' language skills.

4) Teacher's Feeling

This study notes a negative feeling generated by NE though it did not dominate the teacher's physiology. The data from the teacher's interview indicates that the teacher felt anxious if the students' scores of NE are lower than that of School Examination (SE). Despite the fact that the score of NE will no longer determine the graduation, the teachers thinks that there must be close gap between the score of NE and that of SE. The teacher's anxiety arouse because she considers that her students are low motivated. This negative feeling has indirectly influenced her decision in her classroom teaching to actively emphasize test preparation.

5) Assessment

In related to the test preparation, the teacher thinks that it is important to see the students' progress in acquiring materials delineated in the standard of graduate competence. The data from the teacher's interview reports that the assessment of the current performance was conducted in the form of try out tests. The try outs were administered three times in the second semester. This results indicate that NE examination has created the need of simulation to familiarize the students with the real test and to measure the students' readiness in facing the test.

3.3 Factors Mediating Washback

The data from the teacher's interview indicates some local conditions that inflict the decisions made by the teacher in her language classroom in related to the preparation of NE. The first factor which dominantly leads the teacher to emphasize teaching to the test is *personal factor*; particularly her belief (Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). She claimed that her priority as the teacher of XII grade level was helping students to succeed in NE. That belief shows the pivotal role played by the teacher in determining the occurrence and the degree of the washback of NE on her teaching.

The second factor inflicting the washback of NE is the *school factor* (Spratt, 2005). The analysis of the teacher's interview indicates that there was an expectation from the school for the success in NE. However, the teacher felt that this factor did not really burden the teacher to do a lot of efforts in related to the NE preparation. She did not feel the pressure coming from the school in making the decisions of what to do in her classroom.

The third factor mediating the washback effect of NE is *macro-context factors*, namely the parents (Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004). The findings from the teacher's interview reveal that the students' parents put a high expectation on the teacher to help their children in facing NE. There were no parents who demanded the teacher for helping their children to be able to communicate actively in English. This result describes the parents' lack of awareness of what is actually the main goal of their children in learning language.

The last factor causing the occurrence of washback of NE is student *factor*. Unlike Spratt (2005) who put much emphasize on the role of teachers in causing washback, the finding in this context of study points out that students' motivation and academic competence can determine the teacher's decisions in regard to the upcoming NE. The teacher claimed that if her students were all highly motivated and good at academic competence, she would be glad to use the whole time to teach her students communication skills instead of preparing the students for the upcoming NE. This result shows that the success in NE is considered to be the most feasible and prioritized goal when the teacher finds that her students are less motivated in learning and have low academic competence.

4. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

4.1 Conclusion

In this context of study, NE has influenced the teacher's teaching in some dimensions: 1) Specificity to certain test types, 2) Strong intensity, 3) Short term effect, 4) Positive and negative effect and 4) Intended and unintended effect. The teacher tended to focus the teaching and learning process more on reading and listening skills because NE tests only those two skills. The teaching and learning process was totally designed and prepared the students for NE instead of for communication. Almost all the class time was spent for working on published materials and past papers of which the contents closely represent the materials which are tested in NE.

The areas affected by NE are: 1) Curriculum, 2) Teaching methods, 3) Materials, 4) Assessment, and 5) Teacher's feeling. NE has created a negative tendency on the teacher in making the decision for her teaching practice. The materials which were supposed to be taught in one academic year were all compressed and delivered in the first semester. Besides the compression of the curriculum, more time was also allocated to drill heavy practice tasks taken from published materials and past papers and to administer try out tests which were used as the measurement of the students' current performance.

The existence of the washback was inflicted by some local conditions: 1) Teacher's belief, 2) School expectation, 3) Parents' expectation and 4) Students' motivation and academic competence. All the decisions made by the teachers in related to the preparation of NE were dominantly influenced by the teacher's belief. The teacher claims that NE is her priority as the teacher of XII grade level. She also believes that the success in NE is considered to be the most feasible and prioritized goal when the teacher finds that her students are less motivated in learning and have low academic competence. Moreover, there is also an expectation from the school for the success in NE though she felt that this factor does not really burden her. Besides the school, the students' parents also put a high expectation on the teacher to help their children face NE.

3.2 Suggestions

The teachers' negative reaction to the NE can clearly indicate the misleading conception from the teacher about this high-stakes exam. The context and format of this exam explicitly

motivate the teacher to do more test-based exercises in the classroom, and pay insufficient attention to two language skills of speaking and writing. Therefore, the basic changes of this exam can direct all the stakeholders' attention to involving a continuous, integrated use of both productive and receptive skills of English learning. However, this does not necessarily mean that the teacher will embrace the possible changes and transform their teaching approaches. Though the overall results of this study indicated that the NE has negative effects on the teacher's method of teaching in the classroom, the elimination of this exam would be too controversial and impractical. Hence, the basic revision of the NE format is recommended which can in turn reform teachers' teaching and students' learning activities in high schools. Moreover, further various researches on the NE stakeholders to find out their perceptions and attitudes towards this exam seem needed.

REFERENCES

- Alderson, J.C., & Wall, D. (1993). Does washback exist? *Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 115—129.
- Amengual Pizarro, M. (2010). Exploring the washback effects of a high-stakes English test on the teaching of English in Spanish upper secondary schools. Retrieved from <http://rua.ua.es/dspace/handle/10045/17429>
- Andrews, S., Fullilove, J., & Wong, Y. (2002). Targeting washback—a case-study. *System*, 30(2), 207–223.
- Bailey, K. (1999). *Wash back in language testing*. New Jersey, Princeton: Educational Testing Service.
- Barletta, N., & May, O. (2009). Washback of the ICFES exam: A case study of two schools in the Departamento del Atlantico. *Íkala*, (11 (1)), 235–261.
- Brown, H. D. and Abewickrama P. (2010). *Language assessment principles and classroom practices*. New York: Pearson Education.
- Chang, C.-W. (2014). Washback effect of ALCPT on cadets in Taiwan: A case study. *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, 2(1), 125–140.
- Cheng, L. (2005). *Changing language teaching through language testing: A wash back study*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cheng, L., Watanabe, Y. J., & Curtis, A. (2004). *Washback in language testing research contexts and methods*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum. Retrieved from <http://site.ebrary.com/id/10227378>
- Green, A. (2007). *IELTS Washback in context: Preparation for academic writing in higher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hood, M. (2009). Case Study in Heigham, J., & Croker, R. A. *Qualitative Research in Applied linguistics: A Practical Introduction (pp.66-90)*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers*, 1st ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kennedy, S., & Lui, R. (2013). Washback of a high-stakes English test in China: Student and teacher perceptions. Retrieved from http://doe.concordia.ca/copal/documents/3_kennedy_and_liu_vol4.pdf
- Malik, S.M., & Hamied, F. A. (2014). *Research Methods: A guide for first time researchers*. Bandung: Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.
- Merriam, S. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Munoz, A. P., & Alvarez, M. E. (2010). Washback of an oral assessment system in the EFL classroom. *Language Testing*, 27(1), 33–49. doi:10.1177/0265532209347148
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Method in language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ostovar-Namaghi, S. A. (2013). Washback from the Bottom-Up: A Grounded Theory. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 2(6), 212–221. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.2n.6p.212

- Özmen, K. S. (2011). Analyzing Washback Effect of SEPPPO on respective English Teachers. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 7(2), 24–52.
- Pan, Y.-C. (2013). Does teaching to the test exist? A case study of teacher washback in Taiwan. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 10(8), 185-213.
- Pizarro, M. A. (2009). *Does the English Teaching in the Spanish University Entrance Examination Influence the Teaching of English?* *English Studies*, 90 (5), 582-598.
- Spratt, M. (2005). Washback and the classroom: The implications for teaching and learning of studies of washback from exams. *Language Teaching Research*, 9(1), 5–29.
- Sukyadi, D., & Mardiani, R. (2011). The washback effect of English national examination (ENE) on english teachers' classroom teaching and students' learning. Retrieved 15th March 2015 from <http://puslit2.petra.ac.id/ejournal/index.php/ing/article/view/18214>, 13(1).

BLENDING CULTURE AS A MODEL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AT SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVELS

Margana

margana@uny.ac.id

*English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Yogyakarta State University*

Abstract

In English language teaching in Indonesia, English teachers are encouraged to utilize some teaching models one of which is a blended culture model. This model confers some convincing justification to second language learners because it can facilitate them to maximally gain the target language. Also, the use of a blended culture model in ELT can be employed as a means of establishing students' intercultural awareness and cultural appreciation. This suggests that the inclusion of target and local culture is advocated to be executed in the process of ELT. To do so, English teachers may select English materials which are generated from the target culture and local culture depending on the types of the macro-language skills that they need to focus on. For example, when they give an emphasis on teaching receptive skills, the target culture can be the matrix culture which is used to explore much information from English speaking countries. Conversely, when they deal with teaching productive skills, the local culture context of the second language learners should become the matrix culture because having the local culture context serving as the matrix culture can facilitate second language learners to easily generate their ideas. Such a way is fruitful to establish their sensitivity of the cultural diversity which is required in the global life. In reference to the issue, this paper attempts to theoretically justify the strengths of the application of the blended culture and to clearly provide examples of how to utilize the blended culture model in ELT.

Keywords: *Blended Culture English Language Teaching Matrix Culture*

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, there has been a swing of a paradigm among scholars about the import of culture (local culture, target culture, and inter-culture) in the process of English language teaching (ELT). Philipson and Pennycook in Huda (2013:67), for example, advocate that the cultural contexts should be imported in the language teaching and learning (including English as the target language) on the grounds that it confers the feasible existing socioeconomic realities as manifested in the use of language. In support of this, the issue of the import of culture seems to be an inevitable part in any language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular. It evidently merits researchers' close attention in any English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign language (EFL) context (Erfani, 2014:317). This suggests that English teachers or lecturers in Indonesia at any level of education are encouraged to take into account for the employment of culture sensitivity methodology used in ELT. Further, Huda (2013:67) urges that 'culture now should be considered to be closely related to learning, and hence, it is suggested that pedagogical principles for teaching-learning activities should be determined by taking the issue of culture'. In support of it, Krasner (1999) strongly advocates that the target culture should be imported in the process of English language teaching as it facilitates second language learners (SLLs) to deeply make sense of the English texts that they encounter.

With regard to the import of culture in ELT, there is a hot debate among scholars. Some of them state that English teachers or lecturers are triggered to only rely on the embedment

the target culture on the grounds that SLLs would capture the comprehensive use of the target language by deeply focusing on the aspects of the target culture (Turkan & Celik, 2007). In other words, English teachers are encouraged to utilize English materials which are generated from the cultural context of the inner-circle English speaking countries such as America, England, Australia, Canada, and others in which English serves as the first language employed as a means of communication practices. In support of it, Sysoyev and Donelson (2002) urge that the study of the target language should include the study of the cultural components of the target culture. Also, English teachers or lecturers may include the culture of the speakers from the outer-inner English speaking countries (Hongkong, Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, and the like) which put English as the second language utilized by the speakers of those countries as a means of communication practices in daily contexts (Brown, 2007). Such statements are supported by Byram in Turkan & Celik (2007) who urges that the utilization of meaningful and culture-based content of the target culture is essential to deal with the target language (English) as it would facilitate SLLs to appropriately and acceptably use the language with regard to the social rules of the target culture. Bada (2001:101) strongly urges that ‘the need for cultural literacy in ELT arises mainly from the fact that most SLLs, not exposed to cultural elements of the society in question, seem to encounter significantly hardship in communicating meanings to native speakers. This suggests that teaching the English without target culture seems to be inaccurate and incomplete. It is ironic that SLLs only rely on the study of the language which only focuses on the symbols or codes as the representation of meanings without knowing anything about how the language is used by English native speakers to represent the social planes of the native speakers. This suggests that the inclusion of the target culture becomes the main concern in ELT. Bennett, Bennett & Allen (2003: 237) strongly claim that ‘the person who learns language without learning culture risks becoming a fluent fool’ on the grounds that language and culture is interwoven in nature. In other words, language and culture are inseparable. The following presents the relationship between language and culture.

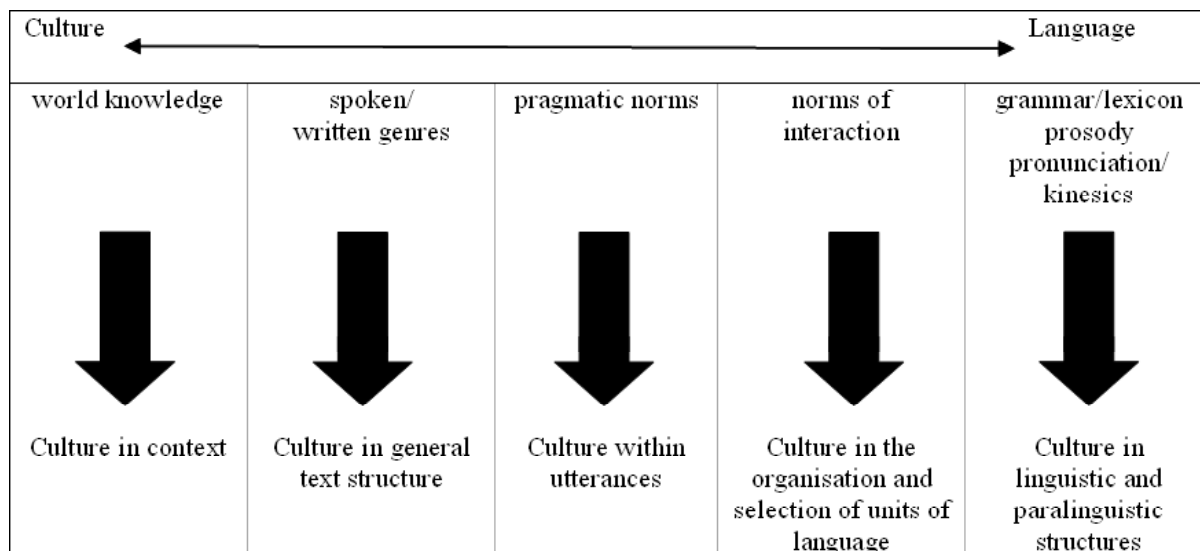


Fig. 1: Points of articulation between culture and language (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 9)

In reference to the above figure, it is evident that language and cultural are interrelated each other. This suggests that culture represents how language is used in any various communicative events which are governed by norms as presented in Figure 1. Added to this, culture underlies

the organization and selection of language units as performed in the verbal language embodying spoken and written texts, even nonverbal one. Therefore, studying the target language is not only concerned with the knowledge about language which articulates the internal structure of language but also deals with the knowledge beyond the language which accentuates the external structure of language one of which is the social planes practised by the native speakers of the language. Hedge (2008) urges that SLLs have to deal two types of knowledge in ELT, namely systemic knowledge and schematic knowledge and when they want to be successful in acquiring the target language. The former concerns the knowledge about language. The latter deals with the knowledge underlying the language one of which is socio-cultural knowledge.

In relation to the interwoven of language and culture, the embedment of the target culture in the process of ELT is a must on the grounds that the language and culture are twin in nature, which means that both cannot be separated (Wardhaugh, 2005). Learning language means learning culture or vice versa. Learning target language without learning target culture is like cooking vegetables without salt and sugar. This means that the target culture should be one of the aspects of learning the target language as SLLs are triggered to get into the social planes of the native speakers of the target language enabling them to really understand how the language is used in social contexts. This leads to the strong statement that English teachers or lecturers should exclusively integrate the target culture when they teach the target language. In support of the exclusive use of target culture, Gray in Erfani (2014: 318) has a strong idea that the target culture seems to uphold values and living standards that are better than those of the student's culture, leading to the perception that the target culture is superior to the student's culture. To sum up, the exclusive import of the target culture in ELT has to become the concern of English teachers or lecturers when they are involved in the process of English language teaching and learning.

The exclusive use of the target culture in ELT, however, is questioned by some scholars (Kramersch & Sullivan, 1996; Aptekin, 2002; Margana, 2009; Siddiqie, 2011; and Erfani, 2014). This relies on the fact that second language learners come to the class with their own culture which has been attached on their mind (Margana, 2009). This suggests that the exclusive embedment of the target culture in ELT should be reformulated as the exclusive integration of the target culture in the process of ELT is potential to discourage students to appreciate their own local culture and somehow could create a polarized society leading to creating social problems.

Kramersch and Sullivan (1996:211) strongly argue that SLLs should not deal with the culture of the target language exclusively, but they should be prepared to mind both global and local culture in order that they 'feel at home in both international and national cultures'. Post and Rathet in Margana (2009) also state that the use of the home culture as students' background knowledge provides positive impacts on making sense of the materials generated from the target culture. This is in line with a statement presented by Jenkins in Margana (2009), advocating that the students' background knowledge in the form of content familiarity of the English texts obtained from inner-circle English speaking countries facilitates them to capture and validate the sense of the texts. In other words, English teachers or **lecturers** should not only embed the target culture but also integrate the home culture in the process of English language teaching and learning on the grounds that the home culture assists SLLs to express their ideas, feelings, thoughts, experiences, and the like. It has a strong cultural aspect which aims to develop the learners' cultural awareness (Byram & Fleming, 1998) and to gain the target language together with features of its culture.

More specifically, the use of the home culture drives second language learners to activate

their background knowledge to accomplish the tasks as manifested in four macro-language skills which include listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Renner in Margana (2009:127) states that the process of English language teaching is meaningful and successful when English teachers or lecturers blend two types of culture which are utilized in a series of English language teaching activities. In support of it, Genc and Bada (2005:75) advocate that bringing students' local culture classes humanizes second language learners and provide them with a motivating effect in the learning process as it facilitates them to observe similarities and differences among various cultural groups two of which are local culture and target culture.

With regard to the above issue, this paper confers a model called blended culture (BC) as one of the models that can be utilized by English teachers or lecturers when they are involved in the process of English language teaching and learning. This paper mainly attempts to explore the theoretical justifications of use of blended culture in English language teaching and learning practices and describe some practical issues of the utilization of BC.

2. NOTIONS OF BLENDED CULTURE

As mentioned earlier, the blend of target and local culture is of great importance for SLLs as it could facilitate them to maximally acquire the target language. It suggests that in the process of language teaching and learning English teachers or lecturers are encouraged to employ the two types of culture, namely local culture and target culture as the main menu of the ELTL in order that SLLs capture how language is activated in various social planes. This triggers them to comprehensively construct the social experiences enabling them to easily establish the frame of how the target language is used in the contexts of life on their mind with the use of their senses. Such a frame of knowledge of language use as manifested social planes generates schematic knowledge which can be activated when SLLs are involved in constructing and deconstructing the texts.

In reference to the importance of the use of BC in the process of ELT as conferred in this paper, it is necessary to explore the notions of BC as it serves as the main key concept. The definition of the term BC is aimed at minimizing a misconception which is potential to have different concepts due to different perspectives applied by scholars. With regard to this, the following presents the notion of BC.

Theoretically, the term blended culture is derived from two words, namely "culture" and "blended". The term *culture* has been successfully defined by many scholars. However, the definition of culture varies in nature as they have different perspectives in defining it. For example, Mesthrie et al. (2009:28) state that culture refers the way of lives, a set of ideas, and a pattern of habits owned by a group of people who live together. Those three aspects of culture are shared, learned, and inherited from generations to other generations. This dominion sees culture as abstract issues in the forms of principles, ideas, and behaviors which are preserved and inherited from generations to generations. In line with the definition, Tulia et al. (2009) defines culture as 'patterns of human activity and the symbolic structures that give such activity significance'. It embodies knowledge, technology, art, customs, as well as moral systems and many other practices and capacities produced by human beings which are inherited from one generation to another. Similarly, Peterson (2004) defines culture as "the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions and all other products of human work and thought." This suggests that culture embodies abstract and concrete things as the products of human beings.

In terms of its types, culture can be divided into some aspects depending on the perspectives applied. Appelbaum in Margana (2009:126) categorizes culture into two, namely material and

immaterial culture. The former refers to ‘all physical objects created by the members of a particular society to shape their lives. The examples of this type of culture include consumed goods, the places of worship, cuisine types, offices, stores, transportation devices, technological devices, statue, artifacts, and the like. Those aspects of culture are concrete in nature. By contrast, immaterial culture refers to the human beings’ creations which are abstract in nature. The examples of immaterial culture embody language, values, beliefs, customs, habits, rules, conventions, institutions, organizations, and the like.

Different from the above categorization of culture, Hofstede in Jandt (2003:7) proposes four elements of culture. They include (1) symbols, (2) rituals, (3) values, and (4) heroes. Symbols refer to a system of signs which can be in the form of verbal and non-verbal language. Rituals are defined as ‘the socially essential collective activities within culture’. Values mean perceptions which are not limited to discussion within a culture about what is good or bad, beautiful or ugly, normal or abnormal which are present in a majority of the members of a culture. Heroes refer to ‘the real or imaginary people’ who become the behavior models of the members of the society.

More specifically, Jandt (2003:10) classifies culture into many aspects which embody language and gesture, personal appearance and social relationships, religion, philosophy, values, courtship, marriage, family customs, food and recreation, work and government, education and communication systems, health, transportation, government system, and economic systems (see also Margana, 2009, 2013, 2014). These elements of culture could be embedded in the process of English language teaching which depends upon the students’ characteristics.

The word *blended* refers to mixed or collaborated which means that two types of cultures (target culture and home culture) are activated together in the process of ELT depending on what aspects of cultures need to be articulated. With regard to this, there must be one culture either target culture or home culture serving as a matrix culture or an embedded culture in the process of ELT. The matrix culture refers to the dominant culture which serves as a frame of the study of the target language. On the other hand, the embedded culture is defined as the culture which serves as the subordinate of the matrix culture. With regard to this, the target culture or home culture may hold the matrix culture or the embedded culture. This depends on the nature of the macro-language skills which are articulated. For example, when SLLs are driven to deal with receptive skills, the target culture can be the matrix culture which is used to explore much information from inner or outer English speaking countries. Conversely, when they deal with teaching productive skills, the local culture of the SLLs should become the matrix culture as having the local culture as the matrix culture can facilitate learners to easily generate their ideas. Such determination is not fixed in nature but it depends on the students’ characteristics, the learning objectives, and the like.

In reference to the explanation above, the term blended culture refers to the mixture of culture that consists of at least two types of culture, namely target culture and home or local culture used in ELT. The target culture may comprise a mixture of inner-circle, outer-circle, and expanding-circle English speaking countries. Such a notion is used as a operational definition of this paper.

3. REASONS FOR USE OF BC MODEL IN ELT

As explored in the previous discussion, the blend of target culture and local culture is encouraged to be applied as a model of teaching English at any level of education on the grounds that it could facilitate SLLs to maximally acquire the target language. In reference to this issue, the following presents more detailed reasons for use of the BC model in teaching English.

It is evident that use of BC in the process of ELT confers a fruitful benefit for SLLs on the grounds that it facilitates them to make a link between the concept of the target culture and home culture which are directed to cope with the differences and similarities enabling them to enrich the understanding of the various cultural types. Such an understanding could establish the intercultural awareness on the part of SLLs. In this context, the term *intercultural awareness* refers to “gradually developing inner sense of the equality of cultures, an increased understanding of one’s own and other people’s cultures, and a positive interest in how both cultures are similar and different in some aspects (Tomlinson, 2001:5). The establishment of the intercultural awareness directly or indirectly generates SLLs to establish tolerance. Andrew in Erfani (2014: 320) states that ‘cultural awareness-raising actively seeks to engage SLLs and broaden their understanding, increase sensitivity and promote flexibility and tolerance of otherness and cultural diversity’. Added to this, having high intercultural awareness is of great importance for mediating the communication barriers due to the cultural differences. Willems (2002: 9) strongly urges that the attainment of languages serving as carriers of cultural identity in all its diversity generates intercultural awareness which could mind the world peace.

Use of blended culture in ELT is also rationalized by the issue of establishing local wisdom (moral and living values) on the part of SLLs. This suggests that having the intersection of both cultures in ELT enables them to generate the appreciation of their own culture and to beware of the moral values performed in the presented texts which directly or indirectly form a set of behaviors which do not violate the agreed norms. This is in line with the statement presented by Kachru and Smith (2008: 42-43) advocating that cultural values play an important role in determining what participants do in verbal and non verbal interactions

In terms of the content attainment, use of BC could facilitate SLLs to maximally gain the target language as they deal with a real context of social planes which are easily put in the long term memory space. The presence of the interrelated, thematic, and contextual information of the target language is easier to be captured, stored, and lateralized in a long term memory space. This suggests that importing culture both target and home culture facilitates SLLs to construct the frame of language use in contexts enabling them to conceptualize how language operates in real life.

4. HOW TO BLEND CULTURE IN ELT

The blend of the target culture and home culture employed in the process of English language teaching could be conducted in many ways. This paper confers at least four orientations of how to blend those cultures. They include material-orientation, learning-tasks-orientation, media-orientation, and assessment-orientation. The first orientation deals with the integration of the two types of cultures which are realized in the selection of materials presented in ELT practices. This means that English teachers or lecturers should include the target culture and home culture as the English materials. The determination of which culture serves as the matrix culture or the embedded culture depends on the types of the macro-language skills which are highlighted. For example, when they articulate on the productive language skills (speaking and writing), home culture could serve as the matrix culture (dominant culture) on the grounds that SLLs may activate their home culture as schematic knowledge to construct the texts. This relies on the fact that SLLs tend to be easier to generate the texts with the use of their schemata in the context of home culture. On the other hand, when English teachers or lecturers want to focus on receptive language skills (listening and reading), the target culture should be the matrix culture on the grounds that SLLs are triggered to decode the input from the target culture which is very fruitful to establish their knowledge of the target language. However, it should be noted that the

determination of the matrix culture and embedded culture should not only refer to the nature of the macro-language skills but also consider the characteristics of the SLLs themselves in order to meet their language backgrounds. This implies that it is possible to take the home culture as the matrix culture when English teachers or lecturers articulate on reading or listening when they realize that SLLs perform the insufficient English language proficiency as this could facilitate them to activate their prior knowledge to encounter the language tasks.

The second way of the blend of the two cultures can be conducted through the learning-task-orientation. This means that the English teachers or lecturers could integrate the target and home culture in designing learning tasks or activities which are provided for SLLs. For example, students are asked to do role plays which perform the social planes of the target culture and home culture when they are involved in speaking practices. Also, SLLs are assigned to deconstruct of the spoken or written texts which describe the social practices that occur in the target culture or home culture contexts with the use of English as the device of deconstructing the texts.

The blend of the target and home culture could be done when English teachers or lecturers use media to facilitate SLLs to easily understand the target language. In other words, the media used in the process of English language teaching and learning are generated from the social planes of the target and home culture which are relevant to the macro-language skills which are articulated by the English teachers or lecturers. For example, they could use the social planes of target culture in collaboration with home culture as the reference of deconstructing and constructing the texts when the English teachers or lecturers want to articulate spoken cycles (listening and speaking).

In the process of ELT, the assessment is one of the teaching activities which is aimed at seeking out the information whether or not the presented English materials could be well achieved by the SLLs. The assessment should be designed in reference to the context of the social planes of the target culture and home culture depending on the area of the assessment articulated. For example, when English teachers or lecturers want to focus on the written cycles, they are encouraged to select the texts used in the texts which are generated from the target culture and home culture context.

With regard to the above explanation above, the model of the blended culture could be done in reference to four practices, namely selecting materials, designing the learning tasks or activities, developing learning media, and designing the learning assessment. Those depend on the creativity of the English teachers or lecturers in blending the target culture and home culture. In relation to the four practices, the following present the examples of the model of blended culture in teaching reading focusing on the material-orientation.

5 EXAMPLES OF THE BLENDED CULTURE MODEL IN ELT

The teaching of reading is basically concerned with deconstructing the written texts with the use of three approaches, namely top-down processing, bottom-up processing, and interactive. The first approach deals with deconstructing the texts by looking at the general issue of the text to specific one. Margana (2015) states that top-down processing is a way of making sense of the text from schematic knowledge (external structure of language) to systemic knowledge (internal structure of language). On the other hand, bottom-up processing refers to making sense of texts which start from systemic knowledge to schematic knowledge. Interactive processing is defined as the collaboration of the top-down processing and bottom-up processing employed to deal with the meaning making of English texts.

With regard to the three types of approaches, the following presents the examples of use of

blended culture in teaching reading with the use of material-oriented.

Text 1

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome or **acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS)** is a disease of the human immune system caused by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). This condition progressively reduces the effectiveness of the immune system and leaves individuals susceptible to opportunistic infections and tumors. HIV is transmitted through direct contact of a mucous membrane or the bloodstream with a bodily fluid containing HIV, such as blood, semen, vaginal fluid, pre-seminal fluid, and breast milk. AIDS is now a pandemic which commonly exist in under developing countries as what happen in some Asian African countries. The transmission can involve anal, vaginal or oral sex, blood transfusion, contaminated hypodermic needles, exchange between mother and baby during pregnancy, childbirth, breastfeeding or other exposure to one of the above bodily fluids.

AIDS was first recognized by the U.S. Centres for Disease Control and Prevention in 1981 and its cause, HIV, identified in the early 1980s. A retrovirus, the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) was identified in 1983 as the pathogen responsible for the Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). AIDS is characterized by changes in the population of T-cell lymphocytes that play a key role in the immune defence system. In the infected individual, the virus causes a depletion of T-cells, called “T-helper cells”, which leaves these patients susceptible to opportunistic infections, and certain malignancies. Credit: CDC/ C. Goldsmith, P. Feorino, E. L. Palmer, W. R. McManus The AIDS pandemic can also be seen as several epidemics of separate subtypes; the major factors in its spread are sexual transmission and vertical transmission from mother to child at birth and through breast milk.

So far, there is currently no vaccine or cure. Antiretroviral treatment reduces both the mortality and the morbidity of HIV infection, but these drugs are expensive and routine access to antiretroviral medication is not available in all countries. Due to the difficulty in treating HIV infection, preventing infection is a key aim in controlling the AIDS pandemic, with health organizations promoting safe sex and needle-exchange programs in attempts to slow the spread of the virus.

Globally, an estimated 33.2 million people lived with HIV in 2007, including 2.5 million children. An estimated 2.5 million (range 1.8–4.1 million) people were newly infected in 2007, including 420,000 children. South & South East Asia are second worst affected; in 2007 this region contained an estimated 18% of all people living with AIDS, and an estimated 300,000 deaths from AIDS. In the United States, young African-American women are also at unusually high risk for HIV infection. This is due in part to a lack of information about AIDS and a perception that they are not vulnerable, as well as to limited access to health-care resources and a higher likelihood of sexual contact with at-risk male sexual partners. There are also geographic disparities in AIDS prevalence in the United States, where it is most common in rural areas and in the southern states, particularly in the Appalachian and Mississippi Delta regions and along the border with Mexico.

(Taken from <http://www.geronguide.com/gg/Acquired+Immunodeficiency+Syndrome>)

The above text shows one of the social planes which describes the nature of aids as one of the deadly diseases. The text is aimed at informing the danger, the origin, the nature, and the cases of AIDS which spread out in some countries including inner, outer, and expanding English speaking countries. In relation to this, SLLs should not be triggered to only deconstruct the text by articulating the systemic knowledge, namely the analysis of linguistic components such as the category of words, types of phrases, types of sentences, and the like. More importantly, SLLs are guided to make sense of the text which accentuates the communicative function of the text and the content of the texts as manifested in the use of the language. This suggests that SLLs should be encouraged to deal with learning through language and learning about language. The former is concerned with learning social plane that exists in the text with the use of language while the latter focuses on the analysis of texts articulating the language form.

In relation to the above text, the following presents the other text which takes the Indonesian context about AIDS which is aimed to lateralize SLLs’ understanding of texts.

Text 2

Indonesia's first case of HIV was reported in 1987 and between then and 2009, 3,492 people died from the disease. Of the 11,856 cases reported in 2008, 6,962 of them were people under 30 years of age, including 55 infants under 1 year old. There are a high number of concentrated cases among Indonesia's most at risk including injection drug users (IDUs), sex workers their partners and clients, homosexual men and infants who contract the disease through the womb or from being breast fed.

In the last 15 years, HIV/AIDS has become an epidemic in Indonesia. The highest concentration areas are Papua, Jakarta, East Java, West Java, Bali and Riau and all are considered to be zones that need immediate attention. Due to the increasing number of IDUs, the number of new infections has grown rapidly since 1999. Moreover, a generalized epidemic is already under way in the provinces of Papua and West Papua, where a population-based survey found an adult-prevalence rate of 2.4% in 2006. A whopping 48% of Papuans are unaware of HIV/AIDS, and the number of AIDS cases per 100,000 people in the two provinces is almost 20 times the national average. The percentage of people who reported being unaware of HIV/AIDS increases to 74% among uneducated populations in the region.

The epidemic in Indonesia is one of the fastest growing among HIV/AIDS in Asia. The epidemic of injecting drug use continues to be the primary mode of transmission, accounting for 59% of HIV infections, and heterosexual transmission accounted for 41% in 2006. According to the Indonesian Ministry of Health, recent surveys report that more than 40% of IDUs in Jakarta have tested positive for HIV, and about 13% tested positive in West Java. Many IDUs sell sex to finance their drug habits. Yet in 2005, 25% of IDUs in Bandung, Jakarta, and Medan said they had unprotected paid sex in the last 12 months.

The Indonesian archipelago stretches more than 3,000 miles along the Equator. Cultural practices and levels of urbanization have an impact on the HIV/AIDS epidemic. For instance, a culture of paid and "transactional" sex among young men and women aged 15 to 24 has been a driving factor in Papua. Among 15 to 24 year olds, HIV-prevalence rates were 3% in 2006, according to the Ministry of Health. Prevalence rates among sex workers in Papua's major urban areas ranged from 9% in Timika to 16% in Sorong in 2004.

Numerous factors put Indonesia in danger of a broader epidemic. Risky sexual behaviors are common. Only 54.7% of sex workers and 56.5% of men who have sex with men (MSM) use condoms consistently, and just 18.5 percent of IDUs consistently use both sterile needles and condoms, according to Indonesia's 2006 report to the United Nations General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS (UNGASS). Many IDUs are also sex workers or clients of sex workers, increasing the likelihood of HIV/AIDS spreading to the general population. Awareness of HIV status among at-risk populations is low. According to a 2004–2005 study cited in the UNGASS report, 18.1% of IDUs, 15.4% of MSM, 14.8% of sex workers, and 3.3% of clients of sex workers had received HIV testing in the previous 12 months and knew their test results. Stigma and discrimination persist and many people living with HIV hide their status for fear of losing their jobs, social status, and the support of their families and communities, thus decreasing the likelihood that they will receive proper treatment and increasing the chances of HIV spreading undetected.¹ (Taken from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HIV/AIDS_in_Indonesia)

The above text discusses the case of AIDS that occurs in Indonesia which is taken from the context of home culture aimed at fostering the understanding of the issue of AIDS as performed in Text 1. It represents one of the social planes which is found in the home culture that SLLs could find in real context which enables them to easily attain the content of the text as they have got the schematic knowledge from the previous text or other recourses which explore the case of AIDS as discussed in the text above.

6. CONCLUSION

In reference to the above discussions, it is evident that the integration of the target culture and local culture confers some convincing justifications on the grounds that the blended model used in the process of English language teaching and learning facilitate SLLs to lateralize use of the target language according to the social planes which describe real use of the target language

in various communication practices. Added to this, the utilization of the blended culture as a model of teaching could enhance SLLs to establish cultural awareness which is strongly required to gain the harmony of the lives of human beings in the global era.

In relation to the above statements, English teachers or lecturers are encouraged to utilize the blended model when they are involved in English language teaching and learning practices. The blend of the target and home culture can be conducted through material-orientation, learning-task-orientation, media-orientation, and assessment-orientation. Those four types of orientations could facilitate SLLs to acquire the target language since the success of the acquisition is constrained by the social cultural knowledge as one of the determinant factors.

REFERENCES

- Alptekin, C. (2002). Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 56(1), 57-64.
- Bada, E. (2000). Culture in ELT. *Cukurova University Journal of Social Sciences* Volume 6, 100-110.
- Bennett, J., Bennett, M., & Allen, W. (2003). *Developing intercultural competence in the language classroom. In culture as the core: Perspectives in second language learning*. New York: Information Age Publishing.
- Brown, D. H. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New York: Longman
- Byram, M., & Fleming, M. (1998). Introduction. In M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.), *Language learning in intercultural perspective: Approaches through drama and ethnography* (pp.1-10). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Erfani, S. M. (2014). Source culture, target culture or interculture? Iranian English language teachers' perception of culture. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, Vol.6 p.317-337.
- Genc, B. and Bada, E. (2005). Culture in language learning and teaching. *The Reading Matrix* Vol. 5, No. 1.
- Hedge, T. (2008). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Huda, M. E. (2013). Cultural Model of Classroom Instruction for ELT in Bangladesh. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, vol.3, No.1
- Jandt, F.E. (2003). *An introduction to intercultural communication: identities in a global community*. London: Sage Publication Inc.
- Kachru, Y. and Smith, L. E. (2008). *Culture, Contexts, and World Englishes*. New York: Routledge.
- Kramsch, C., & Sullivan, P. (1996). Appropriate pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), 199-212.
- Krasner, I. (1999). The role of culture in language teaching. *Dialog on language instruction*, 13 (1-2), 79-88.
- Liddicoat, A.J. (2002). Static and dynamic views of culture and intercultural language acquisition. *Babel*, 36(3), 4-11, 37.
- Margana (2009). Integrating culture into English teaching and learning process. *Kajian Linguistik dan Sastra*, Vol 21 No. 2 pp 123-129.
- Margana. (2012). Promoting schematic knowledge to English teachers of secondary school levels. *Proceedings on the International Seminar*. Salatiga: UKSW.
- Margana. (2013). Bringing Students' Culture in the Process of English Language Teaching and Learning. *Proceedings on the International Seminar*. Purwokerto: Universitas Muhammadiyah Purwokerto.

- Margana. (2015). Use of Sociocultural Knowledge in the Meaning Making of English Texts. *Proceedings on the First International Conference on Linguistics and Language Teaching*. Yogyakarta: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.
- Mesthrie, R.,J. Swann, A. Deumer & W. L. Leap. (2009). *Introducing Sociolinguistics*. Edinburgh: Edinburg University Press.
- Peterson, B. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: A guide to working with people from other culture*. New York: Intercultural Press.
- Siddiqie, S. A. (2011). Intercultural exposure through English language teaching: An analysis of an English language textbook in Bangladesh. *Journal of Pan-pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*,15(2), 109-127.
- Sysoyev, P. V. & Donelson L. R. (2002). Teaching cultural identity through modern language: Discourse as a marker of an individual's cultural identity. *Online documents* at URL <http://www.actr.org/JER/issue4/11.htm>, Retrieved on April 10,
- Tomlinson, B. (2001). " Seeing more between the lines.," *The Guardian Weekly*, 5(2), 21-27.
- Tulia, C. Z. C. et al. (2003). Integrating the coffee culture with the teaching of English. *PROFILE*Vol. 11, No. 2, Pages 27-42
- Turkan, S. and Celik, S. (2007). Integrating culture into EFL texts and classrooms: Suggested lesson plans. *Novitas-Royal: Research on Youth and Language*, Volume 1 Number 1, pp18-33.
- Wardhaugh. R. (2005). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*.Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers.
- Willems, G. M. (2002). *Guide for the development of Language Education Policies in Europe – From Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education: Reference Study*. Council of Europe, Strasbourg: Language Policy Division, Directorate of School, Out-of-School and Higher Education, DGIV.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HIV/AIDS_in_Indonesia. Retrieved on June 20, 2015.
- <http://www.geronguide.com/gg/Acquired+Immunodeficiency+Syndrome>. Retrieved on June 5, 2015.

GENDER PREFERENCES IN USING ENGLISH ADJECTIVE WORDS IN DESCRIPTIVE TEXT

Nida Husna

1 INTRODUCTION

The use of English words including how they are put together to get meaningful sentence, becomes one part of the language that is very crucial to study. It is not a matter of the differences in vocabulary, but also how the words in English should be used properly because each word has its own identity and tendency to interpret (Ahearn, 2001). Each profession, occasion, genre or discourse, age group, generation, particular work or its person has their own 'taste' in using the words that they use to identify themselves within community of practice (Bakhtin, 2010). Therefore, the assumptions that male and female use the words differently, both in oral and written language, is difficult to reject.

Since the era of feminism in 1970s, even though the border of how words are used differently between male and female become more unclear, the differences of word choice still persist as part of the culture behavior or social influence (Carli, 1990). Therefore, the issue of male and Female differences in using the language still becomes an interesting topic of study as part in human community and culture. There were lots of research related to the varieties of language use and differences between male and female (Carli, 1990). Many other studies were also carried out to find out how differ or how similar the use of the words between male and female, and also to analyze how both gender use the words in the community of practice (Jespersen, 1922, 2013; Lakoff, 1975; Aries, 1996; McElhinny, 2003).

The assumptions about women talk more than men do probably comes from the politeness way in sending their message (Brown, 1980). To utter something in a well manner usually needs more words than when we have to say our idea directly. When we try to save our interlocutors' face or to avoid hurting their feeling, we choose the word carefully and sometime we add 'opening words' to soften our intention (Brown, 1990). However, of course it is still debatable and needs a comprehensive research to prove it.

Within a cross-gender conversation, the miscommunication can happen because each gender has different point of view in seeing the same thing. Even though the gender differences should not be viewed as language difference when it is used in the community, many people still concern about this certain gender should speak differently with other type of gender in term of choosing the dictions (Brown, 1990). The use of language as a medium between people as the agents of a culture and society which very dynamic, happen simultaneously and sequentially (Elinor, 1996). Therefore, the tendency of choosing different word to describe the same topic or of using different term for the same thing still become an interesting part in social communication (Maltz & Borker, 2012), because language is also used to build different social orders and also to show different identity within the community, including to show different gender.

The aim of this study is to see whether there are any similarities or difference between male and female students in using English adjective words in their descriptive writing while English is not their first language. Descriptive writing is chosen because the need of uniformity for the topic and the chance in using adjective is quite high, however, of course that will depend on the focus of the topic given. Another reason in using descriptive text in this study is to see

whether each participant see the same topic and come out with different perspectives. The reason of their chosen adjective will also be valuable information about the psychological background of the similarities or differences probabilities.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In examining the effect of gender stereotyping in children's literature from feminist language differential and framework, Turner-Bowker (1996) tried to see the appearance of characters in title, pictures, and central roles from thirty books from 1984 to 1994. Even though the study does not directly discuss about the use of the language between male and female, it shows how the stereotype on gender prevail quite long in human culture. The results show how male appearance has a greater number than female in titles and pictures, but there is no difference in role. The writer argued that all this time the stereotype on gender has been oversimplified and exaggerated that creates distinction which based on her observation it is not as actually happening. She also shows in her study that even though the male are described as more potent, active, and of course masculine, the adjectives that are used to described for females are more positively evaluated than those of male. She also stated that language is used to develop and maintain gender categories in the community.

Skelton and Hobbs (1999) in their study show that gender is not always a case that causes different speech production between male and female. The study compared the language use by male and female doctors during the consultation. It was revealed that the numbers of words spoken by male doctors and females doctors are not differ significantly. However, this study shows that male doctors' ability in delivering the message is still below the female counterparts as a good communicator.

Research or study on gender and its relation to language or vice versa was created from how the member of societies articulated their identities (McConnel-Ginet, 2003). The societies or communities shared their endeavor and interest using the language as the medium of communication and also use the language to express their preferred identities. The studies in previous era has shown how male's and female's way of speech can be very different in different area even though they share the same gender (Lakoff, 1975; Keenan, 1989). The analysis of the nature of the context and the role of the speakers versus the power that dominates becomes a critical issues within the research on the relation of language and gender (Bucholtz, 2003), where the contexts are given their proper meaning within the discourse.

The studies on language and gender have been done by many researchers with various focus of study. Frazer (1989), in her study on the relation between gender and social economic status found that people within a community are more empowered when they relate their talk with their class identity and their class relation with their counterpart. She also stated that it is important to care about social relation, including class, race, gender, and generation when we interact within a community. Another study which related language, gender, and socio economic status was done by Bilaniuk (2003) where the researcher tried to find out the language use was affected by the new laws in language and the extreme changes in socioeconomic condition in Ukraine. According to the result of the study, it is found that men are less critical of the Ukrainian language than women where the women seems received more respect when they use Russian rather than using Ukrainian because there is a connotation that Russian is more prestigious than Ukrainian.

The study on writing style gives some evidence that somehow male and female writing is more alike rather than different from each other (Rubin & Greene, 1992). The differences between both genders were more on mode of discourse. However, in predicting directions they

were found to dissimilar where the female use the exclamation points far more often than the male does and the female also can acknowledge the legitimacy of opposing points of view more than the male can (Rubin & Greene, 1992).

3. METHODOLOGY

Triangulation design as one of Mixed-methods approaches will be used in this study because the need to elaborate on the statistical result using qualitative methods by confirming and the explanation given by the participant in using the adjective words. 15 male and 15 female students in English Education Department will become the participants. Their age is between 20 to 22 years old. They are asked to write a descriptive text about the same topic. Each of them is required to write about 300 words. The equality on their English ability in vocabulary will be based on their passing grade on vocabulary subjects. The interview with the participants will be conducted after the calculation.

7 of male students come from Jakarta and around while the rest of them come from other provinces in Indonesia. 11 female students are from Jakarta while the rest four are from other provinces. Those who come from Jakarta mostly have been living in Jakarta and its surrounding area for more than ten years, while the rest mostly have been living in Jakarta less than three years.

This study is a pilot project to see the gender differences in using English lexical. A number of male and female students of fifth semester, in English Education Department, at faculty of Tarbiyah and Teachers Training, State Islamic University Jakarta were chosen to become the participants. Those students are asked to write a descriptive text about Ciputat and its traffic. Each of them is required to write between 250 to 300 words. The English writing ability of those students is on the same level, based on their performance in the classroom and their GPAs.

Their descriptive texts then are collected based on writer's gender. After saving them in different plain text format file, each of them then analyzed using AntCont software to get the word list and the concordance of the adjectives. To support the argument, BNC and COCA will be used as the corpus based references. The unstructured interview is done after the writing task being analyzed as an additional support for the explanation to find out their reason in using or not to use the adjective words.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

By using the AntConc software to count the number of words that are used by male and female students, the result is as follow:

	Types	Token
Male	705	2234
Female	650	2230

Table 1. Number of word and its usage

From the table, it can be seen that the male students use more words than females do, even though the difference is not very significant. From the use of the words it can also be seen that the male students is outnumber the female students. The stereotype that saying women produced more words however can be said as incorrect if this data is presented. Of course it is not directly proper to say that the male students are more talkative than the female ones because they differ only by three token. Meanwhile, in the use of the words of the lexical variation, male

also outnumber the female, means that the male students can use more different words than female to express the same topic. The topic chosen can be one factor that influenced the use of the language. The other factors are the experience and background knowledge of the students about the topic itself.

The result of the unstructured interview shows that 10 male students or 66% of the males total number and 45% or 7 female students concern more about the condition including giving some ideas voluntarily to ease the bad traffic, while the rest said that it is quite alright as a development city but they hope the government pay attention more. The less number of female who put more attention about traffic can be derived from their less exposure in such situation (WHO, 2001)

The not very significant difference in using the words is also can be seen from the use of the adjective between male and female students. The results show that the use of the adjective between male and female students is not far different from each other. After being tabulated, the number of adjective being by female is 0,09/token while it is 0,08/token by the males, so the difference is only 0,01/token, means that in this case both genders use more or less the same number adjectives in their writing. To be precise, it can be seen from the variation and the distribution of the adjectives used by both genders.

The result of the top ten adjectives that are used by male and female students in describing Ciputat and its traffic is as follow:

Male	Hit	Female	Hit
Public	16	Public	11
Crowded	8	Hot	8
Bad	7	Long	8
High	7	Bad	6
Main	5	Big	6
Islamic	4	Jammed	5
Near	4	Islamic	4
Private	4	Busy	3
Big	3	Greatest	3
Difficult	2	Little	3

Table 2. Number of Adjectives

Both male and female students use the word *publicas* the most used adjective in their writing and 95% the word is followed by the word “transportation”. It is understood because one of the main problems in the topic area is the public transportation that does not obey the road regulation.

The male students’ concern more on the condition or the situation and condition is shown by choosing the word *crowded* as the second most used adjective, with the 8 hits. Meanwhile, there are only two from eight female students that use the word *crowded* in their writing.

The word *crowded* is mostly used by male and female students to describe the condition of the area related to its traffic. The very few of using the word *crowded* by female is however is not supported by the result from corpus that shows that it is mostly female who use the word

crowded. The word *crowded* appears almost 24 times per million words for female compared to male's that only show 17 times per million words.

Based on the interview, the females concern more about unease feeling or complaining when they use the word *crowded*. While the males tend use the word *crowded* to describe the situation.

Female students used the word *hot* as their second most used adjective. It can be concluded from their response in the interview that they concern more about the weather or climate in the area.

That it is female who use the word *hot* more than the male is supported by the corpus result. Female use the word *hot* for about 85 times per million words, while male use the word *hot* for about 56 times. It shows the difference is quite significant just like the result from AntCont concordance where in male students' writing it appears only once.

According to BNC result, the word *hot* is used to show various things, including expressing the sexual appearance or describing people.

From both adjectives chosen, it seems that both male and females students express their feeling of the uncomfortable condition in different focus of concern. Male students do not really pay attention to the weather which is quite abstract as the females students do. They concern more on the reality that they can see directly.

The females tend to use the word *hot* and *crowded* to express their uncomfortable feeling that is influenced by the weather, as a term of complaining. However, even though they complain for reasons, it is still need further research to state that women complain more than men (Wolfe & Powell, 2009).

The third adjectives are different. The male students use *bad* 7 times to describe the mostly about traffic, followed by the condition, then air. The difference use of word *bad* with the female differs only by one. Female students use the adjective *bad* 6 times to describe the same thing as the male students describe.

The word *bad* is used on its own as the adjective or after adverb and to modify nouns. Both of group use the word *bad* in almost very same times and usage but different level of priority. It is quite different with the word *hot* which only used once by male students but becomes the second most used adjective in female.

Even though the difference shows that the use of the word *bad* between male and female is not significant, the result from the corpus is quite different. It is the female who use the word *bad* more than the male, it can be seen from the female frequency in using the word *bad*, it is 20 times higher than the male.

The third adjective in female is the word *long* that appears 8 times in female students' writing. Just like the word *hot*, the word *long* also appears only once in male students' writing.

The word *long* is used to describe the line of cars or vehicles in queuing and also to describe the time. The reason when the students used the word *long* is mostly because they want to feel they unhappy feeling due to the traffic. The other males who do not use the word *long* stated that they consider that the condition is quite common and acceptable for a growing city.

The striking difference in using the word *long* is not very well supported by the result from the corpus. There is still some differences in the use of the word *long* in per million words, but the difference is not as high as the result of the AntCont Concordance.

The fourth adjective that is used by the male students most is the word *high*. It has 7 hits just like the word *bad*. While the female students positioned the word *bad* as the fourth most used adjective in their writing. The female students also use the word *high*, but the frequency of

its appearance is much lower from the male students. The use of the word *high* is quite varied. It is used mostly as modifier to modify tense of emotion, temperature, number of population, intensity of traffic, and fare. It seems that the word *high* is male's word. That conclusion is supported by the data from BNC in picture 10 which shows the frequency of male in using the word *high* is 50.65 times per million words, whereas the frequency of female in using the word *high* is 37.22 time per million words.

The fifth adjective used by male students is the *main* which appears 5 times in their writing. The word *main* also appears in female students' writing for 4 times.

It cannot be said that the word *main* belongs to male's word because the difference is very slight. The word *main* is used modifier mostly for the word road, followed by street, gate, point, and region. The article *the* is used as the most preceding word in front of the word *main*.

While the data from the students' writing show that the use of the word *main* is almost similar for both male and female students, the result from the corpus shows that the frequency of using the word *main* in male has a significance difference with female's frequency in using the word *main*. The male use the word main for almost 54 times per million words, while in female's it is 20 times lower.

In female's writing, the fifth adjective is *big*. The word *big* also appears in male's top ten adjective, but at ninth position with 3 hits, while it has 6 hits in female's writing. All the word *big* in those writing is used as the modifier for the noun such as city, road, building, and also to describe vehicles.

The not very significant different of the usage of the word *big* is also shown by the result from BNC, where the female use big almost 41 times per million words, and while male use it 37 times per million words.

There is still another adjective word that is used by both male and female students in different degree of using but still within the top ten list, *Islamic*, that is used to modify the name of the university in that area. The other adjective, such as *near*, *busy* and *little* are also used by both but in different level. Meanwhile, *jammed* and *greatest* are only used by female students, as the words *private* and *difficult* that only appear in male's writing.

5. CONCLUSION

From the finding it can be concluded that the adjective word choice between male and female students in descriptive writing about Ciputat and its traffic is not significantly different. The differences that still appear are not very significant in word choice level, and it can be concluded that they might be derived from different perspective because of the both gender and experience.

Whilst this study was done where English is not a mother tongue and mostly not their second language, added the reason why some of the result cannot meet the BNC's or COCA's results. The reality that there are some adjectives that the differences are quite obvious for some extent cannot be used as a conclusion that this is male's word and that is female's word will require more comprehensive data.

The result cannot be used as a general understanding for the data obtained is very limited, both in number of participants and number of writing. As a pilot study, this preliminary research can be a starting point to look further of both similarity and differences between male and female in using the language.

REFERENCES

- Abu-Haidar, F. (1995). Dominance and communicative incompetence: The speech habits of a group of 8-11-year-old boys in a Lebanese rural community. *Language and gender: Interdisciplinary perspectives*, 181-193.
- Ahearn, L. M. (2001). Language and agency. *Annual Review Anthropology*, 109-137.
- Aries, E. (1996). *Men and women in interaction: reconsidering the differences*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (2010). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. . Texas: University of Texas Press, .
- Barrett, R. (1999). Indexing polyphonous identity in the speech of African American drag queens. *Reinventing identities: The gendered self in discourse* , 313-331.
- Bilaniuk, L. (2003). Gender, language attitudes, and language status in Ukraine. *Language in Society, Vol. 32, No. 1* , 47-78.
- Bodine, A. (1975). Sex differentiation in language. *Language and sex: Difference and dominance*, 130-151.
- Brown, P. (1980). How and why are women more polite: Some evidence from a Mayan community. *Women and language in literature and society*, 111-136.
- Brown, P. (1990). Gender, politeness, and confrontation in Tenejapa. *Discourse Processes 13, (1)*, 123-141.
- Bucholtz, M. (2003). Theories of discourse as theories of gender: Discourse analysis in language and gender studies. In J. Holmes, & M. Meyerhoff, *The handbook of language and gender* (pp. 43-68). Maiden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Carli, L. L. (1990). Gender, Language, and Influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 931-941.
- Elinor, O. (1996). Linguistic resources for socializing humanity. In J. J. Gumperz, & S. Levinson, *Rethinking linguistic relativity* (pp. 407-437). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Frazer, E. (1989). Feminist talk and talking about feminism: Teenage girls' discourses of gender. *Oxford Review of Education, Vol. 15, No. 3, Gender and Education: Current Issues*, 281-290.
- Haeri, N. (2000). Form and ideology: Arabic sociolinguistics and beyond. *Annual Review of Anthropology* , 61-87.
- Health, D. o. (2001). *Gender and road traffic injuries*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Ibrahim, M. H. (1986). Standard and prestige language: a problem in Arabic sociolinguistics. *Anthropological linguistics*, 115-126.
- Ide, S. (1990). How and why do women speak more politely in Japanese. *Aspects of Japanese women's language* , 63-79.
- Jespersen, O. (1922, 2013). *Language: its nature and development*.. Routledge.
- Keenan, E. (. (1989). Norm-makers, norm-breakers: Uses of speech by men and women in a Malagasy community. In R. Bauman, & J. Sherzer, *Exploration in the ethnography of speaking, 2nd Edn* (pp. 124-143). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lakoff, R. (1973). Language and Woman's Place. *Language in Society*, 45-80.
- Lakoff, R. (1975). Language and Woman's Place. *Language in Society*, 45-80.
- Maltz, D. N., & Borker, R. A. (2012). A Cultural Approach to Male-Female Miscommunication. In L. Monaghan, J. E. Goodman, & J. M. Robinson, *A Cultural Approach to Interpersonal Communication: Essential Readings* (pp. 196-216). West Sussex: Wiley & Blackwell.
- McConnel-Ginet, S. (2003). "Whaf s in a name?" Social labeling and gender practices. In J. Holmes, & M. Meyerhoff, *The handbook of language and gender* (pp. 69-97). Maiden: Blackwell Publishing.
- McElhinny, B. (2003). Theorizing gender in sociolinguistic and linguistic anthropology. In J. Holmes, & M. Meyerhoff, *The handbook of language and gender* (pp. 21-42). Maiden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Rubin, D. L., & Greene, K. (1992). Gender-typical style in written language. *Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. 26, No. 1* , 7-40.

- Skelton, J. R., & Hobbs, F. D. (1999). Descriptive Study of Cooperative Language in Primary Care Consultations by Male and Female Doctors. *BMJ* 318, 576-579.
- Tanaka, I. (2004). *Gender, language and culture: A study of Japanese television interview discourse*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Triyono, S. (2012). Satuan lingual penanda gender. *Jurnal Humaniora* 15 (3) , 317-326.
- Turner-Bowker, D. M. (1996). Gender Stereotyped Descriptors in Children's Picture Books: Does "Curious Jane" Exist in the Literature? . *Sex Role* 35, 461-488.
- Wolfe, J., & Powell, E. (2009). Gender and expressions of dissatisfaction: A study of complaining in mixed-gendered student work groups. *Women and Language* 29, no. 2 .

THE EFFECTS OF COMPUTER-BASED PEER REVIEW AND ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION ON THE TENTH GRADER'S WRITING COMPETENCY

I Nyoman Adi Jaya Putra

ajp_undiksha@yahoo.com

I Wayan Sucipto

citoubud@gmail.com

Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha

Singaraja, Bali

Abstract

This study aims at finding out whether or not: (1) there is a significant effect of computer-based peer review on the students' writing competency, (2) there is an interactional effect between computer-based peer review and achievement motivation on the students' writing competency, (3) there is a significant difference of writing competency between high achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review and high achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy, and (4) there is significant difference of writing competency between low achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review and low achievement motivated students taught by implementing conventional strategy. The subjects of the study were the tenth grade students of SMAN 1 UBUD in the academic year 2013/2014. Random sampling technique was used to gain a total number of 131 students as the samples. The design of this study was a 2x2 factorial design. The instruments for collecting data were writing competency test and achievement motivation questionnaire. The data analysis was conducted quantitatively by using two-way Anova, and was continued with post-hoc testing of Tukey test. The findings of the study showed the followings. (1) There was a significant different effect between computer-based peer review and conventional strategy on students' writing competency. The students' writing competency treated by using computer-based peer review was better than the students treated by using conventional strategy. (2) There was a significant interactional effect between teaching strategy (computer-based peer review and conventional strategy) and the students' achievement motivation towards the students' writing competency. (3) There was a significant difference in the writing competency between high achievement-motivated students' treated by implementing computer-based peer review and high achievement-motivated student treated by using conventional strategy. High achievement-motivated students' treated with computer-based peer review achieved better than high achievement-motivated students treated with conventional strategy. (4) There was a significant difference in the writing competency between low achievement-motivated students' treated by computer-based peer review and low achievement-motivated students' treated by conventional strategy. Low achievement-motivated students' treated by computer-based peer review achieved better than low achievement-motivated students treated by conventional strategy.

Keywords: *computer-based, peer review, writing competency*

1 INTRODUCTION

Writing is a complex skill that elaborates the process of thinking, feeling, reading, sharing, and finally producing the writing (Green, 1990). It is not only a tool for expressing ideas, thoughts, and feeling to others, but also a form of a communication that enables people to communicate effectively and clearly in written form. Teachers are expected to always be creative and innovative in implementing teaching strategies in order to help their students improve their competency in writing. Langan (2001) defines several specific writing skills which are considered as the overall aspects covered in writing such as graphical or visual skills, grammatical skills, expressive skills and stylistic skills, rhetorical skills, and organizational

skills. Graphical or visual skill refers to the spelling, punctuation, and capitalization of the target language. The writers have to consider the spelling and the appropriate use of punctuation and capitalization in their writing. Grammatical skill refers to the variety of sentence pattern to construct the ideas in the written text. Expressive and stylistic skills are to express the meaning in a variety of styles such as selecting the vocabulary. Rhetorical skills refer to the ability to master linguistic cohesion devices such as connectives, reference word, ellipsis, etc. While organizational skills focus on the arrangement of ideas included in the text.

Related to process approach implemented in writing class, Langan (2001) states that there are four basic principles of effective writing. They are: (1) Starting with a clearly stated point, (2) Providing logical, detailed support for the point, (3) Organizing and connecting the supporting material, and (4) Revising and editing to make effective sentences and error-free piece of writing. Regarding these principles, Langan (2001) further suggests the following steps in writing, namely *free-writing*, *organizing*, *revising*, and *editing*. Free writing will help the students to break through a mental block, in which mistakes are neglected in the process of discovering the essence of writing. Since the students do not have to worry about mistakes, they can focus on discovering what they want to say about a subject. As the ideas and supporting details are generated from the major to the minor one, it is the time to organize them by choosing the main subject and ideas that they want to keep and develop the ideas they want to use to make sense out toward the reader. The last phase of writing before the final draft is finished is editing and revising the draft based on the feedback gained in the process of writing to make changes and improvement to write the final paper. Self-evaluation and peer editing are required in the process of editing before they are ready to revise the drafts (cf. Young, 1998).

Based on an observation and personal communication with the teacher and also the students of SMAN 1 Ubud Gianyar Bali, it was found that the teacher started the writing activity by giving a topic to the students, asking them to write based on the topic, collecting their writing, giving feedback and comments, and finally giving final score. It seems that the teacher mostly spend his teaching time in a conventional way. It is conventional since the activity is mostly dominated by the teacher explaining what he wants to achieve. In this case, the teaching learning activity is centered on the teacher (or teacher-centered). Such an activity is far from being innovative and it tends to be boring. In this technology era, this method should be avoided to implement.

Around 80% of the students under observation said that they hesitated to ask their teacher about the correction or feedback they received. In fact, they needed their teacher to clarify the mistakes they have done, however, they said that they hesitated and were not brave enough to do it. Such clarification is very crucial to be used as a basis for the students to make revision in order to improve the quality of their writing. They tended to ask their peer for help outside the classroom. Peers help them to improve their understanding about something in a better atmosphere (cf. Putra, 2005; Putra, 2010). Peers help learners to reduce their anxiety. Such a reduction results in the development of cognitive and intellectual skill in improving knowledge and skills (Falchikov, 2001).

Nowadays, education is getting more and more developed regarding the advancement of technology in the process of teaching and learning. Teachers need to apply creative and innovative strategies to catch the student's attention in learning so as not to make them bored easily. One of the ways is using technology. Teachers have to be able to create different learning atmosphere which makes their students feel involved and excited to the lesson. The use of technology is very popular amongst the young language learners. Computer technology is one of the learning tools that can help the students and teachers to access information and facilitate

the learning of English (Bitter, 2009). In this time, computer assisted language learning which incorporates computer technology and English writing has highly been applied in education field. Incorporating computer technology into writing is crucial because the students live in the world of electronic text, and most of them spend their time reading and writing on the computer rather than writing in the paper or reading the book.

To minimize the weak points of traditional conventional way of teaching writing, here the writer proposed a technology-based teaching activities. The writing activity was called computer-based peer review using track changes. Peer review is referred to as peer editing, peer assessment, or peer response that has become an important learning strategy (cf. Putra, 2010). Peer review allows the students to interact with peers by providing comments, mark, and review on other's writing, as well as providing a space for discussion. Regarding the development of the computer assisted language learning, the combination of peer and teacher review and computer technology into writing has become an innovative and effective strategy for increasing the student's motivation and achievement in writing. Computer-based peer review was used to enable the students to complete the assignments and understand their strengths and weaknesses, so they could think and correct it for the future assignment. In conducting peer review, the students were given knowledge of writing mechanism, the procedure to use track changes, as well as mechanism in scoring the writing. The process was started with practicing to write a piece of writing in a form of small paragraph. They had to write it on a computer. In this process, the students made a group of 3-4 members each. Every member of a group reviewed each of the group member's writing. One writing may be reviewed by 2-3 students. This process was done several times to make sure that the students understood the procedure of writing, reviewing and also scoring. The teacher taught the students the steps to use track changes. The students brought their own laptop to the classroom. They started to write and review using track changes. In the process of writing using computer, high achievement motivated students used to ask their teacher for feedback concerning the mistakes they had done meanwhile the low achievement motivated students only worked as they could. In the process of reviewing, high achievement motivated students often confirm the teacher before they gave some mark to his/her peer's work, whereas, the low achievement motivated students often marked it without confirming to the teacher first, so that the teacher needed to be responsive to them.

In order to make it clear, Table 1 shows the comparison between computer-based peer review using track changes and conventional method.

Table 1 Table of Comparison

No	Computer-based peer review using track changes	Conventional Method
1.	Provides the students to do peer review not only at school, but also outside of school since the activity can be done anywhere, as long as there is a computer set or laptop.	The teachers do the review of all the students' work. It will cost a lot of energy and time to review all of it.
2.	Provides the students with collaborative review in which many students can be involved in reviewing his/her friends' work.	Only done by the teacher.
3.	Provides the students with authentic review tools to erase, change, and giving a comment.	The review is done manually by the teacher.
4.	Reduce the use of paper (paperless).	Use many papers .
5.	Students-centered .	Teacher-centered.

Writing and motivation are closely related. Through integrating the use of technology, the students are able to enjoy their writing while they are deliberately motivated to write and finally their writing competency is impacted. Simply, computer-based peer review using track changes provides a comfortable situation which motivates students to write. The more students are motivated, the better their writing will be. Fairly, students with high achievement motivation tend to get success much easier than the low motivated students (cf. Utami, 2010). It is because students with high achievement motivation know very well what to do and how to get the goal. Moreover, computer-based peer review using track changes is considered to be a great teaching method. It had been proven that computer-based peer review using track changes was fun and effective to solve writing problem. Therefore, it is hypothesized that there is a significant difference on writing competency between high motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and treated by using conventional method. Low achiever students are commonly assumed to have low motivation in learning. There are many evidences that low motivated students are less innovative and irresponsible toward the targeted goal. One of the causes is the teacher's choice of the teaching method or strategy. Computer-based peer review using track changes is fun and effective to solve writing problem. Compared with that of conventional method, computer-based peer review using track changes offers much more fun. This is the reason why this research was focused on finding out the effect of computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on the students' writing competency.

This study aims at finding out whether or not: 1) there is a significant effect of computer-based peer review using track changes on students' writing competency, 2) there is an interactional effect between computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on students' writing competency, 3) there is a significant difference of writing competency between high achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and high achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy, and 4) there is significant difference of writing competency between low achievement motivated students taught by implementing computer-based peer review using track changes and low achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy.

2. METHOD

The design of this study was a *2x2 factorial design*. The subjects of this study were categorized into four different groups: (1) the group of students who were treated by applying computer-based peer-review using track changes (A1), (2) the group of students who were treated with the implementation of conventional strategy (A2), (3) the group of students with high achievement motivation (B1), (4) the group of students with low achievement motivation (B2), (5) the group of high achievement-motivated students, who were treated with computer-based peer-review using track changes (A1B1), (6) The group of low achievement motivated students who were treated by computer-based peer review using track changes (A1B2), (7) the group of high achievement-motivated students, who were treated by conventional strategy (A2B1), and (8) the group of low achievement motivated students who were treated by conventional strategy (A2B2).

The tenth grade students of SMAN 1 UBUD of Gianyar Bali were assigned as the subjects of the study. The population consisted of eight classes, from which four classes were taken as the samples of this study. Random sampling technique was used to gain a number of 131 students as the samples. The samples were divided into four cells of treatment. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The instruments for collecting quantitative data were

writing competency test and achievement motivation questionnaire, whereas the instrument for collecting qualitative data was anecdotal notes. The quantitative data were analyzed by using two-way Anova, which was continued by applying post-hoc test with Tukey test. Before the analysis was done, pre-requisite testing was conducted to make sure that the data gained were normal and homogeneous. While the qualitative data were analyzed by transcribing, analyzing, and interpreting the data.

2. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The effect of the treatments (computer-based peer review using track changes and conventional strategy) on the students' writing competency.

The first statistical analysis concerning the effect of the treatments (computer-based peer review using track changes and conventional strategy) on the students' writing competency showed the value of F_A observed = 175.694 and significant level (sig) is 0.00. It means that the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and the students taught by using conventional strategy was rejected, since the significant value obtained from SPSS calculation was lower than 0.05. The finding concludes that there was significant effect of the writing competency of students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and students taught by using conventional strategy. The students taught using computer-based peer review using track changes obtained higher score 84.44 as is compared to those taught conventionally that is 70.90.

The result of the first analysis showed that computer-based peer review using track changes was successfully implemented in English classes to improve the students' writing competency. Computer-based peer review using track changes is superior to conventional review. Conventional review means the review which is done by the teacher. In this study, conventional review is referred to as assessing the students' writing by giving mark and feedback without doing class conference to clarify the feedback. The teacher had certain criteria in giving mark on the students' writing, however, did not give chance for students to know that they could improve their writing through discussion regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the writing. Peer review, on the contrary, has an important role to help the students to become more autonomous, responsible, and involved in classroom activities (cf. Falchikov, 2001; Yang, 2010). Since the teacher set the criteria of assessment, it encourages the students to think critically rather than seeing the mark which refers they are knowledgeable with the assessment criteria used to evaluate the assignments. Feedback is very important to involve the students through communication with other students. The interview with the students who were treated by implementing computer-based peer review using track changes in this study indicated that they like this treatment better than conventional review because it opens wide chance for them to communicate the ideas and elaborate them through feedback given from their peer as well as the teacher. This might be the reason why conventional review could not improve the students' writing competency as what computer-based peer review using track changes could do.

3.2 The interactional effect between computer-based peer review and achievement motivation on the students' writing competency.

The second statistical analysis concerning the significant interaction between the teaching strategies used, i.e., computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on the students' writing competency showed the value of $F_{(A \times B)}$ = 4.329 and Sig = 0.041. Sig value was lower than 0.05, which means that the null hypothesis (H_0) which states

that there was no interactional effect of computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on the students writing competency was rejected. The students with high achievement motivation have such characteristics as (1) Having orientation to success, (2) Being innovative, (3) Being responsive toward feedback, and (4) Being autonomous and responsible learners (cf. Sadirman, 2012). Computer-based peer review using track changes is designed to involve all students in every single activity promoted in the assessment. However, getting them involved and comprehended the instruments used in the treatment was not an easy matter. As they were all beginner learners and still needed much attention on basic English principles, the researcher carefully asserted computer-based peer review using track changes as the treatment in writing class not to make them feel more at ease in learning English.

Some first sessions were spent on familiarizing the students to get used to assessing their peer's work in their writing activity. Examples of essays were used as parts of the exercise in peer reviewing to see the strengths and the weaknesses of the work. The students needed to study the criteria and the indicators of good writing before they are ready to review and assess their peer writing. The students were given examples of uniting of each genre to be analyzed. They started by looking at the criteria and the indicators while reading the peer's work analyzing the aspects that should be noticed. This activity was done several times until they were ready with treatment sessions, which required them to write descriptive, narrative, and news items essays. These writing tasks absolutely require the students with high orientation to success since they are very responsive toward any opportunities or any task to attain excellent achievement. Meanwhile, for students with low achievement motivation, who anticipate failure more than success, will find these steps somewhat discouraging. Low achievement-motivated students will not take any risk to fail. Since they are afraid of making mistakes, they do not have high confidence in doing computer-based peer review using track changes. It is based on the assumption that their peer would assess them unfairly. What in their mind is their peer is as unconfident as they are, or even as not capable as they are. Based on the record of the anecdotal notes, it was found out that low achievement-motivated students tended to be afraid of taking any risks to do failure in peer review. They were not confident as their works were assessed by their friends—they did not believe that their peer would do the assessment well.

High achievement-motivated students were very innovative, the most required characteristic in doing peer review. The students found a brief and efficient way in assessing their peer's work. They evaluate each other's work by giving comments and scoring their peers' work. The students are learning from each other as they compete as a feedback. Hence, the students gain independence and creativity. The students find a new way of learning to write as they need to learn about the assessment criteria in reviewing their peer's work. Low achievement-motivated students who are not as innovative as the high achievement-motivated student will find it difficult, and as they anticipate the failure more, they will not have willingness to do peer review since they are afraid of making failure. Though they are asked to do peer review but do this insincerely, it will not be effective in improving the students' writing competency. The students stated that they were not able to give comments and scoring their peer's work well. They were afraid that their comments and score were not appropriate based on the criteria of writing and the writing assessment they could not find the brief and efficient way in doing peer review.

Being responsive toward the feedback is also a strong point of high achievement-motivated students. The students react positively toward whatever feedback given from their peer. The positive reaction toward the feedback will contribute to the improvement of the students' writing competency. High achievement-motivated students will anticipate all the weaknesses

they found in their paper by doing action immediately soon after feedback is obtained from their peer. This will create positive competition, which leads to the improvement of the students' writing competency. The students with great motivation show great enthusiasm on the tasks given to them as they are motivated in learning by looking at the mistakes and the feedback from their peer. From the interview with the students, it was found that high achievement-motivated students felt enthusiastic waiting for the feedback from their peer. They wanted to know which part of the writing they should revise and pay attention more. Whereas, low achievement-motivated students were not only discouraged to see the result of peer review but were also reluctant to look at the feedback given—which means that they needed to check and review their work again.

Peer review provides autonomous learning, which is suitable with high achievement motivated students. The students gain independence by reacting immediately to the feedback by asking the teacher about the things they do not understand, reading related books, articles, news that may help them complete their task perfectly. Obtaining oral and written feedback from class conference will help them to be more careful in underlining each aspect of their writing that needed to revise. This process continues from the first draft to the completion of final paper. Meanwhile, low achievement-motivated students will hardly do those responsibilities independently. This fact happened during the study where high achievement-motivated students started working by exploring their prior knowledge while developing them through reading related sources, i.e. books, internet, friends, reacting to the oral and written feedback immediately, and accomplishing the tasks perfectly. Whereas, low achievement motivated students paid less attention on the importance of being autonomous in completing the writing tasks.

Since the analysis using two-way Anova has proved that there was a significant interactional effect between computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on the students writing competency, then the post-hoc analysis by using Tukey test was done. Tukey test was done to find out which groups were significantly different. To sum up, from the result of the second hypothesis testing which showed $\text{Sig} = 0.041 > 0.05$ and also with the support of relevant theories as well as some empirical studies on computer-based peer review using track changes and writing, therefore, research question number two could be answered by saying that there was a significant interactional effect between computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on students' writing competency of the students under investigation.

3.3 The difference of writing competency between high achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes (A1B1) and high achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy (A2B1)

The third statistical analysis on the significant difference of writing competency between high achievement motivated students taught by implementing computer-based peer review using track changes (A1B1) and high achievement motivated students taught by using conventional method (A2B1) was presented by following Tukey test. It was obtained that $Q_{\text{observed}} = 10.84$ and $F_{\text{table}} = 2.80$ ($Q_{\text{observed}} > Q_{\text{table}}$). In line with this finding, the null hypothesis which states that there were no significant differences between high achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and high achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy was rejected. The writing competency of high achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and those who were taught by using conventional strategy were significantly different each other. The finding confirms what had been found in a research conducted by Marhaeni

(2005) concerning achievement motivation that strongly influenced the students' writing achievement. The research found that high achievement-motivated students gained better writing achievement than low achievement-motivated students. In line with this, Suarsini (2011) in her research of the effect of peer- assessment on writing achievement found that peer-assessment could improve significantly the students' writing competency by considering the students' achievement motivation. Peer-assessment in writing class allows all students to be involved simultaneously in the entire steps of writing i.e. prewriting, drafting, reviewing, revising and editing. In line with students' involvement in the process of learning, peer-assessment can also improve attitudes towards the subject and increase students motivation since each student tries to compete with their peers and to do their best. Students' motivation in any learning is believed to be significantly influencing students' behavior in attaining their learning achievement.

Computer-based peer review using track changes has power to involve the students to every phase of writing: pre-writing, drafting, reviewing, revising and editing, that can improve positive attitudes toward the subject which leads to the improvement of the students' writing achievement. Based on the interview with the students, it was found that they liked the activity much. A positive dynamic process of writing happened in every writing task given by the teacher. The students actively explored various sources for the task completion as they reacted immediately toward the given feedback from their peer. Different from conventional assessment which provided the students only with topic, examples, assignment paper submission, and a bit feedback, those things seemed to discourage the students, especially those who have high achievement motivation. Students' achievement motivation (one of internal motivations) is one of the important factors determining the success of students' learning. High achievement motivated students are able to explore their own ability more briefly and efficiently through innovation at their best.

Sapkota (2012) states that peer review motivates the students in their way of discovering a knowledge through discussion and correction mark. High achievement motivated students will lean properly because they can ask opinion from peer and also ask feedback from the teacher. Computer-based peer review using track changes challenges them in exploring ideas and making some positive efforts toward the completion of their writing tasks to make them perfect. Being confident in finishing the task by asking their peer or even the teacher toward the feedback orally or in written form is also the strong point of high achievement motivated students. Meanwhile, high achievement motivated students treated by conventional assessment finished the writing task based on the feedback from the teacher only and revise the paper as best as they could. At the end, high achievement motivated students treated by computer-based peer review using track changes achieved better than those treated conventionally.

3.4 The difference of writing competency between low achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes (A1B2) and low achievement motivated students taught with the implementation of conventional strategy (A2B2)

The fourth statistical analysis on the significant difference of writing competency between low achievement motivated students taught by implementing computer-based peer review using track changes (A1B2) and low achievement motivated students taught by using conventional method (A2B2) was presented as follows. It was found that $Q_{\text{observed}} = 7.89$ and $F_{\text{table}} = 2.80$ ($Q_{\text{observed}} > Q_{\text{table}}$). In line with this, the null hypothesis which states that there was no significant difference between low achievement motivated students taught by using computer-based peer review using track changes and low achievement motivated students taught by

using conventional strategy was rejected. It was concluded that the writing competency of low achievement motivated students taught with computer-based peer review using track changes and low achievement motivated students taught by using conventional strategy was significantly different, in which computer-based peer review using track changes was superior to conventional strategy. The low achievement-motivated students treated with computer-based peer review using track changes was challenged to do a series of peer review activity, such as reading reviewing, correcting check listing, and scoring because they were motivated to be involved in the new learning environment. In addition, there were possibilities in which the friends who know better could help the low achievement motivated students in writing. Whereas, the low achievement motivated students treated by using conventional strategy were discouraged to follow the process of completing the writing tasks. They never try their best in producing a good piece of writing. The interview with the students showed that the students were confused about the feedback given by the teacher because the teacher did not explain what should be done further. It is different from the high achievement motivated students who were responsive and active to get feedback from the teacher. Low achievement motivated students only waited for the teacher to give feedback.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the finding and discussions above, the conclusion of this study can be drawn as follows.

- 1) There was a significant effect of computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on students' writing competency. The students treated with the implementation of computer-based peer review achieved better than those treated with conventional strategy.
- 2) There was a significant interactional effect of computer-based peer review using track changes and achievement motivation on students' writing competency. During writing class, computer-based peer review contributed effectively to students who set high expectation in achieving their goals to produce good writing. The strategy used, which requires active and responsive participation, effected the students' achievement motivation in learning English.
- 3) The result of the finding showed a better writing competency of high achievement-motivated students treated by using computer-based peer review using track changes compared to those treated by using conventional strategy. High achievement-motivated students worked well with computer-based peer review. Computer-based peer review can increase the students' achievement motivation in terms of creating positive competitive atmosphere among the students. The students learn about mistake independently without much assistance from the teacher. They learn how to give comments as well as receiving criticism. This leads them to become responsible toward their work in peer reviewing as well as toward their own learning in doing the writing tasks.
- 4) There was significant difference on students' writing competency between low achievement-motivated students treated by implementing computer-based peer review using track changes and those who were treated with conventional strategy. The students perceived computer-based peer review using track changes as a fun, interesting and motivating strategy to learning using technology. The students found it helpful to improve their critical thinking, since this strategy encourages the them to think critically.

5. SUGGESTIONS

It was proven that the application of computer-based peer review using track changes together with achievement motivation in writing had significant effect on students' writing competency. Writing teachers are suggested to consider the use of such a strategy in teaching writing. By implementing computer-based peer review using track changes in writing class, a dynamic process of writing could be promoted. The strategy stimulates the students' activity and creativity to accomplish their writing tasks. Computer-based peer review using track changes could improve the students' evaluative skills since they were correcting and grading their peer's work based on the criteria and indicators of writing assessment provided by the teacher. It also helps the students to be more reactive and creative to fulfill the requirements of writing tasks. Computer-based peer review using track changes open a greater chance for students to achieve their goal in learning English, especially in writing.

REFERENCES

- Bitter, Gary G. (2009). *Using Technology in the Classroom*: Pearson International Seventh Edition
- Black et al. (2005). *Assessment for Learning: Putting into Practices*. New York: Open University Press.
- Falchikov, N. (2001). *Learning Together: Peer Tutoring in Higher Education*. New York: Taylor and Francis
- Green, J. (1990). *Literacy at Home and School*. Sydney: Primary English Teaching Association.
- Langan, J. (2001). *College Writing Skills with Reading*, Fifth Edition. New York: Macgraw-Hill Companies
- Marhaeni, A.A.I N. (2005). *Pengaruh Assesmen Portofolio dan Motivasi Berprestasi Dalam Belajar Bahasa Inggris Terhadap Kemampuan Menulis Dalam Bahasa Inggris*. Unpublished Dissertation: Universitas Negeri Jakarta
- Putra, I Nyoman Adi Jaya. (2005) Meminimalkan Kesalahan Mahasiswa dalam Mata Kuliah Keterampilan Menulis Melalui Penggabungan Teknik Reformulasi dan 'Peer Correction'. IKIP Negeri Singaraja.
- Putra, I Nyoman Adi Jaya. (2010) Efektivitas *Process Approach* dan Teknik *Peer Correction* yang Berbasiskan Komputer dalam Meningkatkan Kemampuan Menulis Mahasiswa Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Undiksha Singaraja. Universitas Pendidikan Singaraja, Singaraja
- Sadirman A.M. (2012). *Interaksi dan Motivasi Belajar Mengajar*. Jakarta: PT Raja Grafindo Persada.
- Sapkota, Ashok. (2012). *Developing Students' Writing Skill through Peer and Teacher Review: An Action Research*. Nepal English Language Teachers' Association. Pdf
- Schunk, Dale H, Paul R. Pintrich, Judith L. Meece. (2008). *Motivation in Education. Theory, Research, and Application*. New Jersey: Pearson.
- Suarsini, N.N. (2011). *The Effect of Peer review on the students' Achievement Motivation in Writing Competency*. Unpublished Thesis
- Utami, L.P. (2010). *The Effect of Peer review on Students' Writing Achievement with Differing Achievement Motivation*. Ganesha University of Education: Unpublished Thesis
- Yang, Yu-Fen. (2010). *Students' reflection on computer self-review and peer review to improve writing*. Pdf
- Young, C. (1998). "The P.O.W.E.R.S. Strategy: The Students' guide to the Writing Process." July 12th, 2014 at <http://www.edwebsdse.edu/wequest/webquest.html>

DEVELOPING TEACHERS' CORE COMPETENCIES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS THROUGH FUN ENGLISH CLUB

Nury Supriyanti, MA¹
nury_supriyanti@yahoo.com
Yogyakarta State University

Abstract

Teachers are the most important components in the implementation of primary English or English for young learners. Harmer (2007:82 – 83)) emphasizes the need for teachers with specific skills and competencies. In addition, Linse (2005:2) believes that they should be able to provide care needed by the young learners so that they can grow and develop well. In the aspect of the instruction, the teachers should also have the capacity to facilitate developmentally appropriate teaching. A training for such teachers should be designed in a such a way that it can equip them with necessary skills, insight and awareness for doing the very demanded jobs. This paper discusses the experiences of the English Education Study Program of Yogyakarta State University in preparing such teachers. The training has been established and developed since 1994 and has been going through some curriculums. It also has experienced different government's educational policies on the English provision for elementary schools. The latest policy states that English is only an extracurricular program for elementary schoolchildren. It implies that for providing teaching children in real experiences another creative plan needs to be designed. Students interested in learning to teach English to young learners are assigned to set up an English school for young learners so that they can have real experiences in establishing, managing, teaching, evaluating the school. The training program has also covered all aspects needed for the teacher students for such a job. In our experiences, we have established a program called Fun English Club which is planned, managed and evaluated by the teacher students.

Keywords : TEYL, teacher, competence, Fun English Club

1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers are the most important components in the implementation of primary English or English for young learners. Harmer (2007:82 – 83)) emphasizes the need for teachers with specific skills and competencies. In addition, Linse (2005:2) believes that they should be able to provide care needed by the young learners so that they can grow and develop well. In the aspect of the instruction, the teachers should also have the capacity to facilitate developmentally appropriate teaching. Although it is no longer widely practiced, some institutions, such as English courses for children, private elementary schools still provide English to the children. Therefore, teachers appropriate for teaching English to children still need to be educated, trained and produced in Indonesia.

As one of the universities in Indonesia which has been serving the country by training English teachers, YSU has also been obliged to train English teachers for young learners. A training for such teachers should be designed in a such a way that it can equip them with necessary skills, insight and awareness for doing the very highly demanded jobs.

2. HOW THE PACKAGE OF ENGLISH FOR CHILDREN CAME ABOUT

In the English Department of The Yogyakarta Teacher training (IKIP Yogyakarta then) was to respond to the demand of the current curriculum of English teacher trainings. In the newly

¹ Nury Supriyanti, MA. Lecturer of English Education Department of Yogyakarta state University. A graduate of Macquarie University. Her main interest is English for young learners in which she has established and maintained an optional package of courses for training teachers of English in her department

issued curriculum the institution should provide what was known as “kewenangan tambahan” (additional qualification) to the students who were mainly educated and trained to be English teachers for secondary schools. The reason was that when they graduate they can have access to jobs other than teaching in junior or high or vocational schools. Therefore, English for Children was one of the optional packages of courses which was offered. The English Department of YSU from then on established and developed the courses in the form of packages in which students could choose among other packages.

3. THE START OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENGLISH

In 1993 the government issued a policy which legally elementary schools were allowed to give English lessons to the children officially. The word ‘allowed’ implies that the government did not provide any facilities for the practice. Meanwhile, the drive to introduce English to elementary schools then was so strong that parents’ enthusiasm should be responded accordingly by facilitating the practice of Elementary School English in terms of the human resources, the learning materials, the teaching and learning aids. Due to the practice, English teachers for young learners were on high demand. Graduates of English education department who did not get the teaching jobs in secondary schools still could have access to teaching in elementary schools. It also opened up a big market for English textbooks for young learners which created jobs for textbook writers and materials. As the years have gone by the practice has gone its up and down, the climax of which was when the government started the teaching of math and science in English for the elementary schools. Funnily, when the program become controversial and yet ceased due to the protests by the society, elementary English was also to be blamed then it had to be stopped as well.

Today, only private elementary schools keep English in their curriculum. Public schools which are strongly supported by the school committees also do the same. Ordinary public elementary schools, the number of which represents the majority in the country, which used to offer English to the children completely has stopped the teaching. A great number of English teachers, material developers, textbook writers as well as publishers have lost their jobs.

4. WHAT EXPERTS SAY ABOUT TRAINING ENGLISH TEACHERS FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

Investigations and research studies about teaching English to young learners have been conducted by many interested researchers. Some experts accordingly have formulated theories and principles about it. Harmer (2007: 82-83) describes the principles of the teaching and the competency the teachers need to possess.

Teachers of young learners need to spend time understanding how their students think and operate. They need to be able to pick up on their students’ current interests so that they can use them to motivate the children.

He summarizes further that to teach English to young learners, there is a need for highly skilled and dedicated teaching.

Linse (2005: 2 - 16) insists that what the children need in their language learning is developmentally appropriate instruction. Her summary on the issue clearly shows that the practice of elementary school English needs teachers’ special and specific competences. She concludes that teachers should make use of their knowledge about the child to provide language learning which is developmentally appropriate.

5. THE OPTIONAL PACKAGE OF COURSES OF ENGLISH FOR CHILDREN IN THE ENGLISH EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM OF YSU

This paper discusses the experiences of the English Education Study Program of Yogyakarta State University in preparing such teachers. The training has been established and developed since 1994 and has been going through some curriculums. It also has experienced different government's educational policies on the English provision for elementary schools. The latest policy states that English is only an extracurricular program for elementary schoolchildren. It implies that for providing teaching children in real experiences another creative plan needs to be designed. Students interested in learning to teach English to young learners are assigned to set up an English school for young learners so that they can have real experiences in establishing, managing, teaching, evaluating the school. The training program has also covered all aspects needed for the teacher students for such a job. In our experiences, we have established a program called Fun English Club which is planned, managed and evaluated by the teacher students.

6. THE CORE COMPETENCY

Following Linse (2002) teachers for young learners should be able to provide two different aspects of teaching English to children, care and appropriate instruction. Other experts (Nunan, 2010) insists that when we teach children English, we prioritize the fact that we teach children regardless the subject matter we are teaching. It implies that the future teachers of children should have adequate education and training about children who are very special learners. The competency in providing care and age appropriate instruction cannot be taught easily. Therefore, training should be designed and implemented in such a way so that through the limited time, resources and opportunities, teachers of English to young learners can be efficiently educated and trained to meet the demand of the teaching and learning of English to children

7. DEVELOPING THE COMPETENCY THROUGH A PROGRAM OF FUN ENGLISH CLUB

In order to equip the students taking the package of English for Children with the necessary competencies, it is a must to provide the students who would become English teachers for young learners with education and training which effectively develop the competencies. Of course, courses and training they have in the curriculum which are offered to make them English teachers of other levels are also useful for building the competencies needed. It means that there are courses or subjects which are generally offered in pre service teacher trainings such as education and psychology subject matters as well as the English proficiency.

8. THE PACKAGE OF THE COURSES OF ENGLISH FOR CHILDREN

This ten unit package of courses in the curriculum of English Education study program which is effective from 2009 is included in the overall curriculum courses comprising 144 credit units. At first it consisted of sixteen credit units. It has four subjects the name of which have remained the same from the beginning bearing in mind that the most important is the contents of the subjects. The subjects are formulated as follow

8.1 Children Language Acquisition (2 credit units)

This is the theoretical basis for understanding children both as general or language learners. This is meant to give the students awareness, insight, ideas and skills in how to work

with children and children learning.

8.2 Children Language Teaching Methodology (2 credits)

This course is meant to provide the students taking the package with awareness, insights and skills to develop practical teaching aspects in children's English classes. It covers the English language teaching methodology specific to children which should be learnt its all aspects, the principles and the skills. Students are to learn how to teach children English by developing instruction which is age appropriate. This includes the aims and objectives, the learning materials, the learning activities, the media, and the assessment

8.3 English for Children Program Development (2 credit units)

This course includes the management aspect of developing English program for children. Students need to learn how to develop an English Program for Children through several steps. They learn about doing A SWOT (strength, weaknesses, opportunities, threat) analysis of a program. In the SWOT Analysis, the students analyze the fact that an English program can be developed in campus because the campus has the strengths needed for setting up a language school, the human resources, the facilities, the authority etc. They learn the procedure of developing the language program through needs survey, needs analysis, surveying the existing similar program, formulating the objectives, designing syllabus, developing materials, media and assessment etc. They also need to learn about the management side of an English program for children by promoting the program, marketing, recruiting participants both learners and teachers.

Since it should be income generating, the students also need to learn about the financial matters of the program. In terms of the organization of the program students also learn about how to be a leader, a secretary, treasurer, program section, academic section, facilities and equipment section. etc. In this course the students start planning a language school for children following the steps of developing a program. The name of this English school for children is Fun English Club. The students do needs survey, need analysis and formulate the aim and objectives, set up the organization of the school, etc. Each student takes a role in the organization of the management as well as a teacher teaching in the program. They can choose levels of the teaching because the school is for kindergarten level and elementary school levels. The English school for children is divided into levels based on the children's school grade. It is believed that children are more comfortable with other children of the same age. Therefore, classes are not based on the students' English proficiency.

This course goes along the semester so that the students can do the assignments step by step. Assignment and tasks are considered separate and as a whole. The assignments cover the two aspects, the management and the academic. In the management, each student is to plan and prepare his or her section. The plan should be in detailed and follow a very tight schedule which will be implemented in the following semester in the course subject of Practicum. In the academic aspect each student writes the teaching plan in a detailed description in the form of syllabus and lesson plans. Each is assessed separately. Each student contributes to the whole plan of the English school for children which will be implemented in the following semester.

9. THE PRACTICUM OF ENGLISH FOR CHILDREN

After completing the course of the EFC Program Development, the class has a detailed plan of the Fun English Club program. The name has been coined and attached to the program so that it will be a brand for an English program for children managed by YSU with a purpose that it is a way the university serves the community. The new semester starts in February but

the work of publication and marketing of the program has started long before that because the program lasts from March to April. It needs to be noted also that YSU anniversary comes in May therefore the program of Fun English Club can be proposed as one of the anniversary events. It has been going on successfully for three times, therefore every year has its own constraints and challenges. The recruitment of participants has always been the difficult part but as the years have gone by, the surrounding society has started believing in the program so that some participants are those of the regular. It can also be understood that the program has been accepted due to its effectiveness. The whole class, the number of which varies from year to year, work very hard to recruit children who would be the participants of the program. They also get the rooms, the facilities and equipment as well as themselves as teachers prepared. Every section works prior to the starting day of the program. Early in March the program starts, the children learn English three afternoon every week, so the teaching and learning process is conducted by the students as well as the management. The program has two types of activities, the indoor and outdoor. In the indoor activities the children learn English in the classroom while in the outdoor they learn English in different activities such as the opening and closing ceremonies, picnic, grand tour, barbecue, field trips etc.

10. REFLECTION AND DISCUSSION

The Fun English Club Program was not only meant to set up an English program for children for financial benefits. The income generating purpose, of course, is also part of the learning process for the students in terms of how to make profitable business enterprises but more important is the fact that they learn directly how to set up an English program for children as well as taking part as the teacher of the program. Bearing in mind that developing an English program for children is not only about being the teachers, our students taking the package need to learn the whole business of giving English appropriate instruction to the children.

Having direct experiences in setting up a program for children helps students to really know the business as well as the teaching jobs very well. Guiding and making them work as a team which has to be successful in doing the final project of Fun English club have given clearer ideas about who our students are, their potentials and how to get it out from them. We do not only have to work with them as students of The English Education study program whose performance is mainly measured by their English proficiency but we work with them with their myriad skills, potentials and capability.

In the latest group of students in the academic year of 2015 there were only 16 students taking the package, the smallest number compared to the previous two years. They showed varied personalities which contributed as well as hindered the implementation of the program. There were students who were very creative and worked well with computers. They created the logo, the attractive merchandise, T shirt for the uniforms, interesting schedules and diaries for the students to have. Some students had very good interpersonal relationship with many people so that it was much easier to do the marketing and publication even we got access to the local TV channel in which our Fun English Club was included in one of its program. Some students were very good with their public speaking so that when the activities need to have public speaking, they went very well. Some other students knew how to put make up to other people so that in the closing ceremony in which the children performed their language skills, they could provide nice make up to the children. Therefore, the skills and qualities of the students contribute to the success of the program.

The most amazing thing about the students taking the package is that they became persons who can work with the children along the program comfortably. The children also became

very comfortable with the teachers as well. The relationship which was developed among the children and their teachers has been one of the strengths of this program which might not have happened in any other ways or if the students do not directly come into contact with the children directly.

Since every child must have a guardian during the program the children could be observed very closely in terms of their development. The children could be described based on their social, emotional, cognitive, language development. The students report the child under their observation in detail in the presentation. It is a relief to know that each student taking the package has learned a lot about the children under their care. It is difficult to make them learn in other ways. In relation to the care that the future teachers of young learners have to possess, conducting the project of Fun English Club has made the students grow in their attention and care to the children. The students have developed the feeling that the children need their care and attention constantly and that they need to ensure that the children are well taken care of in every way. The students have come to the understanding that in order to make the teaching go on, first they have to make sure that socially, emotionally, cognitively and physically the children are made all right before anything else.

The following is the reflection from the students. This is the answer of the question “ what have you learned from the program of Fun English Club 2015?”

I learned so many things from this program. As the director I must handle all of my members who have different personalities. I always tried to understand them. To do that as the compensation I must sacrifice myself because sometimes they want something and I can't do that.

To the question of “What have you learned from your teaching?”

Now I know how to handle the children, how to give them knowledge, how to make a good syllabus and activities for them and how to do a team work.

As a closing it is now easy to explain the ideas put forward by Bartels (2009: 130)

Second Language Teacher Education courses need to stop focusing on academic practices, such as reading studies and discussing theories. Instead, SLTE courses need to provide learning experiences in which a) L2 teachers use (or develop) knowledge about language and a local knowledge to engage in teaching-like tasks, b) language teachers link and abstract from the knowledge acquired by participating in such activities, and c) teachers learn to design and carry out deliberate practice activities that help them the knowledge about language that they feel they need.

From the experience of doing such a project in training English language teachers for young learners, there is a need to provide real experiences to the trainees because the competencies that they need to develop to meet the demand of the teaching jobs are mostly intangible. It involves affect among human beings which can only be developed from real contacts between the parties. The care crucial for learning cannot be trained or taught without such contacts and real experiences. Therefore, teacher educators, especially for young learners are obliged to be creative and innovative in training teachers especially for young learners.

REFERENCES

- Brewster, Jean and Ellis, Gail. 2002. *The Primary English Teacher's Guide*. London: Penguin
Cameron, Lynne. 2001. *Teaching English to Young learners*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press
Linse, Caroline T. 2005. *Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners*. New York: Mc- Graw Hill

Proceedings
Teaching and Assessing L2 Learners in the 21st Century

- Moon, Jayne. 2006. *Children Learning English*. London: Macmillan Heinemann
- Goodwyn and Branson. Andrew and Jane. 2005. *Teaching English: A Handbook for Primary and Secondary School Teachers*. London: Routledge.
- Direktorat Pembinaan Taman Kanak-kanak dan Sekolah Dasar. 2008. *Pedoman Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris di Sekolah Dasar*.
- Paul, David, 2003. *Teaching English to Children in Asia*. Hongkong: Longman
- Pinter, Annamaria. 2006 *Teaching Young Language Learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Tabor, Patton O. 2008. *One Child, Two Languages, A Guide for Early Childhood Educators of Children Learning English as a Second*
- Slattery, M & Willis, Jane, 2001. *English for Primary Teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Barker. Ian 2001. *Teachers and Trainers*. University of Cambridge International Examination
- Foster-Cohen, S.H. 1999. *An Introduction to Child language Development*: London: Longman
- Burns, A. & Richards, J.C. 2012. *The Cambridge Guide to Pedagogy and Practice in Second language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Cameron, L & Mc Kay, P. 2010. *Bringing creative teaching into the young learner classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Scherer, M, 2009. *Engaging Whole Child*. ASCD
- Barker. Ian 2001. *Teachers and Trainers*. University of Cambridge International Examination
- Crookes, G. (2003) *A practicum in TESOL*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012) *Language Teacher Education for a Global Society*. London: Routledge
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2010) *Language Teacher Education for a Global Society*. London: Routledge
- Richards, J. R. (2004) *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Thaine, Craig (2010). *Teacher Training Essentials*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Wallace (1991). M.J. *Training Foreign Language Teachers*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press

TEACHING ENGLISH FOR THE MEMBERS OF POKDARWIS IN BADUNG REGENCY - BALI

I Nengah Sudipa

Faculty of Arts-Udayana University

Abstract

*This article aims at describing the process and result of English training for members of the society called Pokdarwis(Kelompok Sadar Wisata) . The members were intensively given for 4 hours the materials including : **greeting, farewell and special expressions, apologizing, request, invitation and suggestion** The steps of the training methods were : **orientation, drills, feedback and continuation**. They were delivered in terms of conversational process using the techniques of : RELUS (R=read, LU =look up, S=say). The result showed that 12 out of the 18 participants obtained **excellent** and the rest were still in **good** predication.*

Keywords : Pokdarwis, RELUS, Predication.

1. INTRODUCTION

Since Bali as the international tourist destination, the local government of Badung Regency has established what is called group of Tourism Awareness in every village. Such group is responsible for the development and maintenance the flowing of tourism activity in the respective village. In order to get thoroughly involved in such activity, the members must take part actively in the human resource development, such as taking orientation in tourism promotion, marketing and English courses. The English course called ESP is basically intended to improve their communication skill to enhance the tourist visit in their village. The government in cooperation with the English Department, Faculty of Arts Udayana University conduct such an English course every year. The activity has been commenced since 1998 starting at Plaga village Petang sub-district, the very north part of the regency as the pioneer. Then every year, with the duration of 24 sessions (approx. 3 months) the members of the group learn and practise the language functions of English : **Greeting, Thanking, Apologizing, Inviting, Pricing and Giving direction** are the core of the course-materials. Apart from the three month-English course, the government of Badung regency also gives very special short-training for the local guides. The class is given during three days with the conversational practice in English. The major goal-according to Hilliard (2014:12) of communicative language teaching is to develop participants' abilities to communicative in meaningful contexts. How do they learn and practice such communicative things and what are their impression as the evaluation result are what the purposes of writing this article.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The materials of this article is based upon the result of the evaluation process of the English course conducted in 2014 at Kapal village. It was conducted 18-20 April 2014. The participants were 19 members of Pokdwarwis. **Pokdarwis** is the abbrev : **Kelompok Sadar Wisata** 'the Group of Tourism Awareness' from 16 sub-villages in Kapal village. The method of collecting data was by observation, participation and oral test. The materials of training was given in such a way that they were ready to do the exercises. From the drill, they were furthermore observed whether they were able or have obstacles in practicing the given materials. The last session was the individual interview inviting one by one to say what they had just learned. The mark was inferred from the calculation of evaluation using PAP (Scoring Reference Pattern)

3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Kapal village, Mengwi sub-district of Badung Regency consists of 16 sub-villages : (1) Panglan; (2) Uma; (3) Celuk; (4) Cepaka; (5) Basang Tamiang; (6) Titih; (7) Pemebetan; (8) Peken Baleran; (9) Peken Delodan; (10) Ganggasari; (11) Langon; (12) Muncan; (13) Tambak Sari; (14) Gegadon; (15) Belulang dan (16) Tegal



The attractive activity of the village, apart from the agricultural one is the ceremony called Perang Ketupat, a special event using 'ketupat' as the weapon to attack the opponents. This is very unique to attract tourist to the village. This ceremony is held every October called 'sasih kapat'.



In order to give more opportunity for the villagers, especially the members of **Pokdarwis** to get involved in tourism activity in the respective village, the government conducts English training for Local Guides. This activity was done in Kapal Village on 18-22 April 2014.



3.1 3.1 The materials for that training are :

3.1.1 Greetings, Farewell and Special expressions

How do you do, How 're you

Nice to meet you, see you later, Bye, see you soon

Happy birthday/Happy New Year/Merry Christmast, Congratulation!

3.1.2 *Apologizing*

I'm sorry

I'm terribly/very) sorry

I beg your pardon!

I'm sorry to disturb you

I'm sorry, I am late

I'm sorry to keep you waiting

3.1.3 *Requests, Invitations, and Suggestion*

A :Could you pass the salt

B: Yeah, sure

A : Could you possibly borrow

B : Yes, help yourself

A : Do you think you could ...

B : Yes, sure or No, I'm afraid I can't

A : I was wondering if I could (possibly)

B : Yes, No problem!

3.2 **Training Methods**

The method of conducting such crash English program based upon the principles developed by O'Galperin (1979). He is a Switzerland education expert writing his famous book entitled *Teaching with Success* conveys the following steps:

3.2.1 *Orientation.*

The appointed materials were briefly introduced with the daily English sentences. The key-words or patterns were given to accelerate their knowledge with the expected training goal. This step is also intended to make the participants feel **in** from the beginning of the training.



The trainer gave the Orientation

3.2.2 *Drills.*

In order to give more access for the participants to exercise themselves, whether with group work, dialogue and individual practice. The trainer was very concerned with the application of the rule and pattern of the English sentences.



Drill in group practice

3.2.3 *Feedback.*

This is good time for the training to give reinforcement : (a) positive reinforcement when the drill runs well, usually by giving appreciation, however (b) negative reinforcement when the participants turned out having obstacles in terms of pronunciation, lexical choices or arranging well-formed sentences. If this case happens, usually the trainer would repeat the orientation step simply by giving feedback for the only obstacles they participants may face.



feedback after being drilled

3.2.4 *Continuation.*

This step is usually done when everything in the feedback process runs smoothly and the progress of the training must go forward. This is one indication that the training is successful.

3.3 *Speaking techniques*

RELUS is an acronym of RE (read) L U (look up) and S (say). Some experts in teaching conversation and speaking would prefer using this technique. The advantage is, of course giving the participant not only reading the dialogue, however they try to memorize the simple pattern. The speaking class participants would try to read and memorize certain pattern of expression, and without looking at the text again, they can practice while looking at the person spoken with. This is very effective in obtaining the speaking skill.

3.3.1 *3.3.1 Read*

This technique is usually done for the beginner to start the conversation. In this technique, however the participants are not reading loudly after looking at the dialogue text, they merely

memorize and then quickly look at his/her partner.

3.3.2 *Look Up*

This technique is commonly not applied in the English-class, even in the conversation. The participants are usually busy looking at the dialogue text. Look-up technique in this case is very useful because both the speaking participants could make eye contact. While making such contact, they would recount their memory about the language pattern.

2.3.3 *Say*

This last technique is **say** done automatically after both participants look up each other. This is very important for the participant to measure their skill in memorizing such English pattern they just read.

From this valuable technique, the conversation is called successful when the participants can converse without looking at the dialogue text and basically it happens without reading, losing eye-contact. Conversation is naturally done simultaneously without reading the text.

4.4 Evaluation

The training is ended by evaluation to know the result of the participants' achievement. The evaluation was conducted through the individual oral test. The questions consisted of five items, namely : (1) How to invite someone; (2) How to thank; (3) How to apologize, (4) How to suggest and (5) How to say good-bye



Individual interview as oral test with I Nyoman Adiyanto, the chairman of POKDARWIS Kapal

The raw scores are processed by PAP (Pola Acuan Penilaian)

No	Quantifications	Qualifications
1	80-100	A : excellent
2	65-79	B : good
3	40-54	C : fair
4	20-39	D : poor
5	0-19	E : very poor

The following table is showing the result of training after being processed by PAP (Pola

Acuan Penilaian)

No	Names	Scores	No	Names	Scores
1	I Made Ary Santa Dwipayana	B	10	Agus Rama Sanjaya	A
2	I Made Arta Wijaya	A	11	Ni Kadek Rai Sri Adnyawati	B
3	Agus Rai Satria Wiguna	B	12	I Putu Arya Mudana	A
4	I Putu Gede Toni Mahendra	B	13	I Made Lantara	A
5	I Nyoman Astra Pancakbali	A	14	Ni Mae Anika Ayu Chadra	A
6	I Wayan Tegug Dedi Saputra	B	15	Ni Kadek Yulia Purnamayanti	A
7	Virgandari Sudina	A	16	Ni Luh Gede Ayu Lestari Dewi	A
8	Komang Uta Wulandari	A	17	I Putu Juny Artana	B
9	Ni Putu Mia Noviyanti	B	18	I Nyoman Adiyanto, SE	A

3 CONCLUSION

Part of TEFLIN-teaching English as Foreign Language in Indonesia, not only at schools, university, college, however toward to villagers as well.

The success of mastering English as a Foreign Language depends on

- 1) Concrete Goal, the participants have already had the goal to be local guides
- 2) Propensity, nearly every time, some of them feel an 'urge' to use English
- 3) Desire, some of them start having certain desire for knowing more English
- 4) Motivation, they have more instrumental motivation than integrative one (cf. Gardner, and Lambert, 1972:3)
- 5) Action, there is no other choice than taking actions, such as attending English training.



The villagers as the participants and teacher posed after the English training

REFERENCES

- Hilliard, Amanda. 2014. *Spoken Grammar and Its Role in the English Language Classroom*. USA: English Teaching Forum, vol 52 Number 4 2014.
- O'Galperin, 1991. (dalam: Ad.Rooijackers, ed) **Mengajar Dengan Sukses. Petunjuk Untuk Merencanakan dan Menyampaikan Pengajaran**. Jakarta : Grasindo
- Klein, Wolfgang. 1985. **Second Language Acquisition**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McKay, Sandra Lee. 2002. **Teaching English as an International Language**. Oxford: Oxford Handbooks for Language Teaching.
- Gardner, R.C and Lambert, W.E. 1972. **Attitude and Motivation in Second-Language Learning**. Rowley, Massachussets. Newbury House

INDEX

A

Alexander Anania 143
Alfiyati 21
Alonso 86, 90, 91, 92
America(n) 6, 99, 129, 130, 146, 199, 240, 266, 268, 302, 313
American English 130, 146
Anderson 30, 34, 36, 240
Artha Wacana Christian University 95, 100
Asmani 226, 229
Auckland 99
Audio Exposure Alone (AEA) ix, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192
Audio Visual Exposure (AVE) ix, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190
Australasian System 216
Australia 36, 143, 144, 231, 232, 238, 296

B

Bacha 22, 96, 97, 98, 99, 104
Bachman 9, 98, 99, 104, 236, 238
Bahasa 11, 88, 135, 159, 161, 171, 177, 190, 207, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 221, 324, 331
Bardovi-Harlig 8, 9, 12
Bialystok 171, 175
British Council 143, 231, 232, 238
British English 57, 130, 187
British National Corpus viii, 55, 57
British Parliamentary System 216
Brown 11, 20, 23, 36, 47, 49, 51, 53, 66, 74, 98, 104, 128, 148, 163, 199, 204, 207, 214, 231, 233, 234, 238, 256, 259, 267, 285, 292, 296, 304, 307, 313
Burk 45, 53
Burns 1, 6, 30, 36, 66, 73, 197, 199, 204, 331
Burton 108, 115
Byrne 215, 221

C

Carroll 9

Chaney 45, 53
Chomsky, N. 128, 132
Chuang 46, 53
Cohen 67, 74, 97, 98, 105, 145, 148, 204, 331
collaborative triangle 4
Collaborator Assessment 68, 71
Common European Framework References 100
Complex Sentence 155
Computer-Assisted Language Learning 57
Consilz 2, 6
Creswell 16, 48, 53, 209, 214
Crookes 9, 144, 331
Crystal 127, 131, 132
curriculum 1994 223
curriculum 2013 15, 110

D

David Williams 225
Davies 129, 131, 238
Deborah Ruuskanen 201
Debra Pluckhan 143
Dudley-Evans 15, 17, 19, 23

E

East 7, 29, 95, 97, 98, 99, 100, 105, 193, 231, 302, 303
East Nusa Tenggara 100
E-learning 240, 241, 242, 243, 256
Ellworth 169
England 16, 21, 23, 28, 53, 54, 74, 80, 106, 146, 148, 199, 200, 256, 267, 296
English v, vi, vii, ix, x, xi, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 53, 54, 55, 57, 59, 62, 63, 64, 65, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 79, 80, 81, 82, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 97, 98, 99, 100, 104, 105, 107, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 117, 118, 119, 120, 125, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 156, 157, 158,

- 159, 160, 161, 163, 165, 166, 167, 169, 170, 175, 177, 178, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 198, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 221, 222, 223, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 231, 232, 237, 238, 239, 242, 243, 244, 245, 247, 248, 249, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 260, 261, 262, 263, 265, 266, 267, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 277, 278, 279, 280, 282, 283, 285, 286, 287, 289, 291, 292, 293, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 307, 309, 312, 313, 317, 319, 320, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 333, 334, 335, 337, 338
- English as a Foreign Language (EFL) viii, ix, x, 8, 22, 29, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 45, 53, 64, 74, 80, 95, 96, 99, 117, 125, 171, 175, 185, 186, 187, 188, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 207, 208, 214, 221, 269, 272, 284, 285, 286, 287, 292, 295, 305
- English as International Language 12, 131
- English Language Fellow 143, 147
- English Testing Service (ETS) 119, 149
- F**
- Finson 96
- Fletcher 240, 245
- Foreign Language 29, 53, 63, 92, 148, 149, 175, 186, 187, 189, 190, 192, 193, 260, 331, 338
- Fulcher 95, 104, 105, 233, 236, 238
- G**
- German 99
- Gilakjani 144, 148
- globalization 165, 223, 277
- Goetz 224, 226, 227, 229
- Great Britain 130, 144, 256
- Grgurović 186, 192
- H**
- Halu Oleo University 107, 109
- Hamp-Lyons 97, 98, 99, 101, 105
- Harmer 35, 36, 66, 74, 80, 144, 145, 148, 160, 163, 325, 326
- Hegelheimer 186, 192
- Hesabi 38, 42, 43
- Hocking 129, 132
- Hong Kong university 91
- H.P. Grice 10
- Hughes 45, 47, 53, 150, 156, 285, 292
- human language behavior 8
- Hyland 86, 87, 90, 91, 93
- I**
- Indonesia vi, 2, 7, 15, 20, 36, 37, 45, 62, 67, 69, 75, 81, 85, 86, 92, 95, 96, 131, 135, 143, 149, 156, 157, 159, 160, 161, 182, 183, 185, 205, 207, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 215, 223, 237, 238, 239, 258, 269, 270, 275, 277, 280, 285, 292, 295, 303, 305, 309, 325, 338
- International English Language Testing System (IELTS) x, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 292
- International Journal of Applied Linguistics 43, 87, 94, 292
- Internet-Based Tests (IBT) 117, 119
- J**
- Jakarta vi, 1, 36, 80, 115, 117, 119, 149, 163, 165, 166, 170, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 201, 202, 204, 207, 221, 239, 256, 303, 309, 324, 338
- Javanese 11
- Johansson 144, 145, 148, 151, 156
- Jonsson 96, 97, 99, 105
- Joyce 6, 66, 73
- K**
- Kaplan 2, 4, 6, 98
- Kavaliauskiene 15, 16, 23
- Kemmis 67
- Kendari 107, 109
- Knoch 98, 104, 105
- Kolmogorov-Smirnov 88
- Koshy 66, 74
- Kyoto University 243, 244
- L**
- Learning Management System (LMS) 241, 242
- Lee G Bolman 170
- Lemke 65, 66, 74, 257, 267
- Leonard 127
- Lofland 225
- Long 9, 171, 172, 176, 258, 267, 310
- Lovorn 96, 97, 98, 99, 105

M

Maley 76
Manion 74, 97, 98, 105, 148, 204
Mann-Whitney 85, 88, 89
Marion William 144
Maryana 21
McNamara 98, 150, 156, 232, 235, 236, 238
McTaggar 67
Meiji Gakuin University 244
mental set 91
Miller 85, 93
Mizuka Tsukamoto 207, 209
m-learning 240
Moleong 205, 225, 229, 279, 284

N

native speaker 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 135, 143,
144, 145, 146, 147, 185, 189, 190, 191,
192, 225
New Concurrent Method 208
New Zealand 99, 232
Nigerian 129
North Sumatera University 87
Nunan 7, 12, 36, 66, 74, 75, 205, 256, 258, 260,
265, 268, 287, 292, 327

O

Ohio State University 10, 12
O'Loughlin 233, 234, 238
O'Malley 36, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53
Osborne 26, 28
Oxford University Press 53, 80, 87, 132, 170,
176, 205, 238, 267, 276, 304, 313, 331,
338

P

Palmer 9, 198, 302
Paper-Based Tests 117
PBT 117, 119, 149, 150, 151, 152, 154, 155
Pennington 91, 94
Pérez 90, 93
Peter Senge 165
phonetics race 139
Pierce 36, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54
Pignot-Shahov 118, 125
Prasetya 224, 228
Purwokerto 16, 143, 285, 304

Q

Quinn 224, 229

R

Rafiee 38, 43
Renandya 34, 36, 170, 186, 191, 192, 256
Rezaei 96, 97, 98, 99
Richards 18, 23, 34, 36, 45, 47, 54, 256, 258, 265,
267, 268, 274, 275, 277, 278, 282, 284, 331
Robert Burden 144
ruhiyah 226

S

Salehi 38, 42, 43
Samarinda viii, 65, 67
Second Language 149
Shen 15, 16, 18, 23
Smulyan 4, 5, 6
Spearman Correlation Coefficient 100, 104
Speck 97, 106
Stake 130, 132
Stalnaker 8, 12
Standard English 63, 127, 130, 131
Stephen G Haines 166
St. John 17
Stevens 16, 17, 128, 132
Svingby 96, 97, 99, 105

T

Taguchi 8, 13
Thailand 128, 187, 296
Thornbury 47, 54
TOEFL vii, ix, 104, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 123,
124, 125, 149, 150, 151, 152, 154, 155, 165,
166, 167, 168, 169, 170
Tricia Hedge 167

U

UCLES 232, 234, 235, 236, 237
Udayana University v, vi, vii, 87, 333
UK 23, 53, 74, 99, 106, 130, 204, 214, 232, 256,
268
United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural
Organization (UNESCO) 26, 28, 194
Universitas Negeri Malang vi, 7, 8, 13
Universitas Wijaya Kusuma 247
University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syn-
dicate 232, 238

US or USA 6, 28, 129, 130, 131, 144, 163, 170,
178, 179, 180, 181, 232, 256, 267, 268, 338
see also America

V

Van den Branden 9, 13
Vold 90, 94
Vygotsky, Lev 29, 33

W

Wafa Al Sharaeai 207, 209
Weigle 95, 97, 98, 106

Y

Yamashita 240

Z

Žegarac 91, 94