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Lexical Quality of English Language Writing
of Undergraduate Students in Indonesia

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Abstract

Writing is a thinking process in which the writer is always making decisions on lexical choices, structural options and possible organization of information and ideas. Lexical quality is multidimensional, thus it cannot be evaluated as a single indicator but rather through a composite of diverse factors that, while distinct, are interrelated. It covers lexical density, diversity, and sophistication. The specific objective of this study was to characterize, using a comprehensive set of indicators, the quality of vocabulary produced by two different proficiency levels of 150 undergraduate students: intermediate and upper−intermediate. Qualitative method was used in this reseach. The method of data collection included textual analysis from the samples of students' written argumentative texts as the primary data that had been collected chronologically consisting 75 texts from elementary students and other 75 from upper−intermediate students. The results showed that learners at the lower level surprisingly used more percentage of advanced words than those students at the higher level. This implied that high learners' proficiency level did not lead to improvement in lexical sophistication.

Keywords: lexical quality, lexical density, diversity, sophistication

Introduction

Writing is perhaps the most important skill that learners must possess for it requires certain level of linguistic competence (Erkan & Saban, 2011) and because students' level of English proficiency is mainly evaluated based on how they could express their thoughts in written discourse. As the most important productive activity, learning to write in academic context is becoming increasingly important in global community. It, in fact, is a matter of diligent and consistent practice as there is no easily learned set of rules followed, especially for those who are in the process of learning English as foreign language. Learners have to communicate their idea, thought, concept, knowledge, and experience in their writing supported by language appropriateness, grammatically and lexically, particularly appropriateness in choosing words for that purpose noting that all words are understandable to readers. Accordingly, writing is a critical thinking process in which the learners make decisions on lexical choices, grammar and possible organization of information and ideas to get the message across.

Theoretical Background

To get the message across, lexical items need to carry the basic information load of meaning the learners wish to express (Read, 2004: 146). Lexical items commonly involving nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs play a significant role in language acquisition. Therefore, an interest to investigate learners' language vocabulary has been increasing in recent years. How well English language learners use vocabularies in productive skills turns out to be a good research topic in order to get insight of their lexical knowledge (Nation, 2007).

As a matter of fact, actuating learners' lexical knowledge comes to be a core element of writing performance that contributes in the comprehension and production of the language, especially in the field of foreign language acquisition. At this point, lexical knowledge encompasses all the information about words and the relationships among them. Learners will pay more attention to word choices in writing, enriching the content, and improving sentence structure in order to increase lexical quality of their writing. The importance of lexical knowledge in writing has motivated Hohenstein, Eisenberg & Naigles (2006) to investigate specifically the use of English verbs that carry path information by Spanish-English bilinguals than verbs that carry manner information by monolingual English speakers in the same context. Breadth and depth of lexical knowledge are determinant in moving learners further in their competence development. Breath of lexical knowledge connects with the number of words that a language learner knows (Nation, 2001), while depth has been identified as the quality of word knowledge or how well a word is known (Read, 2000).

Improving learners' lexical competence contributes in enabling them to produce free active vocabulary (that is, words learners intentionally choose to use) and controlled vocabulary (word learners can use if required) (Laufer and Paribakht, 1998). Meara (1996), further, points out that lexical competence represents a cluster of knowledge (form, meaning and use of a lexical item), abilities and skills developed and employed in different contexts of communication. In this matter, learners can resort to their mental lexicons and construct varied relationships that contribute to lexical size and depth by activating knowledge appropriate to the communicative purpose, the interlocutor and social context.

Lexical quality, as mentioned by Bulté and Housen (2012), has three indicators in language production: density, diversity and sophistication of vocabulary used. The term 'lexical density' was originally coined by Ure in 1971. She provided a measure of the relationship between the number of words with lexical as opposed to grammatical properties as a percentage of the total number of words in a text. Her research suggested that planning process might be another important determinant of higher lexical density. After that, the

concept of lexical density was developed by Halliday (1985) providing a useful framework for distinguishing between lexical and grammatical items in a text. The latter are defined as function words operating in closed, finite systems in the language. Conversely, the former refers to content words and enter into open sets that are extendable. In English, content words are defined as lexical words including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Lexical density is, therefore, measured by the proportion of words carrying lexical words to the words with grammatical words. This concept is supported by Nunan (1993), Stubbs (2002), Johansson (2008), and Richard and Schmidt (2010), Bulté and Housen (2012).

Lexical density connects with the style of language use in writing. How students choose appropriate words and construct the sentences to achieve certain goal becomes an element of style. This, hence, means that word choices and sentence structures can be seen through lexical density as it sees how words are arranged to convey the meaning. The premise behind lexical density is that the higher the lexical density, the more academic a text is (Bulté and Housen, 2012). After that, the text formality is the base of lexical density (Vinh To, et al., 2013:64). From research conducted, it is found that generally EFL students' writings still have low density between 42% to 53%. Another indicator of lexical quality, lexical diversity, according to Bulté and Housen (2012), indicates the number of different words used in a text, measured simply by its Type/Token Ratio (TTR). TTR expresses the number of different word-forms (types) in a text divided by its total word-length (tokens). The premise behind lexical diversity indices is that more diverse vocabularies are indicative of more proficient and larger lexicons (Crossley et al., 2010; Brezina, 2018). However, the basic problem with TTR is its sensitivity to text length. As explained by McCarthy and Jarvis (2007:460), "the more words (token) a text has, the less likely it is that new words (types) will occur". If a text is so long that certain words start to be repeated, high−frequency words will be repeated more often as compared to low−frequency words, and this tendency will increase the longer the text is. Next, lexical sophistication (or richness) refers to the use of more 'basic' or more 'advanced' lexis (Bulté and Housen, 2012). Typically, 'basic' vocabulary is equated with words that have high frequency in the language, established on the basis of larger, independent corpora of the language, although other criteria have been used. One conclusion from this is that three measures may identify developmental pattern of lexical development of language learners.

Laufer and Nation (1995) *Lexical Frequency Profile* (LFP) offers one way of measuring lexical richness. LFP refers to the use of basic and advanced lexis. This latter terms need to be defined with respect to some reference point outside a specific text. Basic vocabulary is equated with words that have high frequency in the language, established on the basis of larger,

independent corpora o the language (Palfreyman and Karaki, 2017). LFP is measured by the number of words that come from four levels of vocabulary as categorized by Xue and Nation (1984), each level consisting of 1000 words. These four levels reflect their frequency in the language in general and academic. In their study, Laufer and Nation used the computer program *VocabProfile* (VP) to compare the words produced by learners with words present in frequency lists based on written corpora in order to study the proportion of high frequency, academic words and low−frequent words in learners' writing. The idea of this method is to divide the vocabulary of a certain production (written text) into four frequency bands, as a measure of lexical richness. The first frequency band, K1, comprises the 1,000 most common word families in English. The words in K2 are the following 1,000. The third category is *The University Word List* (UWL), which consists of 863 common words in academic texts. Words that are not present in the three categories end up in the not−in−the−list category. The program analyzes any specific text sorting its words into three categories plus a forth one (where the off−list words end up) and gives the proportions in the output. It is important to note that "word" in this context means word family, so that when we talk about the frequency band K1, for instance, we mean the 1,000 most frequent word families, a family comprising a base word with all its derivations and forms. Laufer and Nation (1995) advanced two hypotheses, both of which were confirmed in their study. First, they expected the division into the frequency bands to be the same for a certain learner, independently of text type. Second, they expected the measure to be able to show differences between different proficiency levels. The underlying assumption is that a very advanced learner should have higher proportion of words in the two categories "not−in−the−list" and the UWL than a less advanced learner. In sum, the proportions between the bands will depend on the learner's proficiency level rather than on text type.

Previous research

Few studies have addressed lexical quality in developing writing skill (Vera, et al., 2016). Research carried out by Šišková (2012) found out a strong relationship between lexical quality and the quality of students' writing in the context of Czech EFL learners. Then, studies on lexical density mostly have been conducted in EFL settings. For example, Chaudron (2003), in Doughty and Long (2005), concludes that EFL students, by and large, use few numbers of content words per clause in their writing, that implies their writing is lexically sparse. The studies imply that importance of lexical density in academic writing gives great contributions to the quality of students' writing. Several studies on lexical diversity have focused primarily on the measurement of lexical diversity, so the relationship between lexical diversity and

language proficiency has received less attention. The relationship between lexical diversity and foreign language proficiency has been investigated in relation to overall language proficiency (Malvern & Richards, 2002; Nation & Webb, 2011), quality of speaking (Read, 2000; Yu, 2009) and quality of writing (Engber, 1995; Jarvis, 2002; Staehr, 2008; Yu, 2009; Johnson, et al., 2016). For study on lexical sophistication (Palreyman dan Karaki, 2017), it was found that there was a positive correlation between lexical sophistication in the two languages: Arabic (L1) and English (L2), although this was not significant. Gaps, however, still remain regarding the lexical quality between two different language proficiencies in Indonesia context. As mentioned by Dabbagh and Enayat (2017), that few previous studies focus on vocabulary breadth and depth concurrently in writing. Thus, it is interesting to explore the English lexical quality in written compositions of learners from two different language proficiencies. The aim of the present study was to look more carefully into lexical quality of English argumentative texts of Indonesian undergraduate students from two different language proficiencies. In order to understand whether there was a difference of lexical diversity between intermediate and upper-intermediate proficiency levels, the descriptive statistical calculation and interpretation were also presented in this study.

Research questions

The research questions addressed by this study with hypothesized findings for research question 2.

Research Question 1: How is lexical quality of EFL argumentative essays different from two different language proficiency levels?

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference of the lexical diversity between different language proficiency levels?

Hypothesis

Ho: There is no significant difference of lexical diversity between intermediate and upper-intermediate levels.

H1: There is a significant difference of lexical diversity between intermediate and upper-intermediate levels.

Methodology

For the research questions presented above, qualitative analyses were conducted produced by the samples in total of 150 written argumentative texts that had been collected

chronologically consisting 75 texts from elementary students and other 75 from upper−intermediate students. Descriptive statistical procedures were employed for data analysis such as means, percentages and frequencies. The lexical properties used by undergraduate students in writing texts were analyzed. In this study, written essays, were collected from individual language users at a single point in time. Cross-sectional study, therefore, was adopted in this research.

Participants

In this study, simple random sampling is used. At the time of data collection, one-hundred-and-fifty first-and-second-year Indonesian students in the undergraduate programs participated in the study as argumentative essay writers. The participants were enrolled on two compulsory English courses. Their ages ranged from 17 to 19 years old. In the courses, they were required to submit argumentative essays as part of their assessed coursework. The participants came from two different groups of proficiency levels, intermediate (B1) and upper−intermediate (B2), based on their TOEFL scores. Therefore, the levelling was determined by the university at the beginning of the academic year through a standardized placement test, TOEFL. For intermediate level students, their TOEFL score ranged from 467−497 whereas for upper−intermediate their TOEFL score ranged of 497−523. All data were anonymised in compliance with ethical requirements.

Data collection

This study was conducted in two course names consisting of several classes. Students' argumentative essays were used as the main source of data to be analysed in the present study. Between the fourth and fifth weeks, the participants received instruction concerning argumentative essay writing, such as essay format, mechanics, organization, and content. Then, during the sixth week, for an hour and a half allocated, each student was asked to write around 300−word composition as Laufer and Nation (1995) stated that the lexical profiles in 200−word essays or over are found to be consistent rather than those of less than 200 words. As this study involved students from several classes, the lecturer gave several discussed topics as well, like ways to improve employees' loyalty and the advantages and disadvantages of haste, homeschooling, social media, and slum tourist as part of assessed coursework to be submitted to the lecturer.

Data Analysis

There were two types of analysis in the study, collective and separate analysis. In order to measure lexical density in this study, separate analysis was conducted by classifying each lexical item in terms of parts of speech as content words or function words. Classification of parts of speech was performed using the TreeTagger software (Schmid, 1994). After text tagging finished, collective analysis with AntConc 3.4.4 was performed to find frequencies of content and function words of texts produced by learners in each level. In order to identify the lexical density, the total number of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) was firstly determined. After that, the researcher sorted out the words that did not belong to content and function words, like existential there, foreign word, end punctuation. By doing so, the proportions of content and function words could be indicated.

In terms of the lexical diversity, the type-token ratio (TTR) approach was used as a tool of measure in which the number of different words (types) a learner wrote in a text divided by the total number of words (tokens). Besides, in this study, to avoid the basic problem with TTR that was its sensitivity to text length, and confirmed the result of TTR, statistical calculation was also performed as well. Therefore, Chi−Square value was done to seek any significant difference of lexical diversity between two language proficiencies.

In analyzing the learners' lexical sophistication writing samples, VocabProfilers v.4 software was used to identify lexical frequency profile (LFP) collectively after all compositions of each level had been inputted into the computer. VocabProfiler (VP) is a computer program that performs lexical text analysis. It takes any text and divides its words into four categories by frequency in the language at large not necessarily in the text itself: (1) the most frequent 1000 words of English, (2) the second most frequent thousand words of English, i.e. 1001 to 2000, (3) the academic words of English (the AWL, 550 words that are frequent in academic texts across subjects), and (4) the remainder which are not found on the other lists. In other words, VP measures the proportions of low and high-frequency vocabulary used by a native speaker or language learner in a written text. This process did not take a long time since the program could accommodate many different texts at the same time. Once finished, the program showed the information of each composition in terms of the number of total tokens, types, and word families through a table. VP relatively simple tool has been useful in comprehending the lexical acquisition and performance of language learners.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1

Lexical density

As indicated in Chart 1, there are no significant differences of lexical density between two language proficiency levels. The texts from both levels were dominated by the use of content words (CW) rather than function words (FW). This result perceived that a higher proportion of CW denoting nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the texts contained more information than a text with a high proportion of FW. As the percentage of content words of both language proficiency levels was below 53%, it revealed low lexical density (Vinh To, et al., 2013). As lexical density decreased, the text became less informative.

Chart 1. Lexical density percentages by language proficiency levels
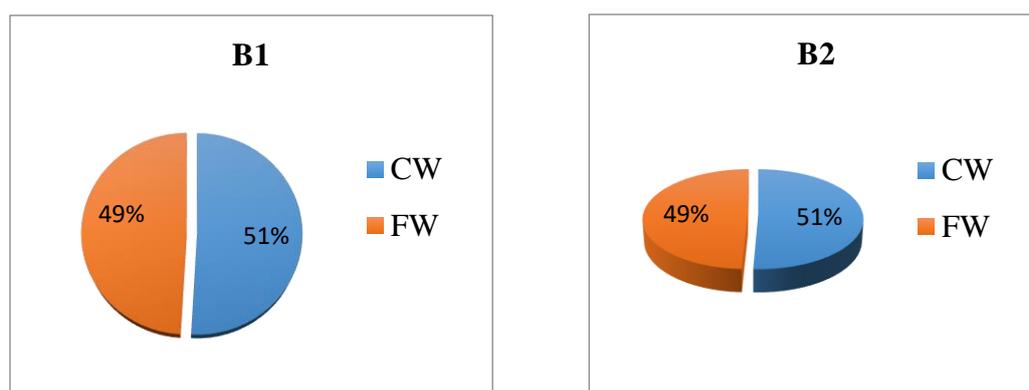
After that, Table 1 presents the comparisons, showing that the two most used CW were nouns and verbs, 25 % of the words in B1 texts were nouns and 18 % were verbs; in B2 texts 24 % of the words were nouns and 18 % were verbs. A list of the 50 most used nouns and verbs headwords was presented as supplementary material. For nouns, the given topics also contributed. Likewise, in the topics about employees' loyalty, words as work, company, employee, employer, loyalty, and salary were very common and frequently mentioned. Other two themes were slum tourist and social media. Regarding the former, words as people, slum, tourism, and tourists occured. Regarding the latter, words as social, media, knowledge, and information were frequent.

Table 1. Mean of frequency in percentages of CW by language proficiency levels

Parts of speech	B1	B2
	M%	M%
Nouns	24.71	23.68
Verbs	18.20	18.32
Adjectives	8.94	8.09
Adverbs	5.65	7.63

Lexical diversity

From Table 2, it can be inferred that students at B2 level produced more diverse vocabulary compared to those at lower level though the difference of two groups was not really significant. The ratio between 0 and 1 was used as the indicator (Mackiewicz, 2016), i.e., the closer result to 1, the greater lexical diversity of the vocabulary in the compositions. As illustrated from Table 2, it is found that both groups of learners used very little variation of vocabulary in their writings. It accounts only 0.09 and 0.10 for both levels that is nearer to 0 rather than 1. In other words, it can be inferred that most of the learners were likely to repeatedly use the same common words several times since there were only a few number of types even though learners had produced a quite large amount of tokens.

Table 2. Lexical diversity by proficiency levels

	B1	B2
Tokens	26783	32869
Types	2436	3217
TTR	0.09	0.10

Lexical sophistication

As illustrated in Table 3, at B1 level, among these 26783 tokens, the majority of words used belong to K1 words (the first 1000 most frequent words) that accounted for 22188 words (82.8%), followed by K2 words, AWL words and off−list words that accounted for 1894 words (7.1%), 1615 words (6%) and 1086 words (4.1%) respectively. In terms of types, 1184 out of 2436 total word types belonged to the first common 1000-word list that made up 48.6%.

Subsequently, the number of types belonged to off-list-words accounts for 504 or 20.6% of the total followed by types that belonged to the AWL words and second common 1000-word list that made up 16.1% and 14.7% respectively.

For learners at B2 level, as illustrated in the Table 3, there are 32869 tokens, 3217 types and 1341 word families in total. Out of 32869 tokens, 26844 words belonged to K1 words that made up 81.7%, 2417 words or 7.4% were in off-list-words and words that equals to 6.1% were in K2. Lastly, 1609 words or 4.9% of the whole text were AWL words. Similar distribution also appeared for the types in that 1434 belonged to K1 words that accounted for 44.5% of the total types in the texts, 772 or 23.9% types in were in off-list-words and 517 (16.1%) belonged to K2 words and 494 (15.4%) to AWL words.

Considering the academic words, small percentages of the tokens in the students' composition at B1 and B2 level fell into AWL (6% and 4.9% respectively). As seen from Table 4, the proportion of lexical sophistication of students at level B1was slightly higher than students at level B2. It accounted for 6% out of total vocabulary produced in the text, whereas the percentage of advanced words of students at B2 level was 4.9%. It needed to be noted that the above calculation was based on the total occurrence of sophisticated vocabulary (tokens).

Table 3. LFP by proficiency levels

	Level B1	**Level B2**
TOKENS		
K1 Words	22188/82.8%	26844/81.7%
K2 Words	1894/ 7.1%	1999/ 6.1%
AWL Words	1615/ 6%	1609/ 4.9%
Off−list words	1086/ 4.1%	2417/ 7.4%
TYPES		
K1 Words	1184/48.6%	1434/44.5%
K2 Words	357/14.7%	517/16.1%
AWL Words	391/16.1%	494/15.4%
Off−list words	504/20.6%	772/23.9%
WORD FAMILIES		

K1 Words	641	700
K2 Words	241	333
AWL Words	243	308
Off−list words	????	????

Research Question 2

For further analysis of lexical diversity, Chi-Square Tests using SPSS 22 based on the result obtained from TTR was used to make sure a reliable result. Table 2 shows that for argumentative writing task there was no significant difference of lexical diversity between intermediate and upper−intermediate proficiency levels.

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.977[a]	24	.753
Likelihood Ratio	22.414	24	.555
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.930	1	.165
N of Valid Cases	150		

a. 36 cells (72.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

From this study, it is found that the lexical density of argumentative texts of two different language proficiency levels was low ($< 53\%$). It is assumed, therefore, that the texts were less informative. After that, one of significant findings for lexical sophistication is that learners at the lower level surprisingly used more percentage of advanced words than those students at the higher level. Learners with lower lexical diversity index could surprisingly produce texts with larger percentage of lexical sophistication whereas learners with higher lexical diversity, the result was opposite. This implies that the ability of producing written text with higher lexical diversity index does not always guarantee that the learners are capable of producing academic texts with larger percentage of lexical sophistication. Thus, improvement in lexical diversity did not lead to improvement in lexical sophistication.

Besides, this finding is interesting as the levels of learners' language proficiencies did not lead to good learners' lexical density, lexical diversity and lexical sophistication. This finding, of course, is totally contradictive from the studies carried out by Laufer and Nation (1995) and Siskova (2012) within the similar topic in investigating lexical richness of learners of English as a foreign language.

Conclusion

This study examined lexical quality of EFL learners in their written text and sought an answer to the question whether there was any significant difference of lexical diversity between two EFL proficiency levels of Indonesian undergraduate students. To sum up, this research reveals that to determine learners' lexical quality, three indicators played a crucial role: lexical density, lexical diversity, and lexical sophistication. For lexical density, learners at two different levels show identical lexical density. Both proficiencies similarly adopted higher proportion of content words than function words in their composition. For content words, both levels used nouns and verbs mostly in their composition. In terms of lexical diversity, both groups of learners did not use varied vocabularies in their writings. In other words, learners from both levels used repeated common words though learners had produced a quite large amount of tokens. Next, based on the LFP category, it revealed that the percentage of advanced vocabulary used by less proficient learners is slightly larger than the percentage of advanced used by more proficient learners. Also, the present study suggests that the level of language proficiency does not really give significant contribution towards the ability of students to produce a written text with dense, diverse and sophisticated vocabularies. Surprisingly, more proficient learners produced higher percentage of 'off−list−words' than less proficient learners. It might be caused by their focus on the breadth of knowledge than the depth of knowledge. This assumption could be further investigated for future research project.

Pedagogical Implications

In increasing lexical quality, it is not a matter of language proficiency level and capability to produce dense, diverse, or sophisticated vocabularies, but there are also some other factors. The quality of input of teaching and learners' knowledge of foreign language took a part as well (Bardel, Gudmundson, & Lindqvist, 2012). The first factor related to pedagogical aspect, whereas the latter is more about cognitive aspect of learners and their ability to recognize the semantic relation between words (Amer, 2002). Therefore, teaching instructions should look for opportunities in which learners enrich their lexicon with new vocabularies and improve

their lexical knowledge as well. For this reason, learners acquire both breadth and depth of vocabulary to develop their lexical and communicative competence so that they are capable of applying it in any contexts.

The results revealed that breadth and depth of knowledge play significant roles in EFL learners' writing performance. The lexical density, lexical diversity, and lexical sophistication as measurable dimensions of lexical knowledge are correlated with learners' writing qualities. Therefore, pedagogic intervention with a lexical approach should be carried out by introducing frequent lexical units to improve learners' lexical knowledge. Besides, developing learners' ability to use the words in a given context is a need of urgency as learning derives from comprehensible input and meaningful interaction with the language. For this reason, it would be important and necessary that language instructions pay more emphasis on enhancing the vocabulary knowledge of the target language in use. Vocabulary-centered instruction could be one starting point for lecturers to help Indonesian undergraduate students enhance their writing performance regardless their language proficiency levels. Lecturers can also motivate them by valuing and considering their feelings at all times. This means that lecturers should be approachable and sensitive to students' needs and problems (Mante-Estacio & Ugalingan, 2018). Therefore, all students strive to contribute in accomplishing the writing tasks.

Future research could compare the development of EFL vocabulary use in writing in different educational systems, in different classes or in different experimental conditions. Such comparison might be useful to show the effectiveness of different pedagogical approaches for significantly increasing and strengthening learners' lexical competence, particularly in language acquisition.

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The Contribution of the Qualitative Approach to Educational Research in Washback of Language Testing

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Abstract:

Washback is 'the influence of testing' on teaching and learning processes (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 118). A qualitative approach is considered best suited to examine the behaviour of teachers in teaching and students in learning in response to language testing. This approach allows researchers to observe and understand teachers' and students' behaviour directly in the context where washback exists and ask directly for their feelings towards language testing, for example, through interview or observation. In this way, the researcher can get an understanding of washback in real-life situations (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2013). To justify the value of the qualitative approach in washback of language testing inquiry, this paper evaluated its benefits using following structure: the concept of washback; the concept of the qualitative approach and its criteria for assessing the quality of qualitative research; an analysis of qualitative washback studies; and the contribution of the qualitative approach to the investigation of washback. Qualitative approach has following contributions to educational research in washback of language testing: (1) eliciting the real problems that occur so that the research can be significant in addressing problems, (2) investigating phenomena in real world setting through observation, not experimental setting which does not represent the real teaching situation during the preparation for the test, and (3) allowing researchers to use various research methods used in the qualitative approach, such as individual interviews, focus group

discussion, direct observation and document analysis which can complement each other to enrich the findings and enhance rigor (Bailey, 1999).

Introduction

Washback is 'the influence of testing' on teaching and learning processes (Alderson and Wall, 1993, p. 118). A qualitative approach is considered best suited to examine the behaviour of teachers in teaching and students in learning in response to language testing. This approach allows researchers to observe and understand teachers' and students' behaviour directly in the context where washback exists and ask directly for their feelings towards language testing, for example, through interview or observation. In this way, the researcher can get an understanding of washback in real-life situations (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2013). To justify the value of the qualitative approach in washback of language testing inquiry, this paper intends to evaluate its benefits as follows: the concept of washback; the concept of the qualitative approach and its criteria for assessing the quality of qualitative research; an analysis of qualitative washback studies; and the contribution of the qualitative approach to the investigation of washback.

The washback concept

The influence of testing on teaching and learning strategies is known as washback (Alderson and Wall, 1993). According to Buck (1988), washback is broadly influenced by the intensity of testing; if it is important or has consequences, students, teachers, parents or other stakeholders will make extra efforts to accomplish the demands of testing. This, therefore, encourages teachers and students to practise certain strategies, but these are not always beneficial. For example, if the teaching is simply practice in answering worksheets instead of practice of language skills, the outcome can be seen as negative washback. In contrast, teaching in communicative ways to enhance students' language skills can lead to positive or beneficial washback. Hughes (1989) disagreed with Buck, and contended that washback is influenced by the validity, not the intensity, of testing; valid testing will lead to positive washback. For instance, writing tests that stimulate teachers to use strategies to facilitate writing practice in class can improve students' writing skills.

Similarly, Messick (1996) claims that direct and authentic language testing that requires students to demonstrate language skills (Wiggins, 1990) can influence teachers to create similar classroom activities. These debates not only show the complexity of washback, but show how testing washback can influence teaching and learning; this is related to human behaviour. According to Geertz (1973), a qualitative approach is best suited to inquiry into individuals' lives, the processes in their interaction and the reasons for their interactions. Therefore, it is well suited to the exploration of washback, particularly the behaviours of teachers in teaching and students in learning in response to the implementation of language testing.

Qualitative approach

The qualitative approach proposes that the researcher conducts knowledge inquiry based mainly on constructivist perspectives that value multiple meanings of individual experience or meanings that are socially and historically constructed, with the intention of developing theories or patterns (Creswell, 2013). Weiss (1998, p. 335) emphasises that the qualitative approach is the inquiry into phenomena through words, and focuses on 'dynamics, meaning and context'. Tracy (2010) divides the qualitative approach into three concepts: self-reflexivity, context and thick description. It involves a careful consideration of the researchers' past experiences, opinions, points of view, and interaction with people. The backgrounds that qualitative researchers own influence the way they approach and conduct their research, in a process known as self-reflexivity (Tracy, 2010). This means that the researchers' backgrounds and their bodies such as eyes and ears will serve as research instruments for absorbing information and interpreting the world through observation, interview, and participation.

Tracy (2010) further proposed that another concept of the qualitative approach is about how researchers become immersed in a scene and try to make sense of it; researchers intentionally examine the world, make note of the cues, try to interpret the context and then shape larger knowledge claims about the culture. This means that they try to comprehend the world that is interwoven in and through the context. Qualitative research involves context in the interpretation of the world. This is in contrast to the quantitative approach, for instance, experimental studies that separate variables and circumstances so that findings can be replicated (Tracy, 2010). The last concept of the qualitative approach is thick description (Tracy, 2010); indeed, the immersion of researchers in the context to gain rich specificity of meaning cannot be separated from thick contextual description (Geertz, 1973). By describing the background and context of actions, researchers can interpret the meaning; thus the interpretation is dependent upon the scene (Tracy, 2010) and this contextual dependence shows

that qualitative approach is practical in nature (Tracy, 2010). To conclude, qualitative approach is the investigation of individuals' lives: personal experience, opinions, values, and ways of life. The research is conducted directly through interview, observation, document analysis or participation in the real situation or in its context, both of which play important roles in facilitating the interpretation of the meaning. Therefore, in reporting qualitative research, the thick description as suggested by Geertz (1973) is aimed to enhance the clarity of the findings.

In terms of contribution to knowledge inquiry, the qualitative approach gives the researcher access to investigating processes that fit in the context of where people have interactions (Barbour, 2013). As the inquiry is embedded in the context, the qualitative approach can focus on the process in depth (Griffin, 2004), and the investigation can result in detailed accounts of individuals' experiences (Griffin, 2004).This approach also allows the researcher to examine changes or inconsistencies, discrepancies, and contradictions between and within the individuals (Barbour, 2013; Griffin, 2004). Moreover, the research can use a longitudinal approach, in which the study is conducted over a certain period of time (Griffin, 2004). Qualitative research also offers the flexibility and examination of sensitive or difficult topics if the researcher can develop a trust relationship with participants (Griffin, 2004).

Paradigm underpinning qualitative research

A researcher starts a research project with the research paradigm, an assumption about what and how he/she intends to investigate during the inquiry, (Lincoln and Guba, 2011; Mertens, 1998); knowledge claims (Creswell, 2013); philosophical assumptions; epistemology and ontology (Crotty, 1998) or research methodology (Neuman, 2002). Researchers' claims about the knowledge that they inquire into or investigate is known as ontology; how they investigate the knowledge is known as epistemology, and the process for investigating and studying it is referred to as methodology (Creswell, 2013). There are four paradigms or knowledge claims in knowledge inquiry: positivism/post positivism, interpretivism/constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatism (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative researchers believe that reality is socially constructed by people; this is known as an interpretive/constructivist epistemological assumption (Mertens, 2014). Constructivists believe that researchers can understand reality through the opinions of people, that is, those who construct it (Mertens, 2014). Furthermore, researchers cannot be separated from the context they observe because they are attempting to interpret the phenomenon (Mertens, 2014). In other words, observers are situated in the context where the research is conducted. This approach is aimed to provide in depth-description of events or reality (Huberman and Miles, 1994).

Qualitative research question development

As noted above, the concept of qualitative approach deals with individual's lives; the research addresses questions related to the questions of 'what', which refers to human behaviours or the interaction of people; 'how', which deals with the process of human interaction and social change, and 'why', which deals with the intention of the actors in relation to their interaction (Geertz, 1973; Strauss, 1987). As qualitative inquiry involves the process of social change, researchers may change the research question during the research process as a means of understanding the problem (Creswell, 2007). In this process, researchers may invite participants to collaborate in the process of formulation of research questions, a practice commonly found in participatory action research (Flick, 2014; Maxwell, 2005). A further feature of qualitative research question development is that the questions are not related to hypothesis or presumed outcome, in contrast to those in quantitative research (Agee, 2009). The qualitative research process begins with initial, tentative, questions that give researchers a tool to articulate their primary focus. The questions subsequently develop during the process of the inquiry (Agee, 2009). Creswell refers to this as 'evolving' (2008, p. 107).

Other criteria of qualitative research questions are exploratory, explanatory, descriptive and emancipatory functions (Marshall and Rossman, 2006). Similarly, according to Creswell (2007), an effective qualitative research question invites exploration and discovery. Agee (2009) argues that questions that invite a 'yes/no' answer, for example, 'Do working children suffer from stress?' do not belong to the qualitative approach because this kind of question does not investigate "what, how and why" of human experience. Therefore, a question that inquires 'how' people experience an event will invite thick description of what is happening in a particular situation. One example might be 'How do deaf adults manage to succeed academically and in the workplace given the stigma of deafness in our society?', thus inviting discovery and exploration (Janesick, 2000, p. 383). To conclude, qualitative research questions should invite explanation, process description or exploration of people's lives.

Qualitative research in the real world

This essay will assess the quality of qualitative research by using criteria proposed by Tracy (2010). Criteria are useful guidelines to help novice researchers to a path of expertise of research (Dreyfus, Dreyfus, and Athanasiou, 1986) which in this case is qualitative research expertise.

1. Worthy topic

The following presents the criteria for determining a topic for qualitative research. Tracy (2010, p. 841) asserts that excellent qualitative research has a 'worthy topic', meaning that it is 'relevant, timely, significant and interesting'. *Relevant* means that the topic emerges from theory and reality; in other words, it is theoretically and conceptually convincing (Tracy, 2010). *Timely* means that the research topic arises from current and contemporary events in society or in personal life (Tracy, 2010). Flyvbjerg (2001) contends that a research topic is *significant* when it is based on problems that exist and how people face these. Stokes (2011) further proposes that a problem-based-research topic is aimed at improving lives. Finally, worthy studies are *interesting*, particularly when something is little known (Tracy, 2010).

2. Rich rigor

Qualitative research is considered high in quality if the data are rigorous. Rigor refers to the density and the richness of the data and the detailed information on how it was collected and analysed (Tracy, 2007). The richness of data in qualitative research is shown through the description and explanation of the theoretical concept (Weick, 2007) and sufficient data to support significant claims (Golafshani, 2003). In terms of data collection, rigor is judged by adherence to thorough practices, for example, sufficient time collecting data to provide depth through prolonged engagement (Lincoln and Guba, 1985); appropriate procedures in field notes; the time allocated for fieldwork and the development of field notes, the evaluation of pages on field notes; the number and length of interviews; appropriate questions to reach the goal of study, and the practice of transcript accuracy and thoroughness (Tracy, 2007). Transparency relates to how researchers select participants. According to Bryman (2015) qualitative research reports sometimes do not clearly explain the participant selection process for observation or interview; this clarity is important as readers have the right to know how far the research participants correspond to a wide range of people. Rigorous data analysis is shown in the description of the transformation and the organisation of transcripts into the report, which shows that the researcher has demonstrated transparency in sorting and organising the data (Tracy, 2007). Lincoln and Guba (1985) emphasise that an analytical process of interview transcripts, field notes or visual materials requires thorough attention so that researchers can provide clear inductive thought and a bottom-up process of reasoning. So, careful analysis of the tools of data collection can help researchers to generate theory that emerges from the data.

3. Sincerity

Sincerity relates to 'authenticity' or honesty of research regarding research bias, goals, mistakes and weaknesses (Tracy, 2007, p. 842). According to Watts (2008) and Moravcsik (2014), the honesty of qualitative research covers data collection and data analysis; this honesty is intended to show openness for the readers and as a way to avoid intentional deceit and duplicity (Watts, 2008).Tracy proposed two ways to achieve sincerity: self-reflexivity and transparency (2007). Meyerhoff and Ruby (1992) defined reflexivity as the system turning back upon itself. In research practice, self-reflexivity means the ability of researchers to reflect and examine honestly the values and interests that might influence their research work (Porter, 1993).

A further means of ensuring honesty is through transparency of the research process (Tracy, 2007). This concept is important as it allows communities to recognise rigorous research, to distinguish valid and invalid research organisation and to different interpretations of social understanding (American Political Science Association, 2013). Seale proposed that auditing and notes facilitate transparency as they allow researchers to have a self-critical approach to the research they have done (1999). Auditing provides a clear documentation of research activities (Creswell and Miller, 2000), while transparency includes clarity of data, analysis, and production (Morasvcsik, 2014). Data transparency gives readers access to information about the sources of research, how they were collected, how they were evaluated and interpreted and how they were finally analysed. This honest explanation will show the sincerity of the research and also will link to rigor or richness (Moravcsik, 2014). Transparency of data analysis also gives readers access to the description of the interpretation process to reach particular conclusions. Production transparency gives information to readers about the evidence, theory and methods used (Tracy, 2010), and also makes readers aware of any potential bias that the research might have.

4. Credibility

Credibility refers to trustworthiness (Guba, 1981; Lincoln, 1995), accuracy of representation (Agar, 1986), plausibility of research findings (Tracy, 1995), and congruity of findings with reality (Merriam, 1998). Guba (1981) stated that internal validity in quantitative research addresses issues similar to credibility in qualitative research. However, Leininger (1985) argues that the issues of validity in quantitative and qualitative sense are different. In the quantitative approach, validity refers to the degree to which instruments measure what they are supposed to measure; in the qualitative approach, credibility or validity refers to gaining and

understanding knowledge from a study (Leininger, 1985).Therefore, credibility refers to the real knowledge found in the reality investigated by a qualitative study.

Strategies have been developed to achieve credibility, such as thick description, triangulation, multivocality and member reflection (Tracy, 2007). Thick description describes the situation, the participants and the theme of the qualitative research in detail (Creswell and Miller, 2000). According to Denzin (2001), thick description requires detailed and dense accounts; thin description is lack of detail and simply reports facts. The purpose of providing thick description is to allow readers to feel they have experienced, or could experience, the events displayed in the research (Creswell and Miller, 2000). The thickness and complexity of description should also allow readers to come to their own conclusions about the setting (Tracy, 2007).

Triangulation and crystallisation are other two ways of gaining credibility. Berg and Lune (2004) propose that triangulation is the use of multiple ways of sight in research, and that each method reveals different lines of sight of the same reality. Therefore, the combination of the lines of sight will provide better, richer and more complete reality. These multiple lines are also a means of verification that enhances the credibility of the research (Berg and Lune, 2004), and may help to avoid any subjectivity of research bias (Tracy, 2007). Denzin (1973) proposes varieties of triangulations: data triangulation, which deals with variety of time, space and person; investigator triangulation is related to multiple investigators or observers of the same object; theory triangulation involves multiple perspectives of the same object; and methodological triangulation entails multiple methods.

Multivocality is a further way to enhance credibility by using varied voices of participants (Tracy, 2007). This means that the researcher gives space for a wide range of variety in relation to people's opinion. According to Lindlof and Taylor (2002), the practice of multivocality arises from the analysis of social action from participants' points of view. Member reflection is also a way to enhance the credibility of the research (Tracy, 2007). This can determine the accuracy of the findings of qualitative research: the researcher returns the final report to participants and asks them whether they feel that it is accurate (Creswell, 2007). This strategy refers to the use of multiple voices during data collection; participants are involved in the activity of sharing research findings and giving feedback, opinion, critique, or collaboration (Tracy 2007). Although the participants' reaction is beyond the control of the researcher, the interview in member checking stage can give them the opportunity to provide additional and elaborated data through member reflection, which in turn can enhance the credibility of the thorough analysis of the research (Tracy, 2007).

5. Resonance

Resonance refers to the capability of the research and its findings to produce sympathetic (Fischer, 2006) and meaningful sense to the readers (Tracy, 2007). The principle of resonance relates to how a research report conveys the feelings and experience of the researcher on the topic and the findings, and allows the readers to share these in what is known as sympathetic resonance (Anderson, 2001). Fischer (2006) suggests that to express resonance, research can function like poetry to provide immediate feeling description for readers and recognition of the researcher's experience. Anderson also suggests that resonance in narrative form is 'immediate and direct' (2001, p. 3). In these ways, readers can gain insight into the researcher's experience, and 'empathy, identification and reverberation of research' is promoted (Tracy, 2007, p. 845). However, Schutz (1967) warned that even the best written report is not capable of delivering direct insight into people's lived experiences. According to Tracy (2007), high quality of qualitative research must have impact for readers, and resonance is the way to ensure it. Several means, such as aesthetic merit, evocative writing, formal generalisation and transferability can be used to achieve resonance (Tracy, 2007).

The aesthetic merit of the presentation of writing is that it is beautiful and artistic (Tracy, 2007); is imaginative and emotionally affects readers (Goodall, 2012); is engaging and not boring (Tracy, 2010), and is interactive and descriptive (Scarduzio, Gianni and Geist-Martin, 2011). The text of qualitative research reports requires not only clarity, but also writing that leads to the engagement of feeling and interpretive response of readers (Tracy, 2010). For example, a text with aesthetic merit is the one that can make readers laugh, cry, feel motivated or inspired (Tracy, 2010); in other words, an aesthetic text facilitates the readers to become immersed in the real feeling. Further ways to achieve resonance are by transferability and naturalistic generalisation (Tracy, 2007). Transferability refers to research findings that can be applied to similar contexts or situations (Leininger, 1994), and is achieved if readers feel that the research report reflects their own experiences and can relate the findings to their own actions (Tracy, 2007). In order to help readers use the research report to reflect on their own experiences, the researcher may invite transferability though direct testimony, rich description (Tracy, 2007), and evocative story telling (Ellis, 1998). These devices may prompt readers to remember that they may have experienced the same thing in a different time or place.

6. Significant contribution

The contribution of the study can be categorised as having theoretical or heuristic significance or as practical significant research (Tracy, 2007). Theoretically significant research refers to

the contribution to the scholarly community such as extending, developing and evaluating disciplinary knowledge (Tracy, 1995). Heuristic significance means that research contributes to developing reader curiosity and giving inspiration for new discoveries (Abbott, 2004). Practical significant research refers to the usefulness of the research findings in several ways, for example, whether the research findings frame the problem; whether the research empowers people to see the world in a different way, or whether the research provides a story that releases people from injustice (Tracy, 2007).

7. Ethical

Ethics in qualitative research relate to the rightness and wrongness of the researcher's actions regarding people as participants of the study, the colleagues of the researcher and those who sponsor the research (Miles and Huberman, 1994). There are four categories of ethical issues in research: procedural, situational, relational and existing. Procedural ethics refer to ethical actions in research by agencies such as universities, organisations or government bodies (Tracy, 2007). Ethical procedures contain guidelines that researchers must follow to protect participants. There must be no harm, no deception, the provision of informed consent, privacy protection and confidentiality (Sales and Folkman, 2000). Situational ethics are ethical procedures that emerge because of specific circumstances (Tracy, 2007). Because they are contextual, they are unpredictable, but are important issues that may arise in the research field (Ellis, 2007).

The analysis of qualitative approach in washback

These two papers are chosen to analyse as they apply qualitative approach in the investigation of washback in language testing.

Study 1

Zhan, Y., & Andrews, S. (2014). Washback effects from a high-stakes examination on out-of-class English learning: Insights from possible self-theories. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *21*(1), 71-89.

Zhan and Andrew (2014) investigated washback of the new English language test in China on students' out-of-class learning strategies and the factors that mediated the type of washback. The researchers employed a case study method using diaries and post diary interviews to gather data from three participants.

Study 2

Tsagari, D. (2017). Washback of a high-stakes English exam on teachers' perceptions and practices. *Selected papers on theoretical and applied linguistics*, *19*, 431-445.

Tsagari (2017) explored the association between the intended effects of the First Certificate in English (FCE) test, teachers' perceptions of the examination and the real practice of teaching and learning. Fifteen teachers who prepared students for the examination were interviewed.

This analysis began with the worthy topic of study. Study 1 explored how the revised College English Test-4 (CET-4) influenced students' out-of-class learning and what mediated washback of the revised test on this. Study 2 explored the influence of the FCE exam, teachers' perception of the examination and their classroom practices. Both studies are relevant to the theory and practice of the influence of language learning explored in Study 1, and of teaching investigated in Study 2. The topics of both are relevant to the theory that the intensity and validity of testing may influence either positive or negative washback (Buck, 1998; Hughes, 1989; Messick, 1996) and are also relevant to the current implementation of the policy of national language testing in China and Greece (Tracy, 2010). In terms of significance and engagement, study 1 investigated washback in students' out-of-class self-learning, which had not been explored in previous studies (Murray, 1971); the findings can provide insight into the strategies of high achievers in out-of-class self-learning to improve their language proficiency (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Spencer, *et al,* 2003; Tracy, 2010). They can also contribute to theories of self-learning, washback and practice to help students improve their learning. So, the topic of study 1 is significant. Study 2 explored washback in teaching practice, which has been investigated in many countries (Tsagari, 2017; Xiao, Sharpling, and Liu, 2011; Yildirim, 2010); this topic may not be as significant as study 1 as the topic is well-recognised (Murray, 1971). Study 2 is still significant as it confirms findings of previous studies that the examination content influences the way teachers teach (Hughes, 1989; Messick, 1996). To conclude, both studies explored worthy topics, but Study 1 can be seen as more interesting, because it investigates a little known topic in washback, namely out-of-class learning strategies.

Further analysis is based on the rigor of studies. Both studies have rich and dense data. Study 1 compiled 106 diary entries and 30 post-diary interviews in its longitudinal study; Study 2 interviewed fifteen teachers. The large number of diaries and the length of time for data collection in the longitudinal Study 1, and the high number of informants, 15 teachers in Study 2, led both studies to prolonged engagement, which is useful in providing in-depth findings

(Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Furthermore, both studies clearly showed transparency in participant selection. Study 1 selected three (3) participants from among high achievers; this small number can increase the chances of a close connection during interviews, which can generate detailed and excellent information (Crouch and McKenzie, 2006). Moreover, the selection of informants in the study was based on knowledgeability and their apparent learning objectives. This purposive sampling, based on knowledgeability criteria, relates to the fact that knowledgeable informants have in-depth knowledge or experience (Ball, 2012), particularly in self-learning strategies, and thus this transparency allows the readers to understand how the research participants represent a wide range of people (Bryman, 2015). Meanwhile, study 2 was lack of transparency in the reason of participant selection.

In relation to the transparency of data analysis, Study 1 elaborated the sequence, reading the transcripts of interview and diary entries line-by-line and repeatedly to become familiar with raw data and to create large categories. The researchers also had repeated meetings to discuss codes and themes. This thorough explanation shows that Study 1 demonstrated transparency in organisation of the data (Tracy, 2007), and provided rigorous analysis through repeated analysis of transcripts and repeated and regular author meetings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Such detailed analysis allowed the researchers to generate theory from the data. However, Study 2 did not explain how the researcher analysed the data, meaning that transparency was absent. Golafshani (2003) noted that in order to provide face validity of the research, there must be evidence of diligence, thoroughness, and appropriate time for data collection. In conclusion, while Study 1 showed rigor in terms of transparency of data analysis, study 2 failed to show evidence of how the researcher analysed the data. Therefore, Study 1 is rigorous, while Study 2 is not.

The third analysis is based on sincerity, which covers honesty in transparency of research bias, weaknesses and the process of research. Study 1 acknowledged the prematurity and tentativeness of possible self-perception in investigating test washback on students' learning. Study 2 acknowledged that it did not explore teachers' claims of negative influences of the examinations in teaching, which shows the honesty of the researchers on the limitations of their studies (Moravcsik, 2014; Tracy, 2007; Watts, 2008). This transparency allows the readers to be aware of the potential bias of the research (Tracy, 2010). In terms of reflexivity, Study 1 reported their repeated analysis through repeated readings of the transcripts of interview and diaries, regular scheduled author meetings and repeated readings on the theories of washback and motivation to familiarise themselves with these. Therefore, it showed evidence of the study instruments used to reflect and examine their research to minimise

research bias. Study 1 also detailed the transparency of data analysis, as previously explained, and the rigor of the study. However, Study 2 presented no evidence of self-reflexivity or description of data analysis; therefore, it could be said that it lacked sincerity.

In terms of transparency of the choice of method, Study 1 reported the rationale for document analysis and interviews, and diaries were used to gather students' experience. These covered the content and learning activities as well as students' feelings and reasons for their choice of learning decisions; interviews were used to confirm data found in the diaries and to explore in-depth thoughts of students. In contrast, Study 2 did not explain the reason for the researcher's choice of interviews as the method of the research. Based on this analysis, Study 1 was honest in giving its purpose in choosing the method for the research. Study 2 did not.

The following analysis is the credibility of the research that can be assessed through description, triangulation, multivocality and member reflection (Tracy 2007). Both studies displayed thick description of participants and their background, some genuine transcripts of participant interview and diaries, and thick explanation of language testing and its use in each context. Such thick description can allow readers to feel what participants have experienced, or to feel that they may have had similar experiences (Creswell and Miller, 2000), which is useful in helping readers draw conclusions about the setting of the research (Tracy, 2007). Study 1 used triangulation with multiple investigators, multiple methods of document analysis and multiple interviews to collect data. This means that the triangulation strategies of Study 1 combined to investigate the same matter from different perspectives. This enhances credibility (Berg and Lune, 2004) and minimises the subjectivity of the research (Tracy, 2007). Furthermore, in terms of member reflection, Study 1 used interviews with students to confirm what they had written in the diaries, allowing for more data that can enhance the credibility of the research (Tracy, 2007). On the other hand, Study 2 lacked triangulation strategies, although it involved fifteen (15) teachers from different teaching backgrounds, qualifications and working experience, thus enhancing credibility through a wide variety of participant voices.

The next analysis is the resonance of the research. Both studies included testimonies from student participants in interviews and diaries about the strategies they applied, and teachers' perceptions of their teaching as an effect of national language testing. Such testimony can allow the readers to recognise the lived experience of the participants (Tracy, 2010) in an engaging, not boring, report (Tracy, 2010) that is interactive and descriptive (Scarduzio, Gianni and Geist-Martin, 2011). This testimony also allows for transferability, as readers can feel the report and relate it to experiences they may have had at different times and in different places (Lichtman, 2012; Leininger, 1994; Tracy, 2007). In terms of significant contribution, Studies

1 and 2 have theoretical significance, as they both confirm previous findings that washback of language testing exists. Study 1 showed the effect of language testing on students' learning and Study 2 on teachers' teaching, thus contributing to the scholarly community in terms of evaluation of knowledge (Tracy, 2007). In relation to ethical concerns, both studies followed research procedural ethics, such as the provision of informed consent and confidentiality of participants' identities through the use of pseudonyms. This adherence to principles of ethical behaviour in relation to research participants means that their privacy was protected and no harm was done (Sales & Folkman, 2000).

Contribution

Washback is the effect of testing in the way teachers teach and students learn. Teaching and learning involve human experiences, feeling, actions, point of view and perception and this can be investigated through qualitative approach; this approach allows researcher to get in-depth finding of human experiences in its real setting or situation. In the investigation of washback in language testing, qualitative approach has following contributions (Bailey, 1999): first, it can elicit the real problems that occur so that the research can be significant in addressing problems; second, qualitative research can use observation method to inquire phenomena in real world settings. Washback phenomena should be assessed in real world settings, not in experiment contexts, as the former can elicit the real feeling of participants of the effects of the language testing on them. If the research is in an experimental setting, results do not represent the real teaching situation during the preparation for the test. In addition, the true perceptions and feelings of participants cannot be identified, as they are not immersed in real test situations. An unreal test does not have consequences and does not affect participants' feelings (Bailey, 1999); and third, the various research methods used in the qualitative approach, such as individual interviews, focus group discussion, direct observation and document analysis, can complement each other to enrich the findings and enhance rigor (Bailey, 1999).

Acknowledgment

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ESL Teachers' Profile and Practices on Textbook Adaptation

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Abstract

This study is aimed to determine the textbook adaptation practices of private and public high school teachers of Northern Isabela and the teachers' profile in terms of their educational attainment, trainings/seminars attended and years of teaching experience. More importantly, it determined the extent of application of textbook adaptation and the problems encountered in textbook adaptation. Textbook adaptation is generally done by the respondents but the extent of application between public and private school teachers did not vary significantly. It is also important to note that identified variables did not differ significantly which implies that educational attainment, number of years in teaching English and number of relevant trainings do not influence textbook adaptation practices. Survey and interview results revealed that the problems encountered in textbook adaptation are: inadequacy of resources, resistance of low-achieving students to adaptations, individual needs of the students did not address learners' needs, and adaptation made is beyond the capability of the students.

As textbook adaptation in the teaching of fourth year English is widely used as a basic strategy to enhance effectiveness of instruction and to improve the quality of learning of the student, there is somehow an apparent difficulty on the part of the students to fully comprehend these materials. Regular evaluation of the textbook adaptations may be done to document and

to share best practices among teachers of English. The production of simplified yet practical textbook adaptations may serve as an opportunity to face the problems squarely.

Introduction

Education is a process of responding to the uniqueness of individuals, increasing presence, access, participation and achievement in a learning society. One challenge that teachers must face is how to work with a broad range of cultural, linguistic and intellectual differences among their students. Students are always considered as the heart of the educational system hence, lots of efforts are being exerted, specifically, by teachers to address the varied needs of these students. One example is the assistance they need to comprehend difficult textbooks issued to them.

Nowadays, there are lots of sources of information worldwide like the internet, television, learning software programs, and other reference materials. However, in the school setting, textbooks are the primary sources used in the daily planning and instruction, especially in content courses. Despite the promise of other media, textbooks still dominate in the classroom and serve as the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of the skills taught, and may function primarily to supplement the teachers' instruction. However, as these textbooks are considered the center in the planning instruction, dilemmas are also being encountered particularly by the students in the use of these textbooks, one of which is the student/text mismatch. This arises when the level of difficulty of these books is not parallel to the comprehension level of students. For instance, learners encounter books or chapters that they just cannot get into and are sometimes required to read topics that they may find boring simply because the text is written way above their current intellectual level.

Adam (2018) conducted a study on Research and Development (R&D) adapted from ADDIE Model (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation) by Steve J. McGriff, 2000. The research procedure started from analyzing materials in the syllabus of the 2013 Curriculum, analyzing the students' need, designing he blueprint, developing the materials, implementing the materials in the classroom, and evaluating the materials by experts of 2013 Curriculum (evaluator students book) using experts' judgment and rubrics of analyzing student book set by National Standard. The result of experts' judgment and rubrics seems to be that the materials are good, well-designed, well-organized, and proper to use to the learners. It

is also appropriate with the content of syllabus of the 2013 Curriculum and matches the students' need.

Nevertheless, teachers choose to rely on textbooks issued to them as their administrators expect them to do since textbooks are the bases in designing a curriculum. According to Baumann & Duffy (1997), Allington (2002), schools have practically exacerbated the problem by relying on a single source curriculum design, i. e., purchasing multiple copies of the same textbooks for every student. This "one size fits all" approach works well if we want to sort students into academic tracks but it fails miserably if our goal is high academic achievement for all students.

In response to the diversity and heightened awareness of the deepening chasm between the learners' reading level and text demands, more and more teachers find themselves in the position of having to find instructional methods to cope with this apparent student/text mismatch (Schumm, Vaughn & Saumell 1994).

Sipayung and Pangaribuan (2019) said that in preparing the materials, the teacher needs to conduct need analysis because every English language learners need English for different purposes. Through need, analysis learning materials are developed indirectly. However, there are some steps to develop these materials. First, a teacher needs to develop the syllabus through learning the learners need, choose item by item from the syllabus then develop the materials. Second, the nature of learning materials and learning principles are something that needs to develop. The nature of learning is dealt with the teacher ability to differentiate between materials (content) and language.

Since textbooks are used extensively in the classrooms around the world, learning how to use and adapt textbooks is an important part of teachers' professional knowledge to help students read and learn from text. Thus, as Schumm, Vaughn, & Saumell (1994) cited, a number of content area reading professionals advocate making instructional strategies and textbook adaptation to foster learning (Herber 1978; Robinsons, 1975; Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick & Kurita 1989; Schumm & Strickler, 1991).

Since it has been observed that teachers' use of instructional strategies and textbook adaptation in the classroom vary, this study delves onto the practices of teachers pertaining to textbooks adaptation to cater to the needs of the students in learning from textual materials.

Statement of the Problem

      This study was undertaken to examine the practices on textbook adaptation of private and public high school teachers in the Northern District of Isabela, Philippines who currently teach or had taught English in the fourth year curriculum.

Specifically, it sought to answer the following questions:

1.   What is the profile of teachers as to:

      1.1 highest educational attainment

      1.2 number of relevant trainings and seminars attended

      1.3 number of years of teaching English

2.   What is the extent of application of textbook adaptation among public and private school teachers?

3.   What are the problems encountered by teachers in textbook adaptation?

4.   Is there a difference between the public high school teachers' extent of textbook adaptation and that of private high school teachers?

5.   Is there a significant relationship between the profile variables and the extent of textbook adaptation?

Significance of the Study

      This study was conducted with the hope that its results will be useful to those who are directly and indirectly involved in teaching, particularly, in making textbook adaptation to facilitate students' learning from textual materials.

      The findings may provide teachers the opportunity to recognize their strengths and weaknesses in textbook adaptation. It will also encourage them to advance and enhance their strategies, methods, approaches and techniques in teaching and in employing textbook adaptation in the daily instruction to meet the needs of the diverse learners relative to comprehension on difficult textbooks.

      The results of this study may serve as guide among book writers thereby contributing to the solutions of problems teachers may encounter in textbook adaptation. It will encourage the administrators and curriculum specialists to provide teachers complete materials like textbooks, manuals and various textbook adaptations for daily instruction to accommodate individual student differences. It will also serve as basis in designing a curriculum, training programs and supplemental learning materials.

Through this study, students will be learning efficiently from textual materials because appropriate textbook adaptations will be applied by teachers in the daily instruction. It will provide information to parents on how their children learn best from textbooks and therefore have a follow up instruction at home.

The data and findings of this study will serve as a data bank for future researches on the subject.

Literature Review

Role of Textbooks

Textbooks are considered as the center of instruction. It has been widely accepted that textbooks play a vital role in the language classrooms (Richards, 2001).

Ur (1998) pointed out that textbooks provide explicit framework which clues teachers and learners in what they have done and what will be done. Moreover, she reported that textbooks are the cheapest tools as compared to other materials such as learning kits, photocopied worksheets or computer software.

O'Neill (1982), Sheldon (1988) and Ur (1998) agree that textbooks are efficient teaching materials which save both time and money. They have elucidated that textbooks help lessen the work of teachers in terms of constructing materials so that they can devote more of their time to teaching. In addition, textbooks are effective sources for teachers and learners because they are the products of experienced researchers and developers (Harmer, 2001).

Cunningsworth (1995) and Litz (2000), added that textbooks are very useful resources for self-directed learning; a reference for students; a source of ideas and activities; a syllabus that helps to reflect pre-established objectives; and a support for less-experienced teachers who need more confidence in exercising their profession.

O'Neill (1990) maintained that textbooks facilitate student's revision and preparation of lessons; they are 'labor-saving tools' in terms of time and money and that "they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation". In this way, textbooks are seen as flexible guides in the process of teaching and learning that save time and money.

Richards (1996) stated that textbooks are a key component in most language programs. In some situations they serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice the students take part in. In other situations, the textbook may serve primarily to supplement the teacher's instruction. For learners, the textbook may provide the major source of contact they have with

the language apart from input provided by the teacher. In the case of inexperienced teachers, textbooks may also serve as a form of teacher training as they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of commercial textbooks. Learning how to use and adapt textbooks is therefore an important part of a teacher's professional knowledge.

Problems Encountered in the Use of Textbooks

In spite of the above-mentioned advantages, a textbook has also its borders. Ur (1998) mentioned that textbooks are inadequate for supplying the needs of every learner. Moreover, some topics in textbooks are irreverent or uninteresting to actual classes which can possibly cause learners boredom and paucity of motivation. Textbooks may hinder a teacher's initiative and creativity because of its set structure and sequence. In addition, Richards (2001), stated that textbooks may not suit learners' needs because they are often written for global markets. Sheldon (1998) added that textbooks may not be worth money as they are seen as "poor compromises between what is educationally desirable on the one hand and financially viable on the other".

Problems in the use of these textbooks are as well faced in the education system aside from its limitations. The definite goal of reading is to be able to comprehend and analyze what is written in a printed text material. Yet, one cannot be able to do it if the text is uninteresting and difficult to understand. One known problem as regards learning from textbooks is student/text mismatch wherein the books' difficulty level is above the comprehension level of the students. Research shows that many classrooms use textbooks written two or more years above the average grade level of their students (Chall & Conard, 1991). In response to this problem, educators have probed various instructional practices used by teachers to make students understand and learn new information from difficult textbooks that includes textbook adaptation since, as Sanchez and Valcarcel (1999) stated, "when we focus on textbook's usage, we see that teachers often use textbooks for planning study programs and preparing the content of the lessons".

A range of problems with textbook materials have been addressed by a number of researchers. O'Neill (1982) suggests that the textbook can only provide props and framework for classroom teaching; and no textbook can be appealing to all teachers or learners at a particular level. McDonough and Shaw (1993) also proposed that textbooks, albeit internally coherent, may not be totally applicable. Swales (1980) contended that any given course book

will be incapable of catering to the diversity of needs which exists in most language classrooms. Allwright (1981) also maintained that given the complexity of the whole business of the management of language learning, even with the best intentions, no single textbook can possibly work in all situations. Sheldon (1988) addresses lack of cultural appropriateness of some textbooks, i.e., the thinking underlying the textbook writing may be different from or in conflict with the assumptions held by the teachers.

Textbook Adaptation

Textbook adaptation as defined by Schumm, Vaughn &Saumell (1994), is any instructional accommodation used to facilitate reading of textbook material that include: determination of student/ text match, actual changes to the textbook, classroom instructional practices and instruction in reading/study strategies that make students self-sufficient in reading textbooks.

Very often, adaptation involves supplementation, that is, teachers add materials from other resources to the textbook they are using. It is believed that authentic materials are better than non-authentic materials for supplementation. So teachers who make a point of collecting authentic materials find it much easier to adapt textbooks.

When instructional materials set a barrier to student learning, teachers can adapt it to allow the learners reach greater success. This may be defined as changing the level, context or additions of an activity in order to cover the needs of the learners in an improved way.

Adapting materials allows teachers to achieve more compatibility and fitness between the textbook and the teaching environment, and maximize the value of the book for the benefit of their particular learners and to attain the most effective teaching outcomes. It would consequently lead to the improvement of the textbook in the sense of being able to suit the particular situation and empowering the teachers as well as enhancing their skills (Apple and Jungck, 1990; Shannon, 1987).

As for the students, O' Neil (1982) stated that the application of textbook adaptation in the instruction increases students' active involvement in the classroom activities. They are freed from the boring process of going through the exercises item by item, and are engaged in spontaneous and creative interactions.

Despite the great effort that textbook writers make to meet the needs of the intended users, textbooks are subject to adaptation when they are actually used in the classroom. After all, most commercial textbooks are not written for any particular class.

Yan (2007) in an investigation on teachers' materials adaptation proved that teachers carry out textbook adaptations at different stages of their teaching. Some added warm-up activities at the beginning of the lesson, e.g., introducing background knowledge, aims and objectives to stimulate the students' interest. Some trainees tried adaptations in the middle of their teaching. As the findings indicate, the trainees' adaptations made their teaching more engaging and communicative, and therefore beneficial to the students.

According to Sinan Misirli (2010), the adaptation of materials undoubtedly reflects the concern of the teacher about his/her learners in terms of learning atmosphere and objectives. In addition, she stated the following reasons for adapting materials such as textbooks:

- *Not Enough Grammatical Input*: Some course books may lack, somehow, the grammar coverage in general. This may be a problem for the learners who are getting ready for exams like TOEFL/IELTS around the world KPDS/ÜDS/YDS which are extremely trendy and of vast significance in Turkey.

- *Not Communicative Enough*: Many course books, even though they are claimed to be communicative, may lack communicative input to increase communicative performance which may root a huge gap between the overall aim of language teaching and the lesson material.

- *Not Appropriate Level*: The level of the course book may not appeal to the level of learners. It may be lower or higher than the aimed challenging level.

- *Not Appealing to Learning Styles*: The activities may not appeal to VAKOG or MI. In such a case, while some of the learners are easily grasped the lesson some will be missed obviously.

- *Too Long/Too Short*: Lesson sessions are most often time controlled. This obliges the teachers to manage the time of the in-class activities. A teacher may need a shorter piece of goings-on or longer depending on timing.

- *Not Balanced Skills*: The balance of skills may be deficient in quality or there may be too much emphasis on one specific language skill area. At that moment the teacher is required to set the balance needed once more. The balance of the skills may be satisfactory enough; however, the teacher may think learners need to focus on a specific skill. Vocabulary activities, for instance, may be added if the learners lack vocabulary comprehension. In that case, for a second time adaptation is up to the teacher.

- *Sequence or Grading*: Order of language may need change according to the needs of the learners. Or, some points may need to be omitted, if found unnecessary for the needs

of learners by the teacher.

- *Inappropriate Methods*: The exercises may be too mechanical filled with drills. It may be short of meaningful activities or may be too complicated for the aimed objectives.

- *Cultural Content*: Culture is crucial and may be even fragile in English classes. A cultural reference may need to be omitted because of a cultural reflection in a country may be problematic in another.

- *Not Enough Audio-Visual Back-Up*: Audios and visuals may project poor layout and low quality. And for audio materials, they may be tricky in terms of level, timing and quality.

- *Uninteresting Topics*: Learners' interests differ and some topics in course books may not appeal to the learners and they need to be changed to catch more learners in terms of attention throughout the lesson.

Since students in the country are non-native speakers of English, many cases of difficulty in the comprehension of the standardized texts issued in schools are being encountered. That is why the use of a variety of instructional strategies must be incorporated specially by content area teachers in their classroom routines that suits into learners' needs in order to help them in understanding texts.

Grigorescu & Dwyer (2000), in their study, emphasized how the grade and/or age of the student who enters school impacts the amount of English language work in front of them as they enter class for the first time. Their investigation indicates that there exists a mismatch between the language of textbooks and language of ESL students in mainstream classrooms. The mismatch lies in that the demands on ESL students to learn longer sentences with more abstract vocabulary intensify almost geometrically between fourth and eighth grades, thus creating a super-challenging atmosphere that younger learners certainly do not encounter.

Similarly, Richards and Mahoney (1996) conducted a survey intended to examine teachers' beliefs and practices in using textbooks in secondary schools in Hong Kong. They found out that teachers used different textbooks and supplementary work in their daily teaching. The findings also revealed that teachers believed that textbooks could assist them to teach English effectively.

Additionally, Muhamad (2009) investigated how teachers of English in Indonesia used and applied textbooks in their classrooms. The findings revealed that teachers concluded that textbooks could not serve teachers' and learners' needs because they lack content appropriateness.

Bean, Zigmond & Hartman (1994) in their study on views of classroom teachers in the adapted use of social studies textbooks in elementary classrooms, interviewed twenty-two classroom teachers (Grades 1 through 7) to obtain information about how they use their Social Studies textbooks, the problems they experienced, and their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the texts. Teachers were also asked to describe the modifications or adaptations they made to help students who might have difficulty understanding the textbook. Results indicated that although teachers liked having the textbook as a resource, they were concerned about content and comprehensibility. Teachers tended to solve the problem of textbook difficulty in three ways: 1) helping students to cope with the textbook, 2) deemphasizing the textbook, or 3) reinforcing and extending textbook information.

Schumm, Vaughn & Saumell (1992) focused their study on the middle and high school students' views of instructional practices which teachers may use to facilitate reading of difficult textbooks. They found out that there is a difference between students' perceptions of the desirability of textbook adaptations (high) and their perceptions of the frequency of use of these adaptations in the classroom (low). Students do not feel they are being exposed to the types of instructional adaptations they need. This is particularly true among high school students and higher achieving students.

Harmer (1998) says that taking into consideration that sometimes textbooks can be inappropriate for teachers and students, they should be "approached with a degree of healthy skepticism "which allows teachers and students to carefully evaluate their content and to use them "judiciously for their own ends", rather than have textbooks control the process of teaching/learning. He adds that the fact that not everything in the textbook is suitable gives teachers the opportunity to use their own creativity, in which there is a dialogue between the teacher and the textbook that works for the benefit of the students. Thus, when teachers use their own ideas and other sources, rather than rely only on the textbook, there is an effective engagement of teachers on the process of teaching, which might provoke, on its turn, student's involvement in the lesson. Correspondingly, the present study focused on teachers' extent of application of textbook adaptation in classroom instruction to facilitate students' learning and the problems teachers encountered in adapting textbooks. This study is similar in the sense that it also studies the use of textbook adaptation for the efficiency of teaching and learning process.

Conceptual Framework

Several studies have been conducted to improve the quality of learning of the students in different learning areas considering their diversity as learners. A lot of those focused on how

to address the needs of the students. Teachers and students are obliged to use textbooks issued to them although these books are, on the part of the students, difficult to learn. Teachers always take into consideration the students' comprehension that is why they have incorporated a number of instructional strategies, approaches and techniques to make the teaching – learning process effective. Various textbooks adaptations are being used to help students understand difficult textbooks. A lot of trainings and programs had also been assigned in order to help improve the quality of learning. In this study, various textbook adaptations and the profile of teachers are associated in the assessment on the teachers' extent of application of textbook adaptation in the daily instruction and the problems they encountered in the application of these adaptations. The findings of this study will serve as a basis in designing training programs on book writing.

The relationship of the variables is shown in the paradigm below.

Input		**Output**
• **Teachers' Profile** • **Extent of Textbook Adaptation** • **Problems encountered on Textbook Adaptation**	⇨	**Bases for supplemental Learning Materials Development**
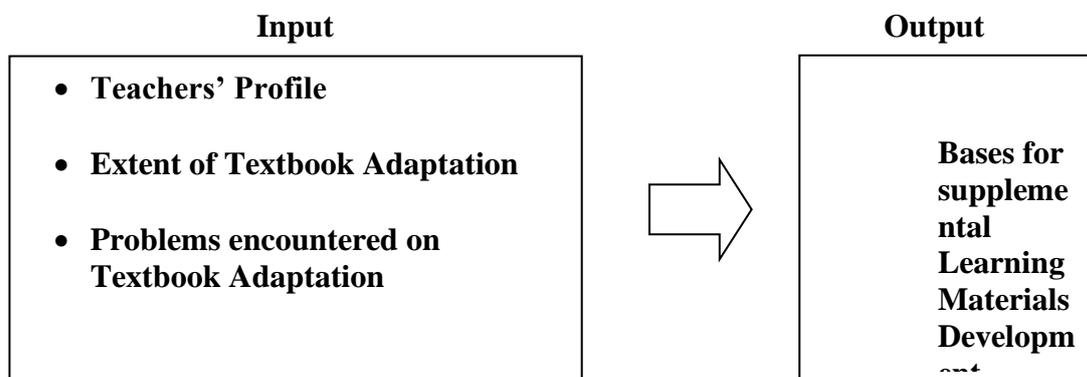
Figure 1. Research Paradigm

Methodology

Research Design

This study is a qualitative and quantitative research as variables were correlated in order to provide bases for supplemental learning materials development. The application of this design examines the relationship between the profile variables of two groups of teachers; investigates on their practices pertaining to textbook adaptation; and probes on the problems they encountered in adapting textbooks.

Respondents of the Study

The respondents of this research were public and private high school teachers of English who are currently teaching or have experienced teaching English subject in the fourth year curriculum. The study used total enumeration of all teachers of English IV in the four (4) public and five (5) private high schools. Four general public high schools were as follows: Delfin

Albano High School, Sta. Maria National High School, Sto Tomas National High School and San Pablo National High School. Private school teachers, on the other hand, are from the following: School of St. Mathias, St. Ferdinand College-Cabagan Campus, Magsaysay Memorial High School, Northern Isabela Academy and Advanced Montessori Education Center of Isabela.

Research Instrument

The researchers utilized a questionnaire consisting of three parts. Part I of the instrument gathered the personal profile of the teachers as to their highest educational attainment, number of relevant trainings attended, and their length of service. Part II solicited information on the teachers' practices in adapting textbooks which consists of a list of possible textbook adaptations that directed teachers to rate each item on the extent of their application of those adaptations using a scale from 1 = very low to 5 = very high. The researchers modified and used the Schumm, Vaughn & Saumell's Textbook Adaptation Instrument to gather data needed which are the teachers' practices with regard to textbook adaptation. Specifically, she adopted only the textbook adaptation practices from the said instrument and the scale was revised as well. Meanwhile, Part III identified the problems encountered by teachers of English in the use of textbook adaptations during or before the instruction which was validated through recorded interview.

Data Gathering Procedure

The researchers personally delivered the questionnaire to the identified students where each was asked to answer all the items in the evaluation instrument that include their personal profile, reading strategies and reading proficiency level. The questionnaire will be collected a week later. To establish validity and reliability and for supplementary information, additional questions were asked from the respondents. The ratings and other information that were gathered were tabulated, analyzed, and interpreted using appropriate statistical tools.

Data Analysis

The researchers utilized the following statistical tools for the analysis and interpretation of the data. Means, percentages and standard deviation were used for the profile and extent of employing reading comprehension strategies in the English class. To describe the extent of application of strategies, the scale below was be used.

Interval   Description

4.50 – 5.50	Always
3.50 – 4.49	Sometimes
2.50 – 3.49	Seldom
1.50 – 2.49	Rarely
1.00 – 1.49	Never

To determine the significant difference between the extent of application of public and private teachers of English on textbook adaptation, t-test for independent group was employed. Fisher Exact Probability test was used to determine the relationship between and among variables. The hypotheses of the study were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Results and Discussion

Age The frequency distribution of respondents' age is presented in Table 1. The data show that 13 or 39.39% of the respondents are within the age bracket of 21-30. This implies that majority of them are relatively new in the teaching profession.

Table 1. Frequency Distribution of Respondents According to Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
51 and above	6	18.18
41 – 50	5	15.15
31 – 40	8	24.24
21 – 30	13	39.39
Below 20	1	3.03
Total	**33**	**100**

Educational Attainment

Table 2 shows that 11 or 33.33 % of the respondents are BSED or AB degree holders, 10 or 30.30% are with MA units; 7 or 21.21% are MAED/MAT degree holders; 4 or 12.12% are with PhD units; while 1 or 3.03% of the respondents is a PhD degree holder.

Table 2. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents According to their Highest Educational Attainment

Highest Educational Attainment	Frequency	Percentage

BSED/AB	11	33.33
BSED/AB with MA Units	10	30.30
MAED/MAT Degree Holder	7	21.21
MAED/MAT with PhD Units	4	12.12
PhD Degree Holder	1	3.03
Total	**33**	**100**

Relevant Trainings and Seminars Attended

As shown in table 3, about 70 % of the respondents attended 1 – 3 relevant trainings and seminars. This is due to the fact that most of them are relatively young and new in the teaching profession.

Table 3. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents According to the Number of Relevant Trainings and Seminars Attended

No. of Trainings and Seminars Attended	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
1 – 3	23	69.69
4 – 6	7	21.21
7 – 9	2	6.06
10 – 12	1	3.03
Total	**33**	**100**

Years of Teaching English IV

Table 4 presents the respondents' length of years of teaching English in the fourth year curriculum. As reflected in the table, 21 respondents or 63.64% have been teaching the English subject from 1 to 3 years; 6 or 18.18% have 4-6 years of teaching experience, 4 or 12.12% have 7-9 years while only 2 or 6.06% have been teaching English for 10 to 12 years.

Table 4. Frequency Distribution of Respondents According to the Number of Years of Teaching English IV

No. of Years of Teaching English	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
1 – 3	21	63.64

4 – 6	6	18.18
7 – 9	4	12.12
10 -12	2	6.06
Total	**33**	**100**

Extent of Textbook Adaptation

   Table 5 presents teachers' extent of application of textbook adaptation. It reveals that teachers efficiently practiced textbook adaptation in the following aspects: Student/Text Interaction, Provide Direct Assistance, Structure Lessons to Promote Comprehension, and Teach Reading Strategies as indicated by their mean ratings of 3.87, 4.06, 4.06 and 3.89, respectively. On the other hand, the teachers of English are fairly efficient in applying the following aspects: Simplify Textbook/Assignments and Supplementing the Textbooks as shown in their mean ratings of 3.45 and 3.09. Generally, as supported by their overall mean rating of 3.74, the teachers of English highly practiced textbook adaptation.

Table 5. Extent of Respondents' Textbook Adaptation

Textbook Adaptation Practices	Mean Rating	Description
A. Student/Text Interaction	3.87	High
B. Provide Direct Assistance	4.06	High
C. Simplify Textbook/Assignment	3.45	Average
D. Supplement the Textbooks	3.09	Average
E. Structure Lessons to Promote Comprehension	4.06	High
F. Teach Reading Strategies	3.89	High
Overall Mean = 3.74 (High)		

Comparison of Mean Ratings of Public and Private School Teachers

   Table 6 shows the comparison between the mean ratings of public (3.799) and private (3.620) school teachers in textbook adaptation which differed by 0.179. The difference was subjected to a t-test with a computed value of 0.88. The computed t-value was found less than the critical value ($\pm$ 2.0399) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted

which means there is no significant difference between the extent of textbook adaptation among public and private high school English teachers.

Table 6. Summary of Mean Ratings and t–Values in Textbook Adaptation Among Public and Private School Teachers in Textbook Adaptation

Teachers	Mean	Variance	Computed t-Value	Critical Value	Decision
Public	3.7985	6			Not
Private	3.6200	4	0.88	±2.0399	Significant

Teachers' Extent of Textbook Adaptation and their Profile Variables

The study further investigated whether there is a relationship between teachers' textbook adaptation and their profile variables. It can be gleaned from Table 7 that the identified variables are not significantly related. This is supported by the computed probability values, 1.0, 0.36 and 0.63 for highest educational attainment, number of years in teaching English and number of relevant trainings, respectively, which are all greater than the level of significance at 0.05. Hence, teachers' extent of textbook adaptation are independent with their educational attainment, number of years in teaching English and number of relevant trainings. Furthermore, this means that the higher educational attainment, the more the number of years of teaching and the more the number of relevant trainings of teachers do not necessarily mean that they are efficient in their practices in textbook adaptation. Likewise, teachers of English who have low educational attainment, number of years of teaching and relevant trainings does not essentially mean that they are inefficient in adapting textbook.

Table 7. Summary of Fisher's Exact Probability Values on Teachers' Textbook Adaptation and their Profile Variables

Profile Variables	Computed Probability Value
Highest Educational Attainment	1.00 (ns)
Number of Years in Teaching English	0.36 (ns)
Number of Relevant Trainings	0.63 (ns)

(ns) = means not significant at 0.05 level

Common Problems Encountered by Teachers on Textbook Adaptation

This study also identified the problems encountered by the teachers in adapting textbooks as it is an essential factor which supplemental learning materials developers should consider to make the teaching and learning process effective. Fourth Year teachers of English in private and public high schools usually adapt textbooks to enhance efficacy of teaching and to advance students' learning. Based on the responses in the interviews, it is very evident that inadequacy of resources is the most frequent problem encountered among public school teachers on textbook adaptation which includes multimedia or instructional materials. Most of the Fourth-Year teachers who adapt textbook faced this dilemma. As one stated, she needed audio–video materials for a film viewing instead of numbing her students' mind by letting them read, understand and react to more than a hundred-page Old English epic poem on their own. Unfortunately, those instructional materials were not available in school. This is parallel to Yan's findings (2007) in her study that the limitations of available resources had made teachers' ideas less feasible than they originally anticipated. This leads to the generalization that lack of resource materials and facilities can considerably restrain the success in textbook adaptation.

The unwillingness of low achieving students in textbook adaptations is next to the recurring difficulty high school teachers are facing. This is when teachers give some tasks or activities like simulations, conducting interviews, small group discussions, role plays and the likes, and students did not bother to participate or to accomplish those tasks. Respondents articulated as well that low–achieving students were resistant to adaptation due to fear and laziness. Apparently, the least problems encountered by teachers on textbook adaptations were: non feasibility of textbook adaptation due to classroom condition, and difficulty in adapting textbooks. Some textbook adaptations made by teachers were not practicable due to time constraints, unavailability of facilities and/or physical equipment, and others that prompted them to craft other forms of adapting textbook. A teacher-respondent found an issued textbook difficult to adapt as the contents were difficult to understand. This is because of the high approach of the language that made her hard to adapt the said textbook. It is a truism that one cannot teach what he/she does not know. So, that said teacher had to look for other references like those in the internet to understand better the topics from the book issued to them and to create more activities suited to her students' abilities. This confirmed O'Neil's (1982) suggestion that textbooks can only provide props and frameworks of classroom teaching; and

no textbook can appeal to all teachers or learners at a particular level. This means that textbooks cannot cover all the needs of students so that teachers had to adapt it to allow the learners reach greater success by changing the level of difficulty, context or additions of activities. As Swales (1980) contended, prescribed course books are incapable for catering to the diversity of needs which exists in more language classrooms.

It is also evident that most teachers of English in private high schools experienced the same problems as those in public high schools. These problems include inadequacy of resources, the attitude of students towards textbook adaptation made, and the adaptation made that is above the students' level of ability.

Table 8. Common Problems Encountered by Teachers on Textbook Adaptation

Problems	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Inadequacy of resources	28	84.84	1
Low achieving students are resistant to adaptations	17	51.51	2
Textbook adaptation made did not address individual needs of the students	14	42.42	3
Adaptation made is above the ability level of students	9	27.27	4
Time is not enough to employ textbook adaptation during instruction	8	24.24	5
Adaptation made did not stimulate learners to think critically	3	9.09	6
It is difficult to adapt textbook	2	6.06	7.5
It is not feasible given the reality of the classroom condition	2	6.06	7.5

Conclusions

Majority of the respondents are relatively young and are bachelor's degree holders, have attended few relevant trainings/seminars, and are relatively new in the teaching profession. All of the respondents highly practice textbook adaptation. Moreover, the public and private teachers of English are likely to have the same extent of textbook adaptation. The educational attainment, number of years of teaching English, and number of relevant trainings

attended by teachers of English do not influence/affect their extent of textbook adaptation and majority of the respondents experienced lack/inadequacy of resources.

Recommendations

1. The problem on lack/ inadequacy of learning resources (library, manuals, modules, etc.) and physical equipment facilities (audio-visual gadgets and materials) requires an immediate solution on the part of the school administrators. Strategies for funding and acquisition of such resources and facilities may be devised in order to address this problem.

2. Low-achieving students' resistance to textbook adaptation should be given priority in terms of remediation or reinforcement.

3. A regular evaluation of the textbook adaptations may serve as venue for sharing best practices among teachers of English. Production of more simplified and practical textbook adaptations may meet the demands of individual learners of varied intellectual levels.

4. Other researchers may conduct similar but in–depth studies using other variables.

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The Effect of Peer Feedback on Students' Writing Anxiety and Students' Writing Ability

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Abstract

The complexities of writing that require the learners to understand certain level of linguistic knowledge, writing conventions, vocabulary mastery and grammar create anxiety among the students when they practice writing in English. Anxiety itself can obstruct students' writing ability. Students with high anxiety tend to have low writing ability. Hence, a teaching strategy needs to be created to handle this problem. Peer feedback technique is one of the strategies that is assumed to help the students create conducive learning environment that affects their writing skill. Applying two groups post-test quasi-experimental research design, the present study aims to examine the effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability. The data taken from both control group and experimental group were analyzed using independent sample t-test, then, continued to MANOVA. The result revealed that (1) the students who were taught by using peer feedback had lower writing anxiety than those taught using a conventional strategy; (2) the students who were taught by using peer feedback had better writing ability than those taught using a conventional strategy; (3) there was significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and their writing ability.To get more comprehensive result, it is recommended for further researchers to use two group pre-test post-test and to compare the use of peer feedback with another technique.

Key words: Peer Feedback, Writing Anxiety, Writing Ability

Introduction

Mastering the basic skills of English (listening, speaking, reading and writing) as well as some language components (phonology, vocabulary and grammar) is not quite easy task for EFL learners. Many problems emerge as they feel suppressed since their English is bad, they do not want to practice English (Elaldi, 2016). They are afraid of making an error thus they have anxiety on English among the students.

Among the four skills, writing is one of the skills which is important to be taught. It becomes a measure for academic success (Jahin, 2012). Achieving writing proficiency in English gives advantages for learners to attain academic success. Writing proficiency is greatly affected because most students refrain from completing their writing tasks as soon as anxiety sets in (Marites, 2018). Richards & Renandya (2002:303) admit that "writing is the most difficult skill for second or foreign learners to master". It is because writing is a complex process of putting ideas down on paper to transform thoughts into words (Brown, 2001:336)

and certainly it requires a certain level of linguistics knowledge, writing conventions, vocabulary and grammar (Erkan & Saban, 2011). They also need to consider the flow of the ideas in order to be connected together as well as the link between clauses and sentences so that the readers can follow the sequence of ideas well. Thus, writing is known as the complex skill. Writing complexities are able to produce anxiety among the student. As stated by Kara (2013), writing anxiety appears because of language complexity in general and complexity of writing as a skill in particular. Writing anxiety is defined as a "fear of the writing process that outweighs the projected gain from the ability to write" (Thompson as cited in Kurt & Atay, 2007). It can be 'a general avoidance of writing and of situations perceived by the individuals to potentially require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing' (Hassan, 2001). Simply, writing complexities can create writing anxiety that lead the students to avoid writing or situations which require them to write while accompanied by evaluation.

Writing involves as much as anxiety since it is individual work which cause the students feel they are deprived of help, support and encouragement (Tsui cited in Kurt & Atay, 2007). Moroever, lack of knowledge in English structure, negative attitude toward writing, even negative writing experience in the past, insufficient writing proficiency in English, writing under time constraints, non-native-like expressions, fear of negative teacher's comments or feedback, low self-confidence (Al-Shboul & Huwari, 2015; Ho, 2016; Rezaei & Jafari, 2014) can be sources of writing anxiety among the students. However, the most common source is fear of teacher's negative feedback (Ho 2016; Rezaei & Jafari 2014; Jebreil, et.al 2015). Thus, the sources of writing anxiety do not only come from students themselves but also from their teachers or their friends (Wahyuni & Umam, 2017).

Anxiety experienced by the students can affect the students' ability. It can hinder students' ability in composing English writing. As mentioned by Daly cited in Kurt & Atay (2007), students with high-anxiety compared to the students' with low-anxiety, tend to be less thoughtful, they are lower in quality, and less competent in their performance. Similarly, Al-Asmari (2013) also asserted that students who have high anxiety, they have low achievement. Furthermore, Badrasawi, et.al (2016) explored respondents' perception on their research that writing apprehension has a negative effect on students' writing performance. Then, the sources could be from students, instructors, and teaching learning setting.

Since writing is important to be taught, it is very crucial to find teaching technique for improving students' skill in writing along with reducing students' writing anxiety. According to Setiyadi (2006), technique is something which exists in language teaching and learning in

the class. It has a role in language teaching and learning. A suitable technique in the class may foster students to involve in the classroom activity. It is a job for the teachers to find the suitable technique in teaching writing. In this case, the teachers should provide a technique to improve students' writing ability and to reduce students' writing anxiety dealing with fear of teachers' negative feedback.

Nowadays, peer feedback technique is commonly suggested to be used as the student-centered approach and process writing approach become the trend in writing classes (Setyawan, 2017). Basically, peer feedback referred to under different names such as peer response, peer review, peer editing, and peer evaluation (Bijami et.al, 2013).Peer feedback is about students providing constructive comments on a peer's work; it does not involve awarding of marks but is a formative step prior to submission of a piece of work (Khusnia, 2015). The students may start by writing on their own; once the first draft is done, their peers read it and comment on it. Then they revise it by considering their peers' remarks (Lee, 1997). It is usually done in groups, as stated by Hyland (2003), peer feedback is assigning students to groups of two, three, or four who exchange completed first drafts and give comments on each other's work before they revise them.

Peer feedback has many positive effects on students' writing classes (Jahin, 2012; Yastibas, et.al. 2015). By learning to evaluate one another's writing, students can learn new ideas and vocabulary and understand the criteria of good writing (Khusnia, 2015) and they can clarify and ask questions even discuss the responses instantaneously (Bartels, 2003) so that they can improve their writing assignment before submitting to their teacher. Besides, when the students are asked to give correction, they will be more motivated to read because it will help them in while giving correction. Thus, peer feedback is assumed to help the students creating conducive learning environment that affects students' writing ability.

Many studies has proved the positive effects of peer feedback on writing classes. Mittan's study (cited in Jahin, 2012) found the positive impacts such as enhancing positive attitudes towards writing within ESL/EFL learners; giving students a sense of audience; increasing their motivation and confidence in their writing; helping them learn to evaluate their own writing better. The others studies such as the finding of Yastibas, et.al. (2015) showed that most of the students liked using peer feedback in their writing classes. It made their learning environment less anxious and stressful because it helped the students collaborate with each other more. This collaboration helped them learn more from each other, according to the students.

Furthermore, Kurt & Atay (2007) also found that the mean scores of students' writing anxiety who do peer feedback are lower than those who do not. Then, the result of interview also showed that most of the students like implementing peer feedback because they could identify their mistakes, and gave them opinions to elaborate in their essays. Besides that, they can clarify the parts that were unclear and they can also help each other in using more appropriate vocabulary and correcting the grammar of their sentences. Similarly, Sujannah & Cahyono (2017) found that the use of self-selected topic and checklist-based peer feedback could improve the students' writing ability. The students know how to develop their ideas into a written text. They might have learned how to organize, elaborate, develop, and support their ideas by giving detailed information or facts from their classmates' work during peer feedback activity. They could also know aspects that need to be improved to have better quality of writing. They knew their strengths and weaknesses in writing since they could compare their work to their classmates' work.

Then, a study by Jahin (2012) also found that peer reviewing group participants experienced significantly less writing anxiety than the control group participants who got teacher feedback. Besides, there is a positive impact of using peer reviewing in participant's essay writing ability. In addition, Pratiwi (2016) studied the effectiveness of peer editing to teach writing skill from the perspective of students' creativity. She compared peer feedback technique to collaborative writing technique. Then, she found that students who were given peer editing had higher scores than students who were given collaborative writing. Thus, there are many facts show that peer feedback has positive effect on students' writing anxiety and writing ability.

However, some studies yielded negative effects of the use of peer feedback (Maarof et.al, 2011; Wakabayashi, 2013). Maarof et.al, (2011) resulted negative perception of the use of peer feedback in enhancing ESL writing. Along the same line, Wakabayashi (2013) found, there was no significant gains of students' writing performance although had been reviewed by their peer. The students perceived that peer feedback was less facilitative in enhancing their writing ability due to their peers were less proficient in giving feedback by not giving detail correction on their draft.

Since the research findings of the use of peer feedback activity in writing classes are inconsistent, more studies on peer feedback activity are needed and need further exploration. It is assumed to have general principles when applying peer feedback activity in order to succeed peer feedback activity. Kangni (2015) mentioned some tactics to make success peer feedback activity. It covers peer feedback training, suitable equipment, grouping process,

teacher's role, emphasizing the positive peer feedback. The absence of the general principles when applying peer feedback activity might lead to unsuccessful peer feedback implementation (Setyawan, 2017). Thus, the general principles are necessary to be applied to succeed peer feedback activity.However, the previous studies are lack on implementing the general principles that contribute to succeed peer feedback activity. Thus, this study aims to test whether or not peer feedback can affect positively on students' writing anxiety and writing ability.

Depart from the background of the study, the present study seeks to find answers of the following research questions:

1. Do the students who are taught using peer feedback have lower writing anxiety than students who are taught without using peer feedback?

2. Do the students who are taught using peer feedback have higher writing ability than students who are taught without using peer feedback?

3. Is there any effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability?

Based on the results of reviewing the previous studies, the research hypothesis can be set up as follows:

1. The students who are taught by using peer feedback have lower writing anxiety than the students who are taught without using peer feedback.

2. The students who are taught by using peer feedback have better writing ability than the students who are taught without using peer feedback.

3. There is significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability.

Research Method

The research design of this study was quasi-experimental research withtwo groups post-test. As the researchers cannot randomly assign subjects to experimental treatments for a study, the experimenter had to use already-assembled groups such as classes (Ary et.al, 2010: 26). Thus, this research used two intact classes: one class was as the experimental group and another one class was as the control group.Two of twelve classes of eleventh grade students of SMAN 6 Kediri were chosen by using cluster random sampling technique by using lottery. XI MIPA 3 consisted of 34 students was assigned as the experimental group and XI MIPA 2 consisted of 33 students was assigned as the control group.

Research Procedures

The two groups were investigated in 8 weeks. The experimental group were taught by using peer feedback while the control group were taught without using peer feedback. Both of them were given a post-test where they had to write an explanation text with certain theme at the 8th meeting. Peer feedback was trained to the experimental groups at the 2nd – 7th meetings. Thus, they received feedback from their peers. Whereas, the control group did not get feedback from their peers. Peer feedback was conducted at the revising and editing phases. However, the experimental group had already trained to have peer feedback activity equipped with peer feedback sheet before the treatment began. Thus, they knew what they had to do in the treatment process.

Research Instruments

To collect data two research instruments were used;writing test and questionnaire. Questionnaire was used to measure the students' writing anxiety while writing test was used to test students' writing ability. The questionnaire was adapted from Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) by Cheng (2004) which consisted of 22 items scored on five-point likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The writing test consisted the instruction to write an explanation text with a minimum 3 paragraphs with the theme "how does flood happen?".

Before administering the instruments, validity test and reliability test were conducted. The results of validity test of the questionnaire were one item was invalid (10), then, twenty one items were valid (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22). The invalid one was excluded. So, the total of the items was 21 items. Then, the result of reliability test by using *Cronbach's Alpha* technique resulted 0.874 which indicated very high reliability. Furthermore, the writing test was validated first by the experts of writing then continued with construct and content validity. Afterwards, the writing test was tested to see the reliability by using inter-rater reliability. The result of this test was 0.846 indicated excellent agremeent which implied that the two raters had excellent agreement on assessing students' writing ability.

Data Analysis

The data of this study were obtained from the questionnaire scores and writing test scores. The data of the questionnaire were 67 scores. Similarly, the data of the writing test were

67 scores. Afterwards, they were analyzed by using independent sample t-test, then, continued to MANOVA.

Finding

Fulfillment of the Statistical Assumptions

The fulfillment of the statistical assumptions was done to the test of normality and homogeneity. The tests were applied to the two kinds of data: writing anxiety scores and writing ability scores. The data were obtained from experimental and control group. The results of the test for each group were presented as follows:

Result of Normality Test

 1. **Writing Anxiety**

The results of normality test were obtained from experimental and control group. The result of normality test of writing anxiety of experimental group showed 0.63 which meant that the students' writing anxiety who were taught by using peer feedback had normal distribution. The result of normality test of writing anxiety of control group showed 0.200 which meant that the students' writing anxiety of control group also had normal distribution. Henceforth, the students' writing anxiety both experimental and control group had normal distribution.

 2. **Writing Ability**

The results of normality test were taken from experimental and control group. The result of normality test of writing ability of experimental group showed 0.200 which meant the students' writing ability scores of experimental group had normal distribution. Then, the result of normality test of control group showed 0.200 which meant that the students' writing ability scores of control group had normal distibution. In the conclusion, the students' writing ability scores both experimental and control group had normal distribution.

Result of Homogeneity Test

 1. **Writing Anxiety**

The homogeneity test of writing anxiety was done for experimental and control group. Then, the results of homogeneity test of writing anxiety is 0.073 which was bigger than 0.05. It meant that the students' writing anxiety of the two groups were homogeneous.

2. Writing Ability

The homogeneity test of writing ability for experimental and control group was done. The result of this test showed 0.081. It was greater than 0.05. So, the decision was students' writing ability scores of the two groups were homogeneous.

Result of Writing Anxiety of the Experimental and Control Group

1. Data Description of Writing Anxiety

The data description in this part presented the results data which were obtained from the questionnaire. The description covered the mean, mode, median, minimum, maximum, and the frequency.The result of data description of writing anxiety of experimental group could be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 Data Description of Writing Anxiety of Experimental Group

Class Limit	Frequency
59 – 62	2
63 – 66	5
67 – 70	12
71 – 74	5
75 – 78	5
79 – 82	2
83 – 85	3
Mean	71,38
Median	69,50
Mode	69
Maximum	85
Minimum	59

Based on the Table 1, the mean of students' writing anxiety taught by using peer feedback resulted 71,38. The highest score was 85 and the lowest score was 59. Besides, the mode of experimental group was 69, while, the median was 69,50. The data description of writing anxiety of control group could be seen in Table 2.

Table 2 Data Description of Writing Anxiety of Control Group

Class Limit	Frequency
61 – 66	4
67 – 72	7
73 – 78	6
79 – 84	9
85 – 91	4
92 – 97	3
Mean	77,67
Median	78
Mode	71
Maximum	97
Minimum	61

The result of descriptive analysis of the students' writing anxiety who were not taught by using peer feedback showed that the scores were 61 up to 97. The highest score was 97 and the lowest score was 61. Moreover, the mean of their writing anxiety was higher than experimental one, that was 77,67. Then, the median was 78 and the mode was 71.

2. **T-test Result of Writing Anxiety**

To know whether the result of experimental and control group had a statistically significance difference, independent sample t-test was done. The result of t-testwas presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Result of Writing Anxiety

Independent Samples Test

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
Writing anxiety scores	Equal variances assumed	3,328	,073	-3,314	65	,002	-6,284	1,897	-10,072	-2,497
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,297	57,470	,002	-6,284	1,906	-10,101	-2,468

Based on the Table 3, the result of t-test showed 0.002. Based on the criteria and the hypotheses tested, if p-value was < 0.05, then, H$_0$ was rejected. Therefore, the statement "there is no significant difference in writing anxiety between students who are taught by using peer feedback and those taught without using peer feedback" was rejected. It meant that there was significant difference between those two groups. The mean scores of those two groups also proved the difference, the mean of experimental group was 71,38 then, the mean of control group was 77,67. The mean of experimental group was lower than the control one. Thus, students who were taught using peer feedback had lower writing anxiety than those who were taught without using peer feedback.

Result of Writing Ability of the Experimental and Control Group

1. Data Description of Writing Ability

The data description of writing ability were taken from writing test. The description included the mean, mode, median, minimum, maximum, and the frequency. The result of data description of writing score of experimental group could be seen in Table 4.

Table 4 Data Description of Writing Abilityof Experimental Group

Class Limit	Frequency

71 – 73	1
74 – 76	9
77 – 79	8
80 – 82	11
83 – 85	5
Mean	79,00
Median	79
Mode	75
Maximum	85
Minimum	71

Based on the Table 4, the writing scores of students are taught by using peer feedback showed minimally 71 and maximally 85. So, the highest score was 85 and the lowest score was 71. This group had mean score 79,00. Then, the median showed 79, and the mode was 75.

The result of data description of writing score of experimental group could be seen in Table 5.

Table 5 Data Description of Writing Ability of Control Group

Class Limit	Frequency
64 – 67	4
68 – 71	5
72 – 75	13
76 – 80	7
81 – 85	4
Mean	74,30
Median	75
Mode	75
Maximum	85
Minimum	64

Table 5 showed the result of descriptive analysis on students' writing ability for the control group. The writing scores of the students who are not taught by using peer feedback were 64 up to 85. It meant that the highest score was 85, and the lowest

score was 64. The mean of this group was 74,30 which was less than the mean of experimental one. The median was 75, and the mode was 75.

2. T-test Result of Writing Ability

To see the effect of peer feedback on students' writing ability. The two groups of this study: experimental and control group were compared by using independent sample t-test. The result was presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Result of Writing Ability

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differe nce	Std. Error Differe nce	Lowe r	Upper
WRITI NG ABILIT Y SCORE	Equal variance s assumed	,212	,646	8,029	65	,000	9,315	1,160	6,998	11,632
	Equal variance s not assumed			8,011	63,08 9	,000	9,315	1,163	6,991	11,638

The result revealed that the p-value (two-tailed) was 0.000. It was less than α = 0.05. Based on the criteria and the hypotheses tested, if H0 was < 0.05, then, H0 was rejected. Therefore, the statement "there is no significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing ability" was rejected. It meant that there was significant difference between those two groups. The difference between those two groups could be seen in the mean scores. The mean of experimental group was 79,00, then, the

mean of control group was 74,30. The mean of experimental group was higher than the control one. Thus, students who were taught by using peer feedback had better writing ability than those who were taught without using peer feedback.

Discussion

This study resulted three discussions on the difference of writing anxiety between students who are taught by using peer feedback and students who are taught without using peer feedback, the difference of writing ability between students who are taught by using peer feedback and students who were taught without using peer feedback, and the effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability.

The first discussion talked about the difference of writing anxiety between students who are taught by using peer feedback and students who are taught without using peer feedback. Based on the result of the study, the experimental group had lower writing anxiety than the control group.It was also supported by the mean scores of those two group that show the difference as 6,29. The mean of experimental group revealed 71,38, then, the mean of control group revealed 77,67. Hence, the writing anxiety of students who were taught by using peer feedback was lower than students who were not taught by using peer feedback. It proved that the implementation of peer feedback was very useful for the students since it gave a lot of benefits for them. As stated by Khusnia (2015), peer feedback gave a chance to the students to evaluate one another's writing by giving constructive comments on their peer's work, so, they could learn new ideas and vocabulary and understood the criteria of good writing, and they could clarify and ask questions even discuss the responses instantaneously (Bartels, 2003) so that they could improve their future writing assignment.

In addition, peer feedback made the students were more relaxe during learning process. It was in line with the study conducted by Kurt and Atay (2007) which found out that peer feedback group experienced significantly less writing anxiety than the teacher feedback group. It was because peer feedback could enhance students' positive attitudes towards writing and increase students' motivation through personal responsibility, greater variety, and interest (Topping, 1998, 2000; Rollinson, 2005 as cited in Kurt & Atay, 2007) as well as increase their confidence (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Enhancing students' positive attitudes, increasing students' motivation and increasing students' confidence implied that the students' anxiety was decreased.

Additionally, the finding of this present study was congruent to the study conducted by Jahin (2012) about the effect of peer feedback on writing apprehension and essay writing ability

among prospective EFL teachers. The finding revealed that peer reviewing group participants experienced significantly less writing anxiety than the control group participants who got teacher feedback. Peer feedback had a good impact on writing courses. Moreover, Yastibas & Yastibas (2015) also found that there was a significant statistical difference between the students in terms of their writing anxiety levels before and after given peer feedback treatment. Peer feedback made the learning environment less anxious and stressful, it helped the students collaborate with each other more, then, it could help to learn more. Henceforth, the students who were taught by using peer feedback had lower writing anxiety than those who were taught without using peer feedback.

The second discussion addresses the difference of writing ability between students who are taught by using peer feedback and students who were taught without using peer feedback. The result revealed that the experimental group had better writing ability than the control one. It was also supported by the mean score. The mean of experimental group shows 79,00, then, the mean of control group shows 74,30. The mean of experimental group was higher than the control one. It meant that the students who were taught using peer feedback had better writing ability than the students who were taught without using peer feedback.

This finding was congruent to several studies conducted by Pratiwi (2016), Nahdi (2011), Setiyana (2015), Vendityaningtyas (2013), and Cahyono & Armina (2016). Pratiwi's study tended to see the difference effect on students' writing ability between those who were taught using peer feedback technique and those who were taught using collaborative writing technique. The result showed that students' writing ability taught using peer feedback was significantly difference from the students taught using collaborative writing technique. Students who were taught by using peer feedback had better writing ability than those who were taught using collaborative writing technique.

Similarly, Nahdi (2011) proved that the use of peer feedback in writing class could improve students' writing ability. The improvement could be recognized from the students' writing achievement, the ability to do the task, the ability to construct a good text. Those could be identified from the students' writing score which showed higher score in every cycle. Setiyana (2015) also reported significant difference between peer review and think pair share. The students who trained using peer feedback had higher mean score than the students who trained using think pair share. Thus, her study found that peer review technique was more effective rather than think pair share technique.

Cahyono & Amrina (2016), also, showed the improvement of writing ability in writing essays after the students given peer feedback based on a guideline sheet. There was increasing

score from their pre-test to the post-test as 7,84 point. Likewise, Vendityaningtyas (2013) reached the conclusion that peer exchange improved the students' writing ability on all components of writing. Instead of that, it could gain the students' participation in the class so creating more enjoyable learning environment.

There were some points that make the improvement of peer feedback could be successful (Kangni, 2015). The successful improvement could be happen since the students were trained to have peer feedback activity. They knew the way how to review a draft as they were familiar to have peer feedback activity. Moreover, they were equipped with the feedback sheet, thus, they knew what had to be reviewed. Instead of that, the grouping process had to be suitable. It should be heterogeneous group which grouped student who had low level proficiency and student who had high level proficiency. Thus, the student with low level proficiency could get constructive feedback, while, the student with high level proficiency could get constructive feedback from another friend who also had high level proficiency. Furthermore, teacher's role also affected the successful of peer feedback activity, teacher should intervene after the students gave comments and suggestions, not in peer feedback process. It was to enhance students' confidence in giving feedback. The last, the teacher should emphasize that feedback was not always talking about the weaknesses, but the strengths of their peer's work should be reviewed. This condition could lead to successful improvement.

The third discussion talked about the effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability. The result revealed that there was significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability.This finding concured with the findings of several previous studies. Jahin (2012) highlighted the positive impact of peer reviewing in reducing the writing apprehension level for the students who were trained peer review activity. Besides, peer reviewing had a positive effect on developing participants' essay writing ability. Likewise, Kurt & Atay (2007), showed the significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety. The feedback given guided them and made the peer feedback process easier and more effective. It also strengthened Cahyono & Sujannah's finding (2017) which proved the positive effect of peer feedback on students' writing ability as well as students' writing anxiety. Peer feedback could improve the students' writing ability as well as release their anxiety and raise their confidence.

Conclusion

The result of this study unveiled that peer feedback has positive effect on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability. The students who were taught by using peer

feedback had lower writing anxiety than those who were taught without using peer feedback. This result conformed the previous studies' results that reported peer feedback group experienced significantly less writing anxiety than another technique group. It could be seen that there was significant difference of writing anxiety between they who were taught by using peer feedback and they who were taught without using peer feedback.

Then, students who were taught by using peer feedback had better writing ability than those who were taught without using peer feedback. This finding was in line with the previous studies that reported students' writing ability taught by using peer feedback was significantly difference from the students taught by using another writing technique. Hence, there was significant difference writing ability between those who are taught by using peer feedback and those who are taught without using peer feedback.

Furthermore, the result revealed that there was significant effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability. This result supported the results of the previous studies which reported the positive effect of peer feedback on reducing students' writing anxiety and developing students' writing ability. To sum up, there was positive effect of peer feedback on students' writing anxiety and students' writing ability.

Pedagogical Implications

The result of the research revealed that peer feedback was an effective teaching strategy to transform students' thoughts into words as well as to develop their ideas into good writing. The students who were taught by using peer feedback strategy also had lower writing anxiety than those who were not trained by using peer feedback. One of the factors behind the usefulness of peer feedback strategy was the potential to create enjoyable and less stressful learning environment. Thus, teachers can involve the students in innovative activities to create a powerful learning environment to trigger students' active participation in writing class.

Recommendation

This study investigated the effects of peer feedback on the achievements and anxiety of the learners. Future researchers are recommended to investigate the effect of peer feedback on other variables. Besides, the present study did not explore if there is a difference in achievement and anxiety between male and female participants; accordingly, the gender variable can be studied in further research. Moreover, future researchers can compare peer feedback with another technique with a different population and different students' conditions. So, their results will enrich

the theory of the effectiveness of peer feedback especially in teaching writing.

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Perceptions on Blended Learning towards English for Academic Purposes Practices in Indonesian Islamic Higher Education

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Abstract

This study explores the perceptions of teachers and students of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the implementation of blended learning, as well as how teaching learning processes apply blended learning in an EAP program. The gaps to fill in this study indicate that blended learning is applicable dependent on the internet provider and that information technologies for the use of language teaching require teachers that are expert in technology. The gaps are no longer valid as blended learning for EAP programs are prevalent and learning environments have utilized the tools. Using a descriptive approach, this study applied content analysis presented in terms of rate percentage and thematic analysis. The results show that blended learning is well perceived but there is disagreement in its implementation. Tools to use in blended learning are available, such as smartphones, laptops, YouTube, Google Classroom, and so on. Accordingly, these tools are used as the instruction media, such as teaching material

sources and testing media. Possible downsides appear to be that blended learning is first defined by the availability of a server to support the program, and applications are mostly dependent upon the internet. In the EAP-teaching context, blended learning has been adopted in a variety of ways.

Introduction

Teaching English in Indonesia, whether it is set for an English-language department or an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) setting, involves disagreements in some aspects. The ways that English is taught in these two different scenarios show similarity in that they are instructed more in bahasa Indonesia, so exposure to the use of English is limited, and the ways in which English is applied for academic purposes are restricted. Despite practices clearly being steeped in trivialities, the use of blended learning with technology-based teaching methods is not taken into account yet. Ortega (2018) admits that delivering lecture contents using blended learning gives learners the opportunities for face-to-face student-led interaction that engage with a deeper level of the course materials critically.

Technological developments and the merits of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) have obviously influenced EAP instruction, similar to as in other educational fields. In EAP instruction, students should acquire the necessary academic and technological skills to be seen as competent members of various academic communities (Jarvis, 2009). The use of technology in EAP instruction is regarded as effective and necessary, with it offering implications for materials development, needs analysis, and methodology for EAP instruction (Ortega, 2018). This way, EAP instruction is divided into a so called EAP, e.g. English for academic writing, and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), e.g. English for Medical studies (Yahya, Said, Yuyun & Masruddin, 2019). The advent of the internet has also given EAP instructors several choices for developing their materials. More specifically, EAP instructors can make use of multimedia applications and web-based resources to develop discipline-specific materials for their instruction (Tarman, 2016; Jarvis, 2009).

The literature indicates that 85% of EAP studies for master's dissertations and doctoral theses focus more on a rough identification of EAP practices. EAP is viewed as teaching English to students outside the English-language department, so the objective is to educate students about basic grammar and general English (Budiharso, 2016). Academic information that uses needs analysis as the foundation for developing a program is not sufficient (Solikhah,

2013), and teaching resources, such as textbooks and learning outcomes suitable for the needs of academic English, are not well-planned (Solikhah et al., 2014).

Solikhah (2017) posits that EAP programs have been overlapped with General English and Study Skills. EAP has been designed to teach English for academic purposes and improve grammar and English skills. In this context, EAP is devised for students who are not majoring in English, such as in the economics or engineering faculty, and it sets out a higher-education curriculum that offers a four-credit English course to develop their general academic needs.

Most EAP programs emphasize improving English skills and fully adopting study skills as the mainstream teaching methods. Study skills, in this context, represent an approach for EAP programs where the objective is to improve achievements in TOEFL or IELTS scores, usually for overseas studies. This means that EAP is basically a TOEFL training specifically aimed at academic targets, namely further education in a foreign country (Nuttal, 2009; Solikhah, 2016). The facts reveal that EAP has been inadequately implemented, and EAP standards as a professional teaching program are low. A reorientation of EAP is therefore required to propose reorganized EAP programs, ones that are enhanced based on applied research.

EAP programs in Islamic Universities tend to be of a low quality and deliver inadequate academic English. Studies by Solikhah (2017) have shown that EAP in Islamic universities has been implemented in general EAP and bilingual programs. Neither programs have been developed based on a needs analysis, nor are the syllabus devised by considering the actual needs and resources. In addition, bilingual programs are set in trivialities, and they assign students as mentors to teach their friends. The goals of these programs are not clearly defined, nor are teaching materials stated for the standard of teaching. Bilingual learning means just teaching in two languages, English and Indonesian in this case, using materials that the "mentor-students" have developed based on their own views. They may translate phrases to English, but the quality of that translation is often not academically sufficient. There are many obstacles to implementing and innovating EAP programs, and opportunities to apply blended learning with the use of technologies are restricted.

Teaching English to students in an English-language department also sees similar characteristics. In this setting, English is used as the instruction medium at a rate of just 30–50%. English teaching materials and resources, as well as the use of English in the classroom and daily interactions, are limited, reducing students' exposure to English in the learning environment. It seems clear that teaching English as EAP and teaching it within an English-language department demonstrate similar settings and characteristics.

This study focuses on an EAP program and excludes teaching English as part of an English-language department. With this focus, the problems of EAP programs were identified as: (1) having no needs analysis, so the goals are blurred; (2) having no standard teaching technique and no standard teaching materials; (3) having no standard learning outcomes; (4) emphasizing TOEFL training; and (5) the program is attached as an additional teaching program.

Research Questions

To efficiently research, develop, and adapt EAP programs in the context of Indonesian Islamic universities, this study was directed by the following questions:

1) How do teachers and students of EAP programs in IAIN and UMS perceive the implementation of blended learning?

2) How are teaching–learning processes with blended learning applied in EAP programs at IAIN and UMS?

Blended Learning in EAP Programs

The term blended learning originated in the business world in connection with corporate training (Sharma & Barrett, 2007). It was then employed in higher education (MacDonald, 2006) before finally manifesting in language teaching and learning. Hodgson (2010:1) states that blended learning is "the concept of integrating face-to-face instruction with technology-infused environments that are geared towards constructive interactions among peers and student-to-teacher." This definition implies that the term *blended learning* has become a buzzword that will persist in university settings, and the concept of blended learning "tends to recognize the value of both technology and L2 teaching" (Torrisi-Steele, 2011:362). As there is no consensus for a blended- learning environment, we d efine that one in a university setting involves combining traditional face-to-face classroom teaching with supplemental learning through individual online- learning activities (Tarman, 2018). This definition has not been universally adopted, however, and other terms include "hybrid or mixed learning" (Stracke, 2007:57), "e-learning" (Shepard, 2005), and "b-learning" (Banados, 2006:534). (See Table 1).

Technology has encouraged us to redefine some key terms and concepts used in EAP instruction—including specificity, authenticity, cost-effectiveness, needs (Arn'o,2012) and computer literacy—to represent students' academic achievement (Tarman, 2016). Jarvis and Pastuszka (2008) stress that EAP learners need to be academically competent and proficient to operate efficiently in academic contexts electronically. This shows that electronic literacy

should be included in the broader sense of academic literacy to give it a more comprehensive meaning and a wider scope (Tarman, 2018).

Table1:Taxonomyoftermsrelatedtoblendedlearning(Smith&Kurthen,2007,
    inGrubaandHinkelman,2012:4)

Term	Definition
Web-enhanced	Subjects that make use of a minimal amount of online material, such as posting a syllabus and making course announcements
Blended	Subjects that utilize some significant online activities with the major focus of academic instruction, but less than 45%
Hybrid	Subjects in which online activities replace 45–80% of face-to-face class meetings
Fully online	Subjects in which 80% or more of the learning materials are conducted online

White (2003) states that EAP learners also need considerable support and training in computer literacy if technology is to be integrated in to EAP instruction. Arn'o (2012) adds that there have been a plethora of technological breakthroughs and changes recently (Tarman, 2018), so EAP students should be equipped with the necessary technological, communication, and critical skills to study and operate in international and academic environments. In addition, Jarvis (2009)points to the problem of e-literacy for EAP students as a challenge to computer-assisted EAP instruction: "The notion of equipping learners for academic study raises specific challenges of e-literacy for non-native speakers of English, and it is by no means clear whether EAP providers are rising to this challenge" (Jarvis, 2009:57; Tarman, 2016).

To integrate technology into EAP instruction, Jarvis and Pastuszka (2008) suggest there should be a close link between EAP and CALL. A wide range of electronic and computer-based materials are used in university courses, higher education, and EAP instruction. Moreover, in EAP courses, students should be able to read authentic academic materials. Computer-based and online resources are commonly rich in authenticity (Plastina, 2003; Tarman, Baytak, & Duman, 2015). Jarvis (2009) suggests two main areas that should be touched upon if computers are to be integrated in to EAP instruction, namely preparing EAP learners for their academic role and facilitating language learning.

For EAP learners, language proficiency is no doubt the biggest challenge. However, the deficit in digital literacy is a major challenge that EAP learners are faced with and to which the curriculum developer or instructor should pay attention to. In a world where technology is developing at a very rapid speed, language and language teaching has been

greatly influenced by technology. Walker (2014:581) points out how digital technologies are becoming part of the way that people communicate and a part of the context in which language is used. Simpson and Obdaloargue (2014) argue for the systematic development of digital literacies within the EAP curriculum.

In the Asian context, Mahmood and Reza (2013) suggest the use of the internet in EAP courses as a way to expose learners to a wider range of materials—such as textbooks, journals, and online electronic sources—related to their fields of study in order to widen their awareness of discourse and the general knowledge associated with specific disciplines. Dang (2012), meanwhile, advocates promoting learner autonomy using online and offline environments with computer proficiency. These studies indicate the lack of integration of new technologies into tertiary EAP course curricula in Asian countries. EAP instructors are not keeping abreast with new technology, as demonstrated by the lack of internet-based activities in their classes.

In this regard, Thang et al. (2012) suggest a blended-learning approach, which combines a coursebook with an online component. The blended-learning approach is generally well received by learners. It can help enhance the quality of language learning, break the monotony of the traditional classroom, and open new avenues for learning. Technology-based skills provide learners with more opportunities to exercise autonomy in the learning process, leading to better performance. On the other hand, in the modern academic context, learners should be digitally literate to be successful at university. However, there is a gap between the learners' technology-based skills and what is expected of them. It is therefore proposed that EAP curriculum developers and instructors should integrate adequate technology-based skills into their EAP courses.

Although the idea of blended learning is not new, most people now associate it with using computer, smartphone, and internet technology in the classroom. These tools can be used to extend the range of possibilities for communication between students and teachers. Below are some ideas to experiment with. There are six major issues that Graham (2004) believes a course designer should consider prior to designing a blended-learning course:

- The role of live interaction: How necessary is the face-to-face component of the course? Certainly in ELT, it would seem fair to say that students place a great deal of emphasis on this element of the course and regard it as vital.

- The role of learner choice and self-regulation: How much guidance should students be given when it comes to choosing the type of blended-learning course they participate in, particularly in relation to university courses?

- Models for support and training: How do we support and train instructors and students in a blended-learning environment and provide technological support?

- A balance between innovation and production: How do we achieve this in a cost-effective way.

- Cultural adaptation: Should the materials be adapted to suit local audiences?

- Dealing with the digital divide: Can affordable blended-learning models be developed to accommodate the seat the bottom of the socio economic spectrum?

To illustrate the final statement, three examples of how to use a CD-ROM are given, starting from an individual using it alone at home and continuing to follow-up practice in a self-study session or at home after a class before actually using it in class as part of a presentation. Dudeney and Hockly (2007:138–139) refer to a blended-learning course where 75% of the content is delivered online and 25% is delivered face-to-face in their list of three possible course designs for online learning in a language-learning environment:

- A100% online language-learning course, where the course is not unlike an online course book.

- A blended-learning language course, where 75% of content is delivered online and 25% is delivered face-to-face.

- A face-to-face language-learning course with additional online materials, soon line tools are used to support and build upon face-to-face lessons.

It may seem odd to think about training students to use technology, since they are already native to the digital world. However, many students have not yet developed a critical mindset when it comes to assessing whether or not information gleaned from websites is reliable or valid. They also may not be very adept at using keywords to search for academic articles and books, resulting in either too many or too few hits or information that is not relevant to their research.

Methods

Research Design

This study was a qualitative study using content analysis (Holsti, 1952). The main data for this study came from observation and documents about the EAP programs'

implementation in IAIN Surakarta and UMS. This study explored the practice of EAP programs in these two universities. The investigation applied a qualitative approach employing questionnaire-based interviews. A set of questionnaires was developed to solicit opinions from lecturers and students. Based on the results of the questionnaires, interviews were specifically developed to deepen and elaborate the information from the outset. Content analysis then analyzed the data. This is a research method for a subjective interpretation of the content of text data through a systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1278). Qualitative content analysis involves a process designed to condense raw data into categories or themes based on valid inferences and interpretation. This process uses inductive reasoning, through which themes and categories emerge from the data through the researcher's careful examination and constant comparison (Zang & Wildemuth, 2014).

Participants

This study recruited 192 participants from IAIN Surakarta and UMS over two categories: lecturers and students. The participants were selected using purposive sampling, through which the authority and knowledge of the participants in EAP practices are emphasized. Each EAP center recruited its participants for the interviews as suggested in Table 2.

Table 2.

Number of participants

No	EAP Centers	Lecturer	Students	Total
1	IAIN Surakarta	20	64	84
2	UMS	30	78	108
		50	142	192

Data-collection and data-analysis techniques

Data on the perceptions and descriptions of EAP programs were collected using observations and interviews. The document analysis was developed prior to, and after, the interviews (Campbell, Bridges & Nystrand, 1993). Learning communities involving administrators and lecturers in the four EAP centers were observed, and archival records and physical artifacts were collected. The participants in each EAP center were interviewed at

different times. In addition, follow-up interviews were conducted for the administrators in each EAP center to verify observations and obtain further information on the practices and perceptions of their EAP programs.

The data analysis involved three steps. First, interviews were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim using qualitative techniques. The interviews were transcribed, coded, and then developed into themes. The transcript results were then checked for validity through member check (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This way, themes and sub-themes were provided in the follow-up member checks based on the transcripts, codes, and themes (Carpenter, 2014:685). Second, the observation and field notes from the EAP centers provided documentation and physical artifacts for data validity measures. Third, follow-up interviews were set up in accordance with the results of the transcription, coding, and theme development. Transcripts, codes, and themes were then provided to participants for follow-up member checking to ensure the authenticity and validity of the data (Carpenter, 2014:686).

The contents of the documents were sorted taxonomically based on their themes according to a thematic analysis (Cresswell, 2007). Furthermore, the results of the study were analyzed using a grounded theory analysis framework, namely open coding, axial coding, and the theoretical perspective. Open coding examines all data that had been obtained from the content analysis, so the interview results were coded openly. This process made it easy for the researchers to identify the types of data and their categories. In the axial coding, the researchers studied the data that were previously coded. The results of this analysis included a general classification of data types, with each datum being grouped into the appropriate domain. Through this technique, the researcher obtained a description of the features of blended-learning implementation and its problems.

Findings and Discussion

Perceptions of Blended-Learning Tools

Students and teachers' perceptions of the application of blended learning are viewed from the use of technology in the classroom. The tools associated with blended-learning application, both in IAIN and UMS, are as follows:

- Laptop
- Tablet
- Scanner
- Smartphone

- Digital camera

- Online TV

- Google classroom

- Facebook group

- WhatsApp group

- YouTube

- Googlebrowser

- Video calls

- Personal computer

Not all facilities are used during the teaching process, but students normally rely on these technologies when referring to teaching materials as learning media or sources of learning. The results of the student questionnaire about the use of tools appear in Table 3.

Table 3.

Frequency of use for learning technologies by students

Tools	IAIN		UMS	
	F N=64	%	F N=78	%
Laptop	62	96.87	70	89.74
Tablet	12	18.75	8	10.25
Scanner	2	3.13	6	7.69
Smartphone	64	100	78	100
Digital camera	4	6.25	8	10.25
Online TV	30	46.88	42	53.85
YouTube	43	67.72	56	71.79
Google browser	64	100	78	100
Video call	8	12.5	8	10.25
Personal computer	23	33.93	12	15.38

As Table 3 suggests, there is interesting evidence showing that all students at IAIN and UMS use their smartphones as a learning tool. This implies that every student has a smartphone and actively uses it as a learning instrument. In addition, most students also use a

laptop as a learning tool, so the teaching–learning process in itself probably employs a laptop. The evidence also shows that internet access and facilities also operate well, such as YouTube and Videocalling. All the students also use the Google browser to search for teaching materials.

When teachers were asked about their intention to use technologies, not all of them said they used technologies. Some teachers only use facilities that serve to demonstrate default teaching materials, while others integrate technologies available through a server. Table 4 shows how the teachers use technologies associated with blended learning when teaching EAP.

Table 4.

Frequency use of technologies in learning by teachers

Tools	IAIN		UMS	
	F **N=20**	**%**	**F** **N=30**	**%**
Laptop	20	100	30	100
Tablet	4	20	6	20
Scanner	6	30	-	-
Smartphone	20	100	30	100
Digital camera	2	10	4	13.3
Online TV	-	-	2	6.7
YouTube	2	10	6	20
Google browser	20	100	30	100
Video call	-	-	-	-
Personal computer	6	30	8	26.7

Table 3 clearly indicates that all teachers use three technological tools, namely laptop, smartphone, and Google browser. The evidence shows that each teacher operates his or her own tools to ease the teaching–learning process, especially when it pertains to searching for teaching materials.

Blended learning in the teaching–learning process

Blended learning in the teaching–learning process appears in the classroom when interactions between students and teachers occur. Each class has general conventions in which

the teaching–learning process is undertaken through a student-centered model. Activities that provide evidence for this research include:

- Classroom presentations
- Giving oral reports
- Writing written reports
- Recording photo activity
- Recording video activity
- Doing a computer-link-based test
- Doing an online computer-based test

The basic standard for classroom presentation at both IAIN and UMS is the use of an Overhead Projector (OHP) along with an oral presentation. Teachers present their teaching materials using the OHP and students respond orally. In some cases, the classroom activities are recorded, and the class reflects on the contents in their own classroom discussions. More intensive classroom activity takes place when students have an intensive exercise such as taking a Test of English Proficiency (TOEP) or a modified TOEFL test devised by the institution. As TOEP is based on a link-based computer, the institution equips students with a personal computer, either as a link-based computer system or an online-based internet system. The practices that employ technologies in the classroom are shown in Table 5.

Table 5.

Frequency of use for technologies in classroom activities

Tools	IAIN		UMS	
	F N=20	%	F N=30	%
Classroom presentations	12	60	28	93.3
Giving oral reports	8	40	20	66.7
Writing written reports	10	50	24	80
Recording photo activity	2	10	8	26.7
Recording video activity	4	20	6	20
Doing a computer-link-based test	12	60	26	86.7
Doing an online computer-based test	4	20	6	20

Table 5 suggests that classroom activities employed technologies in three main areas, namely classroom presentations using an OHP (60% and 93.3%), doing computer-based tests (60% and 86.7%), and writing written reports (50% and 80%). The data indicates that teachers at UMS use technologies more frequently than those at IAIN, suggesting that overall teaching activities at UMS use technology more commonly than at IAIN.

Implementation problems for blended learning

The implementation of blended learning in EAP programs at UMS and IAIN is falling short for various reasons. One complication is how servers can be crowded, because they cover the entire online service of the university. Accordingly, when online teaching is to take place, teachers and students must agree to prepare some tools and requirements. Teachers ask students to submit their assignments online through email, and teachers also reply using email. In other cases, to get a quick response to a certain problem-solving teaching material, teachers create online Google questionnaires, and students respond online as well. Problems pertaining to the implementation of blended learning are listed based on students' responses as follows:

- Limited facilities of the server
- Limited access to the internet
- Crowded service
- Self-service access using smartphone links
- Self-service access using a modem

Implementation of blended learning at IAIN

The implementation of blended learning in IAIN's EAP program is characterized by a lack of facilities and access. Basically, the language center has not yet served up an online system, but services are made available when integrated with the university's central system. The services available for use are limited to internet browsers, computer links, Google browsers, and online materials.

As shortages appear, teachers should prepare themselves to apply a teaching-learning process through their own teaching design. One teacher witnessed:

> "*Our provider has limited access. However, we want effective teaching, and students are encouraged to join in in the classroom. So, we prepare the teaching materials in a way we can serve either online or manual*" (T-1).

The main concerns about using technologies in the classroom, for some teachers, relate to browsing teaching materials and the effectiveness of such materials. To browse materials, teachers use the Google browser or internet access to enhance the variety of their teaching materials. Teachers assign students to browse relevant materials, fix them with the purpose of teaching, and present the materials before the class. Another teacher, T-3 clarifies:

> "*I have planned online teaching materials by topic and asked students to prepare at home prior to their presentation. If problems occur as a result of internet access during a presentation in the classroom, we switch to using an oral presentation with OHP.*" (T-3).

The use of technology in the classroom teaching–learning process for a certain reason must be served, especially for the test service. A test of English proficiency is the final goal that each student should achieve. Students must therefore receive enough opportunities to have exercises on the test, which may take a manual paper-and-pencil approach or be a computer-link based test. At a minimum, students should have access to the exercise through a tape recorder. To make it practical, teachers set up a tape recorder and input test materials from YouTube through a smartphone. The test coordinator at IAIN explains:

> "*To serve the final test using computer is not replicable. If our online system does not work, we have a prepared 'YouTube-based test.' We use a tape recorder and rely on the test materials through Google service.*"

In general, technologies have been set up at IAIN, but trivialities exist. The online system as a default teaching system has not been developed properly, so teachers should independently prepare teaching materials that utilize technology as part of a blended-learning approach. If internet access is compromised, an alternate model is employed that uses smartphones, Google browsers, and YouTube.

The implementation of blended learning at UMS

The implementation of blended learning at UMS evidently has a better scope and quality compared to that of IAIN. The EAP programs at UMS show evidence as this as follows:

- Curricula and syllabi are standard.
- Internet and online systems support teaching programs.
- The final TOEP test has been devised properly.

- A teaching–learning process using media has been served.

The EAP program at UMS has been basically designed to prepare students to achieve a target score on TOEP, which is considered equal to the TOEFL test. A 450 to 500 TOEP score applies for every student taking their leaving exam. A student achieving a TOEP score below 450 does not receive a diploma.

The implementation of the teaching process involves manual and technological processes. Basically, teachers use the default teaching materials and media laid down by the institution. In this regards, teaching strategies are served according to three models for each classroom:

- A main teacher serves teaching substance that lays down the teaching topic, which focuses more on TOEP.
- An instructor is recruited as a junior lecturer who equips students with written and oral skills.
- A tutor selects fresh graduate students from the program to help practices in oral academic activities.

The director of the EAP program points out:

"*The emphasis of the EAP program at UMS is therefore on equipping students with a target TOEP score. Teaching models are basically conventional (i.e., lecturing) but facilities that use technologies are made available. We use media, smartphones, laptops, Google, and other technologies. Our main focus is to equip students for an online computer-based test.*" (T-).

Conclusion

This study sought to investigate perceptions of the implementation of blended learning in EAP programs, blended-learning processes in teaching, and shortfalls in blended-learning applications. In summary, our study's conclusion is that blended learning is well perceived by both teachers and students. Blended learning can employ some technological tools—namely laptops, smartphones, YouTube, and Google browsers—to assist teachers and students in achieving their targets. Specifically, the implementation of blended learning in classroom processes provides a certain ease, so both teachers and students agree to apply them.

Blended learning has been developed through classroom presentations, oral reports, written reports, recorded video activity, and online computer-based tests.

The adoption of technology is considered urgent, and each teacher and student should try to increase their use of ITC. Facilities that make the application of blended learning difficult can be overcome by using other alternatives. The limitations that appear to affect blended learning include the limited default functionality of a server, limited access to the internet, and crowded services. To overcome the problems, teachers and students should apply self-service access using smartphone and modem links.

Pedagogical Implications

Blended learning as a model of teaching has been made available for the teaching of EAP in Islamic Higher Education, varying its implementation into classroom teaching using smartphone, laptop, Google classroom, WhatsApp group, Facebooks and Youtube the foundation of which depends on the acquisition of information technologies. This implies that technologies must be used as the main tool in teaching EAP, and the use of smartphone in the teaching process is helpful. Teacher should prepare their teaching materials, teaching methods, and classroom assessment using technologies.

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Challenges Impeding Quality Written Discourse of ESL Students:
A Corpus-Based Error Analysis

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Abstract

The present study attempts to investigate the challenges impeding the quality written discourse of ESL tertiary students. Specifically, the study determined the overall quality of the ESL students discourse along contents, organization, mechanics and language use and the challenges reflected in their outputs using error analysis. Forty randomly selected essays written by freshmen learners from the Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Science (BSEd-Science) and Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) who are currently enrolled in the subject, purposive communication served as the corpus for analysis. All of the errors in these essays were identified, classified into different categorizations and quantified. Findings revealed that as to the criterion using the script transcript evaluation, most of the ESL tertiary students exhibited satisfactory performance in content and organization and very satisfactory performance in mechanics and language use. Digging further, the students noted incidences of linguistic challenges which include morphological difficulties, lexical difficulties, syntactic difficulties and discourse difficulties. Considering the results elicited from the corpus-based error analysis, there is a dire need among tertiary language teachers to conduct explicit

instruction on the difficulties challenging the students and coarse communicative strategies such as task- based, genre – oriented approach to teaching writing to enhance their written communication skill.

Introduction

The complexity of language and the linguistic process has considerably attracted linguists' interests over the years. Internationally, students' language learning of English, being the international language is of growing interest to researchers around the globe since the ability to write effectively in English is becoming increasingly important in the global community as communication across language becomes even more essential. In fact, in the Philippine setting alone, a great emphasis has been regarded to writing since the introduction of the teaching and learning of English as a Second Language (ESL) in the country. The integration of ESL aims at enhancing learners' general English competence. The K to 12 curriculum offered different subjects that sought to enhance learners' competence as to language communication skills, such as academic writing leaving the 'purposive communication' as the lone general education course among higher education institutions. Yet even in this intervention, tertiary teachers often observe the poor quality of written discourse crafted by students as they are challenged with roadblocks and difficulties in their written discourses. Filipinos as second language learners have been studying English writing for more than a decade yet the big alarming question lies on the query as to where are ESL tertiary students now considering that written skill is still a major challenge for them.

Writing academic discourse engages a writer to undertake well-defined processes where he or she has to observe crucial characteristics such as language norms, rules and stylistic conventions thereby relying on to his or her fine motor functions, visual-motor planning, attention, sequencing, thinking, memory, and syntactic, semantic and lexical knowledge. Despite curricular interventions in the curricular framework offered to improve academic essay writing opportunities among students, it has been observed that students' academic writing performance remains to be deficient. The study of Wang (2004) proved so this claim having noted that teachers observe that students' compositions remain non-idiomatic, poorly organized, and grammatically awkward. Students were noted to incur errors on the aspects of objective academic writing. The error mechanism of all kinds of written work (composition, translation, summary) has been the problem of foreign / second teachers, particularly the inexperienced. This unpleasant

circumstance is due to partly to the alarming number of errors their students' make, regardless of the reason either through failure to learn or through careless, slipshod writing. A global call in the academe now calls on equipping learners with good writing skills is important pedagogical concern. Hence, language teachers need to identify the writing problems of students to figure out ways to improve their writing skill. This is especially true as English writing brings students benefit not only for language learning, but for life-long endeavors such as careers. Grounded on this, there is an imminent need to address the writing difficulties of students in written discourse to work on areas or processes where they are deficient. Aware that errors are significant data for syllabus designers and curriculum planners to decide what items are important to be included or which items need to be recycled in the syllabus, and what remedial materials/ programs can be constructed that are significant to the needs of the students, and that can enhance their communicative abilities especially in writing, English learners' errors has to be analyzed carefully and skillfully because these errors show the acquisition and process of learning a language. The learners' errors are very important as it provides significant "insight into how far a learner has progressed in acquiring a language and showing how much more an ESL learner needs to learn" hence, giving equal feedback on the learners' learning and the teachers' teaching to address the gap. While many researches have already focused on writing, this study focuses its analysis on the assessment of tertiary students' quality written discourse as the first products of the Senior High School program in the Philippines where most of the English language subjects were learned.

Research Questions

This study generally aimed to determine the challenges that impede the quality written discourse of ESL tertiary students using error analysis using composition writing as corpus. This research therefore is grounded with the subsequent research question:

1. What is the overall quality of the ESL Students written discourse along the following standards:

    a. Contents

    b. Organization

    c. Mechanics

    d. Language

    Use

2. What are the common difficulties reflected on the students' composition along:

    a. Morphological

    b. Lexical

c. Syntactical

d. Discourse

Review of Related Literature

Challenges of Writing

One important skill for language production is writing. However, it is widely considered as a difficult skill, particularly in English as a second language (ESL) contexts where students face many challenges in writing. This makes it a labelled dreaded skill regarded next to speaking. Traditionally, writing is defined as paper-based modality; however, in this technological era, many writings today are happening through the computer-based medium. This date, as students become digitally datives, computers are being used as a tool to learning to include writing. the auto correction features of computer has considerably helped learners in their written discourses. The idea that the educative system needs to be computer-based, Pablo and Lasaten (2018) emphasized in their paper that in this highly competitive Information Age, writing is not only a mere option but a necessity. Emphasized on most researches is the established fact that one's ability to write contributes to his or her academic success. Writing has become a basic requirement in civic life, and in the global community.

Ong (2011) investigated the use of Cohesive Devices by Chinese EFL Learners. The quantitative analysis investigated the frequency and percentage of (1) the cohesive errors in main and subcategories of cohesion, and (2) the types of cohesive errors, committed by the students Results show that they had the greatest difficulty in using reference cohesion, followed by conjunction and lexical cohesion. Generally, redundant repetition and misuse of cohesive devices posed the greatest challenge for them. The qualitative analysis consisted of a detailed linguistic description and explanation of the cohesive errors. It detailed how cohesion was used erroneously in their writing.

Moreover, Temporal (2016) also made an emphasis that writing, as a language skill is a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides learners with a way of gaining control over their thoughts. These make written discourse engage writers to undertake distinct processes where he or she has to observe important characteristics. The learner's understanding of the use of language can lead to competence in writing which was opined by Batin (2004) as a vital component of academic success especially at a university level as content courses require more and more of writing outputs that come into different forms. Talosa, A & Maguddayao, R (2018) emphasized that writing is an important skill where ESL learners are able to progress independently to a higher level of intellectual maturity, especially in the case of language

learning. In their study, exposure to writing affects ESL students' syntactic constructions. The learners were found as generally less exposed to ESL writing. More so, the syntactic errors committed by the Second Language learners in ESL writing are significantly related to their year level and writing exposure. These findings underscore the importance of writing activities to bilingual learners at a Higher Education Institution employing English as a medium of Instruction, and as a second language. Good writing following its formal conventions must include a sufficient knowledge of grammatical rules, lexical items, and logical connections. Nunan (1999) opined that producing a coherent, fluent extended writing piece is likely the most difficult thing in language comprehension is solely based on one's writing piece and the reader has to comprehend what has been written without asking for clarification instead rely on the writers' personal tone of expression. A problem commonly expected in the writing classroom as emphasized by Chanderasegaran (2002) however is that some students take much longer than the others to write the required parts of the discourse. Writing as an avenue for the free expression of thoughts and ideas is defined as a complex process for a person to create, even for the first language (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012, Perez, et al, 2003). In similar way, it is also a complex process for second and foreign language. Many researchers had tried to find out the basic errors made by EFL learners in writing. Almejas and Arago (2017) emphasized in their study titled "A corpus-based Analysis of Students Composition Writing" is an intricate cognitive activity necessitated by a number of strategies and processes. This is also in consonance with the idea of Hong, L, (2007) who emphasized that correctness of language expression can full be detected in a composition which represents one's English ability. In 2015, Chowdhury noted that there are two categories of writing mistakes- these are error characteristics, and non-error characteristics. The teachers can simply find out error characteristics from students' writing. Of these error characteristics, eight major problems usually confront students. These are: spelling problems, pronoun usage, agreement between subject and predicate, run-on sentence, capitalization, punctuation, usage of slang or nonstandard terms and modification problems. While there is no mistake in the writing, it cannot be considered as a good piece of writing as there are some non-error characteristics which make a difference between skilled writing and non-skilled writing, and they are density of ideas, variety of referents and variety of expression in repeated concepts. These are also common problems in academic and professional writing which includes the absence of referent, immature and imprecise ideas, some senseless discussions and being unsuccessful to convert private thoughts into a public. The findings of Fareed, M. et.al (2016) revealed that the major problems in Pakistani undergraduate ESL learners' writing are insufficient linguistic proficiency which includes command over grammar, syntax, vocabulary, lack of ideas, and weak structure

organization. Common to most researches is the assumption that ESL learners may experience lexical, syntactical, and morphological difficulties as influenced by their native language. In his study, he quoted that good writing is much more than just correct writing. Good writing is a form of writing that is not only free of grammar, punctuation, or spelling errors but a discourse that responds to the interests of readers, Nordquist, R. (2012). It should exhibit clearly defined purpose, should present a certain point, and is supported by specific and clearly connected and arranged pieces of information in sentences that are concise, emphatic and correct.

Error Analysis

Error analysis, a branch of Applied Linguistics forms an important part in the study of English as second language learning. Over the years, the field of error analysis has been through rapid advances. It has been carried out in order to discover how well a learner knows in discourse writing. Error Analysis (EA) based on learner corpora which was initiated by Granger as cited by Jichun, 2015 provides a brand-new perspective into the aspect. One of the essential characteristics of error analysis as emphasized is it being empirical in nature in analyzing the actual patterns of use in natural texts. EA utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a "corpus", as the basis for analysis. Other than this essential Error Analysis is likewise viewed as "a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on errors committed by learners". In fact, according to Bryne (1988) as cited by Pablo and Lasaten (2018) Corpus-based Error Analysis makes possible for researchers not only to dissect what is wrong but also to expose what is right. It therefore underscores both the weakness and the strengths of a learner in English. Another distinctness of error analysis is given by Brown (as cited in Ridha, 2012; Sawalmeh, 2013) when he defined EA as process to identify, analyze, and classify the deviations to the rules of the second languages incurred by an ESL learner". Olasehinde (2002) also argues that it is inevitable that learners make errors as errors are part of learning- they are inevitable an indispensable part of the learning curve. The three purposes of EA as posited by Sercombe, (2000) are as follows: (1) To find out the degree or level of language proficiency the learner has reached; (2) to obtain diagnostic information about difficulties in language learning; and (3) to find out how people processed their language. Similarly, according to Al-haysoni, 2012 as cited by Sawalmeh, (2013) researchers interested in error analysis observed that errors are advantageous for both learners and teachers. It supplies worthwhile and considerable information to the teachers on students' errors. Error Analysis helps teachers in three different ways, first, to rectify committed errors, second, to change their teaching strategies and third to focus on those area that need reinforcement and or remediation. In the study of Vahdatinejad (2008), an error analysis was emphasized to be an

effective method used to determine what a learner still needs to be taught off. A distinction between errors and lapses (simple mistakes) were also noted. According to him, lapses are produced even by the native speakers, but could be self-corrected. They call for on the spot correction or explicit correction rather than remediation, which is needed for errors.

Methodology

Research Design

The study made use of the descriptive-qualitative research design as it focused on identifying the challenges impeding the quality writing discourse of tertiary students in writing academic essays. Descriptive was used as the study determines the quality of the written discourses based on the given standards. Qualitative on the other hand was employed since the study determined the difficulties incurred in the corpus employing error analysis. Crystal's (1999) cited by Bain, 2006 defines error analysis as a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign or a second language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. Errors are considerably assumed to reflect, in a systematic way the level of language competence achieved by a learner. They are contrasted with "mistakes," which are performance limitations that a learner would be able to correct.

Sources of Study

Forty randomly selected written discourses written by the first year Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Science (BSED-Sci) and Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEED) students of the Cagayan State University at Aparri campus enrolled on the General Education Subject serves as corpus subjects for analysis. Such sources from the BSED and BEED students because while they teach science and general education, they still use English. This is especially true as they are promising teachers who are expected to translate quality writing competency as would be teachers. The subjects for corpus were those from students who acquiesced to give their voluntary participation and informed consent that their writings be used for the analysis. Confidentiality of the corpus was protected as the corpus did not disclose the personal identity of the participant.

Data Gathering Procedure

Students were asked to write descriptive genre of academic text on the topic, "The role of Globalization to language and Communication" which is a part of the academic discipline's

"Purposive Communication" learning content. A standard criterion was used for the analysis of their discourses. Each criterion has set of descriptors that show difficulties in writing academic essay. In consideration to the conformity of the standard of the Cognitive Writing Theory that writing academic essay is a process-oriented skill, which considers different writing categories, criteria included for the analysis are content, organization, mechanics, and language use. The criteria on content/ ideas looks into the treatment of the topic, variety of ideas, interpretation of the topic, relevance, accuracy of details and purpose of writing. Organization assesses the fluency of expression, statement and support of ideas, appropriate paragraphing, effective essay parts, coherence and cohesion. Mechanics referred to the usage of correct punctuation, correct spellings and contractions. Moreover, language Use focuses on the pool of vocabulary, accuracy of word choice and usage, and appropriateness of words to match register. The researcher personally analyzed and evaluated the corpuses elicited the study commenced from February to May, 2019.

Data Analysis

After data collection of the corpus, the following steps specified by Corder (1974) were followed for the error analysis

Error Identification. The first step conducted is on error identification. Each of the corpus was examined word per word and sentence by sentence. The researcher generated the coding categories based on all writing samples.

Error classification. Having identified the errors incurred in the corpus, the identified errors were classified into categories either as morphological, lexical, syntactical or discourse challenges. All errors were underlined and labelled under each classification.

Error Quantification. The errors labelled, identified, and classified were counted by their frequency from each classification to examine the occurrence.

Limitation of the Study. One limitation of the study is its genre. The study only limited its analysis on the use of descriptive texts. Analysis of corpuses yielded more conclusive forms of errors if it involved multiple types of text genres.

Statistical Tools Frequency and percentage distribution in identifying the difficulties of ESL tertiary students in written discourse were utilized.

Intercoding and Inter-rater reliability. Having understood the need and importance for inter-coder in coding the corpus for analysis, the inter-coder is a Ph.D degree both in educational management and language education with 22 years of service as language teacher handling linguistics and structure of English and other language related subjects. Presently, the intercoder is the Campus coordinator for instruction in the same University and holds Professor-I plantilla

position. The 40 corpus were handed to the intercoder. Each independently reviewed writing samples for common categories. The two authors then met to present interpretations and arrive at a shared understanding of the coding. Categories were compared for similarities, differences, and connections. Once the categories had been re-examined, the data were presented and clustered into common units of meaning or themes.

Results and Discussion

Quality Written Discourse Data presented in table 1 indicates the quality of the written discourse of the students in terms of content, organization, mechanics, and language use and their overall quality using the standardized rubric in evaluating academic essays based from the set criteria developed by Pablo J. & Lasaten R (2018). As to content, from the 40 corpus, 18 or 45 percent of them As regards content and ideas, 18 (45%) of the students got a score of 2, which has a descriptive rating of satisfactory, followed by 13 (32.5%) who obtained a score of 3, with a descriptive rating of very satisfactory, and 6 (15%) were marked with a score of 1, with a descriptive rating of needs improvement and 3 (7.5) obtained a score of 4 which is outstanding in descriptive rating. Most of students' essays lack clear and complete explanations. This leads confusion among readers for they still have to think hard to understand ideas, logic, or organization. In terms of organization, 15 (37.5%) students obtained a score of 2, which has a descriptive rating of satisfactory, followed by 11 (27.4%) who got a score of 2 and 1, with a descriptive rating of very satisfactory and needs improvement respectively while 3 or 7.5% obtained 4 or outstanding. The details conveyed in the students' essays are difficult to follow due to poor logical sequencing of ideas. Also, most of the students' essays disregard the value of cohesion and coherence. When an essay utilizes poor structure, the essay itself becomes incoherent and unreadable. Meanwhile, as to mechanics, 13 (32.5%) obtained very satisfactory rating while 12 (30) percent got satisfactory score while 10 (25%) obtained a score of outstanding followed by 8 (205) who needs improvement. Evident on the discourses of the students are their recurrent problems as to spellings. It can also be noted from the table that in terms of language use, 11 (275%) students gained a score of 3, with a descriptive rating of very satisfactory, followed by 10 (25%) who got a score of 2, which has a descriptive rating of satisfactory. Moreover, 8 (20%) students were given a score of 1 having a descriptive rating of needs improvement, and 4 (10%) scored 4, which has a descriptive rating of outstanding.

Table 1. Quality of ESL students' written discourse

Criteria	Description	F (n=40)	%
Content	Outstanding	3	7.5
	Very Satisfactory	13	32.5
	Satisfactory	18	45
	Needs Improvement	6	15
Organization	Outstanding	3	7.5
	Very Satisfactory	11	27.5
	Satisfactory	15	37.5
	Needs Improvement	11	27.5
Mechanics	Outstanding	10	25
	Very Satisfactory	13	32.5
	Satisfactory	12	30
	Needs Improvement	8	20
Language Use	Outstanding	4	10
	Very Satisfactory	11	27.5
	Satisfactory	10	25
	Needs Improvement	8	20

Difficulties of ESL Tertiary students written compositions

Results of the corpus analysis revealed that there were noted difficulties on the students' written composition. These difficulties generally included four major linguistic categories which involved morphological difficulties, lexical difficulties, syntactical difficulties and discourse difficulties.

A.   Morphological Challenges

Error analysis of the corpus revealed that students incurred sixteen (17) incidences of wrong spelling, (4) wrong use of capitalization and (1) contraction. Morphological errors mainly involve misspelling, and errors of capitalization and punctuation. 1. Language is the key for the success of a business, it is very important when you plan **en** having a business in the other country. (2). The key to have a good **camaradery** (camaraderie) is respect, learn and understand each other. (3). we all know that language role is to **constract** (construct) a communication to one another. (4) If people from two countries try to speak with one another, mis-communication may occur because their **languange** (language) varies. (5) Globalization can help is understand individuals

from **forein** (foreign) lands. (6) The effectiveness of a good communication depends on, how you construct idea, how you articulate words and mostly how you send it, without the **pressence** (presence) of bias. (7) Globalization **now a days** (nowadays) this issue is a very **well known** to us as a filipino citizens because they make the english language as our primary or secondary language in communicating to other in order for us to be a globalized just like other countries in the whole world. (8) Korean schools does not integrate English as a subject That's why the rate of English **Profficiency** (proficiency) of this country is low and the like with other countries who does not accept English as to be a subject (9) Because I **belive** (believe) that when we speak, and the audience don't understand the topic, it is useless. (10) Globalization in language helps us **to** (too). (11) We are human being by communicate with other and to understand together and to have an peaceful understanding and **dicipline**. (12) We can be more **processive** and more **compitent** (13) Language is the best way in order for us to become globally competitive without the language **perhabs** everything wouldn't be progress. (14) **There for**, you may share your knowledge, ideas in others. (15) **For instant**, we Filipinos use the hand gesture in calling the dog and (16) Lets be **openminded** enough to avoid misconceptions and problems to be encounter and Globalization now a days this issue is a very **well known** to us as a filipino citizens because they make the english language as our primary or secondary language in communicating to other in order for us to be a globalized just like other countries in the whole world. It could be inferred based from the verbatims that students drop or add letter/s which cause the misspellings. While the present study did not look into the factor that affects such, one answer could be their phonemic association in their memory while writing. Appearing on the different corpuses are misspellings on "and, camaraderie, construct, language, foreign, presence, nowadays, proficiency, believe, too, discipline, competent, perhaps, therefore, instance and open-minded which is supposed to be hyphenated. Spelling which is the art of correctly assembling words from their letters is one of the essential components of successful writing. This difficulty with written language conventions can negatively impact on the overall quality of writing. The analysis also revealed repeated occurrence of wrong capitalization of the word English in lowercase. As English is a proper noun, it must always starts in Capital letter wherever the part is in a structure. English from the corpus below incurred four times in three different sentences of Corpus 3 and Corpus 5 and Corpus 9.

(1) Chinese can talk /communicate to Taiwanese through english and other bloods of a country can communicate with each other because of english.; and (2) we have our universal language which is english and (3) Globalization now a days this issue is a very well known to us as a filipino citizens because they make the english language as our primary or secondary language in communicating to other in order for us to be a globalized just like other countries in the whole

world. Similarly, the quantifying adjective in the utterance *"Globalization aims to connect countries effectively to create One goal and Unity"* is also capitalized as adjectives in the mid-sentence complementing a noun does not need to be capitalized. Meanwhile, noted in one of the corpuses is the incidence of miscontraction of Let us with Lets. *Lets be openminded enough to avoid misconceptions and problems to be encounter.*

B.   Lexical Challenges

Analysis of the different corpus also revealed occurrence of challenges along lexical difficulty. The following are the 17 sentences lifted from the corpuses subjected for analysis indicating wrong use of word. Lexical errors in this study mainly refer to the semantic or conceptual errors in lexis. It mainly involves mis-use of words as quoted below:

*(1)   But if you do that in some country they have **differ (different)** meaning on it and it's a negative one. (2) The role of globalization is **to make (to build)** unity. How can globalization **effects (affects)** language? (3) Language create relations of every **someone (person)** in a group. (4) We can be more **processive (comprehensive)** and more **compitent** (5) Are you **familiarize (familiar)** in the role of globalization in language? (6) Language also could help to **upbring the behind scenes** such as the poor countries. (7) When the people in the country **across (crosses)** the other country (8) when language **suited in globalization** (becomes globalized), it means there is a growth and power to influence every nation throughout **all the way (omission of all the way)**. (9) This is where we could able to impart our **throroughly (thorough)** knowledge to others. (10) The only way for us to be able to be globalize is to have a knowledge or to be **well knowledge (well-knowledgeable)** about different terms that they are using. (11) We **encounter** (deal with) many of the other people which have their own language (12) the things **what (that)** we encounter is a part of globalization. (13) If you are given the chance to **encounter (converse)** with people who have a different languages to speaking. (14) We can be more **socialize (sociable)** to other (15) Globalization is a language diversity it is because of having **a** uniqueness and differences. (16) Globalization in language makes everyone to interact once another provide **betterness** of everybody by the use of language. (17) If in Korea, a sign of nodding **signs** of (symbolizes) respect.* Writing academic written discourse requires appropriate academic vocabulary considering its objectivity necessitates lexical richness, or the ability to use an appropriate proportion of high frequency and academic words. Evident on the corpuses analyzed are problems with words. Thus, it is suggested that ESL students use words or academic vocabularies according to how they function in the sentence. While, command of second language vocabulary poses a real challenge, learners should be familiar with certain lexis spoken or written form from knowing its synonyms, grammatical functions and other characteristics as well as knowing how to use it

appropriately since the vocabulary of a language is sensitive to a wide range of co-textual and contextual considerations.

C.   Syntactic Challenge

Syntactical errors in this study include errors in the use of structure words including articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verb "be" and pronouns, errors in sentence structure and errors in tense, voice and mood. The excerpts below show the challenges of the ESL tertiary students on subject-verb structural agreements:

*(1)   Different countries have different languages and these different languages **affects** globalization (2) It **translate(s)** the feelings and ideas of a person, so that the transmitter and receiver may have a good communication (3) We are living in a world where there is a vast **difference(s)** of language, culture, beliefs and etc. (4) Communication is a two way process in which participant(s) not only **exchange** ideas, feelings but to reach a common goal. (5) Each country **have** their own specific language (s) (6) **there's** might be **a** advantages or disadvantages of this globalization. (7) we all know that if we are talk about Globalization **is ask** "The whole". (8) Can a manager manage his or her company without communicating the employee/ stafff? (9) Language **create** relations of every **someone** in a group (10) But one thing we have to remember (is) that we also have limitations of uttering or saying words to someone. (11) Languages is one of the factor to transmit information from one person to another. (12) Some of us using a different language. (13) By the help of those who are professionals in our society we are educate to understand them because we are one in this world. (14) Some is the role of globalization in language. (15) You also be a globally competitors (16) A good communicators is to embraced and accept the reality in life. (17) We all known that communication are everywhere and anywhere. (18) We must also known the language of other countries in order to us to reaching a mutual misunderstanding. (19) Communication also is a process in which we are exhange ideas, feelings and information. (20) How can we communicate if we do not known about communication? (21) A good communication it is also fullfil the confidence of a human being if we are engage ourself. (22) Language is the soul of every **human beings**. (23) You cant express freely what is your saying because you are not good in constructing a sentence. (24) We need to respect others if their language is we don't know, don't judge (25) So without language, what is communication or there is no possibility that communication exist if we don't have language and (26)We are not only talk about the globalization in our country but it is also in language, it is very important.* Noted on the different excerpts are the difficulties of the students to marry their subjects with their verbs in 26 occurrences. The students as revealed have insufficient knowledge on sentence constructions. Likewise, they commit frequent errors on grammar particularly on

subject-verb agreement. Further, the meaning expressed in their sentences is vague or sometimes obscured. Indeed, the study proves that poor grammar is the major reason why students fail to write an effective written discourse. Moreover, instances as to (15) verb tenses were also evident on their discourses as revealed below having incurred for 15 times. Tense is a systematic structure to describe different forms of verbs that showed the time of action. Confusion as to use of have or has, and main verbs for do, did, does, the ESL learners violate the Emphatic verbs rule that it must be followed by a simple form of a verb. *1. Through globalization, language is develop and language develop globalization (2) Everyone of us will also experiencing this situations. (3) The other speaker will not also got the point of conversations. (4)There is a possibilities that the conversation will not going to be good. (5)As time goes by, whatever language that you will be encounter, there is a possibility that you can adapted it. (6) Globalization is the things happened on our daily life in around the world. (7) Everyone of us will also experiencing this situations. (8) Korean schools does not integrate English as a subject That's why the rate of English Profficiency of this country is low and the like with other countries who does not accept English as to be a subject (9) Because I belive that when we speak, and the audience don't understand the topic, it is useless. (10) When language suited in globalization, it means there is a growth and power to influence every nation throughout all the way. (11) We are learning to communicate with people who has a different languages. (12) Consider every situation what ever the culture or language that other people (use) (13) How does it impacts to communication?(14) Lets be openminded enough to avoid misconceptions and problems to be encounter and (15) There is a possibility that you or we can adapted it by communicating.* The different ESL discourses analyzed also revealed syntactic difficulty along pronoun-antecedent agreement with 7 frequencies. *1. first, I need to discuss about the topic and its meaning about the so called "Globalization, the language and communication, Second, It's impact of the Globalization and Language and Communication. (2) As a citizen of one of the country which is being globalized, I might say that there's a lot of impact of globalization to language and communication. (3) It is also a need to know what is the role of globalization in language so that we know the thoughts and feelings of someone. (4) Without globalization I think, we don't have the reason to communicate others. (5) Can a manager manage his or her company without communicating the employee/ staff? (6) And also we are in the modern world we can use technology for us to easier our communication and (7) The globalization role in language is how can we communicate to other like how can we present our self to others.* There were also four instances of wrong use of determiner. **1**. I refer globalization as a culture, traditions or belief of a **one** place (2) Can a manager manage his or her company without communicating **the** employee/ staff? (3) **An** flat is an apartment to Americans (4) If you

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are given the chance to encounter with people who have **a** different languages to speaking. (5) We are human being by communicate with other and to understand together and to have **an** peaceful understanding and discipline.

D.   Discourse Difficulties

Compared with the linguistic errors which are relatively explicit and can be identified easily, there are still some errors which are covert and difficult to identify and are commonly reflected in idea production and organization of the writings. These errors are categorized in the name of discourse errors.

Content formation

One of the most frequent difficulties of students in writing academic essays is the inadequate variety of ideas or arguments. This difficulty is caused by the absence of a well-defined thesis statement hence, students have to write first a thesis statement so that they can further elaborate the topic and provide various ideas in order to produce an effective academic essay.

Problem on *inadequate treatment* of topic was evident on 24 corpuses (those from satisfactory and needs improvement). This means that the topics assigned to the students were not fully elaborated in their writings. They tend to just place any pieces of information available without checking the relevance of these details in reference to the topic given.

Organization

It can be also observed that the students' writings have *no sense of logical sequence of ideas and details* as this difficulty recurred from 11 corpus out of 40. Many of the students' essays disregard the rule of coherence. Most students are aware of the importance of coherence in writing academic essays, yet they find it quite difficult to achieve Wenyu, 2008. It is then implied that in order for students to observe coherence in their essays, they have to prepare an outline to see the relationship of one paragraph to the next paragraph. Writing an academic written discourse must have a logical structure, Sentences that express different ideas and details must have connection with each other. Hence, the ideas expressed in sentences must be related. Notably, lack of fluent expression is affected by the incorrect structure of the sentences and the connection of the ideas expressed in the paragraph. This difficulty conforms to the result of the study of Dalsky (2007) where he found that students have trouble in writing their ideas clearly.

Pedagogical Implication

Considering the results elicited from the corpus-based error analysis, there is a dire need among tertiary language teachers to coarse communicative strategies such as task- based, genre – oriented approach to teaching writing to enhance the written communication skill of ESL

students. The findings manifest a negative evaluation of the quality of the language curriculum of the K to 12 system where most language subjects such as English for Academic and Professional Purposes (EAPP), Creative Writing, Research in Daily Life, and Practical Research for the purpose of improving their language competence. While the subject purposive communication is the only General Education course, it might be worthwhile to reconsider the offering of DepEd SHS of the functional English as a bridging program to address the students' challenges in writing since their ultimate role is on the preparation of students in college. Further, when deciding to give students feedback about the effects of their errors they made, teachers should take some techniques and procedures that need to be designed and tested.

Recommendations

1.   Tertiary ESL students should be given more writing task like assignments and reports on a particular topic or themes so they would get more opportunity to practice writing.

2.   While the students are future teachers who are expected to teach the same writing skills, there should be a consultative evaluation among higher education institutions to add another General Education Subject for the one semester discipline might not be enough to rectify the problem knowing the degree of seriousness of the errors committed.

3.   Remedial materials/ programs that are important to the needs of the students and that can improve their communicative competence especially in writing should be designed.

4.   It might be worthwhile for future researchers to make a systemic contrastive analysis of the fourth-year students and the incoming first year students to see point of similarities and difference on academic writing from the old curriculum with those who underwent SHS intervention.

5.   Future research might also include analysis of error mechanisms applied in the rectification of the different challenges incurred.

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The Correlation between Students' Motivation and their Maritime English Learning Achievement at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh

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Abstract

This research is aimed to find out the correlation between maritime students' motivation and their achievement in learning Maritime English. The population was all cadets of BP2IP Malahayati Aceh. Meanwhile, two classes of nautical major cadets (40 cadets) were randomly chosen as the sample. Furthermore, the data were collected through giving questionnaires and collecting students' midterm test results. Correlation analysis was used to determine the correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English scores. The findings showed that the significant value of the correlation in Pearson Product Moment test is 0.00. This value is below 0.05 which means that the test result accepts Ha hypothesis and rejects Ho hypothesis. Furthermore, Pearson correlation value was 0.797which indicated that there was high positive correlation between students' motivation and their Maritime English scores. In other words, the coefficient gave evidence that there is positive correlation between students' motivation and their Maritime English achievement. The finding revealed that students' motivation in learning maritime English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh have significant positive correlation with their maritime English achievement. It implied that the higher motivation the students have, the higher the score they achieved in Maritime English.

Introduction

One of the objectives of maritime college is preparing students to be qualified seafarers in the international cruise industry. In doing so, colleges design their course based on the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW) that had declared that all personnel working onboard a cruise vessel should be able to communicate in English, perform various ship jobs and understand specific requirements. This purposes also stated in International Maritime Organization (IMO)'s words in following statement the purpose of IMO course is *"to assist marine training institutes and their teaching staff in organizing and introducing new training courses or in enhancing, updating or supplementing existing training material where the quality and effectiveness of the training courses may be improved"* (Martes: 2015). Furthermore, IMO have adopted English as the language of maritime industry. This is base of Maritime English training should be provided for the trainee to fulfill the requirement to be personnel in cruise industry.

Moreover, there was a need for seafarers in South Asia increased in last several years. The amount need for seafarers might reach thousands job vacancy for seafarers (Marselia & Handoyo: 2017). As one of the South East Asia Countries, Indonesia was challenged to prepare maritime students to fulfill the requirements. In doing so, maritime educational institutions in Indonesia should equip the students with good proficiency of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as the International language in the world including on the board of vessel cruise industry in the sea. Thus, Maritime English is taught at Maritime education and training colleges as amended by the STCW 2010 curriculum.

Maritime English is a global language used at sea to create clear communication between ship and shore, between crew members, between crew and passengers during sailing on the board of vessel (Demydenko: 2012). The aim of this policy is to decrease seafarers' communication breakdown which often brings into accidents and risk people live. It is reason of English used incessantly in all ports, straits, fairways, waterways or sea routes of the world between and among speakers who are almost ninety percent are non-native speakers of English (Pritchard, 2003: 153).

BP2IP Malahayati Aceh is one of the maritime colleges which takes the duty of training students to be qualified in cruise industry. In context of language preparation, this college also teaches Maritime English as EAP in which the students were trained to be able to speak about

maritime, the ships and the requirements during sailing in English. However, many problems found in the college related to Maritime English learning. Students' scores were below the minimum standard set by the school which is 70. Meanwhile, students' mean score was approximately 50. Based on the theory of language learning, this condition may be influenced by some factors. One of the considered factors is low motivation in learning (Purwanto: 2006). Students' behavior affects students' achievement in some conditions.

However, current researches findings proved that the correlation between students' motivation and learning achievement can be positive or negative. For example, Rosalina (2014) found that the correlation between students' motivation and their English achievement is negative. Furthermore, Terviana (2013) conducted a research on 98 English Teacher Education Training students of Satya Christian University and she also found that the correlation between students' motivation and their scores in the integrated course is negative. Meanwhile, in other literature, a research by Syamsu (2017) found that there was positive correlation between students' motivation and their speaking ability. These different findings brought the thought that there may be differences in research findings in which students' English achievement is not always affected by students' motivation scores.

Also, motivation in learning is affected by some factors, such as the method used by the teacher in teaching and classroom atmosphere. Lasagabaste (2010) argues that teaching method influences students' motivation in classroom. The idea came from the findings that students' motivation decreased when a lesson was delivered in a boring and unchallenging manner. Thus, the teacher should motivate students by using methods that may heighten motivation.

Meanwhile, Navickiene (2015), conducted the research on the aspect of ESP learning motivation in tertiary education and found that students who have low level of English proficiency have lower motivation at learning ESP at the university. It was indicated by the low attendance and minimal account for the task. They had negative attitude toward the subject and ashamed of their low-level English knowledge even though there was a thought that learning the language is important. This finding was also supported by Spolsky's opinion that students are less motivated, misbehave, lose their attention and even cause disciplinary problems in a particular learning situation (Spolsky: 1989).

The notion above made the writer curious to investigate the correlation between students' motivation and students' Maritime English achievement in the context of learning English for Specific Purposes (EAP). The finding was expected to give more about the

students' motivation in maritime college and help the teachers to find an effective way to improve students' English achievement. Furthermore, the researcher expected that the result from this research will help the teachers at Maritime College to find interesting ways to motivate students in learning Maritime English. In addition, the finding of the correlation between students' motivation and their Maritime English achievement will give useful information for students and teachers about how students' motivation affects their scores.

Literature Review

ESP for Maritime Students

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to language teaching in which English is taught based on the students' needs in their professional communication. It is taught to help students in developing their performance in using English in certain area. In line with this reason, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that in learning ESP, content and method are based on the learners' reason for learning.

According to Dudley-Evan and St. John (1988), ESP is taught to meet specific learners' need by using underlying methodology and activities based on its' discipline. It focused on language, skills, discourses and genres based on certain purposes and specific teaching situations. As an example, the branches of ESP include, Maritime English which focuses on the English used during sailing on cruise vessel; English for Medical purposes; English for Business Purposes and English for Political Purposes.

ESP is generally designed for adult learners in specific professional work situation. Thus, in the context of English level, ESP is generally designed for intermediate and advanced learners. However, in some cases, ESP for beginner level is possible (Dudley-Evans & St. John: 1998, p. 4-5)

Meanwhile, Stevens (1988) identified that EAP has absolute and variable characteristics. It has absolute characteristics in which it is designed to meet specific needs of the learner so that it related in content such as in the themes and the topics in particular major, occupation and activities. For example, the EAP has several braches such English for Medical Purposes, English for Political Purposes, etc. In addition, it is also centered on the appropriate syntax, lexis, discourse, semantic, etc which have different analysis with the discourse in general English. Furthermore, Steven identified EAP has variable characteristic in which it is taught as the language skill and not taught to follow any methodology as in general English.

For marine students who are trained to be crew members on board cruise vessels, using English for Specific Purposes (ESP) focused on the communication and safety during sailing. It is because English has been decided as the international language of the sea. It is also relevant to Manila amendment to the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW) in 2012 that all personnel on board a cruise vessel should be able to communicate in English. In addition, it presupposed mastering Maritime English is not only as the communication tool in dealing with passengers and other personnel on the board, but also to assist passengers during emergency situations when life is at stake (Martes: 2015).

According to Dirgeyasa (2018), the linguistics features of Maritime English needed by the students classified into three main categories, they are; a) grammar, b) applied terminology, and c) Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCPs). Based on the result of his research, the need main linguistic features for grammar is categorized as need, the need of applied terminology in maritime context is much needed and the need of SMCPs is also much needed. In other words, learning those three main categories is very crucial in Maritime English.

Moreover, English in maritime context has purpose to help non-native English speaker and qualified cadets in a country to be the seafarers in throughout the world where English is used (Blakeys: 1987). In other word, Maritime English is learnt as EAP in maritime college and it focuses both on Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) and other additional language skills. As an example, in SMCP, the first lesson is focused on the drill of using maritime vocabulary and phrases. Furthermore, in next lessons, more details maritime English are used such as mandatory, orders, distress communication, routine communication, etc (Aprizawati&Aswandi: 2018). These lessons are expected to enable the cadets to deal effectively with emergencies, everyday operations, ship-to-shore communication, and health, safety and security issues in shipping industry.

The history of maritime accidents showed that most of the accidents on the sea caused by miscommunication and failing to understand the maritime discourse. It is based on the findings by Thiel (1996) who states that the most maritime accidents happen due to human errors such as lack of communicative competence and cross cultural issues. For example, a report by Pyne and Koester (2005) noticed a repairman of a ship died because of an awkward colleague who was unable to translate the meaning of fever into pneumonia and did not get any medication. Learning ESP, in this context is Maritime English, plays the rule to train maritime students to master the Maritime English. This is expected that students will be able

communicate effectively on the cruise vessel so that they can decrease the accident and create harmonious among the ships and the seafarers during sailing on the sea. They are expected to be able to use English when they get opportunities to work in shipping company, international maritime organizations and maritime educational institutions. Therefore, the cadets are trained to have good proficiency as well as efficiency in maritime English.

According to Marselia and Hartoyo (2017), Maritime English can be divided into four main sections: 1) English language in general which contains the lessons as taught at general schools and education, 2) English for navigation, safety communication, cargo operations, etc. which are used during the work in at deck department, 3) English for maritime engineering which is used to deal with the main auxiliary engines, the electrics, operation and maintenance, and 4) English for maritime business to deal the commercial business of merchant marine, Maritime Law procedures, insurance, etc.

The implementation STCW'2010 has three implications in maritime aspect (Dirgayasa: 2018). First, English is categorized as professional subject as other nautical subjects such as 'Celestial Navigation,' 'Ship handling,' 'Stability,' etc. Second, English is used to examine all subjects. Third, the diploma must be written in two languages-the English and the national language where the Maritime English Test is settled. These implications are expected that all seafarers across the world have minimum and equal competence in English (Dirgayasa: 2018).

Moreover, Nasiya (2013) states that maritime students need to learn Maritime English etymology during training to avoid miscommunication. It is the study about formation of maritime terminology. For example, students are need to be taught about the nautical terms borrowed from Old Norse such as *bitt, bow, carling, hales (hawse) keel, kelson, scarf, skeg and stern*. In other literature, Marselia and Hartoyo (2017) states that seafarers should be able to communicate in English with multi-national crews on the board such as understand VHF radio massages which all are presented in English.

The notion above is in line with the ideas that nautical study program must provide clearly-defined package of Maritime English course to the customers (students) in order to assist students to pass the subject. Moreover, the students are expected to have a considerably good command in English to help fight the global competitions of job seeking and as the requirements for communicative competence of seafarers recommended by IMO (International Maritime Organization) after graduation and taking an ESP program (Marselia&Hartoyo: 2017)

Students' Motivation in Learning ESP

Many researchers agree that motivation is motivation brings impact to peoples' life. For example, Donyei (2001) agreed that the concept of motivation influences personal life because it refers to the reasons of someone gaining something in their life. He also concluded that motivation causes people to do something and pursue their goals. Moreover, in another literature, Sigh (2011) states that motivation is able to activate behavior that gives directions for people to encourage them to do or not to do actions in order to achieve certain purposes.

Motivation is also believed as the key success in education (Deci: 1995). A currently study shows that low achiever had low sense of achievement and the high achiever had high sense of achievement (Li & Pan: 2009). It considered as a very important factor which affecting the success and the failure in language learning which influences language achievement. It also proved that the high achiever were more willing to accept challenges rather than the low achiever. In context of learning a language, Grass (2008) defines motivation as the desire to strive to acquire a language in order to derive satisfaction in doing so. Thus, students need to be motivated to make the learning run effectively.

Types of Motivation

• *Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation*

In developing the theory about motivation, Brown (2000) separated motivation into two kinds; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the self enjoyment in learning without external inducement, pressure, and rewards. People who have intrinsic motivation usually learn in joyful without the need of praise, financial reward, and etc (Malone & Lepper: 1987. It refers to learning as gaining reward in means the learners are willingly and voluntarily (not compulsorily) trying to learn because of the thought that the lessons are worth or important for them (Arnold: 2000). Students who have intrinsic motivation do not have the need for external outcomes because their thought of the needs to learn comes from inside or depends on their own will. It is the reason why teachers do not have much effect on students' intrinsic motivation (P. M. Lightbown& N. Spada: 1999).

Meanwhile, extrinsic motivation refers to desire to do activities because of external reasons such as praise, grades and financial rewards and avoid punishment (Arnold: 2000). Furthermore, there was also an opinion that extrinsic motivation in higher education is highly supported by intrinsic motivation as students perceive the importance of the ESP subject for their future life and career (Navickiene et.al: 2015). Besides, in a literature by Brophy (2004),

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extrinsic goals can be short-term goals (good grades, prizes from the teacher and parents, participation in competitions, etc) to long-term ones (possibility of winning scholarships, better job opportunities, higher social status, etc).

The internal and external desire of learning changes students' behavior in learning and it is called as motivation. According to Uno (2008), there are some indicators of students' desire in learning. One of the indicators is that students have intrinsic desire to be success. The next indicators are students realize that learning is their need and they have some goals in the future that needed to be achieved by learning such as having better job, continuing their study, etc. Furthermore, in learning community, students have the desire to learn in a community when they expect achieving a reward, financial reward, a praise, good score etc in that community. Next, interesting activities and good environment in learning also support the students' desire to learn.

- *Integrative and Instrumental Motivation*

Gardner (1985) separated the kinds of motivation into integrative and instrumental motivation. The integrative motivation means refers to learning the language because of the desire to participate in the culture of its people. Meanwhile, instrumental motivation refers to the desire to learn the language because of the occupation or further useful purposes in the future. Furthermore, Cook (2000) argued that integrative and instrumental motivations are the factors of the effective second language learning. Gardner (1985) and Ellis (1994) had some opinion that integrative motivation occurs when the student likes to join or be a member of the certain crowd and the culture. Meanwhile the instrumental motivation occurs when a student aware of numerous benefits while learning particular language such as getting good position on work and scholarship to study abroad. Ellis (1994) argued that integrative motivation is believed more competent and well-organized than instrumental motivation and it makes language learning is more effective. On the contrary, students would face some problems and difficulties to learn and gain knowledge of a second language when they have less motivation (Cook, 2000).

Students' motivation is affected by many factors. According to Harmer (2001), the factors that influence students' motivation are:

- **Physical conditions.** It refers to school physical condition, the location and its' equipments. For example, the school facilitate the students with IT devices and having access to internet in order to support attractive teaching and learning process and

increase students' motivation to learn because they will easily find learning materials from internet.

- **Method of teaching.** The way of teaching process influences students' motivation to learn. Student would likely loss their motivation whenever their feel bored with the teachers' teaching Harmer (1991). On the contrary, an attractive teaching learning process will enhance students' attention and increase their motivation.

- **A teacher.** Teachers' personality and appearance actually effect students' behavior in learning. A teacher should be able to create good relationship with the learners and set his/her self as the personal example in having good behavior and high motivation in learning. Besides, the teacher also should to take responsibility to increase learners' linguistic self-confidence; to make the language classes interesting, to promote learners' autonomy; to increase the learners' goal-orientation, to familiarize learners with the target language culture ((Navickiene et.al: 2015). Moreover, in term of teaching Maritime English, a teacher should have higher qualification in Maritime English and their professional skill in maritime sector. In doing so, some countries facilitate some intensive courses for Maritime English teachers before training the students at the colleges. As the example, Maritime English teacher in China should take a six-moth training of knowledge of maritime, including the training of Maritime English teaching. In addition, to consolidate the teachers' knowledge, the teachers are sent to ships companies to facilitate them with real experience of using

- *Success.* It refers to suitable challenge created by the teacher in term of the students' difficulty in learning process. It is not is too high or too low in which the students are challenged and   motivated to learn.

In context of ESP courses, Strevens (1988) argued that there are four implications for higher motivation in ESP courses. First, it focused on the learners' needs and it waste no time. Second, ESP is relevant to learners because the students learn based on their majors. Third, ESP is successful in imparting learning because it has more specific language target. Fourth, it is more cost-effective than General English.

Teaching Material in Maritime English

Katio (2009) argues the learning materials are one of the main factors in determining whether the learning is achieved or not. The material in ESP should provide the essence of the

competences which must be mastered and achieved by the students. As the example, learning material in Maritime English should provided the discourse used on cruise vessel among the crews, with passenger and with the captain. It also includes the example of test of Maritime English for the seafarers who seek for job in cruise vessel industry.

Unfortunately, the availability of Maritime English material accordance to the STCW'2010 curriculum is very limited (Dirgayasa, 2018). This phenomenon becomes a issue and reality in maritime colleges over the world. Regarding this issue, Pritchard (200e) makes some arguments about the maritime learning materials. First, the standards of Maritime English syllabus is not available. Second, there is no a significant standard of the Maritime English course book. Third, the Maritime English textbook supply for international used is very limited. Fourth, related learning recourses are very limited. Fifth, the Maritime English material in every country is restrictive by the national legislation and language policies.

However, in context of teaching material in ESP, Bouzidi (2009) stated that the content of ESP textbooks and job place needs to be suited and it depends on the learner needs in relation to their future or present jobs. It is very important because ESP studentswill acquire interesting English material and relevant to their work in which they can use in their professional work (Fiorito: 2007). It is also supported by the theory that one of the factors that affect the students' Maritime English achievement is availability of Maritime English material (Adnansyah, R.M: 2018).

In addition, Richard (2012) suggested using authentic material in teaching EAP in order to motivated students to have high desire in learning. The other benefits are to provide authentic cultural information and exposure to real language, to relate learners to their need and to support creative approach to teaching. In teaching Maritime English context, one example of the authentic material is the transcript of VHF radio massages which all are presented in English. It helps students to meet real-life communication purposes in context of the communication on board of cruise vessel (Pejovic: 2013).

Research Question

This study is presented to answer the following research question: Is there a significant correlation between cadets' motivation and their achievement in learning maritime English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh?

Methodology

This research used descriptive quantitative approach to describe the correlation between the nautical students' motivation and their achievement in learning maritime English. Thus, the researcher used quantitative analysis technique to analyze the data. In doing so, the data were computerized by using the application of SPSS version 23.

The process of analyzing the data was started by determining the correlation coefficient between the students' motivation and the students' achievement. For this purpose, the researcher used Pearson Product Moment Correlation. Next, to analyze how motivation can contribute to students' achievement in learning maritime English, the researcher used the regression coefficient test. In addition, to find out the kind of students' motivation in learning Maritime English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh, the researcher also analyze the students' statement in questionnaires.

Population and Sample

The population in this research is all of the students at BP2IP Malahayati which consisted of 267 students. Meanwhile, the sample is two classes of nautical major students which had been chosen randomly. This sample is consisted of 40 students.

Research Instruments

To collect the data about the nautical students' motivation in learning English at BP2IP Aceh the researcher distributed open ended questionnaires which were modified from Dōrnyei(2001) by using theory about the indicators of motivation by Harmer (2001). The students were asked to give their agreement toward 15statements in the questionnaires by choosing the one of the options of the Likert Scale questionnaires such as *strongly agree, agree, disagree,* and *strongly disagree*. Moreover, the researcher also allowed the students to write their reason for every choice in the blank part after every statement in the questionnaires sheets. The aim was to gain more information about students' motivation in learning maritime English. Furthermore, the data of students' achievement in learning maritime English were gathered by collecting the students' midterm test scores from the English teacher.

Findings and Discussion

Correlation and regression analysis

Correlation and regression analysis is used to find out the significant correlation between the students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. In doing so, the hypothesis for this research is proposed as follows:

Ho: There is no correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement (if the significant value is bigger than 0.05).

Ha: There is a significant correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement (if the significant value is lower than 0.05).

The result of SPSS analysis of correlation between the variables was presented as follows:

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics Data Analysis of Students' Motivation and Maritime English Acheievement

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Maritime English Score	40	40	45	85	2150	53.75	10.846
Motivation Score	40	43	40	83	2250	56.25	12.152
Valid N (listwise)	40						

Based on the list of students' motivation and achievement score, it was found that students who got high motivation scores achieved high Maritime English score. The lowest Maritime English score is 45 and the highest is 85. The lowest students' motivation score is 40 and the highest motivation score is 83. Students who got the highest Maritime English score, got 80 in motivation score and students who got the lowest score in Maritime English got 55 in motivation score. Is seems that there are a relevancy between students' Maritime English scores and motivation scores. However, the average score of motivation and maritime English score shows that the students' motivation and students maritime English score is very low. The table shows that the mean of students' maritime English score is only 53.75 and the mean of the students' motivation score is only 56.25. It implied that both students' Maritime English achievement and student' motivation should to be improved.

Next, to find out the significant correlation value, the researcher analyzed the data by using Pearson Correlation test. The result of the analysis is tabulated in the following table:

Table 2. Pearson Correlation Test Result

		Students' maritime English score	Motivation Score
Students' maritime English score	Pearson Correlation	1	.797**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	40	40
Motivation Score	Pearson Correlation	.797**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	40	40

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

The table shows that the Pearson correlation value was 0.797. According to the table of interpretation of correlation coefficients, the value at 0.600 - 0.800 is grouped as the value of high correlation. In other words, the coefficient gave evidence that there is positive correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. It means the higher motivation in learning resulted in higher maritime English achievement. Moreover, the significant value in the table is 0.000. It is lower than 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05) which implied that there is a significant correlation between the students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. In other words, the correlation value test result accepted the Ha hypothesis and rejected the Ho hypothesis. It proved the hypothesis that there is a significant correlation between the students' motivation and their maritime English achievement in BP2IP Malahayati College Aceh.

Furthermore, the researcher used the regression analysis to find out the regression value of the data. The aim is to find out how is the students' motivation contribute to students' maritime English achievement. The result of regression analysis was presented in the following table.

Table 3. R square analysis result

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.797^{a}	.635	.626	6.634

Predictors: (Constant), motivation score

The table 3 shows that the R square value was 0.635. The interpretation of the value is that the students' motivation contributes 63.5% to students' maritime English achievement and the rest (36.5%) of students' achievement was influenced by other factors. Based on the interpretation of table, this R square value is included on strong enough correlation or medium correlation. In other words, the correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement is highly positive. Next, the proportion of students' motivation and students' maritime English achievement is presented in following table.

Table 4. Regression coefficients result.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1 (Constant)	13.732	5.028		2.731	.010
Motivation Score	.711	.087	.797	8.139	.000

Dependent Variable: students' maritime English score

The result in the table 4 was used to elicit the regression equation Y= a + bX. Y is dependent variable (students' maritime English achievement) and X is independent variable (students' motivation). In this case, the regression equation is Y=13.732 + 0.711X. It means that without students' motivation (X), the proportion of students' maritime English achievement is only 13.732. On the contrary, the students' motivation contributes to increase 0.711 point of students' maritime English achievement. The result also means that students' motivation contributes 71.10% in increasing students' maritime English achievement.

Students' statements about their motivation in learning English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh

The result of open ended questionnaires also revealed that students at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh had different purposes in learning maritime English at the college. There are 26 students who agreed that they learned English because they wanted to continue their study. Meanwhile, 6 students stated that the reason of they studied English is because they wanted to continue their study abroad. Furthermore, other 6 students stated that they need to learn English because they want to pass for test. There were only two students who stated that they learned English in order to get better job in the future.

Furthermore, in term of the difficulties of learning Maritime English at the college, a student stated that memorizing maritime terminologies is quite difficult because the words are only used at the college, not in daily conversation. Meanwhile, six students complained about the limited sources provided by the college for studying Maritime English. They admitted that the only learned Maritime English from limited book and videos. Moreover, a student even stated that he hoped there were a lot of fun sources in learning Maritime English.

The correlation between students' motivation and students' maritime English achievement

The data showed that the average scores of the students' Maritime English scores and the students' motivation score is very low. The mean of students' maritime English score was only 53.75 and the mean of the students' motivation score was only 56.25. These scores indicated that both students' motivation and students' Maritime English achievement at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh need to be improved.

Based on the finding result, the Pearson Product Moment test showed that the significant value of the correlation test is 0.00. This value is below 0.05 which means that the test result accept Ha hypothesis and reject Ho hypothesis. Pearson correlation value was 0.797. According to the table of interpretation of correlation coefficients, the value at 0.600-0.800 is grouped as the value of high correlation. This result also supported by the result of regression test in which the R square value was 0.635. It means that the students' motivation contributes 63.5% to students' maritime English achievement and the rest (36.5%) of students' achievement was influenced by other factors. Based on the interpretation of table, this R square value is included on strong enough correlation or medium correlation. In other words, the correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement is highly positive.

In other words, the coefficient gave evidence that there is positive correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. It means the higher motivation in learning resulted in higher maritime English achievement. It implied that there is a significant correlation between the students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. In other words, the finding proved that there was correlation between students' motivation and their Maritime English achievement at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh. The finding also implied that students' motivation is one of factors that affect students' achievement in learning Maritime English. It means that the higher motivation students have the higher achievement they get in Maritime English.

The above finding in line with the theory by Deci (1995) that learning successful is influenced by motivation. In other word, motivation is considered as a very important factor which affecting the success and the failure in language learning which influences language achievement at BP2IP Aceh. The data of students' achievement and students' motivation scores at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh showed that students' who had high motivation achieved high Maritime English Achievement. On the contrary, students who had low motivation score got low Maritime English achievement. It also proved the argument by Li and Pan (2009) that low achiever had low sense of achievement and the high achiever had high sense of achievement. This finding proved the Ha hypothesis of this research that students' motivation has positive correlation with students' achievement.

Furthermore, based on the result of open ended questionnaires, it was found that the students had various purposes in learning Maritime English such as getting better job, continuing study abroad, continuing study to the higher level and passing test. The finding is in line students have desire to do activities because of external reasons. The questionnaires showed that all of the students learned Maritime English to achieve the goals in the future. This finding proved the theory by Arnold (2000) that students' motivation to learn Maritime English affects the students' Maritime English achievement.

Furthermore, the finding revealed that students' desire to learn maritime English because they wanted to continue their study and study abroad. These goals made them aware of the importance of learning English for their career so that they learned English not because of the getting financial award and avoiding punishment. Their goals in learning actually are actually included to long-term goals in which the students learned because of winning scholarships, better job opportunities, and higher social status (Brophy: 2004). No one of the students had short-term goals in which the learning goals are only to have praise, good grades, or win a competition). The students learned by them self to achieved satisfaction in learning. This finding actually supported by the theory by Navickiene et.al (2015) that extrinsic motivation in higher education is highly supported by intrinsic motivation as students perceive the importance of the ESP subject for their future life and career.

Conclusion

Based on the result of data analysis, the researcher concluded that there was a positive correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement. It means that students' motivation highly influenced the students' Maritime Achievement at BP2IP

Malahayati Aceh. This conclusion was referred to two reasons. First, the significant score value result is 0.00. It accepted Ha correlation hypothesis which the significant Pearson Correlation value should be below 0.05. Second, the regression test showed that the R square value was 0.635. The students' motivation contributes 63.5% to students' maritime English achievement and the rest (36.5%) of students' achievement was influenced by other factors. This value referred to enough correlation or medium correlation. It implied that the correlation between students' motivation and their maritime English achievement is highly positive.

Furthermore, based on the analysis of students' responses to the questionnaires' statements, it was found that students had various goals in learning Maritime English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh such as getting better job, studying abroad, continue the study and passing the test. All of those goals were including to the extrinsic long-term motivation. In other words, students learned Maritime English because of the desire to improve their life achievement in the future. In addition, some factors might influence the students' motivation in learning Maritime English at BP2IP Malahayati Aceh such as the limited material and learning sources at the college. It is also in line with the existing theory that limited Maritime English learning material affect the students' motivation in learning.

Pedagogical Implication in SLA

Based on the research finding and the discussion in this research, the implication of this research in ESP should be clarifies as follows:

1. Teaching Maritime English as ESP in maritime college is a crucial need in order to fulfill the requirements of International cruise vessel industry. Maritime English is used on board cruise vessel industry not only for common communication purpose, but also to decrease accidents during sailing on vessels. Based on this research finding, the students should be motivated to learn Maritime English by facilitate them to find their professional needs. However, to motivate the students in learning, maritime college need to consider factors such as the availability of interesting Maritime English sources, fun teaching learning activities and comfortable learning environment.

2. Students' kinds of motivation in learning a language are various. Based on this research, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in maritime occurred because of the desire to achieved long-term goal such as getting better job and continuing study to the higher level. However, in some cases, the Maritime English material sources are

very limited. Thus, maritime colleges should evaluate the availability their maritime English textbooks and suit the maritime English material to IMO and STCW. Hopefully, it helps the teacher to create authentic suitable material to students' maritime needs.

3. Students' motivation is the key success in learning a language so that the teachers need to control the quality of teaching learning process in order to keep students motivated in learning. This research proved that students learned English because they wanted to achieve some goals in the future. This finding can be a base of motivating students to learn by fostering them to achieve attractiveness in the future. For example, the teacher provides some examples of successful people on board of cruise vessel industry and shows the students how those people communicate by using maritime English in the vessel.

4. The positive correlation between students' Maritime English achievement and students' motivation indicated that the students' maritime English influenced by students' motivation level. It means that a teacher may do an effort to motivate students when he or she finds the students' low achievement in learning. The effort could be using a strategy to increase the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For example, the teacher inform the students about the importance of Maritime English for seeking job in cruise vessel industry and what benefit they get in the future by mastering Maritime English materials.

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Implementing Project-Based Learning in EFL Teaching Context

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Abstract

Although research across different fields and levels of education show project-based learning (PBL) as an effective instructional model in terms of increasing students' knowledge, skills and learning motivation, there is still very little information on how English foreign language teachers in secondary schools implement such model in their teaching context. This phenomenological study examines and describes how English as a foreign language is taught and learned under the project-based learning model in Indonesian secondary schools. The data for the study were collected through classroom observations over a 16-week period in four different schools, interviews with four English teachers, a focus group interview with students, and documents analysis. The findings of the study show six common practices: modeling, novelty and authenticity, role and responsibility,

standard setting, goal tracking, and peer group assessment and feedback. The article concludes by highlighting the advantages of such practices along with some recommendations.

Introduction

Project-Based Learning (PBL) has been an integral part of the instructional model in education. This instructional model extends in various adaptations across different educational fields such as medical school, engineering, science, forestry, social work, language teaching, and many other professional fields varying from primary to higher education institutions.

The effectiveness of PBL has been demonstrated in some studies across different fields and levels of education. The evidence shows that PBL is effective in improving students' content knowledge (Fragoulis, 2009; Ke, 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2012), and in increasing low-achieving and less-confident students' performance (Mergendoller, Maxwell, & Bellisimo, 2006). It also proves to be powerful in making the students take responsibility for their learning (Kaldi, Filippatou, & Govaris, 2011; Fine, 2011), in acquiring the 21st century skills (Bell, 2010; Grant & Branch, 2005; Fushino, 2011; Ravitz, Hixson, English, & Mergendoller, 2012), and in improving students' motivation (Coffin, 2013 ; Grant, 2011). The learning under PBL has also obtained positive reaction from students (Fushino, 2011; Grant, 2011), and changed the teacher and students' culture in school reform programs (Ravitz, 2010). In EFL learning, PBL has been proven to be useful in developing discourse competence (Fragoulis, 2009), as well as oral and written language skills (Korosidou & Griva, 2013; Foss, Carney, Mcdonald, & Rooks, 2007).

However, an attempt to implement Project-Based learning effectively can be problematic especially for the novice PBL teachers. Alan and Stoller (2005) identified some misleading practices among EFL teachers such as excessive teacher control and the absence of teacher feedback on students' work. According to Alan and Stoller (2005), such practice constrains the student's ability to grow from their project and inhibit them from taking responsibility for their learning. In another study, Fragoulis (2009) reported a clash between the teachers who assumed a new role as facilitators and the students who used to depend on teacher lecturing. Similarly, Frank and Barzilai, (2004) found that teachers experienced frustrations with the amount of time it took to implement project-based learning as well as their

experience of difficulty in transitioning students into more active roles. Eguchi and Eguchi (2006) had also documented some limitation of implementing PBL as a result of excessive focus on the task of the project over the use of English language.

Since the field of research in PBL is relatively new, results of some meta-analysis studies makes recommendations for improving the implementation of PBL, especially in schools setting, instead of comparing PBL with other teaching methods   (Thomas, 2000; Strobel and van Barneveld, 2009). To improve the implementation process of PBL, Alan and Stoller (2005) adopted Stoller's project framework (1997) construct features of PBL model for EFL and applied it in an EFL teaching context in Turkey. The construction is known as semi-structure project framework that consists of ten steps containing short instructions on what teachers need to do to attain the maximum benefit of EFL teaching and learning in PBL. Beckett and Slater, (2005) developed project framework known as *planning graphics* and studied its usage as a mediation tool to help students understand the connection between language, content, and skills related to the project they are about to choose. In another study, Ertmer and Simons, (2005) observed scaffold models to assist the teacher, especially for novice teachers implementing project-based learning. They found that the use of checklists, templates, and a series of prompts help teachers scaffold driving question for students.

Other studies focus on different forms of alternative assessment in PBL to evaluate their effectiveness in term of students' and teachers' perspective (Frank & Barzilai, 2004; Van den Bergh et al., 2006), as well as in term of the type of project assignment and the level of students' engagement, the expected learning outcome and the integration of domains other than knowledge (Grant & Maribe Branch, 2005; Ke, 2010; Bell, 2010; Gülbahar & Tinmaz, 2006; Chang & Tseng, 2011). Furthermore, some other studies also focus on the integration of technology in PBL for different purposes such as using technology to facilitate learning in PBL (ChanLin, 2008; Foss et al., 2007; Stewart, 2007) and develop technology as a skill through PBL (Grant & Maribe Branch, 2005).

Relate to improving the implementation process of PBL, most of the studies in this field concern with studying the framework or design scaffold model proposed by the researcher to assist both teacher and students to go through the process of learning effectively. However, there is still very little information about the study on teacher's initiation model of PBL, especially of EFL teachers in school setting. This present study concerns Project-Based learning practice in EFL teaching context by the teachers in senior secondary school. At practical level, the findings of this research can help teachers to understand how project-based

learning is implemented in an EFL teaching context to maximize learning. At theoretical level, the result of the study can contribute to the field of EFL teaching and project-based learning.

Method

The research design employs qualitative methods. It was a phenomenological study that involves examines and describes the process of implementing PBL in EFL teaching in senior high schools. The purpose was to investigate the implementation pattern and highlight the benefit of such pattern in EFL teaching and learning context.

The participants in this study were 120 students (aged 16 -17 years-old), and four EFL teachers from four diffrent secondary schools. These four teachers graduated from English language teaching departments of universities in Indonesia and they all taught Year-11 English class. They had received training in project-based learning. They had been observed during the preliminary study of implementation project –based learning in the EFL class and the implementation met the common features of PBL described by Ravitz (2010) which include (a) containing in-depth inquiry, (b) taking an extended period, (c) student self-directed to some extent, and (d) requires a formal presentation of results. In addition, these teachers accepted for the observation to be conducted on the whole stage of project work in EFL teaching, and agreed to a recorded interview.

 Data were collected through on-site observation, a semi-structured interview with teachers, a focus-group interview with students, and other documents such as students' works, lesson plans, and syllabi, all of which were collected with permission from the school administration and the teachers themselves. The observation focused on identifying and formulating the patterns of project-based learning practices. It focused on what the teachers did and how they did it in the classroom with students. The semi-structured interview, on the other hand, was done after the class observation. The interview was developed corresponding to the result of the classroom observations and was guided by some questions deliberately created to identify the way teachers maintained students', motivation, the highest standard of students' achievement, communication with students, and problems or difficulties which may occur during the stages of project implementation. The data obtained from the observation was analyzed by coding the components of the practices and reorganizing them under the theme to provide the description. The data from the interview was transcribed and coded for classification (Darlington & Scott 2002; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

Findings: Implementing project-based learning in EFL teaching context

All teachers permanently scheduled two project assignments every semester. The type of project was adjusted to students' interest under a major theme determined by the teacher. The theme was generated from the accumulation of all individual segment of the lessons, for example, in one school the theme of the project was 'Local Legend, ' and the type of project was 'a stage drama performance' or 'storytelling' taken from one of the legends. Another example is the theme 'eco-tourism' which relates to the descriptive text about 'nature & environment.' Under this theme, the students were asked to create a brochure project describing different interesting places and events of their own cities.

The objective of assigning the project to students is similar among the teachers, that is, to provide students the opportunity to practice using the language in a more authentic and contextual way, to foster autonomous and collaborative learning and to promote critical and creative thinking skills. This objective is manifested in project activities throughout the stages going from planning, to implementation, and to reporting the project result. They are then assessed by using a variety of alternative assessment such as a journal, project report, and group or peer assessment

The lesson design identified in this study falls into three stages: the planning, the implementation, and the report stages. Each stage contains activities to be completed with students. The whole stages took between 3 to 4 weeks which also determined the length of the project assignment.

Throughout 16 weeks of observation during the implementation stage, and through the data collected in the teacher interview, six common practices characterized the implementation of project-based learning in EFL teaching context:

a) Modeling

b) Novelty and authenticity

c) Role and responsibility

d) Standard setting

e) Goal tracking

f) Peer group assessment and feedback.

Modeling

Modeling is a part of scaffolding the project activities. Its primary concern is to show students the project goal. Modeling was done by showing one of the best sample project

assignments from the previous group through the power point and video presentation. Breaking down the project content into some segments along with the discussion on the content, the text structure and verbs, presentation skills, collaboration, and technology are all parts of modeling the project goal.

Novelty and authenticity

Novelty and authenticity are introduced when it deals with project selection. Novelty and authenticity are emphasized by limiting the scope of the project to local problem, changing the type of project, for example, from a roleplay or drama performance to a storytelling for a similar theme, changing the context, the object or the problem when it dealt, for example, with similar issues contained in the descriptive, hortatory, recount or argumentative text in EFL teaching.

Role and responsibility

Role and responsibility are concerned with maintaining the effective group work throughout the project work. After members are randomly selected to create the group, the teacher instructs the members to define the role and responsibilities related to their interest and skills, and create the schedule for their project activities. Role and responsibility are checked during the draft presentation of the project by having the individual members inform his or her role and the contribution to the project.

Standard setting

Standard setting relates to the expected learning outcome or learning objective in project work. It is a detailed assessment rubric for the project, individual participation, and group performance or presentation of the project. The standards are shown in a rubric form the planning stage and are tracked throughout the project stages. PowerPoint presentation is used to display the rubric by drawing the students' attention to the components that are below as well as beyond expectation. The emphasis is put on the components that are beyond expectation.

Goal tracking

Goal tracking concerns checking students' progress with their project. It involves monitoring and mentoring students' progress in the classroom and outside the classroom. In the classroom, it is done by having the groups present the project draft followed by the discussion of the content and language skills. Outside the classroom, the track is done by having

a face-to-face conference or meeting with the teacher and virtual interaction through online media like WhatsApp and Instagram. The contents of the face to face meeting and virtual interaction are primarily about checking the language, the resources, and the data, and providing feedback and the encouragement to move forward.

Peer group assessment and feedback

Peer group assessment and feedback are created by the teacher to maintain active participation. There are two models of peer group assessment and feedback: the first one is initially started by having the individual group do a draft presentation before the class and received feedback to revise the contents. The second model is a group simulation in which the groups are arranged to visit each other's presentation. These two models are concluded with whole class discussion.

A Sample of Project-Based Activity in EFL Teaching

A sample of project-based activity below depicts how six practices appeared in a report of a mini research project for year 11 students.

The teacher informed the class that they were going to to do a project in the following week. It was a mini research of some interesting places or events in their own city. To provide an orientation of the project, she started to show them the sample project by breaking down the sample model into segments. She drew the students' attention to every segment as she moved from one segment to the others. She started first with an introduction segment, paused for a while, elicited questions about the core element of the segment such as the "objective" and 'orientation' which contained 'who, what, where, when' questions for students. She then moved to the next segment of the contents which contained a range of events, drawing the students' attention to the text and verb forms, asking them questions about it, having a student read the text and identify the verb forms in the text. Later she moved to the content of the video which was also a part of the project. She explained the content of the video which covered the scene of the game, the audience and the student-reporter from the scene. She asked some verbs-related questions and discussed the difference with students.

After modeling the project, the teacher moved to form the groups randomly. She revealed five projects for each group by writing them down on the board, i.e. 1) a trip to Brawijaya Museum, 2) Baluran National Park, 3) the SMADA Cup and then had the group take a lottery for their project. Here the teacher selected different places and events to keep the project novel and unique for her students. Before moving to the next step, she gave the groups

opportunity to discuss the possible issues related to the place they were about to visit, for example, why should students visit Brawijaya Museum (a military museum)?, how important is Baluran National Park to Indonesia?. She listed the discussion on the board to make it clear to the group to work on the issues.

The next step, she set the standard for the project by showing and explaining the rubric in PowerPoint. She drew the students' attention to the components for below the expectation and the components for beyond the expectation and had a student read the detail of those components and explained the differences between the two. Additionally she told the students that 'if you want to achieve a high performance you must do what is mentioned in the rubric'. Here the teacher put the emphasis on the high expectation which she maintained throughout the project work.

After showing the rubric, she had each group decide the job and responsibility of each member. In doing so, she suggested defining the role and responsibility, based on the character of the project, by writing them on the board such as the captain, the secretary, the traveler, and the documenter. She also explained each job to ensure students understood it. She asked question such as" what does documenter mean?" to ensure students understood their job. She then ordered the group to decide within the group members who would do what and had them submit the detail for her own documentation. Next, the teacher discussed the project schedule and timeline with students. She informed them that the research should take 5 days to complete, so she discussed the timeline by writing it down on the board such as.

Day 1: Decide the place (it is done in the classroom)

Day 2-3: Visit the place, take a picture, video, and write the experience/report in English

Day 4: Review, set PowerPoint for presentation

Day 5: Submit the first draft to the teacher.

She then checked if the schedule and timeline would be alright with them and started a discussion on how they would get to the place, and how they would communicate with her either face- to face or using online media during the project work.
She then explained the organization for the presentation: greeting, state individual job and responsibility, content, conclusion. This is the section where the teacher emphasized on the role and responsibility of the students and her expectation which she tracked or monitored during the project work. Finally, she summarized all the activities with students by having them mention what they had to do for the project.

During the next meeting, the teacher asked the students about their project and their preparation for the draft presentation. She asked the group leader to draw the lottery for the presentation. Before the presentation, she informed the class to provide an opinion on each group presentation, one that they thought was already good and another one they thought needed improvement in terms of the content and the presentation skills. She then invited the group to present, and took notes of every presentation for feedback and discussion. This is how the teacher kept track of the goal of the project in EFL teaching and learning.

Next came the group presentation followed by the structure suggested by the teacher. It started by greeting, told the story of the individual job and responsibility, reported the progress which included how they got to the place and obtained the data. Each member told his/her own job and responsibility led by the group leader in English. Each member was given a job to tell part of the presentation. They explained how they went thus far with their project. They showed the video and the narrative they have done so far. Every group did the same and, at the end, they got feedback from their peers. The class concluded with a discussion about the revision and the plan for simulation before the final project presentation.

The Advantages

Schneider and Synteta, (2005) remind us that the advantage of learning would not be obtained if the teachers solely asked the students to do the project, but are absent from providing feedback to their work. Transforming student's role into an active one requires teacher guidance, feedback, and monitoring. In this research context, modeling the project activities including breaking down the contents into a manageable piece for the student to learn is one of the practices. One of the teachers said,

> *"We need to show students the model because otherwise, it would be difficult for them to understand our expectation".*

A student put it this way "*We had been given an example by the teacher, so we have enough idea to start the project"*. Another student said "Soon *after we know what project we are going to deal with, we start discussing the draft"*. Modeling the project activities make the process of understanding the project goal easier (Felder & Brent, 2005), and so, it quickly engages the students and stimulates them to take initiation.

Putting an emphasis on the novelty and authenticity of the project is another common practice to stimulate their creativity and autonomy. The teacher said

"If we do not limit the scope of the project to a local problem, we give students opportunity to possibly copy entirely the assignment from the internet or the previous group. I prefer to see their ownership of the project because the benefit of learning in the project is there."

Novelty and authenticity of the project encourage students to engage in exploration. It stimulates creativity and innovation. One student explained, *"We went to Baluran National Park. I videotaped my friend interview the people there. We also collected information about the park…..about the size of the park, the people in charge, the plant species and much more. We have to write and explain about the park in our project".* Novelty and authenticity inspire students to be more critical, as a student said *"I mainly browse the internet for getting additional information. We normally crosscheck to ensure if it is true or not".* It also encourages them to interact with the technology to solve their problem as one of the students added, *"We search the idea and example on the internet. We learn sentences and words relate to the given project"*

Novelty and authenticity encourage students to be creative, innovative and to be autonomous. This is a representation of active learning described by Klein et al. (2009) that changes the pace of the classroom in a creative way to increase students' involvement, motivation, excitement and attention, and to engage them in higher-order thinking such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Displaying and explaining the rubric by drawing the students' attention to the two distinct components 'below and beyond the expectation' stimulates the students to work better on the project. This is a way of setting the standard expectation with students. One of the teachers said,

> *"I show them the rubric so that they know what they have to do to achieve that goal. I believe students will be motivated and work harder to get the best result"*

Another teacher expressed,

> *"As long as we clearly explained the objective of the project and set the scope, the students are motivated to work on the project,*

Showing the rubric to students is like showing them the direction to complete and perform better on their project. A student said *"Before the presentation, we practice understanding the content. We try to learn by heart, one did the presentation and the others watched and provided comment. Sometimes we have friends to correct pronunciation".*

Another student added," *We support each other to practice speaking"*. Gurney (2007) pointed out that assessment can be very much a part of the creation of an effective learning process.

Random grouping without a clear defining role and responsibility from the beginning may produce unproductive group work that affects collaborative work and the project result. For effective collaboration to take place, the teacher demands the student to define their role and responsibility in group work. One of the teachers said,

> *"I asked the group to select the team leader and discuss responsibility among the members".*

Another teacher added,

> *"I demanded every member to play a role in presentation, so the group has to split the job".*

Defining the role and responsibility of the group member encourage collaboration among the students. One student said, "*First we discuss in our group who is going to take the video and edit, design the PPT, write the script. We discuss the events, what first, and what will be the second etc."* It also makes them learn to take responsibility for their own learning. Another student added, *"After giving the task, we design a poster from a given topic. It took a week. We did it by ourselves… we split the job, some work on the sentences, the others on the concept and picture"*

Tracking the students' progress of their own project assignment is another practice identified in this study. A teacher said,

> *"When the project is carried out, I ask students to show me the draft of the text they have constructed in power point presentation for the feedback".*

This is how learning takes place when the teacher allows students to present their progress and facilitates content, language skills through feedback and discussion and provides encouragement for improvement. A teacher said,

> '*I encourage them to get additional information related to the project'*

Another teacher put it this way,

> '*In a presentation, I encourage the students not to copy paste the entire text in their power point, but rather the points. The intention is not to have them read the text during the presentation, but to have them practice speaking or oral presentation skill without relying on the text"*

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Tracking the progress and giving feedback allow students the time to learn better. One student put it this way, *"We feel every task in the project is beneficial. We are getting more active in expressing our ideas as in poster project. We learn to design the poster, the layout, etc".* The teacher also creates interaction outside the classroom to maintain student's engagement with the project. A student said, *"we meet teacher to discuss our data whether the data we collect is appropriate and enough for presentation".* Another student said, *"If we are not sure about phrase or terms especially the meaning of a special term that we discuss in our group, we asked the teacher to help us"*

The model that the teacher develops is one of the key factors described by Gurney (2007) as an effective teaching in which teacher create interaction with students in a respectful and informal way to encourage and stimulate learning.

Peer group assessment and feedback is also identified in this study as a common practice.

"I asked students to provide comment about their peer's presentation, what do they think, what they found good and what they found need to be improved".

Peer group assessment and feedback provide an opportunity for students to reflect on their peer performance that will eventually apply to their own performance. A student said *"Before we do the presentation, we have to understand the content we are going to present. So that we can respond every question delivered in question and answer section. We discuss it together."* This is one of the driving forces in autonomous learning to stimulate students to learn to improve their language and presentation skills. Another student stated, *"I love group presentation. I learn a lot from friends and become more confidence".* This model is a representation of meaningful learning explained by Michael (2006) when students are facilitated to provide explanation whether to peers or teachers that force them to reflect upon ideas and how they are using those ideas, especially in project work.

The models practiced by the teachers portray the dimension of EFL teaching and learning in project-based learning. Maximizing the learning of language, content, and real-life skills require teacher guidance, feedback, student engagement, and elaborated tasks with some degree of challenges (Alan & Stoller,2005). The element of novelty and authenticity of the project give students the opportunity to develop their innovation and higher- order thinking skills as Blumenfeld et al., (1991) stated that the project could be meaningful, and cognitively engaging if the design considers various tasks and unique elements. Above all, the portrayed

dimension of teaching and learning require teachers to assume a new role as facilitators and commit to student learning.

Conclusion

This study shared insight to better understand the implementation of project-based learning in an EFL teaching context. On the basis of the result of this study, the maximum benefits of EFL learning around the project require the teacher's guidance, feedback, and monitoring. The element of novelty or uniqueness and authenticity should be included in the project design along with peer group assessment and feedback to develop learner's language skills, autonomy, creative and critical thinking skills.

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A Software to Increase English Learning Outcomes:
An Acceleration Model of English as the Second Language

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Abstract

An appropriate learning media is needed to improve students' learning outcomes in English. Videoscribe is one of the media that can be used in teaching English. Learning English in *MTs Banua Sendana* is very monotonous so that the enthusiasm of learning is very low. This has an impact on the low students' learning outcomes. With rapid technological advances, it is hoped that problems like this can be overcome. This research aims to obtain a description of the application of internet-based learning media through Videoscribe software to students' learning outcomes. This research applied true experimental Design. It used pretest-posttest control group design. There were two groups, namely experimental and control groups. The groups were taken by using cluster random sampling. From three classes, two classes were used. Class XII B was experimental group, and class XII was control group. Those groups were given pre-test and post-test. Each group had different treatment. Experimental group was taugh by using videoscribe, while control group was taught by using usual media. To find out the learning progress, it was used t-test. To find out the t-test, the authors used the SPSS 21.0 data

processing application. The result shows that the post-test scores experimental group were higher than the scores in the control group (85.00> 79.00). It indicates that the use of videoscribe software in the learning process in MTs Banua Sendana improve students' learning outcomes.

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Introduction

Human curiosity about something new is the reason why science develops. Human resources have a strategic role to develop a country in various fields, including education. An established education system will improve the quality of life of a country (Jayasuriya, 2012) including Indonesia which is a developing country. With an established education system, it allows us to think critically, creatively and productively. In the 1945 Constitution, it is stated that Indonesia wants to create a smart society. To reach a smart nation, learning communities must be formed from all subjects in the school, including English subjects which are currently subject to programming.

English in Indonesia has become a compulsory at schools. Some schools teach other subjects by using English as language of instruction. English is not something new for students. They know it from songs, movies, reading text provided products sold in the market. However, in the implementation students' ability to use English in communication has not been evenly distributed as a whole. Their learning at school is one of factor influencing their competence.

There is a difference between learning English in urban schools and learning English in rural schools. Learning English in urban schools is supported by very completed facilities, highly professional teachers, supporting books, and sophisticated English laboratory rooms. In the contrary, students in rural areas encounter some barriers. For these students, learning English at school for many years does not seem to contribute much to the development of communicative competence in English (Sato, 2019). However, creating modern teaching in

rural areas is not impossible. The availability of internet networks and electronic portable devices like laptop can answer this gap.

English learning in suburban schools mostly has limited facilities such as not varied books. The books are also only textbooks and student worksheets which are given as a guide in English lessons without completed additional materials like CD. Less optimal learning outcomes are the problem that arises very often from an implementation of a learning process (Sato, 2019). Students' learning styles inluences students' learning outcome. When teachers' stumuli meet students' learning styles, their focus in learning may increase. In addition, Students' may choose proper strategy for themselves, since it contributes to their proficiency (Thurman, 2013). Therefore, there should be a great collaboration between teacher and students in learning.

MTs Banua Sendana is a suburban school located in the area of Majene Regency. The number of the students in *MTs Banua Sendana* is less than other schools. Some students choose not to go to school for several days. The go to school based on their mood. The lack of enthusiasm of going to school is due to the lack of effective learning process and the materials provided by the teachers (educators) are less innovative especially in English. The English teacher in *MTs Banua Sendana* still adheres to the old method of lecture and practice. As a result, many students have not been able to carry out conversations, convey information, or tell a story. Many students have difficulty to understand what is taught by the teachers. This greatly affects the motivation and learning outcomes of participants in the classroom. In the classroom, all learners have the same right to get the access for education so that the teachers should treat all students in the same manner (Yamin & Utomo, 2019;Arbain & Nur, 2017). Actually this statement does not only apply among students in one school, but also among students throughout Indonesia.

The increase of students' learning outcomes or the achievement of minimum completeness standards (KKM) is one form of achievement of learning objectives. To achieve the expected learning goals, there should be a special treatment which helps students to improve their learning outcomes. One thing that affects students' learning outcome is students' interest. Learning media may raise students' interest. Learning media needed in learning English at *MTs Banua Sendana* is a learning media that is oriented towards increasing student motivation and learning outcomes, namely videoscribe application. Learning medium in the form of

videoscribe application is an effective medium for teaching internet-based English to display material through videoscribe.

The use of variations in learning media in the classroom can make it easier for students to understand the lessons and make them interested in the materials which are delivered. It happens because videos cover various students' learning styles. Video help visual learners and auditory learners. This drives a positive impact on students' motivation and learning outcomes, especially English subjects.

Literature Review

Learning outcomes understanding

Learning outcomes are abilities acquired by individuals after the learning process takes place, which can provide changes in behavior both students' knowledge, understanding, attitudes and skills so that they are better than before. Learning outcomes are one indicator of the learning process (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Learning outcomes are changes in behavior acquired by students after experiencing learning activities. One indicator of whether or not a learning process is achieved or not is to look at the learning outcomes achieved by students. Learning outcomes are the level of mastery achieved by students in participating in teaching and learning programs, according to the objectives set. According to Dimyati and Mudjiono in Sangadji, it can be understood that what is meant by learning outcomes is a process to see the extent to which students can master learning after following the activities of the teaching and learning process, or the success achieved by students after participating in learning activities marked with numbers, letters, or certain symbols agreed upon by the education provider (Sopiah Sangadji, 2016).

From some of the above theories about the understanding of learning outcomes, the learning outcomes referred to in this study are learning outcomes (behavioral changes: cognitive, affective and psychomotor) after completing the learning process with information search learning strategies and recitation Learning outcomes achieved by students are influenced by two factors, namely internal factors that come from these students, and external factors that come from outside the student's self. The factor of students is primarily the ability they have. The ability factor of students has a huge influence on the learning outcomes achieved by students. As Clark in Saggaf has stated, that student learning outcomes in schools are 70% influenced by students' abilities and 30% are influenced by the environment (Saggaf, Salam, & Rifka, 2017). In addition to the factor of students' ability, there are also other factors such

as motivation to learn, interest and attention, attitudes and learning habits, and many other factors. The existence of influence from within the student, is a logical and reasonable thing, because the nature of the act of learning is a change in behavior that is intentional and realized. Students must feel the need for learning and achievement (Riza, 2017).

Learning Media

1. Understanding of learning media

Media is the plural form of the medium which comes from the Latin medius which means middle. In Indonesian the word medium is interpreted as "between" or "medium" (Mantiri, 2014). Learning media are all tools (aids) or objects used for teaching and learning activities, with the intention of conveying messages (information) learning from sources (teachers and other sources) to recipients (in this case children students or learning citizens) (Stokes, 2002). Based on the expert's opinion, it can be concluded that learning media are tools to convey messages from sources to recipients.

Learning media is everything that can be used to channel messages from the sender to the recipient of the message. In this case, the process stimulates students' thoughts, feelings, attention, and interests and attention so that the learning process can be established (Fatkhurrokhman, Leksono, Ramdan, & Rahman, 2018). Based on the statement, it can be concluded that learning media is a tool that is used by teachers as teaching aids. In the learning interaction, the teacher conveys the teaching message in the form of learning material to students

Learning media is a messenger technology that can be used for learning purposes. So learning media is a tool that can be used for learning. Based on several opinions above, it can be concluded that the definition of learning media as a teaching aid to deliver material so that messages are more easily accepted and make students more motivated and active. There are several types of media. They are video, manipulates (objects), people, audio, visuals and text (Smaldino, Lowther, & Mims, 2008). Those kinds of media are adaptable for learning, including English. Those are suitable to teach English component and English skills. It is expected that those media meet students' learning styles and increase students' interest to learn.

Videoscribe Sparkol

Learning media used by the author in research using audiovisual media. One of the audiovisual media used in learning is videoscribe. According to Joyce and B. White in (Fakhriyani, 2018) "*sparkol videos for creating short whiteboard styles to explain certain concepts, either by instructor or student*", can be interpreted that scribe video is software that creates animated whiteboard styles brief to explain certain concepts both made by instructors (teachers) and students. By presenting the aforementioned display, it makes it easier for students to understand learning by using effective scribe video media so that the learning media is believed to be able to improve student learning outcomes. This is in accordance with the theory which states that the quality of learning outcomes can be improved when the integration of words and images as learning media can communicate elements of knowledge in a way that is well-organized, specific, and clear.

Method

This research applied a True Experimental Design. It used pretest-posttest control group design. There were two groups, namely experimental and control groups which were taken randomly. Those groups were given pre-test. Each group had different treatment. Experimental group was taugh by using videoscribe, while control group was taught by using usual media. There were three classes in MTs Banua Sendana Majene. Class XII A consisted of 33 students, class XII B consisted of 30 students, and class XII C consisted of 30 students. The samples were taken by using cluster random sampling in which class XII B as experimental group, and class XII C as control group. The tests were used to measure students' learning outcome, both before having and after having treatments. To analyze the data, the authors used the percentage formula as follows:

$$P = \frac{F}{N} \text{ X } 100$$

Note :

P: percentage of score obtained

f: the frequency that the percentage is looking for

N: The amount of individuals / number of individuals

(Sudijono 2006:40)

To find out the changes of students' learning outcomes on the pre-test and post-test, it was used the t-test. To find out the t-test, the authors used the SPSS 21.0 data processing application.

Discussion

After analyzing the results of the English language scores of students in the pre-test and post-test through the SPSS 22.0 application, it can be described in the table as follows :

Figure 4.1. Descriptive Statistics on Experimental Class Pre-tests and Post-tests

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maksimum	Rata-rata	Std. Deviasi
Pre-test	30	55.00	75.00	65.1667	6.75729
Post-test	30	75.00	85.00	80.8333	2.96047
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Based on the frequency distribution of the descriptive statistics above, it is clear that the minimum and maximum scores from the pretest and posttest in the experimental class. The results of the students 'scores indicate that there are differences or significant increases in students' English skills before and after being given treatment or teaching using the video scribe application. This is reinforced from the results of the table diats showing the lowest value at pretest obtained a value of 55.00 with a low category while the value in the posttest obtained a value of 75.00 with a medium category while for the value of English at the minimum posttest obtained a value of 75.00 and the highest value 85 , 00 with a high category. It can be seen that there are differences before and after the learning process or treatment using the video scribe application media, by which it can be concluded that the use of scribe videos can improve the learning achievement and motivation of Banua Sendana MTS students

Histogram test pretest in the experimental group
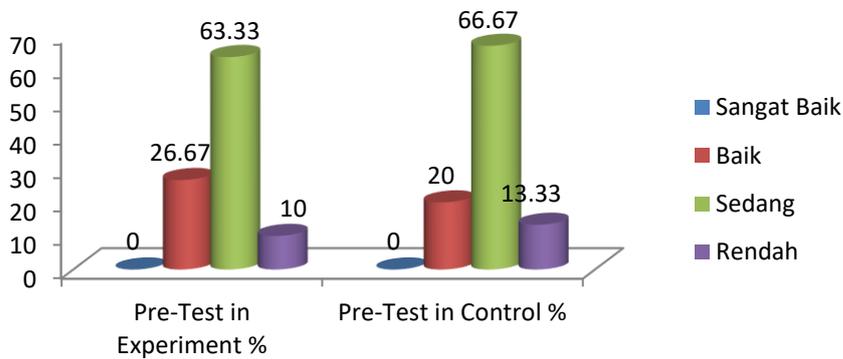
Figure 4.2. Descriptive Statistics on the Control Class pre-test and Post-test

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Std. Deviation
Pretest	30	55.00	75.00	63.6667	5.71346
Posttest	30	60.00	79.00	66.3333	5.26100
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Based on the frequency distribution of the statistical description table 4.2 above, it is clear that the minimum and maximum scores from the pretest and posttest in the experimental class. The results of the students 'scores show that there is no significant increase in students' English skills before and after being given treatment or teaching. This is evident from the results of the table diats showing the results of the lowest value at the pretest obtained a value of 55.00 while the value in the posttest obtained a value of 60.00 with a low category while for the value of English at the minimum posttest obtained a value of 75.00 and the highest value 75.00 with medium category.

Contemporary master histogram pre-test in Group control
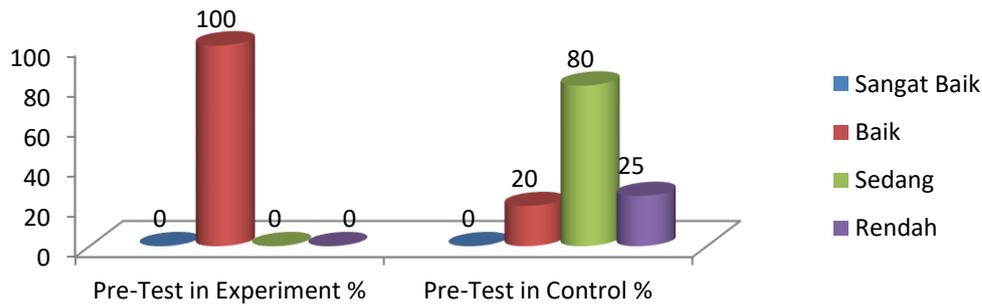
Figure 4.3. Independent Sample t-test of Pre-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pr ete st	Equal variances assumed	.560	.457	.928	58	.357	1.50000	1.61560	-1.73397	4.73397
	Equal variances not assumed			.928	56.440	.357	1.50000	1.61560	-1.73587	4.73587

Figure 4.3 shows the value of the independent sample t-test, which is based on the results of the analysis of the SPSS 20.0 application. The hypothesis is tested using inferential analysis. In this case, the researcher used a t-test (testing significance) for an independent sample test, which is a test to determine the significance of the difference between the results of the average score of students in the pre-test and post-test in the experimental class and the control class. The following table is a table that shows the results of the calculation of pre-student test t-tests. The table above shows that the sig-value (0.457) is higher than α = 0.05. it

means that the difference in knowledge of students is statistically insignificant and the control group or class has the same or no difference in value.

Figure 4.4. Independent T-test sample post test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post test	Equal variances assumed	9.335	.003	12.448	58	.000	14.16667	1.13807	11.88857	16.44477
	Equal variances not assumed			12.448	44.572	.000	14.16667	1.13807	11.87386	16.45947

The table shows that the P-value (0.03) is lower than α = 0.05 (0.00 <0.05). it means that there is a statistical difference in students' knowledge before and after receiving learning through the video scribe application. Based on the findings and discussion above, it can be concluded that H1 is accepted and hypothesis Ho is rejected.

Conclusion

Based on the research result above, the authors draw conclusion as follow: the use of monotonous teaching which rely on usual textbook and worksheet does not improve students' learning outcome in control group. In contrast, the use of video scribe in teaching English increase students' learning outcome in experimental It can be concluded that the use of

videoscribe application in the learning process of *MTs Banua Sendana* students is more effective to the improvement of students' learning outcome.

Furthermore, the use video scribe is no longer a barrier, since government has supported schools through budgets for school operational assistance. Hence, It is highly recommended that teachers should play their best roles in the class to choose the most proper learning media for their students.

Pedagogical Implication

This study deduce several pedagogical implications. First, the use of videoscribe can be adaptable in variety of teaching English skills and components, since it is based multisensory which attracts students' concentration to learn. Second, This study provides information for teachers to choose effective learning media and applications in learning so that students' have eagerness to learn and it contributes to their learning outcome. Third, teachers should develop their professionalism to reduce monotonous teaching which drives students' learning discomfort and low students' learning outcomes.

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The Comparative Study of Indonesian Students' Writing Ability on Indonesian Language and English Language

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Abstract

This research is a comparative study focusing on students' writing ability in two different languages. In this case, Indonesian language as a first language (mother tongue) taught formally in elementary school up to university and English language as a second language (foreign language) taught formally in junior high school up to university. The research aims to know the students' ability to write descriptive texts in two different languages and comparing them at the same time. The research is quantitative research, where the data analyzed quantitatively. The research subject was the students who passed certain English subjects, namely writing I, writing II, writing III, and writing IV and Indonesian language subject, namely scientific work subject written in the Indonesian language taught in the first semester.

The data was gained from the third-year students in the sixth semester of the English education department of Muhammadiyah University of Parepare through the writing test. The result of the research gave the description and comparison of the writing ability in two different languages at the same time based on the writing assessment rubric.

Introduction

English is used in almost all communication worldwide. It plays an essential role in constructing global aspects such as technology, business, agriculture, economic, scientific, research, social interaction, application, other job fields. It shows that English is not only used to communicate but also compete globally. In the scientific aspect, English is one of the subjects applied in the education system as a whole, for instance, are in senior high school and junior high school, which it had been studied as the compulsory subject. On the other hand, it is also implemented as the local content, especially in elementary school. English is a compulsory subject from junior high school up to senior high school because the government had been putting it on the national curriculum in order to make students study about it. On the national curriculum of Indonesia 2016, English has four skills to be studied; those are reading, speaking, listening, and writing.

Moreover, there are also four aspects of it; those are vocabulary, pronunciation, structure, and grammar. Those four skills (reading, speaking, listening, and writing) are most important to be studied. One of the essential skills in Language is writing. Writing is the skill that emphasis mechanical aspects of writing and grammar level, which attempt to replicate the processes of thinking and textual convention of discourse community (Johnson and Lin, 2016 and Shea, 2017). The research aims to know the students' ability to write a descriptive text in two different languages and comparing it at the same time. The research subject was the students who passed certain English subjects, namely writing I, writing II, writing III, and writing IV and Indonesian language subject, namely scientific work subject written in the Indonesian language taught in the first semester.

Literature Review

The Comparative of the First and Second Language Acquisition

In academic institutions, developing the students' writing ability is one of the teacher desires, especially in the countries where English is functioned as a second (ESL) or foreign language (EFL). For instance, in Nigeria, a good writing skill in English is essential to both academic and non-academic where the individual is living (Aliyu and Danladi, 2018). They also added that in academic institutions, English functions as the medium of instruction, thus, writing in English is mostly considered to be a multifunctional tool used by students to take class notes, write assignments, tests, and examinations. Nur and Syarifuddin (2018) state that there are at least three strategies that need to be achieved in learning, namely metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. L1 affects students' psychological and linguistic readiness to L2 learning as well as influences students' academic achievement (Sultana, 2018). However, the relationship between age and success in second language acquisition (SLA) is controversial. In other words, some scholars have provided the students' evidence which supports the existence of a critical period for L2 acquisition, while other scholars have provided counter-evidence for L2 (Rezaie, 2015).

SLA has portrayed more attention from researchers because the success of L2 learners is wide-ranging. Many factors affect the success of it, which often due to the age constraints related to SLA, which is absent or not as eminent in the development of a first or native language (Rahman M, et al., 2017). They also add that the students' achievement was found to be higher among the L1 users who were exposed to the target language (Rahman M, et al., 2017). Many factors have identified as responsible for the students' poor performance in writing in English. The factors include mother tongue influences, learning environment, inadequate methods of teaching, lack of good teaching, sparse language, and the nature of teacher/student interaction (Aliyu and Danladi, 2018).

The Comparison of Students' Proficiency in Both L1 and L2

Language transfer plays an indispensable part in the study of second language acquisition. The transfer is bidirectional: the first language can affect the second language, and the second language can also exert influence on the first language. The former is called forward transfer, and the latter backward transfer (Wang, 2014). They added that the second language users are a particular group of language users. Their knowledge of the second language is not

identical to a native speaker. Their knowledge of their first language, in some respects, is not the same as a monolingual.

Additionally, Yadav (2014) states that children's ability to learn a second or additional local language and an international language such as English, French, or German still stand when their mother tongue is the main language of instruction throughout primary school. Fluency and literacy in the mother tongue lay a cognitive and linguistic foundation for learning additional languages e.g., the English language. Accordingly, Pae (2018) explains that transfer of L1 writing skills to the process of L2 writing is more influenced by learners' knowledge of L2 proficiency than the transfer of reading, which may have caused the differences in the results of moderator analyses in the present study between reading and writing. In contrast, Yadav (2014) argues that the influence of the mother tongue is proved both positive and negative in teaching and learning of English. In this case, a learner's L1 is an essential determinant of Second Language Acquisition because the L1 is a resource that learners use both consciously and subconsciously to help them arrange and re-arrange the L2 data in the input and to perform as best as they can. In line with it, Marzban (2016) claims that the students make use of their L1 when writing in their L2 (English) as a tool to facilitate their writing process. In conclusion, L1 and L2 may affect each other in the students' writing skills.

Definition and the Importance of Writing Skill

Writing is concerned, it led to a reduction of emphasis on mechanical aspects of writing (such as punctuation) and sentence-level grammar and an increased emphasis on attempts to replicate the processes thought to be involved in writing (Johnson and Lin, 2016). They also add that typically, writing came to be conceptualized as involving the number of (often recursive) stages: *prewriting*, *drafting*, *revising, editing,* and *publishing*. These stages need rubrics of assessment because a good assessment rubric provides the profile of the students' language development (Latifa et al., 2015). Academic writing pedagogy in EFL contexts is often framed in terms of acquiring the textual conventions of a particular discourse community that are necessary if students are to write successfully (Shea, 2017). According to Javed et al. (2013), writing skill is more complicated than that of other language skills. They also add that even sometimes, a native speaker of the English language may experience complications in a tricky situation. According to Ratnah (2018), writing has an important role when learners want to deliver a message to a reader for a purpose. Through writing, the learner can explain things, and as a result, the reader can get information by reading the written messages. It is because

writing is a productive writing skill where it is considered a cognitive side because it assess language competency, recalling capability, and thinking ability (Javed et al., 2013).

Component of Writing Skills

There are four components of writing skills stated by Muslim (2014) that need to be addressed by the students. They are as follows:

Paragraphing

Writing has to be interesting to attract the reader's understanding . An understandable paragraph is achieved when a topic sentence is intelligently chosen; the knowledge of choosing a good topic sentence for each paragraph helps students arrange the sequence of their information in a logical order.

Ideas

They are the soul of writing. One cannot achieve writing without ideas. The first step of writing is to choose a topic sentence, which is the main idea. The next step is to develop the main idea. Ideas should logically be arranged and coherently connected. Thus, readers can easily understand the presented information and get an interest in it.

Grammar and spelling

They are essential for communicating correct and precise meaning. In some specialties like medicine, law, and commerce misused grammar or spelling may often cause problems and terrible losses.

Punctuation

Punctuation marks give meaning to words as pauses and changes in tone of speech do. Several studies have revealed that punctuation marks may change the meaning of words if they are incorrectly used, and they may reveal mystery when they are correctly used.

Handwriting

In business, people might be impressed by one's personality through her/his handwriting. For students, handwriting is a reason for failure or success because teachers do not waste time to decipher what a student has written. Readability of letters and proper spacing between words and within the word, lead to legible handwriting. Moreover, the right direction of drawing letters without lifting the pencil helps accelerate writing.

Research Method

The strategy applied in this research was non- experimental design. The variables used in this research were the independent and dependent variables. The Independent variable was teaching Indonesia and English writing subject in University, and the dependent variable was students' writing ability. The population of this research was English department students of Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. The total number of the population was 19 students. The sample was taken by using the total random sampling technique. The data was collected through a descriptive writing test. It was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively by using SPSS version 21.0.

Research Findings

Table 1 The example of students' writing output

Indonesian Language (L1)	English Language (L2)
Di Indonesia, guru merupakan profesi yang paling diminati karena jasanya begitu besar untuk menciptakan **kecerdasan bagi peserta didik**. Namun, peran revolusi industry 4.0 dengan kemunculan teknologi baru mengakibatkan peran guru ikut mulai bergeser dalam pendidikan. **Sehingga** ini merupakan tantangan bagi guru untuk bisa menyesuaikan diri dengan kondisi yang terjadi saat ini. Tantangan yang harus dihadapi **salah satunya guru harus** mampu memanfaatkan ICT sebagai media pembelajaran, tetapi seperti kita tahu bahwa masih ada beberapa sekolah yang kurang memiliki fasilitas dalam proses pengajaran. **Hingga guru** masih selalu menekankan pembelajaran melalui buku paket atau papan tulis. Maka dari itu alangkah baiknya guru mampu menyesuaikan diri dalam revolusi	In Indonesia, teachers are the most popular profession because their talent is so great for creating **intelligence for students**. However, the role of the industrial revolution 4.0 with the emergence of new technology resulted in the role of teachers starting to shift in education. **So** this is a challenge for teachers **to able** to adjust to current conditions. One of the challenges that must be faced by **one teacher must** be able to use ICT as a media of learning, but as we know that there are still some schools that has lack facilities in the teaching process **until the teacher** still emphasizes learning through textbooks or blackboards. Therefore it would be nice for the teacher to adjust the industrial revolution 4.0 that able to develop the education for better.

industry 4.0 agar bisa mengembangkan pendidikan menjadi lebih baik.

Table 1 shows the student's writing comparison both L1 (Indonesian language) and L2 (English language) wherein this descriptive writing, one of the research sample, wrote a descriptive text about the teachers' challenges in facing industrial revolution 4.0. The result shows that the student used L1 grammar to be used on L2. It indicates that students' L1 was better than their L2.

Table 2 the mean score and standard deviation

Group	N	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
Indonesian language (L1)	19	82.68	4.60
English language (L2)		66.21	8.03

Table 2 shows that the mean score of students' writing ability of L1 is better than the students' writing ability of L2. This data is empowered by the standard deviation that students' writing ability of L1 has a low standard deviation rather than L2. It means that students' understanding of receiving the materials was not too different, among others. Besides, the students' writing ability of L2 has a high standard deviation. It means that the students' understanding of receiving the materials was too different.

Table 3 gain score of students' writing ability of L1 and L2

N	Indonesian language (L1)	English language (L2)	Gain Score
19	82.68	66.21	16.47

Table 3 portrays that the students' writing ability of L1 has a very high score rather than their writing ability of L2. The gain score portrays the data that the gain score of the students L1 and L2 in the form of writing skill is very high.

Table 4 the hypothesis testing

Group	N	Mean score	Std. Deviation	Sig (2-tailed)
Indonesian Language (L1)	19	82.68	4.60	0.000

English Language (L2)	66.21	8.03

Table 4 shows that it is significantly different between students' L1 and L2. The data shows that the probability value (0.000) is lower than the significance value (0.05). It means that the students who were taught Indonesian writing subject is better than the students who were taught English writing subject.

Discussion

Students' writing ability of L1 is better than the students' writing ability of L2. Many factors affecting the students' writing ability of L2 is low. Some of the factors are L1 influences, inadequate methods of teaching, poor language. These factors are also in line with what (Aliyu and Danladi, 2018) said, and the researcher found that in the students' essay where most of the students brought their L1 perspective grammar into the L2. As a result, many of them wrong inputting the correct grammar in their essays. Another problem is the inferior methods of teaching. The teachers' methods in teaching the writing skill both L1 and L2 were not variety. It affected the students' motivation in learning. The last problem of why the students' L1 was better than L2 was because they were still deficient in producing English words, grammar, and punctuation. Students are lack of English words so that they cannot write four paragraphs as the researcher had instructed to do. Moreover, students' writing ability of L1 gives to write significant influence on their L2. It is also in line with Sultana's statement (2018) that L1 affects students' psychological and linguistic readiness to L2 learning as well as influences students' academic achievement. What the teachers need to do is creating an excellent method in teaching writing skills and instruct the students to memorize many words of English (L2).

Conclusion

The data shows that the mean score of students' Indonesian language writing ability was 82.68, while the mean score of students' English language writing ability was 66.21. After analyzing the data by using the SPSS application, the researchers found that the probability value was 0.000. It means that there was a significant difference between the students' first language and second language writing ability in writing the descriptive text at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. In conclusion, the students' writing ability of Indonesian language was better than the students' writing ability of English language.

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American or British? A Corpus-Based Analysis of Asian Englishes' Orthographical Norms

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Abstract

This study is one of the pioneers in investigating and analyzing the orthographical conventions/norms of the outer circle Asian Englishes using one of the largest databases of

English corpus, the Global Web-based English (GloWbE). This study extends the analysis of the current orthographical norms of the new varieties to their colonial parents. Results of this study indicate that there is an evident Americanization in some of the orthographical norms of the outer circle Asian Englishes, even though all of them, except for Philippine English, have British English as parent English. The results can be accounted for the emergence and proliferation of technology, as initiated by the United States as a superpower country today. This huge global influence enables American English to accelerate in indirectly colonizing the orthographical norms of these new English varieties.

Keywords: *orthographical conventions/norms, outer circle Asian Englishes, Global Web-based English (GloWbE), new varieties, parent English*

Introduction

American English and British English are two varieties that have a distinctive status as principal national varieties of the language (Algeo, 2006). Among the different English varieties today, these two are the most influential to the other new varieties. Such status of the British and American Englishes was earned through their rich history of colonizing and interculturally influencing their former colonies— and today, the world at large as superpower nations.

The British Empire was one of the largest empires that had faced mankind as early as the 15th century. At the peak of its colonization, it reached as far as North America to Asia, Africa, and Australia (Goncalvez, Laureiro-Porto, Ramasco, & Sanchez, 2017). In Asia, specifically in the case of Hong Kong, Greater India (including Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, and Pakistan), Malaysia, and Singapore, that were former colonies of the British Empire (Bolton, 2008), the influence of the British English is described to be immense since it did not only penetrate their political and economic affairs, but also their educational systems. It is also noteworthy that Hong Kong was only surrendered by the British Empire to China in 1997, which implies that the country has remained British longer than the rest of the former colonies. On the other hand, the Philippines, one of the largest English-speaking countries in the world today (Rillo & Alieto, 2018), is the only Asian country that was under the American rule from 1898 to 1946. The Americans' greatest influence on the Philippines during its colonization period was the introduction of the public-school system that included English instruction (Rillo, 2015). With this influence, it is undeniable and imperative that the Americans have affected

the current state of the Philippine English's linguistic norms. In fact, this is strongly supported by the claims of Fuchs (2017) in his diachronic corpus-based study on the Americanization of Philippine English (PhE) on orthographical conventions and lexical choices and Alonsagay and Nolasco, (2010); Borlongan and Lim (2012); and Scheider (2011) on Philippine English syntactic structures, also based on corpus data.

The scarcity of studies on identifying whether the American English (AmE) or the British English (BrE) as "mother Englishes" dominate the new varieties in terms of their linguistic norms, especially on the basic norm of orthography using a corpus-based data, prompted this present study. This study is also one of the pioneers in aiming towards identifying the orthographical conventions currently practiced by all outer circle Asian Englishes (India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, and Hong Kong); providing new insights whether the colonial influence on orthography of the two principal varieties in the new English varieties still exist in the modern day; and specifying which mother English influences their orthography on certain words using the biggest corpus-based data available today online at 1.9 billion words, the Global Web-based English (GloWbE).

The Outer Circle Asian Englishes Attitude towards their English Parent

Goncalvez, et.al. (2017) prompted that as the empire spreads so does the language of the ruling class while Bolton (2008) claimed that most of the societies that were former colonies of these principal English varieties retained the use of the English language for important internal purposes right after they were given their independence, and even extends onward. In fact, Alonsagay & Nolasco, (2010); Borlongan & Lim (2012); and Scheider (2011) claimed that American English is still of strong influence even up to the present in Philippine English linguistic norms, particularly in the syntactic level. This phenomenon could be regarded as a product of the Filipinos' positive attitude toward the Americans as their colonial parent over Spain.

In the case of the other outer circle Asian Englishes nations (India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Singapore, Malaysia, and Hong Kong), which were also former colonies of the British Empire, the language attitude that they have towards their parent English (BrE) is otherwise. Kachru (1996) in his publication claimed that these nations have developed such negative attitude toward the British English because of their regard to the language as a colonial language of suppression. He further termed this attitude as "linguistic schizophrenia".

Linguistic schizophrenia is the indirect fear of being dictated of the standards of the British English language, over their nativized English.

AmE versus BrE English Orthographical Norms/Conventions and the New English Varieties

Several words are spelled differently between the American English and the British English. These slight differences in their orthography of certain words are responsible for the two principal English varieties to remain mutually understandable to one another.

Tottie (2002) recognized how most orthographical differences are systematically done in both the AmE and the BrE since they are governed by certain rules. Some of the differences are the contrast between the American English (AmE) *–or* and British English (BrE) *–our* as in *flavor* and *flavour*, respectively; AmE *(–ter)* and BrE *(–tre)* as in *theater/theatre*; AmE *(–ense)* and BrE *(–ence)* as in *license/licence*. However, sometimes some patterns are reversed, for example, AmE *(-l-), traveling* and BrE *(-ll-), travelling* while AmE *(-ll-) enrollment* and *BrE (-l-) enrolment.* Also, certain words in these two principal varieties have different orthography because of their function in a construct; for example, AmE *(-ice), practi*ce (noun and verb); while BrE *(-ice) practice* (noun) and BrE *(-ise), practise* (verb).

Another difference on the orthographical conventions between the AmE and the BrE is their formation of the regular verbs in the past and the past participle form, or a verbal. AmE *(-ed)* as in *learned* while BrE *(-t)* as in *learnt*. This orthographical convention is also explored in this study.

Gelderen (2006) explained how these differences between the AmE and the BrE orthographical conventions appear differently in other English varieties. According to him, it is possible that this phenomenon occurs because of the conscious decisions made by their respective editors, educators, and politicians to dictate which orthographical convention between the two principal varieties is desired for certain words. Additionally, Mencken (2009) attributed this inconsistency of which orthographical convention to follow to "laziness" and imitation. However, Kroch (2001) stated that this inconsistency in orthography or failure to follow one principal variety's orthographic rule is brought about by the faulty transmission of the linguistic features of the parent variety across the time that the language is used within their former colonies. Consequently, Goncalvez, et.al. (2017) and Fuchs (2017) attributed this inconsistency or sometimes deterioration of the BrE orthographical conventions to the other varieties, despite being former colonies of the British Empire, because the American influence

has started to proliferate in the different societal platforms and channels like the television, movies, and today, even in the world wide web, where the AmE could easily penetrate and influence any audience from around the globe.

Studies on the Orthographical Conventions of the New English Varieties

The new English varieties are varieties that display their own linguistic particularities (Jenkins, 2013). These particularities are specifically evident in their local linguistic norms encompassing specialized lexis, syntax, and even orthography. In the area of orthographical convention, the other varieties of English adhere to only either of the two principal varieties, AmE or BrE. Moreover, the orthographical conventions followed by these English varieties is said to be identifiable based on their historical feature (Llamzon, 1983). This historical feature could be attributed to their English colonial past and how this has influenced their linguistic norm on orthography.

Fuchs (2017) conducted a diachronic study on the Americanization of the Philippine English spelling and lexis using the PhilBrown corpus and the International Corpus of English-Philippines (ICE-PHI). In his study, he was able to find out that there is an overall shift away from the British orthographical and lexical conventions towards greater uniformity in the adherence to American usage in PhE. In a larger scale, using the ICE-written corpora of India, Tanzania, Jamaica and Hong Kong as outer circle Englishes, Lanssens (2013) found out that English varieties of Indian English; Tanzanian English; and Jamaican English prefer the BrE variants except for HKE that showed no clear preference over the two major principal varieties. So far, these are the only studies that covered the topic on orthography in the outer circle Asian Englishes.

In the light of the expanding circle Englishes, a corpus-based study on Lithuanian students' English composition aimed at identifying the students' orthographic preference between AmE and BrE, Bikiliene (2015) found out that the lower-level university students (first year students) prefer AmE orthography while the higher-level students, otherwise. In the same study, the words ending in –*or* (AmE). is preferred over –*our* (BrE) while –*is*e and –*isation* (BrE) are preferred over –*ize* and –*ization* (AmE). In the same context, but using a different set of corpora, Alftberg (2009) and Larsson (2012) also came up with the same conclusion. In addition, Lindell (2014), through translation, 88 Swedish students coming from both the Technical and Academic strands answered a test that prompted English words that would call for either a word spelled in AmE or BrE, found out that the students, regardless of

their strand, would prefer the AmE spelling for the words— *tire, meter, practice, licorice, donuts, catalog*, and *mom* while BrE spelling for *colour, travelled, grey, pyjamas, and neighbour*. Also, he concluded that the AmE are used more prevalently than the BrE orthography. Similarly, Sif Halldórsdóttir (2014) found out that Icelanders use more AmE orthographic conventions than BrE.

In the current studies on identifying the orthographical conventions that both the outer circle and the expanding circle Englishes govern, a much more preference on the AmE orthographical conventions seems to be more prevalent than its principal variety counterpart, the BrE.

Research Objectives

In the light of the scarcity of the studies on the orthographical norm-preference between the principal varieties (i.e. AmE and BrE) in the new English varieties, this study is aimed at identifying the orthographical conventions currently practiced by all outer circle Asian Englishes (India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, and Hong Kong); providing new insights whether the colonial influence on orthography of the two principal varieties in the new English varieties still exist in the modern day; and specifying which mother English influences their orthography on certain words using the biggest corpus-based data available today online at 1.9 billion words, the Global Web-based English (GloWbE).

Theoretical Frameworks

The frameworks that the researcher espoused in this study were Kachru's three concentric circles model (Figure 1) and Streven's tree diagram on the spread of the English language in the world (Figure 2).

The three concentric circles model of Kachru is perhaps the most well-discussed and conceptualized model that identifies the different English varieties across the globe. Crystal (2003) described the inner circle in the model as the "traditional bases" of all the Englishes that have spread all over the world including the two principal varieties, AmE and BrE, among others. The outer circle enumerates the countries that are from Asia and Africa, where the role of the English language is a second language. These countries include the Asian countries namely— India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines, and Hong Kong while the outer circle Englishes in Africa include, Tanzania, Jamaica, Ghana, and

Kenya. The expanding circle on the other hand, includes those countries that were not directly colonized by the native speakers of the English language, but acknowledge the role of the English language as an international language of commerce and business; thus, English is studied in these countries as a foreign language. The countries that are in the expanding circle are Japan, Korea, China, in Asia; Lithuania, Sweden, Russia, in Europe, among others. Kirkpatrick (2007) commended the model of Kachru as a non-bias model since it reputes all Englishes in the circles as individual Englishes, regardless of their location in the concentric circles.

In the context of this study, Kachru's three concentric circles model was utilized, for the researcher to look at the orthographical conventions preference/s of the outer circle Asian Englishes without bias, thus, seeing that no variety is linguistically better than the other, regardless if it is their parent English, or their counterpart in the same circle.

If Kachru's model was used to look at which Englishes are situated as a second language, Streven's tree diagram of the spread of the English language in the world was utilized to ascertain whether an outer circle English variety is oriented towards AmE or BrE. Streven's model is literally a map of the world displaying an upside-down tree diagram showing the way in which varieties stem from linguistic contact with Britain or the United States (Strevens, 1980 as cited in Jenkins, 2003)
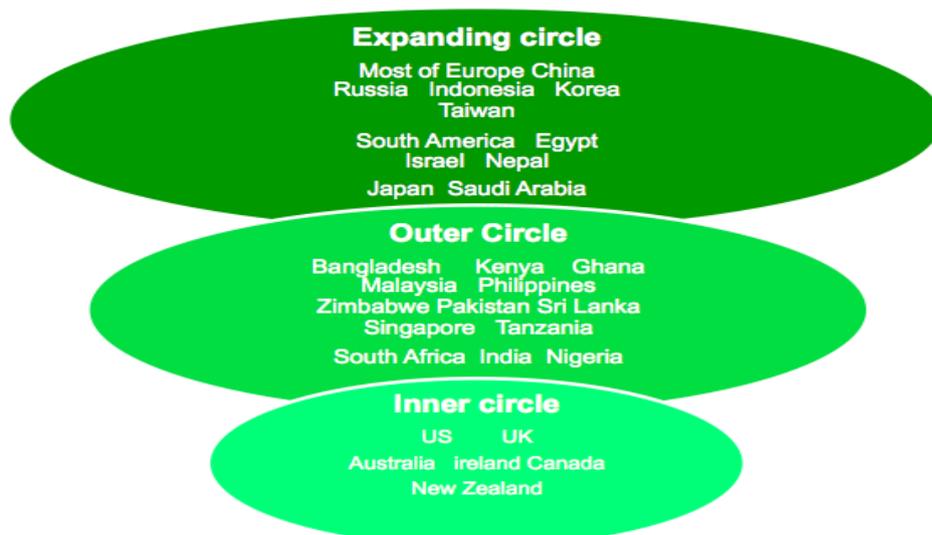

Figure 1. Kachru's Three Concentric Circles Model of World Englishes
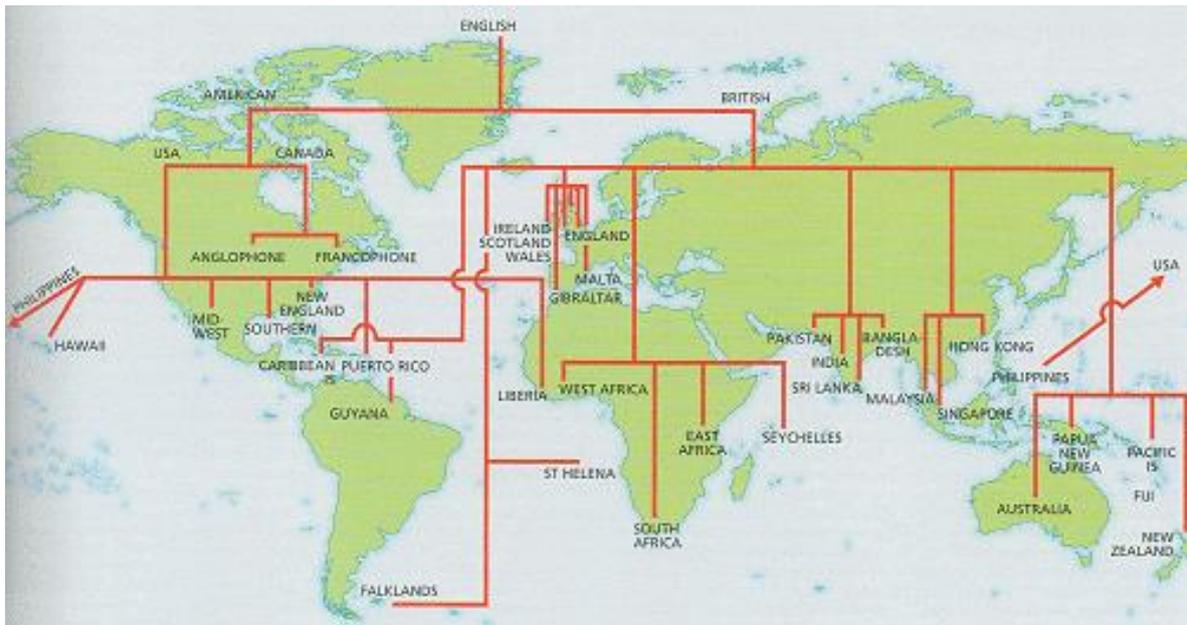
Figure 2. Streven's model of the spread of the English Language in the World, showing the influence of the two principal varieties

Methodology

Research Design

This study made use of the descriptive research method because it deals with the analysis of the prevalence of occurrence of the orthographical conventions followed by the outer circle Asian Englishes.

Johnson (2000 cited in Perez & Alieto, 2018) maintained that investigations with primary purpose of describing a phenomenon is considered as determined to be a descriptive type of study. Moreover, Calderon (2006 cited in Rillo & Alieto, 2018) claimed that descriptive research is a purposive process of gathering, analyzing, classifying, and tabulating data about prevailing conditions, practices, processes, trends, and cause-effect relationships and then making adequate and accurate interpretation about such data with or without or sometimes minimal aid of statistical methods. The same researcher also reiterated that it ascertains prevailing conditions of facts in a group under study. It also gives either qualitative or quantitative, or both, descriptions of the general characteristics of the group. In addition, comparisons of the characteristics of two groups or cases may be made to determine their similarities and differences. The variables or conditions studied are not usually controlled because there is no variable manipulated.

Corpus

The data used for this study were retrieved from the Corpus of Global Web-based English (GloWbE), which was created by Mark Davies of Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah, U.S.A. The corpus was first released and became accessible to corpus linguists in 2013. The corpus is also known as the largest corpus to date available online since it has a total of 1.9 billion words from 1.8 billion web pages extracted from 340, 000 websites in 20 inner and outer circle English speaking countries. Having a 1.9 billion worth of written corpus, the GloWbE has become four times larger than the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA Corpus), and almost twenty times larger than the British National Corpus (BNC).

Kirkpartick (2007) described a major advantage of using large corpora containing the different varieties of the language in question since it could allow the researchers to analyze the language features present in the varieties more conclusively.

In this study, only the outer circle Asian Englishes namely India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, and Hong Kong were explored. In the GloWbE, these Asian countries are coded as IN, LK, PK, BD, SG, MY, PH, and HK, respectively. Also included in the retrieved data were the tokens and the accompanying frequencies of occurrence of the principal varieties, AmE and BrE, which were coded as US, and GB, respectively.

The following Table presents the total number of words that are contained in the US, GB, IN, LK, PK, BD, MY, SG, PH, and HK corpora.

Table 1. Total number of websites, pages, and words analyzed

Countries	Number of websites	Number of pages	Total number of words
United States	82,260	275,156	386,809,355
Great Britain	64,351	381,841	387,615,074
India	18,618	113,765	96,430,888
Sri Lanka	4,208	38,389	46,583,115
Pakistan	4,955	42,769	51,367,152
Bangladesh	5,712	45,059	39,658,255
Singapore	8,339	45,459	42,974,705
Malaysia	8,966	45,601	42,420,168

Philippines	10,224	46,342	43,250,093
Hong Kong	8,740	43,936	40,450,291
Total	**216,373**	**1,078,317**	**1,177,559,096**

It can be seen from Table 1 that the total number of websites investigated in this study is 216,373; number of pages at 1, 078, 317; and with a total of 1, 177, 559, 096 words.

Also, it is noticeable from the Table that India has the most number of words (96,430,888) compared to its other outer circle Englishes counterparts. Yoneoka (2002) claimed that InE is one of the oldest existing English varieties in Asia, and has come the farthest of demand for recognition as a variety in its own right.

The corpus is accessible via https://corpus.byu.edu/glowbe/. The website offers a wide range of options for purchasing the access of the data from a 50 USD a month to a 150 USD a year of subscription that would give you a total of 200 searches of tokens in a day with more than 10, 000 worth of contexts for analysis (referring to the constructs where the tokens appear with). Moreover, the website provides a built-in concordance software, so anyone who wishes to access the data need not to download a separate concordance software for sorting and weeding out of data. Registering the e-mail account in the website gives anyone who wishes to study the data a total of 50 searches in 24 hours and 5,000 entries of contexts. The contexts were coded with the abbreviated name of the country's website where they could be found (e.g. GB for Great Britain).

Procedure

To realize this study, the researcher gathered from the related studies, the common contrasting AmE and BrE orthographical conventions. In the process, he was able to come up with nine (9) common contrasting pairs of AmE and BrE orthographical conventions namely: AmE *(-or)* and BrE *(-our)* as in color/colour; AmE *(-ense)* and BrE *(-ence)* as in pretense/pretence; AmE *(-ter)* and BrE *(-tre)* as in center/centre; AmE *(-l-)* and BrE *(-ll-)* as in traveling/travelling; AmE *(-l-)* and BrE *(-ll-)* as in fulfillment/fulfilment; AmE *(-g)* and BrE *(-gue)* as in dialog/dialogue; AmE *(-)* and BrE *(e-)* as in aging/ageing; AmE *(-ize)* and BrE *(-ise)* as in prioritize/prioritise; and AmE *(-ed)* and BrE *(-t)* as in burned/burnt, and one (1) group of non-categorized pairs of words as in AmE *(pajamas)* and BrE *(pyjamas)*. Each group is composed of an average of four (4) to six (6) pairs of contrasting orthographical conventions.

Since there were only a limited number of searches of tokens and contexts for analysis that could be done in a 24-hour period, only those pairs of words that need not be weeded out were included, except for the contrasting pairs, *mom* (AmE) and *mum* (BrE) that yielded results of acronyms.

There were a total 43 pairs of contrasting orthographic conventions, or 86 words that were included for analysis in this study.

In order for the researcher to access the data from the GloWbE corpus, he registered using his official e-mail address. Searching for words and downloading contexts took him some time because of the factors such as Internet speed and the number of searchers using the database during the time of the analysis. Those factors have caused lagging in the process.

After the total number of occurrences of the tokens were gathered, the total number of tokens were recorded using Microsoft Excel for tallying and computation of frequencies and percentages of occurrence while the contexts were saved through capturing a screenshot of each.

Method of Analysis

The total number of occurrences with the computed percentages of the pairs of AmE and BrE orthographical conventions were placed juxtapose each other per outer circle Asian English variety for analysis. The groups of words were categorized, tallied, and computed separately using Microsoft Excel.

In determining the extent of occurrence of the orthographical conventions of the pairs words in the each outer circle Asian English variety, the percentage formula was employed while the unusual adherences of certain outer circle Asian English varieties to a particular principal English variety that is not their parent variety are discussed and analyzed with the presentation of exemplars.

The outer circle Asian Englishes in this study are abbreviated as **InE** for Indian English; **SrE** for Sri Lankan English; **PkE** for Pakistani English; **BdE** for Bangladesh English; **SgE** for Singapore English; **MyE** for Malaysian English; **PhE** for Philippine English; and **HKE** for Hong Kong English.

Results

The combination of orthographical conventions for both the principal English varieties— AmE and BrE were found occurring in the GloWbE corpus of the outer circle Asian Englishes varying in prevalence.

The following Tables present each group/classification of contrasting orthographical conventions from the corpora of the eight (8) outer circle Asian Englishes.

Table 2. AmE (-or) and BrE (-our)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-or)		BrE (-our)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	10030	42.17	13752	57.83
Sri Lanka	3904	32.98	7934	67.02
Pakistan	5743	44.94	7036	55.06
Bangladesh	5657	50.75	5489	49.25
Singapore	5044	44.53	6284	55.47
Malaysia	3296	36.70	5685	63.30
Philippines	10096	86.24	1611	13.76
Hong Kong	7081	50.02	7074	49.98

Table 2 presents the extent of occurrence of the orthographical variants, AmE (-or) and the BrE (-our). It can be seen from the Table that all the new English varieties, except of course in the case of the PhE, adhere to the BrE orthography. However, it is still noticeable that HKE (-or =50.02%; -our = 49.98%) and BdE (-or =50.75%; -our = 49.25%) have maintained a balance in terms of their choice on which principal English variety's orthographical convention they follow.

Notice how the context (1) follows the AmE orthographical convention for HKE and context (2) for AmE orthographical convention for BdE. Both Englishes yielded higher occurrence of this orthography for the token, *behavior* over its BrE counterpart, *behavior* (see APPENDIX A, p. 38) .

(1) The personality, **behavior** and social adaptation of the Disabled **HK**

(2) Family is not out of this traditional **behavior** of man. **BD**

Table 3. AmE (-ense) and BrE (-ence)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-ense)		BrE (-ence)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	6157	40.95	8877	59.05
Sri Lanka	3775	34.21	5215	47.26
Pakistan	4455	46.07	5215	53.93
Bangladesh	4416	39.93	6644	60.07
Singapore	2810	47.01	3168	52.99
Malaysia	2767	44.49	3453	55.51
Philippines	6726	92.11	576	7.89
Hong Kong	3178	53.03	2815	46.97

Table 3 reveals that there is an evident adherence to the BrE (-ence) orthographical convention of all the British colonized Asian countries except for HKE (-ense = 53.03%). Of course, PhE (-ense = 92.11%) as expected remains adherent to its colonial AmE orthographical convention in this group.

The HKE resulted a higher frequency of the token, *defense* over its BrE counterpart, *defence* (see APPENDIX A, p. 40). The contexts (3) and (4) below provide the exemplars of this occurrence. In context (3), it is used as a noun, while in context (4) as a verb.

(3) …much (I'm looking at you Star Ferry) that we, as a **defense** mechanism, **HK**

(4) She said as a disciple of Dafa I should **defense** it, broadcast its benefits and have more people benefit from it. **HK**

Table 4. AmE (-ter) and BrE (-tre)

Outer circle Asian	AmE (-ter)		BrE (-tre)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**

English variety				
India	11859	42.26	16202	57.74
Sri Lanka	4618	33.90	9006	66.10
Pakistan	5095	52.81	4553	47.19
Bangladesh	5959	49.63	6049	50.37
Singapore	5406	39.86	8158	60.14
Malaysia	5154	39.35	7945	60.65
Philippines	11720	86.36	1851	13.64
Hong Kong	8188	50.52	8020	49.48

It can be gleaned from Table 4 that all of the outer circle Asian Englishes observe the BrE orthographical convention, except for the PhE (-ter = 86.36%); PkE (-ter 52.815) and HKE (-ter = 50.52%). Also, there is an observable balance in the case of BdE (-ter = 49.63; -tre = 50.37%)

The HKE, PkE, and the BdE corpora generated more occurrences of the word *meter* over their BrE counterpart, *metre* (see APPENDIX A, p. 41). The exemplars below provide these contexts of this claim.

(5) People Belarusian sport programmer Lesha decided to make some money to buy a one square **meter** larger flat **BD**

(6) meter race, fell by 10.3% and 10.9%, respectively, in the boys 1000 **meter** race results, **HK**

(7) …a sub-bituminous coal seam at a depth of between 100 and 250 meters ranging 3-24 **meter** thick **PK**

Table 5. AmE (-l-) and BrE (-ll-)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-l-)		BrE (-ll-)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	4139	44.74	5112	55.26

Sri Lanka	1750	40.67	2553	59.33
Pakistan	2257	53.89	1931	46.11
Bangladesh	1953	61.49	1223	38.51
Singapore	2266	46.92	2563	53.08
Malaysia	2032	48.52	2156	51.48
Philippines	3160	72.93	1164	26.86
Hong Kong	3160	56.20	2463	43.80

It can be seen from Table 5 that PkE (-l- = 53.89%); BdE (-l- = 61.49%); PhE (72.93); and HKE (-l- = 56.20%) follow the AmE orthography in this group. However, looking at the occurrences of the tokens in the raw data (see APPENDIX A, p. 42), the contrasting pair, jewelry (AmE) and jewellery (BrE), all the outer circle Asian Englishes show preference in the AmE orthographical convention over its counterpart.

To illustrate this claim, the contexts from the InE (8); SrE (9); SgE (10); and MyE (11) are given as exemplars.

(8) If the **jewelry** is in a safe state start cleaning with a soft cotton cloth **IN**

(9) When you buy your **jewelry** from Senaratna Jewellers, you buy with confidence **LK**

(10) Hong Kong is a good place to buy high-quality pieces of **jewelry** at very reasonable prices. **SG**

(11) Add scarf or a hat, wear them with a long necklace and black metal **jewelry**! **MY**

Table 6. AmE (-ll-) and BrE (-l-)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-ll-)		BrE (-l-)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	1323	60.41	867	39.59
Sri Lanka	507	58.61	358	41.39
Pakistan	873	65.64	457	34.36
Bangladesh	712	64.38	394	35.62

Singapore	533	56.82	405	43.18
Malaysia	572	61.18	363	38.82
Philippines	1030	85.76	171	14.24
Hong Kong	657	64.10	368	35.90

Table 6 shows that the entire outer circle Asian Englishes follows the AmE orthography for this group of words. Comparing the results in this Table with Table 5, it seems that the outer circle Asian Englishes which do not show preference on the AmE orthography of certain words with only one *L,* remain consistent in their orthography of the words with two *Ls*; thus, this bias result. Of all the tokens, it is, *fulfillment*, where all of the new varieties have favored to follow the AmE orthography.

To show a few, contexts from InE and MyE are shown in exemplars, (12) and (13), respectively.

(12) Such freeze shall be released only upon the **fulfillment** of all account opening formalities by the Customer **IN**

(13) … if we are feeling poor all the time. We can not create love and **fulfillment** with another person if we do not FEEL that way already **MY**

Table 7. AmE (-g) and BrE (-gue)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-g)		BrE (-gue)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	1382	29.49	3304	70.51
Sri Lanka	1832	47.45	2029	52.55
Pakistan	425	16.95	2083	83.05
Bangladesh	465	20.71	1780	79.29
Singapore	227	13.48	1457	86.52
Malaysia	417	27.40	1105	72.60

Philippines	359	20.61	1383	79.39
Hong Kong	465	22.49	1603	77.51

Table 7 reveals that in this category of contrasting pairs of AmE and BrE orthography, it is surprising that all of the outer circle Asian Englishes conform to the BrE orthography. Also, it is noteworthy that even the AmE orthography has shifted its preference from *(-g)* to the BrE *(-gue)*.

The exemplars below show how the AmE contexts prefer the orthography of the token, *dialogue* over its AmE counterpart.

(14) The CPA profession calls on both policymakers and the public to engage in a national **dialogue** to improve our country's fiscal health. **US**

(15) **Dialogue** and compromise are a better alternative to violence. **US**

Table 8. AmE (-) and BrE (e-)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-)		BrE (e-)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	4223	60.47	2761	39.53
Sri Lanka	1924	61.12	1224	38.88
Pakistan	3719	58.55	2633	41.45
Bangladesh	1976	68.37	914	31.63
Singapore	1464	54.00	1247	46.00
Malaysia	1685	61.07	1074	38.93
Philippines	2977	81.47	677	18.53
Hong Kong	2458	71.83	964	28.17

It can be gleaned from Table 8 that the entire outer circle Asian Englishes follows the elision of *e* in this category of tokens; thus, conforming with the AmE orthography. In the data, it is the word *judgment* that yielded the highest number of tokens over its BrE counterpart.

The following exemplars show two of the contexts from the PhE and HKE corpora:

(16) I could pull it off. I was obsessed with Cathy and that clouded my **judgment PH**

(17) The **judgment** of the 17 defendants in the past two years for the purpose of making profits **HK**

Table 9. AmE (-ize) and BrE (-ise)

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE (-ize)		BrE (-ise)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	6717	66.68	3357	33.32
Sri Lanka	2996	64.92	1619	35.08
Pakistan	3394	68.06	1593	31.94
Bangladesh	3254	73.70	1161	26.30
Singapore	2671	60.80	1722	39.20
Malaysia	2444	57.51	1806	42.49
Philippines	3943	92.30	329	7.70
Hong Kong	3480	70.20	1477	29.80

It can be seen in Table 9, that the entire outer circle Asian Englishes conforms to the AmE orthography of the words under this classification. The entire corpora of the new varieties show a great extent of occurrence with the token, *recognize* as an AmE orthography.

Contexts (18) and (19) from the BdE and the HKE corpora, respectively are shown below.

(18) Apis dorsata foraging on a flower I do not **recognize**... **BD**

(19) This helps the unit **recognize** whatever you mean to type. **HK**

Table 10. AmE (-ed) and BrE (-t)

Outer circle Asian	AmE (-ed)		BrE (-t)	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**

English variety				
India	7809	57.50	5773	42.50
Sri Lanka	3768	50.62	3675	49.38
Pakistan	4262	59.88	2855	40.12
Bangladesh	3330	79.06	882	20.94
Singapore	3404	58.85	2380	41.15
Malaysia	3590	64.78	687	12.40
Philippines	6660	90.65	687	9.35
Hong Kong	4401	73.20	1611	26.80

Table 10 presents that the entire outer circle Asian Englishes conforms to the AmE orthography under this classification. Seemingly, the verbs in the past and the past participle form and the verbal with the final (-t) BrE have gone obsolete today. However, it is still striking that SrE (-ed = 50.62%; -t = 48.38%) still finds the balance in the orthography of the words under this classification.

Contexts (20) and (21) further clarify this balance in the SrE corpus.

(20) It was not **spelled** out in those terms, but that's how it was read by its principal **LK**

(21) The idea of having a satellite was the brainchild of President Rajapaksa who **spelt** it out when he was in China recently **LK**

Table 11. Non-categorized AmE and BrE orthographical conventions

Outer circle Asian English variety	AmE		BrE	
	f	**%**	**f**	**%**
India	19857	54.43	16628	45.57
Sri Lanka	9429	71.11	3830	28.89
Pakistan	13419	70.99	5483	29.01
Bangladesh	13600	67.84	6446	32.16
Singapore	13662	64.24	7604	35.76

Malaysia	9715	60.01	6473	39.99
Philippines	20315	92.88	1558	7.12
Hong Kong	12774	73.05	4712	26.95

Table 11 displays the results of the non-categorized, miscellaneous pairs of contrasting pairs of orthography between the AmE and the BrE norms. Table 11 clearly shows that the entire outer circle Asian Englishes conforms to the AmE orthographical norms. Among the words that yielded the highest number of occurrences as compared to their BrE counterparts are, *percent* and *mom.*

The last two (2) exemplars, present these contexts as lifted from the InE corpus.

(22) Only 11 **percent** of the earth's surface is used to grow food **IN**

(23) I'm pretty sure if my **mom** did a Google search for knitting crap she'd be clicking those ads all day **IN**

Discussion

This study embarked on to explore whether the outer circle Asian Englishes still conform to the orthographical conventions/norms of their parent Englishes (i.e. AmE and BrE). The GloWbE corpus was used in this investigation and the results showed that there is an evident conformity in some of the orthographical norms of the outer circle Asian Englishes to the AmE. This claim is further proven as most of the results of this study favored the orthography of the AmE norms specifically on the words with two *Ls* such as *installment, enrollment, fulfillment*; the elision of *e* in words such as *aging, livable, judgment*; the ending –*ize* as in *recognize, organize, prioritize*; the AmE variant –*ed* in forming the regular verbs' past and past participle forms and the verbal such as *learned, dreamed, spelled*; and miscellaneous AmE orthographical norms for words, pajamas*, mom, cozy*. On the other hand, the final, -*gue* as in *dialogue, monologue, catalogue* as a BrE variant is favored over its AmE counterpart in the outer circle Asian Englishes. Surprisingly, even the AmE corpus adheres to the –*gue* BrE variant, and seemingly abandoning its own –*g* variant. Furthermore, the conformity of the majority of the outer circle Asian Englishes, which were former colonies of the British Empire, and which parent English is the BrE, could be attributed to Kachru's (1996) language schizophrenia, where these new varieties have regarded their parent English as a colonial

language, and have feared the imposition of its "standard" rules to their own respective established English varieties.

Furthermore, the results and findings of this study only prove that it not just the PhE orthography that is Americanized (Fuchs, 2017), but the entire outer circle Asian Englsihes, as well. Also, the results and findings of this study coincide with that of Lansenns (2013) when he found out that the selected outer circle Asian and African Englishes prefer the AmE orthographical norms over the BrE. Moreover, the Americanization of the orthographical norms of the expanding circle Englishes were also found evident in the studies of the Bikiliene (2015); Alftberg (2009); Larsson (2002); and Lindell (2014).

Interestingly, of all the former British colonies, and the last to be given their independence, HKE showed more Americanized variants in their English orthography compared to the others (i.e. InE, PkE, SrE, BdE, Mye, SgE). This could also be attributed to the negative attitude (Kachru, 1996) that the HKE has over its English parent for a prolonged period of being colonized. Moreover, Lanssens (2013), in his analysis of the older ICE-HK corpus, was also able to find it striking that HKE has no definite principal variety to follow in terms of its orthographical norms; however, this study has proven that HKE orthographical norms conform with the AmE as based on the current GloWbE- HK corpus. Equally striking is the adherence of the InE, PkE, SrE, BdE, and MyE to the double *L* orthographical norm without the direct established relationship to the norms of the AmE and BrE variants on certain words [e.g. enro**ll**ment **(AmE)**/enrolment (BrE); trave**ll**ing **(BrE)**/ traveling (AmE)]. This finding in this study clearly agrees to the claim of Mencken (2009) that some of the orthographical norms of the new varieties can be attributed to factors of "laziness" and imitation.

Conclusion, and Recommendation

This study is one of the pioneers in investigating the orthographical norm preference of the entire outer circle Asian Englishes using one of the largest database of corpus (GlowBe) today. Furthermore, this study has clearly provided reasonably, reliable findings that the outer circle Asian Englishes as new varieties of English have started conforming to the AmE orthographical norms. The conformity of these new varieties could be attributed to the fact that the United States, as a superpower country today, has indirectly colonized their orthographical system through the proliferation of technology and the creation of virtual channels (social media) that accelerate language influencing across the globe. Also, the results and findings of

this study instigate the idea that there seems to be a standardization of the English language as a global language among the outer circle Asian Englishes in terms of their orthographical norms.

As in many linguistic inquiries, it is still recommended that more pairs of contrasting orthographical norms of the two principal varieties be investigated together with contrasting lexical pairs (i.e. lexis). Also, the subscription of the GloWbE corpus is recommended for a more convenient investigation and examination of these occurrences.

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Developing Descriptive Writing through Process Approach to Indonesian Primary School Students

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Abstract

Despite product-oriented approaches to writing that focus on form and emphasize final product, a process approach to writing that comprises planning, drafting, revising and editing, emphasizing teacher modeling at each stage is explored in this study. The aims of this study are to see efforts to improve students' descriptive writing, process of teaching-learning and assessment of the writing process and product. This study used action research with three cycles involving 20 elementary students and two classroom teachers. Data were collected using observation, interview and documents. The results show that each stage of cycle indicates progress and students development in their writing. Progress is gradually achieved in each step: drafting, revising-editing, and publishing. The flexible manners in the process encourage students to work and improve their writing. Process and product evaluation involving peer-review is of great help to motivate and improve students' writing quality.

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Introduction

This study reports the teaching writing in *Bahasa Indonesia* as the first language (L1) to primary school students in Indonesia using the process approach. To achieve writing literacy, writing is focused on the genre where the descriptive text is one that the teachers strive to do in the classroom setting. In addition, the process approach is mostly recommended to apply in school settings.

The development of writing skills in *Bahasa Indonesia* constitutes the focus of the present study. The writing examined in this study is derived from the fourth-grade students of Primary School. Writing is one of the necessary skills acquired during the primary school years, and because it plays a vital role in the acquisition of academic knowledge and participation in society (Steinlen, 2018). Developing strong writing skills is regarded as a common and persistent problem among learners, thus, writing skill is considered as one of the areas that needs to be developed among the students (Abdon, 2018).

Researches in writing for elementary school students lens its focus in the "single classroom teacher" in Indonesian primary school system (Ilyas, 2016), the foundation of academic literacy (Steinlen, 2018), and the process by which students should experience from the early stage (Ong, 2018). In the context of teaching, the writing process is highlighted as a key success (Graham, et. Al. 2012; Dyson & Freedman, 1991; Ings, 2013) in academic development.

Ilyas (2016) maintains the system of a single classroom teacher in Indonesian primary schools seems to be effective, but the teacher bears a heavy burden. The teachers should do in addition to the task of teaching almost all subjects a demand for improving the quality of learning outcomes. Various tendencies appear in that teachers strive to perform duties as much as possible, condense process of learning in the classroom within the time available. However, to condense the learning process creates new problems on the ground, including the teaching of writing that has an impact to emphasize the product rather than process (Graham, et. al. 2012).

In traditional teaching and learning contexts, product-oriented approaches to writing that focus on form and emphasize final product are the norm (Hedge 1988; Steinlen, 2018). While these may effectively prepare students for examinations, the recognition that an understanding of context and audience would heighten writers' awareness of function and purpose, thus

increase effectiveness of their content (Hedge 1988; Ings, 2013) inspired development of process approaches to writing, where the actual writing process is as important as its end. Explicit teaching of the processes in writing would reinforce contextual knowledge and thus improve quality of student writing (Ong, 2014).

A process approach to writing would comprise a set of planned learning instructions that aims to familiarize students with the processes involved in writing, mainly planning, drafting, revising and editing (Seow, 2002), emphasizing teacher modeling at each stage. At the planning stage, students undertake discussion and brainstorming activities that would highlight contextual background and generate ideas for writing content. Scholars (e.g. Graham et.al. 2012, Ings, 2013, Ong, 2014) for instances, argue the drafting stage requires students to write fluently for a conceptualized audience, upon which completion, specific feedback responses on writing difficulties observed are provided. Students would then revise and edit their writings to improve content quality and organization as well as language use (Seow, 2002). Completed works would be evaluated analytically via scoring or holistically via examination of text effectiveness. Post-writing activities such as publishing of student work serve to provide recognition of writing achievement and increase student motivation to achieve higher competency in writing (Graham, et.al, 2013; Miller, 2018; Ong, 2014). Students would be required to undertake all planned stages, which may be employed in non-sequential orders, to achieve their writing objectives (Ong, 2014).

To conclude, the importance of teacher modeling at the various stages presented, so that students learn the correct ways of generating content, writing and editing, and explicitly examining the written product at each stage of the process to understand what has been achieved and what is further required for good writing (Ong, 2014). Feedback and evaluation should also be given in a "favorable and encouraging" manner (Page 1958, cited in Lalande 1982:142), which would provide students with objective motivation to improve quality of writing (Ong, 2014).

Studies show that students who learn the writing process score better on state writing tests than those who receive only specific instruction in the skills assessed on the test. This type of authentic writing produces lifelong learners and allows students to apply their writing skills to all subjects (Miller, 2012; Lalande 1982). Success in writing greatly depends on a student's attitude, motivation, and engagement. The writing process takes these elements into account by allowing students to plan their writing and create a publishable, final draft of their work of which they can be proud. It addresses students' need for a real audience and to take the time to

draft and redraft their work. Teachers can help students think carefully about each stage of their writing by guiding them through the writing process repeatedly throughout the year and across various content areas (Graham et.al. 2012; Ings, 2013).

The main objective of this research is to see efforts to improve the skill of descriptive writing of the fourth grader of SD Negeri 1 Samarinda using process approach. Specifically, this study explores the process of writing in each cycles of treatment, learning process, and the assessment results.

Review of Literature

Teaching writing

The role of writing for success in academic and employment has been the attention of researchers (e.g. Graham et.al. 2012, and Ings, 2013). Writing is a fundamental part of engaging in professional, social, community, and civic activities. Because writing is a valuable tool for communication, learning, and self-expression, people who do not have adequate writing skills may be at a disadvantage and may face restricted opportunities for education and employment. Students should develop an early foundation in writing in order to communicate their ideas effectively and efficiently (Graham, et.al. 2012).

Writing is defined as a process-oriented, goal oriented and problem solving process. Writing involves writer's awareness of the composing process and teacher's or peer's intervention at any time needed (Dyson & Freedman, 1991:58). Steinlen (2018) adds, writing is a complex task which requires the coordination of fine motor skills and cognitive skills and reflects the social and cultural patterns of writer time. Steinlen (2018) argues, in a language system, writing relies on many of the same structures as speech, such as vocabulary, grammar and semantics, with the added dependency of a system of signs or symbols. Writing places a heavy demand on working memory and to a large extent depends on reading skills because the process of composing a text always involves reading and rereading of the unfolding text (Myhill & Fisher, 2010).

Fundamental success of writing also includes topic knowledge, the ability to rapidly access lexical items, a positive attitude towards writing, knowledge of text features, writing strategies, cognitive skills, visual-spatial performance, spelling skills and strategies (Myhill & Fisher, 2010). Children progress varies from the level of copying familiar structure up to recognizing and reproducing text structures. Evaluations of writing proficiency rely on different components of which spelling, punctuation, vocabulary and

grammar are the most frequent ones used at least with respect to the primary school context (Graham, et.al, 2012; Breuer, 2017; Breuer, 2015).

In addition, Ings (2013) asserts writing is a process through which people communicate thoughts and ideas. It is a highly complex, cognitive, self-directed activity, driven by the goals writers set for what they want to do and say and the audience(s) for whom they are writing. To meet these goals, writers must skillfully and flexibly coordinate their writing process from conception to the completion of a text. Components of the writing process include planning; drafting; sharing; revising; editing; evaluating; and, for some writing pieces, publishing (Tompkins, 1994; Ings, 2013; Breuer, 2017).

Indeed, to become effective writers, students need daily opportunities to learn and practice writing skills, strategies, and techniques (Graham, et.al, 2013). Writing practice also can be integrated into instruction in other content areas to provide students with additional time to write. Students need to think carefully about their purpose for writing, planning what to say and how to say it (Ings, 2013).

In *Getting going: generating, shaping and developing ideas in writing* (DCSF, April 2008), Professor Richard Andrews writes:

> From a pedagogical point of view, techniques for improving writing will include practice in writing by the very teachers who are teaching it. In other words, teachers will need to be *accomplished writers* in themselves, not only of literary and fictional genres but in informational and argumentative genres too. They will not only be able to produce final products in this range of genres but also to reflect on and model the processes of writing in the classroom. (p.14)

Ings (2013) further explains there is also an assumption that pedagogy is the problem, particularly when it favors the 'secretarial' aspects of writing over its expression of thought, its content and style. Several heads agreed that most writing opportunities remained 'prescriptive' and linked to planned work, with few opportunities to explore style and approach more freely. One other unintended consequence of the strategy, was that it placed 'an undue emphasis on form.

The role revision in writing

Writing is not the end product, rather it requires process that deliberate revision is intensively conducted and trained. Idea generation, planning, formulation, execution and revising are the core processes in writing (Flower and Hayes 1980; Hayes 2008), interrelated and in many cases and parallel. This works differently in L1 compared to the second language (L2) (Chenoweth and Hayes 2001).

The revision process is a complex and demanding task, but it is crucial to producing a text that conveys meaning in a way that is appropriate for the target audience in the academic setting (Breuer, 2015). In revisions, writers read, edit and evaluate the text they have produced with respect to 'linguistic, semantic and pragmatic peculiarities of the writing goal' (Alamargot and Chanquoy, 2001:5). If the evaluation is negative, writers undergo a new process of planning and formulating (Hayes et al. 1987). This process of evaluating and deciding on alternatives is an active one: writers decide on the evaluation criteria that are applied in the text and judge whether and in which respects the text they have written fulfils these criteria. Editing can be executed in different depths. One can concentrate on localized error revision (e.g. spelling and punctuation), address global problems (e.g. the text's structure), or focus on aspects between these two extremes (Kellogg 1996; Breuer, 2017).

Revision is not restricted to the written text, but already takes place before and after execution; that is, it does not always involve reading. Breuer (2017) maintain one can edit ideas, text organization, text goals, inner speech, etc. *before* execution. In this way, reviewing can interrupt any writing process and cause the writer to 'jump' through the different sub-processes of writing (Flower and Hayes, 1980). It can also lead to new idea generation, in that the reading of the text triggers other entries in long-term memory. Revision can thus become 'a springboard to further translating or with an eye to systematically evaluating and/or revising the text' (Flower and Hayes 1981:374; Breuer, 2017). Often, the result is new planning, formulating, and new revising (Breuer, 2015).

However, this may work differently in L1 and L2 writing. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) found that in L2 writing, editing during the process of composition was less fruitful than editing after composition was complete. This may be attributable to the higher demands made on cognitive resources by writing in the L2, which means it is more efficient to try to undertake fewer processes in parallel (Hayes, 2009; Breuer, 2017).

One that does not fit the category of "practized writers" is students; they are often criticized for their written texts, which are neither linguistically nor structurally adequate (Breuer, 2017). The reason for this can be that they see revision as a 'punitive' (Becker 2006:25) process rather than an opportunity to communicate with their texts and enhance them. As a result, they tend to set the focus of revision on local rather than global aspects, revising exclusively linguistic and/or orthographic errors that they find in the texts.

Process approach in writing

The teacher's writing lessons have always been impressed with the myth that writing finishes at once in a time. Suparno and Yunus (2002:15) warned to be cautious toward the myth of writing that makes students are frustrated to write. Very few can write at once, even, professional writers write from the first draft to the final polished writing. Siu (2007) emphazises that process writing is an approach that gives different insights to primary teachers who often view writing as a product and do not give adequate emphasis on the writing process. Sie (2007) admits that process approach has been advocated in the literature as an effective means for teaching writing. Process writing involves the process of brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing and publishing when writing on any topic.

Most research in writing pedagogy today concludes that the most effective way to teach writing is through a process approach. This approach assumes that a writer needs to be writing for authentic purposes in an extended process that includes prewriting, writing, revising, and editing--though these are done in a recursive manner rather than in discrete steps (Miller, 2012; Graham, et.al, 2012; Ings, 2013). As writers work through the writing process, they move through recursive steps that first emphasize fluency (i.e., activities for determining audience and generating ideas), then form (i.e., writing strategies for organizing and revising ideas) and then correctness (i.e., editing for proper grammar, spelling, diction, etc.). The last step in the process is publishing, sharing one's finished draft, after which some of the steps of the process may once again be revisited (Miller, 2012; Ong, 2014).

The writing process (Miller, 2012; Ong, 2014; Graham, et. Al, 2012) that includes: prewriting, drafting, revising and editing, rewriting, publishing, mirrors the way proficient writers write. Using the writing process, students will be able to break writing into manageable chunks and focus on producing quality material. The final stage, publishing, ensures that students have an audience. Students can even coach each other during various stages of the process for further emphasis on audience and greater collaboration during editing (Ong, 2014;

Hedge, 2005; Tompkins, 1994).   In the process approach, Tompkins (1994) and Graham, et. al (2012) emphasize that teachers are required to provide appropriate guidance at each stage. Through the stages, possibile opportunities to uncover typical difficulty experienced by each student can be revealed, so that solutions to overcome the problems can increase maximally. Students are also required to perform various activities that deliver students to the awareness that he was able to attain a good writing.

Tompkins' model of process approach consists of five stages: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, publishing. The learning technique includes creation of sensory images, but it does not rule out the use of specific information, and making comparisons: metaphors and similes (Breuer, 2017). The writing techniques uses creating sensory images, withe the opportunity to adding specific information, and making comparisons of metaphors and similes (Tomkins, 1994). To Tompkins (1994) descriptive writing is one form of writing that can be produced by elementary school students. Learning to write in descriptive form is a good way to start writing.

There are three major writing activities referred: pre-writing, drafting and redrafting, and editing (Hedge 2005:52-54). Traditionally, the product approach has taught these activities with a focus on the "finished product" and not on the subtle processes that occur in the process of writing (Hinkel 2002; Breuer, 2015). These activities of the product approach often have similar characteristics; for example: students being assigned a writing topic or being asked to reproduce a writing module. Usually, activities that are based on reproducing models offered little teacher input and do not encourage creativity. As a result, students traditionally disliked writing activities; writing became a chore not a form of expression (Tribble, 1996:18). These traditional writing activities inspired the emergence of the process approach.

The process approach emerged with a different focus than the product approach; the process approach is 'an approach to the teaching of writing which stresses the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of good writing practices rather than the imitation of models' (Tribble, 1996:160; Breuer, 2017; Graham, et.al, 2012). Therefore, the process approach helps students write better by aiding them in the actual process of writing (Tribble, 1996:118). To elaborate, the process approach is unlike traditional writing approaches that present a writing model and suggest repetition; in the process approach, teaching occurs during the writing process, not only before and after, like traditional approaches (Tribble, 1996).

The various stages of revision, editing, and generating ideas are generally associated with the process approach (Hedge 2005:51). Writing is not considered a linear process; 'the process of composition often involves going back and forth through the writing process' (Raimes, 1985:229). Indeed, the process approach relies heavily on the "recursive nature" of writing. Writing is a recursive process that serves a text is often moved around, modified, cut and expanded (Smith 1982:17). Therefore, the activities that are used with the process approach must also reflect this "recursive process".

Method

Design

The study used a qualitative participatory action research. The objective of this research is to improve students' writing skills on descriptive paragraph using process approach. The subjects were teachers and fourth grade students of SD Negeri 1 (Elementary Public School) Samarinda in the academic year 2017-2018. The action of this research consisted of the four stages modified from the spiral model starting (1) planning, (2) action and implementation, (3) observation, and (4) reflection (Kemmis and McTaggart 1992:11).

Participants

Participants of this study were 20 students and 2 classroom teachers. Purposeful sampling was used to recruit the participants, who were deemed information-rich cases (Patton, 2002), representing the best to "understand the central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2011:206). The students consisted of 12 females and 8 males whose ages were between 8 to 9 years old. The sampled students were also chosen to reflect the diversity of gender; self-rated proficiency of writing in *bahasa Indonesia*; and academic achievement.

Data Collection Techniques and Procedure

Direct observation, document analysis, and semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data. An observation checklist and an interview guide were prepared for student and teachers. Observation checklist was used to identify teaching strategies, techniques of treatment, and guides students writing during the cycles. Document analyses were used to assessment lesson plans, teaching materials, students portfolio in writing progress and field notes. The interview questions for students were designed to ask more focus on general plans of teaching writing, problems, and strategies to overcome problems. Implementation of using

process approach was emphasized for teachers. Open ended questions beginning with "what", "how", or "have you ever" were mainly used to probe for meaning-rich responses. Each interview was conducted in *bahasa Indonesia* between 30 and 40 minutes and was audio recorded with the consent of each participant. The interview data were then translated into English, rechecked and coded to ensure confidentiality.

Data analysis techniques

The qualitative data collected from the interviews were transcribed, organized and analyzed. Initially, descriptive coding was performed to help with the data identification. Accordingly, student participants were coded on the basis of their demographic information such as gender (M/F), year group (Y1, Y2, Y3), or academic achievement. Likewise, information about gender and the interview order (1, 2, 3 and so on) was used to code the data of the participants.

This study utilized a constant comparative method of analysis in organizing the gathered data to enable thematic analysis of the content. The constant comparative method is a process of comparing and contrasting all intellectual tasks during analysis: forming categories, establishing the boundaries of the categories, assigning the segments to categories, summarizing the content of each category, finding negative evidence, etc. The goal is to discern conceptual similarities, to refine the discriminative power of categories, and to discover patterns (Tesch, 1990:96). During this process, data considered critical to the research aims and the intended analysis were systematically organized into themes and sub-themes (Boeije, 2002; Fram, 2013). This process allows the researcher to determine the key categories or concepts and make logical connections between these categories.

Results and Discussion

The objective of this study is to see efforts to improve the quality of descriptive writing by the fourth graders of SD Negeri 1 Samarinda using process approach. The findings allow to present results of observation in three cycles of the action research, teaching learning process and assessments.

The cycles

Learning to write a description with a process approach that successfully improves students' writing skills is done gradually. On the prewriting learning, so that students are able

to do the theme development into sub-themes, teachers use classical discussion strategy, focusing on two-way questioning to describe the theme as a sub theme. This way, students are given the opportunity to devote their views on sub-themes of the model theme, then the teacher writes the sub-themes on the board. To make it easier for students and make the theme network links properly, the teacher assists using modeling the theme network. Teachers also invite students to fill out the theme network format drawn on the blackboard in a classical way. Finally, with question and answer the teacher also invites students to choose one of the sub-themes and sub-themes selected and elaborate the themes into several topics assisted with the topic network model, followed by choosing the topic. In order for students to develop selected topics into a written framework, teachers use modeling strategies.

To develop the frame of essay to be the initial draft at the learning stage of engraving, the teacher uses a classical discussion strategy. The discussion was conducted by two-way question and answer on how to develop the framework. With these two-way questions, students are involved in constructing a model of questions based on skeletal models.

To improve and develop ideas at the perevisian learning stage, the teacher attempts to train students to check and reorganize the initial drafts that have been prepared with the modeling strategy and classical discussion. Students are directly involved in checking deficiencies and errors in the initial draft model, then make improvements by rearranging (adding, subtracting, removing) words, sentences, in the initial draft model to a draft improvement model with two-way questioning.

Editing learning activities focused on improving the use of mechanical aspects in essays, namely: spelling and punctuation. In order for students to make edits, teachers use modeling strategies and classical discussions. To publish the student's essay, the teacher uses the student's final draft reading strategy in front of his classmates.

The results of the first cycle show that students have started to perform the activities of each stage in writing. However, the students develop limited activity and creativity in the learning process actualizing writing in context. The influence of the model writing is still too large coloring the student's draft. In revising and editing many students still need the help of teachers.

In the second cycle, teachers try to improve students' creativity. The effort is done by reducing students' dependence on the model, by providing an understanding of the difference between the object in the model and the object to be described. The teacher seeks to awaken the student to find mistakes in his/her draft, followed to give an example of how to fix it. The

teacher awakens the students to the mistakes and weaknesses of the draft by explaining the focus of the activities to be done at the writing stage.

The teacher shows how to find errors and shortcomings in the draft model. If the student still can not work, the teacher shows the student draft. After errors and deficiencies are identified in the student draft or draft essay, the teacher attempts to demonstrate how to improve or develop the model. In case the student can not do, the teacher gives instructions on how to fix directly on the student's draft and provide the improvement options. The second cycle strongly indicates that the learning result shows that students have attained activities of each stage with the help of relatively few teachers. The weakness shows that students are dependent on the model essay and typos occur in terms of irregularities in the sentences.

In the third cycle, the teacher attempts to reduce student's dependence on the model and limits the deviations of the content of the essay. To that end, the teacher seeks concept of how to describe an object with the technique of mentioning the detail of the sensor. Although the sensory detail technique in describing an object has been technically exposed in the model, students still do not know about the elements that should be mentioned in describing an object so that they tend to mimic all the elements in the model, even if the element is absent or not appropriate and need not be mentioned on the object to describe. Therefore, in the third cycle, the teacher attempts to explain concept of how to describe an object with the technique of mentioning the detail of the sensor. The learning outcomes showed the dependence on the model, but it is still visible though deviations of the question and answer sentences annoyed. What makes it worse, the deviation is not visible for revision providing the final draft that looks good. It is evident that the students can perform prewriting learning activities correctly. Students can develop the draft correctly, revise their initial draft correctly, make correct edits, and read the final draft in front of teachers and classmates as well.

The teaching learning process

Teaching learning process in the implementation of process approach refers to the application of all processes in the teaching, starting from pre-writing to publishing stages. At the prewriting stage teachers use modeling strategies, questioning, brainstorming, discussion, and teacher direction. The modeling strategy of prewriting learning is intended to provide students with an understanding and experience of writing. In order to effectively and creatively write, the students can lay out themes into subthemes, select and develop subthemes into topics, select and develop topics into textual frameworks, determine titles. Cox (1999:319) and Ong

(2014) reveal that model is an important part of writing lesson because the writing model serves as a medium that can guide children in gradual writing learning, from knowing, understanding, and imitating the writing model. Norton and Norton (1994:144) and Graham, at. al (2012) suggest, by modeling/ imitating writing sample through modeling, students can observe the model, then write the essay by doing imitation.

In addition, a classroom discussion strategy is used by teachers to provide students with understanding and experience during modeling (Steilsen, 2018). Understandings and experiences provided include how to develop themes into subthemes, selecting and developing subthemes into topics, selecting and developing topics into a written frame, and defining titles. While brainstorming strategies, and teacher referrals are used in an attempt to reveal the difficulties students are facing whereby students can be directed or guided directly (Ings, 2013).

Efforts by teachers to engage their students actively with questions in developing the theme development model into topics are also strategies that teachers use to get students to brainstorm their opinions. Graham, et.al, (2012) assert with the experience of involvement and the outpouring of opinion in the making of the theme development model into the topic, makes the students more creative and innovative. Routman (1994:200) imposes with brainstorming on topics in the writing process and does not provide student writing ratings, we have conditioned positive nuances of learning. With the understanding and experience in the translation of themes into subthemes and subthemes into topics, students will easily develop essay. Ellis et al. (1989:178) maintain that mind mapping (the development network of themes and topics) is a very effective pre-writing strategy for the teaching of descriptive writing.

Selection of topics according to Tompkins and Hoskisson (1991:230) is the process of developing and selecting topics that helps teachers equip students through brainstorming to choose one of the topics of interest and knowledge. In addition, Farris (1993:183) suggests that motivation is an important component in the prewriting learning stage and make it easier for students to generate their ideas in order to complete their writing assignment.

In the process of translating themes into topics and topic selection, teachers function as motivators and mentors. Ellis, et al. (1989:148) reveals that children need guidance in finding topics for writing. The teacher's efforts to motivate and guide students are done with questions that lead to the translation of themes and the selection of topics relevant to the theme to be developed. The development of the theme at an early stage, i.e. in the process of generating student ideas should be encouraged to explore embryonic ideas.

With the activity of compiling questions about the object to be described, the student will think of the details of the object he/she will write into a draft. Moore, et al. (1989:107) suggests that the process of preparation and answer before writing the draft, provides an opportunity for students to think about the detail of the object to be written. Students can also expand their understanding of the details of selected topics so that they will not experience difficulties or easily develop topics well. According Gunning (1992) preparation of questions in the pre-writing stage is the author's way to explore and develop questions and answers.

In compiling questions and answers, students need to get direction and guidance from teachers because the knowledge and experience of students is still limited, so the questions and answers made students do not deviate from the topic to develop. Routman (1994:121) argues that in compiling questions and answers, students are not left alone, but need to get guidance from teachers.

Using questions the students compiled, they seek information through reading literature on the object or visiting the object they should capture. Figures of the description is guided by the compiled questions available on students' files; students answer the quesions they compiled based on the questions in their files. Sentences for the answers are the description of the objects. Ellis, et.al. (1989:158) maintains that observation strategies do have strng impact to increase writing.

Direct observation of objects to describe guided by questions or images of the object, provides students details of the objects and details of a relatively complete sensory. The results of observation embody in the form of sentence responses used by students to arrange the initial draft.

With the sentences of the answer, the student has obtained some knowledge or understanding of the object as a whole that will be poured or arranged into an initial draft essay. Moore et al. (1986:107) suggest that in order to improve the writing skills, prior to composing the essay students need to develop an understanding of the topics to be written.

Ability of students who have used the model to compose questions and answers according to Pappas, et al. (1995:23) is associated with semantic knowledge; students can explore the knowledge and experience appropriate to the written topic. In the process of writing, semantic readiness is very meaningful and important for students to expedite writing in developing the topic he/she wrote.

4.3. The Assessment

Assessment of prewriting learning is through process and product evaluation. Evaluation on the process on students' view is obtained from students' responses, activities, and creativity. Evaluation of pre-writing product in the form of initial draft, is carried out in accordance with the analysis of the writing product.

The modeling strategy at the drafting stage is conducted through classical discussion. Through classical question and answer, a teacher invites students directly to involve in creating outline model of the essay hoping that students will gain experience in preparing the essay outline (Ong, 2014). This way, students do question and answer with peers to improve the outline. The modeling strategy also provides understanding to the students about the structure, contents of descriptive essay and development using the words of a descriptive text. Intentionally, students are exposed a clear picture of facts needed in preparing descriptive essays, gain experience on how to construct the facts in the form of sentences, and develop the fats into paragraph by paragraph to form a complete essay (Graham, et.al, 2012; Ings, 2013).

Giving an understanding of the text model can lead students in developing the topic of his/her essay into a descriptive form. The results of the students' essay prior to giving the model of descriptive text indicate that the essay of most students leads to narrative essay. Prior to the actions, students can not distinguish between descriptive and narrative form. After the descriptive text model given, students can develop their essays with descriptive form. Gibbons (1993:102) revealed that with the text description model, the student's tendency to write narratives can be overcome.

Learning strategy with text model, has made student proficient to compose the descriptive essay improve relatively good. Baskoff's (1975:228) asserts the text model can elicit ideas students to obtain facts, phrases, and to say in writing. In addition, Temple, et al. (1988:48) argued, giving a text model is a good thing to direct students to develop writing.

The strategies teachers use in the development of essay outline is by composing questions, observing, and preparing answers about sensory details. Prior to the process of preparing questions and answers, teachers provide students with experience on how to construct questions, make observations, and compose answers by asking students to classically make question model, do observations, and compose answers. With the model and classical model construction, students can prepare questions, make observations, and compile answers.

Evaluation of learning for drafting is made possible through process and product evaluation. In process evaluation, drafting is directed at the attitude of students in developing

the frame of essay to sentence of the main idea/ sentence explanation. Product evaluation is done in accordance with the analysis of the product essay.

The improvement strategy at the revising stage is done to develop sensory ideas in detail, illustrate the detailed description of the sensory ideas in the draft, and describe the detailed description of the sensory details clearly in the paragraph. In the first and second cycle, the researcher used the class discussion, group work and teacher guidance; and in the third cycle, group work strategy and teacher guidance are made available.

To overcome the difficulties students experience in revising, teachers use group and individual guidance strategies around the classroom. Temple, et al. (1988:216) maintain teachers can go around the classroom to help a child in difficulty, ask questions, help solving difficulties and comment on the writing.

Teacher guidance is done by providing assistance tailored to the level of difficulty and level of student ability. Temple, et al. (1988:214) suggests that guidance assistance that can encourage or create student motivation in writing, can be done by giving the students the opportunity to read their writing; ask the students to look for the parts that need to be improved in writing, and the teacher asks students to improve the errors. If students are not able to do so, teachers and students can jointly make improvements. In order to encourage mental writing of students, teachers can collectively organize ideas in a logical sequence.

With the peer improvement strategy, students can show each other errors and akward of words, word groups, sentences in the initial draft of the essay and mutually accept suggestions from teachers and colleagues. This way, students have brainstormed to integrate their opinions. Ellis, et al. (1989:160) claim an effective way of helping writers (students) in developing and improving their writing skills is by meeting peer opinions.

Evaluation of pre-writing is done with process and product evaluation. The process evaluation focuses on the attitude of students during the learning process takes place. The product evaluation is based on the draft of student's idea improvement based on the results of the analysis.

The strategy in the editing process is applied through peer-editing and guidance of the teacher. This strategy is also used in the revision process, taking into account the level of difficulty and ability of students individually. With the teacher's guidance strategy tailored to the level of difficulty and the level of ability, the teacher works to maximize to overcome the difficulty, so students are able to edit and improve the draft essays correctly.

Evaluation of editing is done through process and product evaluation. Evaluate the process of editing, teachers motivate students to express the difficulties that are natural in the editing. Process evaluation is also to get feedback about students' ability to perform editing activities. Evaluation of product editing done by teacher sees the mastery of students, subject matter, and the use of spelling and punctuation in final draft essay.

Publishing is attempted to instill students' self-confidence that they can also create a work in the form of essays that can be understood by others as other authors work. The sense of confidence is expected to generate student motivation to perform the next writing activity. The strategy includes reading the final draft of each student's essay in front of the teacher and/ or classmates by paying attention to the accuracy of voicing the writing, reasonableness of pronunciation, fairness of intonation, soundness of the voice, and the smoothness.

To evaluate publishing process, the researcher finds out the suitability and accuracy of spelling and punctuation used in the student's final draft. The evaluation is done through reading each student's essay with a loud voice in front of his classmates. Evaluation of product on the final draft of the essay is done by asking comments on the contents of the final draft essay after it is read in front of class classically to the audience.

Conclusion

In summary, this study contributes three findings. First, descriptive writing for elementaru school students has been successfully attained using process approach. Gradation of writing process follows stages of pre-writing, and framing the outline using discussion strategies. The use questioning techniques the teacher deliver to elicit themes and subthemes are evidently effcetive to make students confidence and creative. Modeling strategies using essay models help the process approach more effective. Second, to develop and improve ideas at revision stages, attempts are made to focus on revision of typos, punctuation, organization and contents of the essay, emphasizing the classical discussion, peer-review and modeling strategies. Students are directly involved in checking deficiencies and errors in the initial draft model, then make improvements by rearranging (adding, subtracting, removing) words, sentences, in the initial draft model to a draft improvement model with two-way questioning. Editing is focused on improving the use of mechanical aspects in essays. Third, assessment of the essay was based on process and product orientations focusing on the evaluation of individual essay product. To publish the student's essay, the teacher uses the student's final/ final draft reading strategy in front of his classmates.

This study has limitation in terms of small subject in one school and focus on the descriptive mode of writing. This study, however, contributes evidences that process approach provides contributions that improves students' capacity to write, classroom dynamic in writing and interest for writing.

Pedagogical Implication

Understanding the concept and practices in process approach in writing is crucial for teachers of writing. Writing for elementary school students need the foundation of basic teaching starting from outlining, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. Process approach would be the model suggested in teaching writing and further research is addressed for broader use of teaching writing of the first language other than English.

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Examining the Impact of Teaching Literature to information-based approach, attitude, stylistics and self-efficacy to Indonesian Students

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Abstract

Literature has a vital importance in the life of students and helps them to gain adequate reading, writing and other language skills. In addition, reading quality literature helps the students feel liberated from the pressure that they experience in their daily lives, by getting indulged in pleasure and comfort that the reading material induces upon them. The different teaching models used by the literature teachers have varying impacts on the students' learning attitude since each model has different cognitive basis. This study used an experimental design assigning secondary level schools in Indonesia have been targeted for research and the data has been collected through questionnaires from 303 respondents. The collected data were analyzed through SPSS and AMOS software. Researchers take into account the AMOS, for running the

diagnosis of structure equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis and SEM for performing hypothesis testing. Further, researchers apply CFA for assessing discriminant validity, convergent validity and model fitness. The results showed that self-efficacy plays a vital moderating role in developing a healthy learning attitude in students towards literature. Moreover, stylistic and language-based teaching models proved to have a significant impact on the development of learning behavior toward literature. The author has identified several benefits of this theory in context of theory, practice and policymaking in the conclusion portion of this research paper. In addition, several limitations were recognized in this study and recommendations have been provided for future work.

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Introduction

In education systems around the world, different ideologies are subjected by teachers to conduct lectures and deliver knowledge to the learners. Educational systems enhance their features and characteristics by the usage of technological advancements (Tahaineh & Daana, 2013), rapid media development, and usage of innovative teaching methods. Recent educational trends have made it difficult for the teachers to inspire literature among students. Developing love for literature among the students has been very difficult. A dramatic decline in the book reading has been observed among the students of all age groups and in all educational institutions(Khdhir & Hasan, 2016). As a result, young children are very confused related to the liquid identity in which everything is out of shape. The course curriculum and book knowledge should focus on building a sense of attention towards spirituality in the students which is an important aspect that nurtures both inner and outer character of the students (Evens, Elen & Depaepe, 2016). Education needs to be grounded on different disciplines and fields that help children in getting the right knowledge and develop a level of correctness in their lives.

One of the important aim of teaching literature in classrooms by teachers is language enrichment and encouraging students to use literary words and texts for learning new discourse functions, syntax, and words and it also helps in the development of correct sentence formation and story structures (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Shehzadi & Krishnasamy, 2018). Moreover, it also helps in the formation of good writing skills. From the primary level, the inclusion of literature in the curriculum helps in building language-literature among the students. In addition, for the young ones, it is helpful in the formation of reading skills & developing the habit of reading. Today, reading has become one of the greatest challenges faced by the students. Studying literature has many potential benefits that cannot be ignored. Literature helps in encouraging the feelings of empathy, imagination, emotional intelligence, and tolerance for the diversity that develops patience for feelings and thoughts of other people (Dilekli & Tezci, 2016). A *"piece of literature"* touches the student's feelings and emotions. The readers get fascinated by the writer's thoughts that are expressed in the form of literature. Teaching literature also helps in the students' personal development, as it educates readers, helps in the formation of personal attitudes and set values for themselves (Soleimani & Hanafi, 2013). Literature knowledge acts as a change agent as good literature has the power to affect the human behavior and also plays a contributing role in the student's emotional development and helps in fostering interpersonal relationships and positive attitudes. All the attitudes and values learned from the literature are exercised outside classroom.
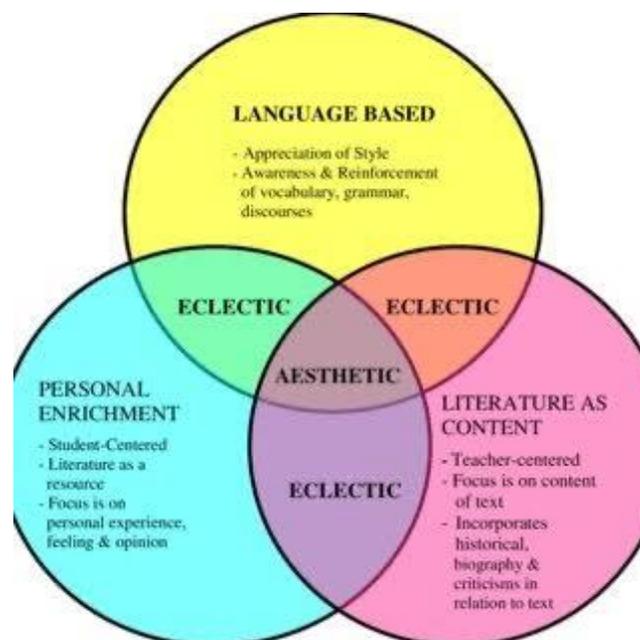

Figure 1: Literature Teaching Models (Hall, 2015).

In the secondary schools of Indonesia, a drastic change in student's attitude has been identified related to the ignorance and negligence of reading literature. Students showed no interest and affection in reading different materials of literature (Hall, 2015). Moreover, poor academic performance and a lack of ability to demonstrate correct meaning of the literature has been observed among the students. The student attitude towards reading literature has changed and the students show no preference towards reading literature. This issue is common in many other regions of the world such as Middle-east and Asian countries. Therefore, this research highlights the gap and identifies the significance of undergoing this research study. The research objectives for this study are stated below:

- To discover the impact of information-based approach on the secondary level students' attitude in Indonesia.

- To discover the impact of Stylistic approach on the secondary level students' attitude in Indonesia.

- To discover the impact of language-based approach on the secondary levels students' attitude in Indonesia.

- To demonstrated the moderating impact of students' self-efficacy between Teaching models for literature and secondary levels students' attitude of Indonesia.

This research study is significant especially in the context of Indonesian secondary level schools. This identifies the problem faced by the students, their changing attitudes towards literature, and poor academic performance. Identifying different factors for the changing interest of the students towards literature would be helpful for this study. This study focused on identifying the problem with the teaching literature models, in the context of Indonesian secondary schools. Literature teachers are not using effective approaches for developing high level of literature interest among the Indonesian students. Although previous researches have been conducted on this topic but the moderating role of students' self-efficacy in the relationship between teaching literature models and students' attitude has been ignored. Moreover, this research has not been conducted previously in Indonesia so the research lacks in finding the attitude of the Indonesian students towards literature. Research problem and significance has been discussed in detail in the stated paragraphs. The following section contains an in-depth literature review in which the work and point of views of different scholars are discussed in detail. The next section has described the methodology of the research study and details all the methods that are used in this investigation. After methodology, the analysis

of data is performed in which the gathered data is analyzed using appropriate measures. The last section of the report provides the recommendation and conclusion on the research.

Literature Review

Linguistics Theory and Social cognitive theory

According to linguistics theory, author must consider literary critics and linguistic textures for the formation of the appropriate literature. Stylistics are helpful in relating the literary critics with the appreciation, aesthetic interpretation as well as understanding of the language (Baba, 2008). Social cognitive theory provides the framework on career counseling related to the student's learning experiences. It can be conceptualized for evaluating the individual's ability for successful undertake of the desired goals (Ross, Perkins & Bodey, 2016). Learning experiences have great impact on the student's academic success and future career. According to this theory, people hold strong behaviors on their power determination. Self-efficacy and expectations are greatly impacted by the upstream contributors such as background factors, learning experiences, and personal input as well (Carpi, Ronan, Falconer & Lents, 2017).

Information-based approach and Secondary level's student attitude

Teaching literature to students at all levels is helpful in allowing the readers to enjoy the reading good written material which is important for enjoyment and self-development. This helps the students to grow emotionally and spiritually through the generation of different ideas, feelings, and beliefs related to cultures, traditions, societies, and values after reading literature of diverse range (Ling, Ling & Eng, 2016). Students are able to widen their thoughts and views on these universal values. It plays a contributing role in changing the student's attitude towards listening, reading, and responding to diverse literary books (Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010). Students' get to tell stories to one another in their own words and it also gives students the ability to develop their opinion on the literary. They can easily recognize characters and plot setting and convey the message directly to the teacher regarding the writer action and purpose.

Information-based approach provides information and knowledge to the students. It is centered on the teachers and demand more input from the teachers related to various content used in the literary texts such as cultural, political, social, and historical background. Literature knowledge is delivered by information source to the students. It also involves reading from different notes and criticism, lectures and explanations given by teachers to prepare for exams.

Attitude refers to the reaction and the evaluation done by the individual on certain object and situation and it all depends on his/her beliefs and opinions (Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi& Alzwari, 2012). It is the "psychological process" by which learners either favors or disfavors certain situations (Eshghinejad, 2018). Students' attitude towards learning literature is very important as it reflects the ideas and concepts that the students understand. It is considered as one of the integral part of literature learning (Stan, 2015). The attitude guides the learners to achieve certain literature goals which are set by the Education Ministry.

H1: There is a significant relationship between information-based approach and secondary level's student attitude

Stylistics approach and Secondary level's student attitude

Literature teaching approaches are demonstrated from the personal-growth model, language model, and also the cultural model. These models provide roots to the different approaches that are considered in literature teaching (Aydın, 2013). All three models develop some correlation with one another and provides value and resource to the literature for personal development, study purpose, and exposure of language skills. There is a close relationship between literature and language as literature is a resultant from languages & represents the recurrent language uses. It is important for every teacher to develop understanding on this relationship (Erdem, 2015). The teachers' motivation helps her in removing linguistic barriers by using modern techniques. It includes the use of audio-video materials and also the development of diverse skills that helps in the knowledge synthesis of the students. Stylistic approach suggests linguistic and critical analysis. It is up to the students to understand the literary text and appreciate it in the deep manner. It also helps the students to meaningfully interpret text and generate language knowledge and awareness (Ling et al., 2016). Moreover, it analyzes the prior language for certain literary text elements. In this approach various elements of the language are also considered which are significant in the literary context. Using this approach helps to sharpen the sensitivity and interest towards the literature and thus improves the language understanding. The overall success of the learning process is achieved from the attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and metacognitive knowledge provided in the literature classroom (Alfauzan & Hussain, 2017). In an effective teaching environment, pedagogy offers an opportunity to develop some positive attitude towards the literature. In the metacognitive knowledge, the attitude developed by the learners is a major contributor for the academic success (Yamashita, 2013). Students have developed an attitude that the English literature is

very difficult for the use of different metaphors & literary devices. Moreover, students also get frustrated from the lengthy literature that comprises of metaphors, stylistics features, and similes. Learners at advanced level are more comfortable in analyzing the literature especially when literature teacher considers the use of teacher-centered approach (Gömleksiz, 2010). This material helps in enhancing the learning of target language.

H2: There is a significant relationship between Stylistics approach and secondary level's student attitude.

Language-based approach and Secondary level's student attitude

Literature acts as the source of information and facts that are put by teacher in front of the students. It emphasizes on the role of the literature that condenses the ideas, wisdom, and values that accumulates within specific culture over some historical periods. It is important for the students to develop some understanding and to appreciate the ideologies of different cultures beyond space and time. Language-based approach is helpful for the students in paying attention to ways in which language is used while studying literature. This approach is activity-based and student-centered for language productivity (Dhillon & Mogan, 2017). Also, it enhances the language proficiency and develops literature and language skills in the students. It further engages the students on different responses and experiences (Siu, 2007). Debate and forum, discussions, role play, poetry recital, making predictions, rewriting stories, brainstorming, and cloze are some of the practices that summarize this approach. This approach is useful in the development of knowledge-base for other languages besides English. For many scholars, using this approach is accessible and easy-to-practice for the learners as well as for the teachers. Student's attitude gets affected by the different approaches that are considered for the literature teaching (Divsar, 2014). With the absence of students' interest, students would not be able to learn new things. The attitude of students must be passive enough to respond to various questions asked by the teacher, otherwise they simply would copy the opinion of the teacher. With less interest, the participation of the student would also be very low as they will not enjoy the literature. Therefore, sometimes, teachers find it difficult to implement certain challenging and cognitive activities when the attitude of the students is passive in gaining teachers input.

H3: There is a significant relationship between language-based approach and secondary level's student attitude

Moderating role of Student Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to the belief that one has abilities for succeeding in their goals achievement and outcomes. This belief shapes the individual strategies and behaviors for goals attainment. Students having high self-efficacy are more confident towards their abilities and develop motivation while self-advocate their own needs (Lee & Jonson-Reid, 2016). Self-efficacy also helps in boosting the students' achievement, predictor of learning & motivation, and also fosters the well-being and emotional health. Students with high self-efficacy participate regularly in the class activities, persist longer, work harder and overcome their emotional reactions more easily (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2015). Self-Efficacy is very important in achieving academic success, development of career trajectory and aspirations and in removing depression among the students (Mamaril, Usher, Li, Economy & Kennedy, 2016). Efficacy beliefs are very important as they have an influencing impact on the academic outcomes and development of the students (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Student's having low-efficacy are considered underachievers as they have low aspirations & low motivations does not allow them to face any challenges (Artino, Holmboe & Durning, 2012).

When reading literature, reader develops an emotional connection with the characters of the story. This drives positive affect in the form of personal grooming and growth (Muthusamy, Salleh, Michael, Arumugam & Thayalan, 2017; Sujito, Budiharso, Solikhah & Muttaqin, 2019). From more reading, they develop an affection for reading literature and thus, it changes the student's attitude towards the literature. At the same time, it provides leisure to the readers and listeners. For the time being, it allows the reader to forget their problems and enjoy the leisure moments. Reading literature of high-quality helps the secondary-level students to improve their achievement. It also helps in expanding their horizons by providing different experiences. The role of teacher in teaching literature is very significant for the students of every level. It is the aims of the teachers to mold the teaching of language according to various desires and needs of students, by selecting the most appropriate behavior, activities, techniques, and literary texts for maintaining the proficiency level (Muthusamy, Marimuthu, Michael, Chazali& Veeravagu, 2010). Different teaching styles are adopted by teachers affects the student's passion for the English literature. It is important for the students of secondary level to improve their language proficiency, thus it helps in teaching of literature more significant and enjoyable for the students (Nair et al., 2012). Teacher's affective role changes the student's attitude for the English literature. Students need to display the active participation and enthusiasm in various activities considered in the literature lessons. Moreover, students

depend on the chosen texts and also on the various teaching styles for displaying their interest and affection in literature learning (Tarman & Kılınç, 2018; Mohd-Asraf, Hossain & Eng, 2019).

H4a: There is a significant moderating relationship of Student Self-efficacy in the between information-based approach and secondary level's student's attitude

H4b: There is a significant moderating relationship of Student Self-efficacy in the between Stylistic approach and secondary level's student's attitude

H4c: There is a significant moderating relationship of Student Self-efficacy in the between language-based approach and secondary level's student's attitude**.**

Framework
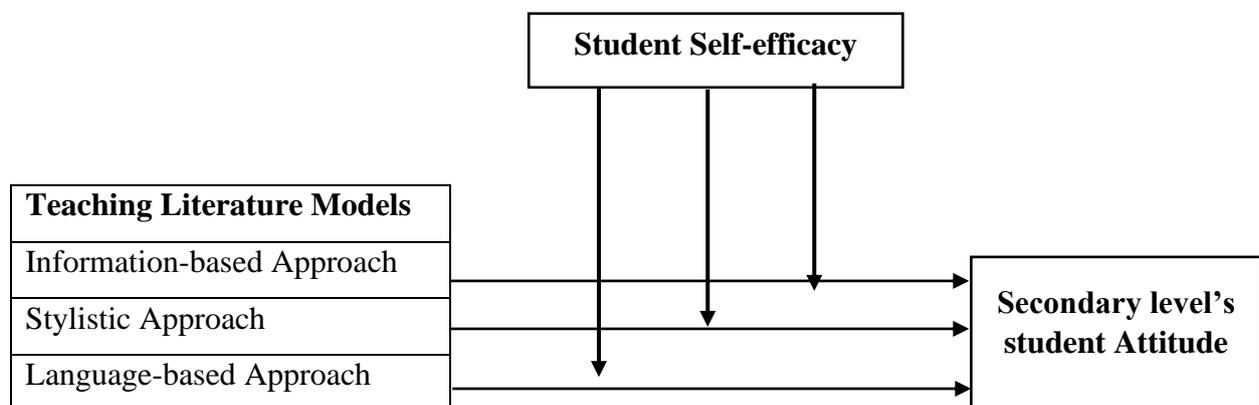
Research Methodology

Population and Sampling

This research study has been conducted for examining the impact of teaching literature model, information-based approach, stylistic approach and language-based approach on secondary-level student's attitude, in mediating role of student's self-efficacy. As Indonesia has made the education compulsory and also provide free education but still 52% of students remain illiterate despite of high-level efforts for reducing the illiteracy rate. In other Southeast Asian nations, education level has been increasing day by day and illiteracy rate has also been reducing such as for Vietnam illiteracy rate is 14 percent. This research study has been proposed for changing the secondary level student's attitude with modern or advanced approaches. For sampling frame selection, researcher used mixed method sampling for strengthen the research design based upon the social and biological sciences and for selecting

the few numbers of secondary level schools in Indonesia. In this research study, sample respondents were teachers and faculty members, as they have qualification, job confirmation, certification. Moreover, researcher used convenient sampling technique for selecting them because out of the large numbers of students and other members teachers have strong opinion regarding the proposed study and can be assessed easily. Survey instrument has been used for data collection that's why 340 questionnaires have been distributed among the respondents but only 314 responses have been collected. From 314 responses, 303 responses have been considered valid, as 11 responses have been discarded due to invalidity.

Data Collection Procedure

Researcher desired to collect primary, quantitative data from specific respondents that's why researcher used the survey instrument such as structured questionnaire categorized into two types of closed-ended questions adapted from Hwang & Embi (2007) and Maree & Van Der Westhuizen (2008). Researcher tried to use the simple wording, questionnaire structure to ensure that respondents can easily understand the survey items. For verification, researcher performed the pilot study on ten teachers in order to verify that whether items of questionnaire were understandable by respondents or not understandable. If they suggest few changes then researcher rectified the mistakes and rearranged the questionnaire. The validity and reliability of the questionnaires are examined using Cronbach's alpha reliability test. Researcher also ensured that language must be native speaking language of Indonesia while data collection process and content validity of measures have also been checked through industrial practitioners. Finally, researcher administered the questionnaire through self-administering technique in order to solve the queries related to specific terms in questionnaire at the spot.

Measures

For the assessment of variables of this specific study, researcher adapts the survey items from research work of other professional authors in previous literature because researcher considered them more reliable and authentic that's why researcher proceed the data collection procedure with these measures. For information-based approach, 5 measurement items have been adapted from research study of Hwang & Embi (2007), for stylish approach, 5 measurement items have been taken from Maree & Van Der Westhuizen (2008), for language-based approach, researcher adapts the 5 survey items from Hwang & Embi (2007). Further, researchers measured the student self-efficacy through 10 survey items, which have been

adapted from Walker (2003) and for secondary-level student's attitude measurement, 4 survey items taken from earlier research study of Linda Rikard & Banville (2006). The 5-point Likert scale has been used for measuring the responses regarding these survey items, in this scale 1 meant by strongly disagree and 5 meant by strongly agree.

Data Analysis

Researchers analyzed the collected data through SPSS and AMOS software, as these software's have been considered best suitable option for statistical analysis of the data. Researchers take into account the AMOS, for running the diagnosis of structure equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis. Researchers used the SEM for performing hypothesis testing, researcher analyzed the structure path model through path analysis. On the bases of analysis results, research report that which hypothesis get accepted or which get rejected. Further, researcher accompanied CFA for assessing discriminant validity, convergent validity and model fitness. SPSS software has been used for applying various tests such as Cronbach's alpha reliability test, regression test, correlation test and descriptive statistics test.

Results and Discussion

This research was carried out with a sample size of 303 people from Indonesia, out of which 41.3 percent were males and 58.7 percent were females. Highly educated population was targeted and the sample is dominated by post graduates, having 48.8% share, followed by the 40.3% master's degree holders. Around 60.7 percent lay in the 31-40 age group. The selected sample ensures validity of results because of the maturity of age and education in the sample.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SelfEEfficacy	303	1.00	4.90	3.5799	1.07698
InfoBaseAp	303	1.00	5.00	3.5439	1.13120
StylBaseAp	303	1.00	5.00	3.5881	1.08664
LanBaseAp	303	1.00	5.00	3.5802	1.06759
SecLevSAtt	303	1.00	5.75	3.4101	1.05869
Valid N (listwise)	303				

The summary of descriptive statistics for this study has been given in Table 1. The values of minimum and maximum statistics confirm that there is no outliers in the data except a low level of deviation seen in case of secondary level student attributes. An average response of 3.5 can be seen in the mean statistics. This shows that the respondents were mostly in agreement to the statements in the questionnaire. The standard deviation calculations show slight skewness in the data since the data lies slightly above the threshold range.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.953
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9046.796
	Df	406
	Sig.	.000

Table no. 2 is depicting the results of KMO and Bartlett's Test. The purpose of this test is to confirm that sample size of data is accurate and value should lie between threshold range of 0.8 and 1. The result of KMO testing show the value of .953, thus for this study the sample is adequate.

Table no.3 depicts results for the accuracy and validity of data through rooted component matrix, which is a part of CFA. All the components carry factor loading greater than 0.7 except SE1, which shows slightly lower value of .676. No issue of cross loading is seen.

Table 3: Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SE1	.676				
SE2	.764				
SE3	.833				
SE4	.829				
SE5	.826				
SE6	.817				
SE7	.812				

SE8	.821			
SE9	.829			
SE10	.815			
IA1		.766		
IA2		.802		
IA3		.807		
IA4		.829		
IA5		.824		
SA1			.819	
SA2			.828	
SA3			.862	
SA4			.805	
SA5			.780	
LA1				.780
LA2				.805
LA3				.795
LA4				.808
LA5				.791
ST1					.763
ST2					.805
ST3					.855
ST4					.799

Table 4: Convergent and Discriminant Validity

	CR	AVE	MSV	SE	LA	ST	SA	IA
SE	0.928	0.751	0.341	**0.867**				
LA	0.933	0.736	0.366	0.581	**0.858**			
ST	0.900	0.692	0.328	0.573	0.501	**0.832**		
SA	0.943	0.768	0.379	0.527	0.521	0.444	**0.877**	
IA	0.951	0.797	0.379	0.584	0.605	0.387	0.616	**0.893**

Table no. 4 shows the output of convergent and discriminant validity tests. CR and AVE are indicators for convergent validity, having low threshold values of 0.7 and 0.5 respectively. Results show that there is convergent validity in data. As for discriminant validity, results given in the diagonal portion of table show that is showing that each variable is more associated with itself instead of other variables as the bold values are larger than the values preceded by them, with exception of ST and LA. This shows that language-based approach is associated to secondary teaching.

Table 5: Confirmatory Factors Analysis

Indicators	Threshold range	Current values
CMIN/DF	Less or equal 3	2.274
GFI	Equal or greater .80	.834
CFI	Equal or greater .90	.948
IFI	Equal or greater .90	.948
RMSEA	Less or equal .08	.065

For confirming the fitness of the selected model, confirmatory factor analysis is carried out, results of which have been depicted in Table no. 5. Results prove that the model is a good fit.

Figure 2: CFA
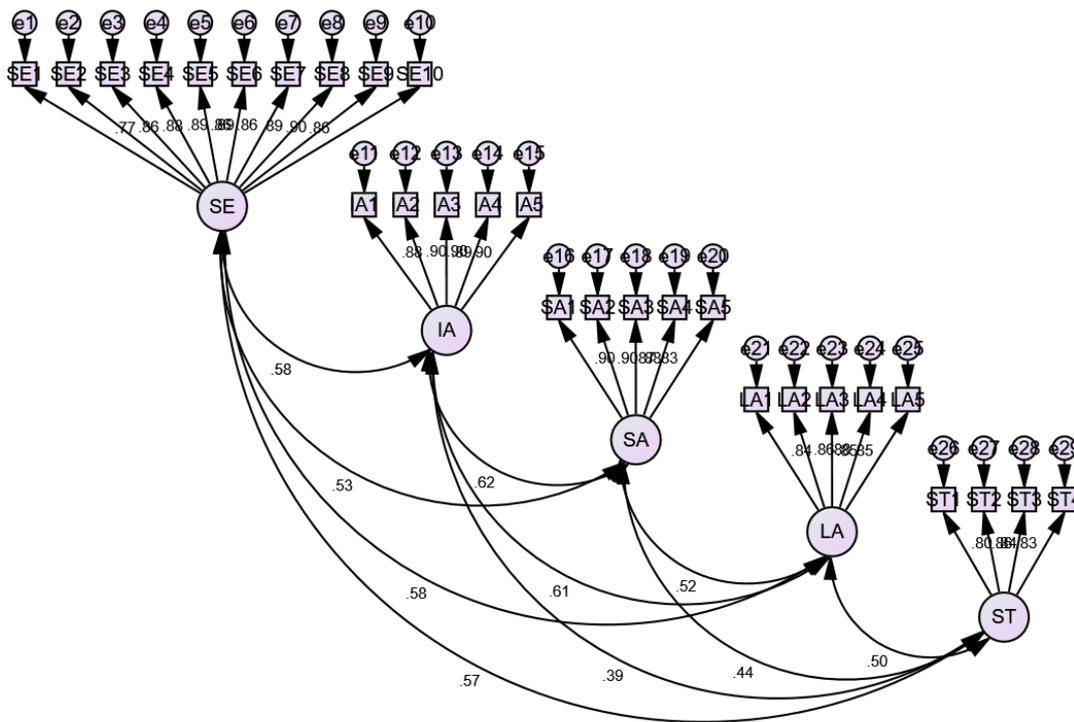
Table 6: Structural Equation Modeling

	Path		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
SecLevSAtt	<---	InfoBaseAp	.039	.063	.589	.556
SecLevSAtt	<---	StylBaseAp	.228	.061	3.621	***
SecLevSAtt	<---	LanBaseAp	.329	.062	5.297	***

Table no.6 has shown the summary for structural equation modeling for testing the hypotheses that have been presented in this paper. As evident from the results, role of stylistic and language based teaching approaches is significant for the student's attitude while that of information based teaching approach is insignificant. Improvement of stylistic approach by one unit causes 23% improvement in the attitudes of secondary level students, while the improvement of language based approach by one unit causes 33% improvement in the attitudes of secondary level students. Thus the results confirm that stylistic and language based approaches have a direct and significant impact of the secondary level students' attitude towards learning of literature.

Figure 2: SEM
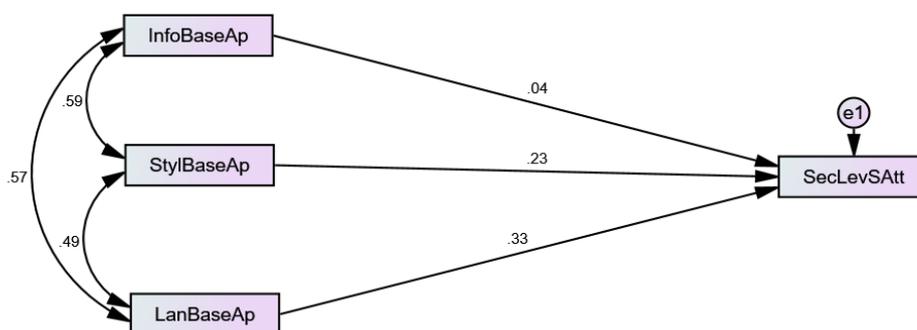
Moderation

Graph 1: Moderating effect of Self Efficacy Between Information Based Approach and Secondary Level Students Attitude
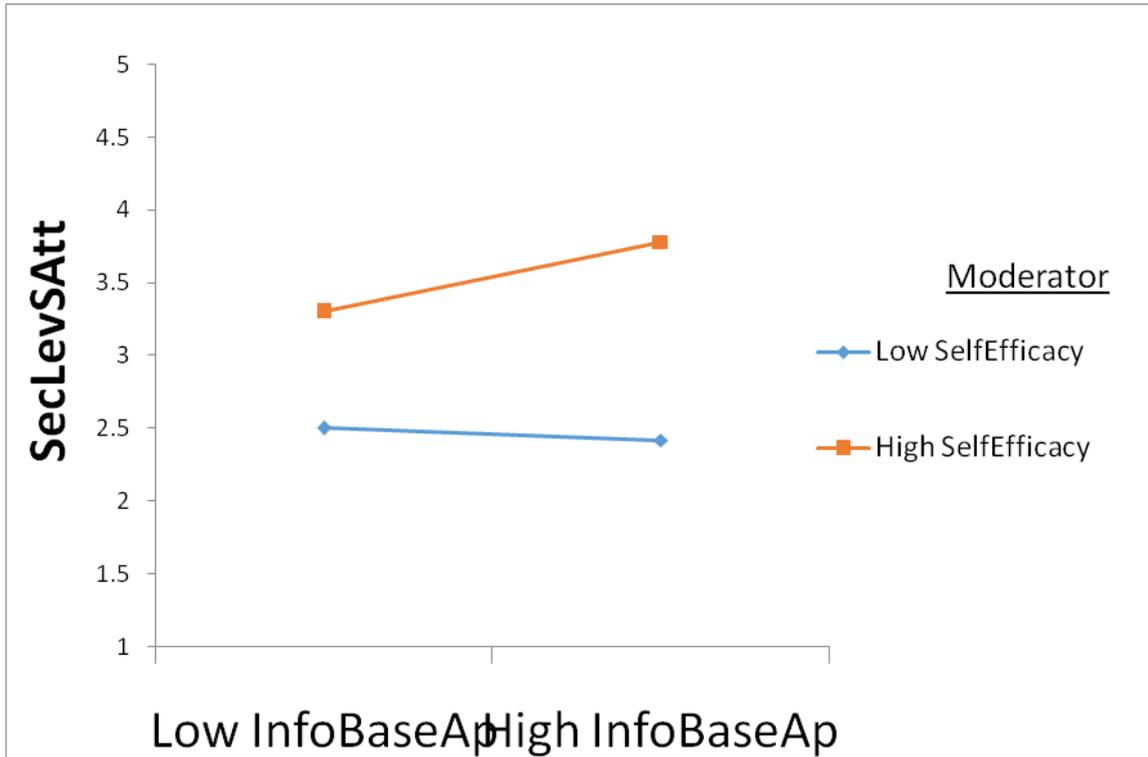
Graph 2: Moderating effect of Self Efficacy Between Stylistic Based Approach and Secondary Level Students Attitude
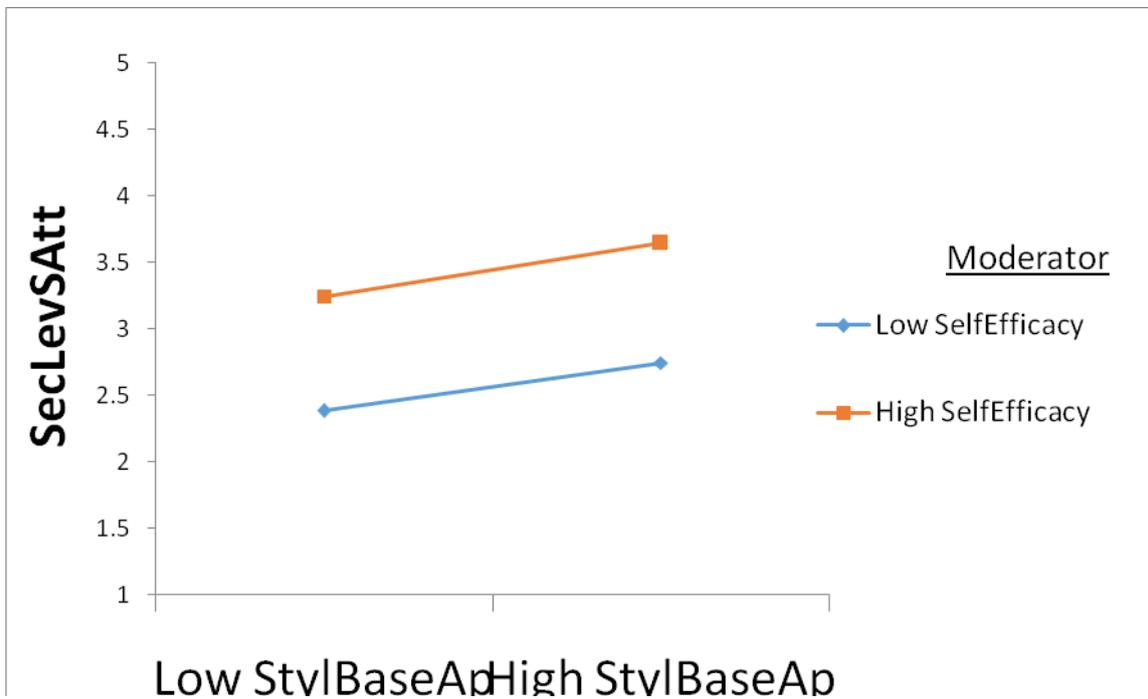
Graph 3: Moderating effect of Self Efficacy Between Language Based Approach and Secondary Level Students Attitude
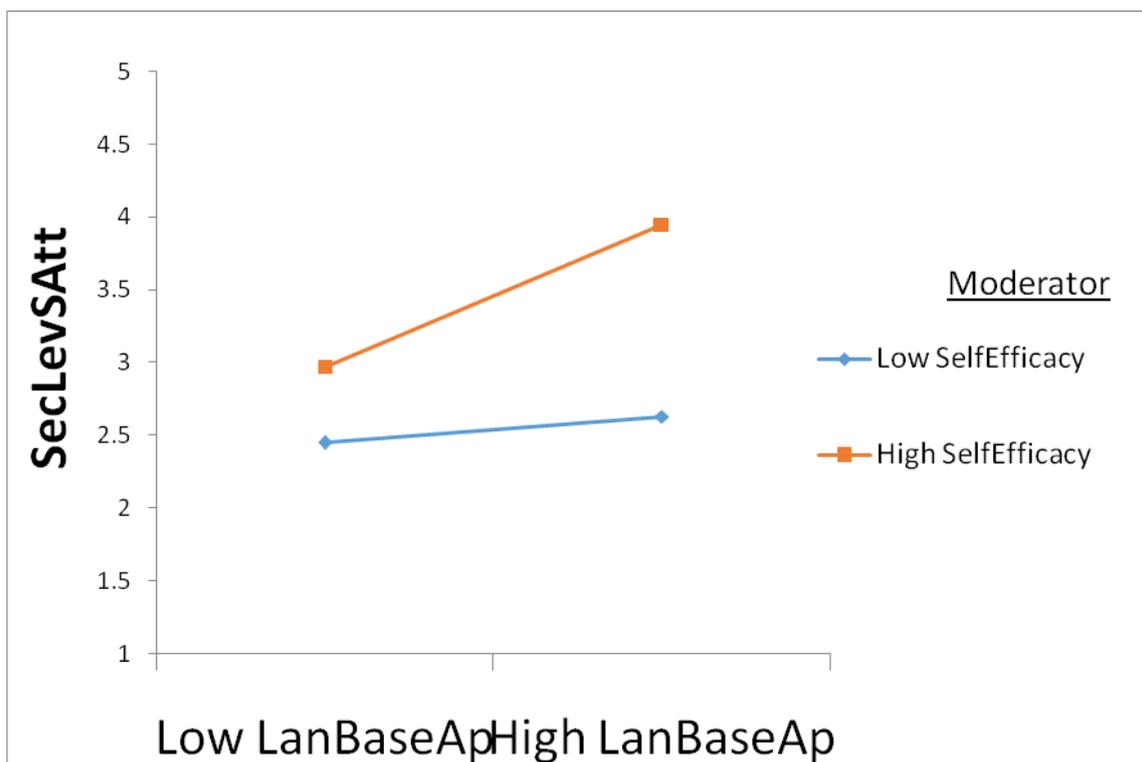
1

The purpose of this study was to establish the useful methods that can be used for teaching literature to the students of secondary level in schools in Indonesia. The teaching methods that were focused on in this study included three methods; stylistic approach of teaching, language based approach of teaching and information based approach of teaching. The role of the self-efficacy levels in the students was taken as a moderating factor in this study. The self-efficacy of the students moderates the level of learnability in students but does not play significant role in mediating or impacting the teaching methods. For the purpose of proving the validity and importance of each method of teaching three hypotheses were generated. The first hypothesis claimed the information based teaching style affected the learning attitude of the secondary level students. This hypothesis was accepted similar to previous studies (Hennessy et al., 2016; Muthusamy et al., 2017), however the role played in enhancing student's learning behavior was found to be insignificant. The second hypothesis mentioned that the stylistic teaching style affected the learning attitude of the secondary level students. This hypothesis was accepted and stylistic approach was proven to have a significant effect on the student's attitude towards learning. These results can be reinforced by past researches (Savvidou, 2004; Short & Breen, 1988). The third hypothesis claimed that the language based teaching style affected the learning attitude of the secondary level students.

This hypothesis was accepted and showed a significant affect as well. Few past researchers claimed similar results (Paran, 2008; Van, 2009).

Conclusion

Literature is a part of study that is of vital importance for the purpose of gaining knowledge and formation of long term skills of reading, writing and vocabulary building. The attitude of learning literature in students is, however, usually not indulgent and participatory. To improve the attitude of students, the teaching styles play an important role and the different mechanisms used have varying level of effects on the behavior of students. The current study was conducted to find that which teaching method is most effective. Data was collected from secondary schools in Indonesia and a total of 303 participants were included in the study. Data was analyzed using various statistical and analytic estimation techniques. The results showed both stylistic and language based approaches of teaching to be significant, the latter being more effective. Based on these results, several theoretical, practical and policy making implications have been identified by the author.

Implications

Literature study is vital for gaining knowledge and this study discusses different models that teachers can use for enhancing the literature related learning in their students, making this study important for having practical, theoretical and policy related implications. The scholars and researchers working in this field of study can benefit from the literature review presented in this paper. In addition, literature teachers in countries that have similar educational and socio-cultural environment as Indonesia can use this study for modifying their teaching styles to induce highest level of self-efficacy in their students so that they can gain maximum benefits from literature studies. The policy makers can use this study for designing policies and laws for inclusions of literature studies in education in their countries.

Limitations and future implications

In this section, the author outlines few limitations and future implications that this research paper imposes. In this study, the selected population was secondary level teachers in Indonesia, which is a small dataset. For removing effects of socio-cultural bias from the results, the future studies should consider region-based analysis like the ASEAN region. In addition, impact of factors like students' self-esteem, teachers' efficiency of lecture delivery and the

quality and quantity of literature taught should also be considered as the drivers of students' interest in literature studies. Furthermore, different interactive teaching mechanisms should also be tested for improving literature teaching efficiency.

Pedagogical Implication

Teaching literature for secondary school students evidently affect stylistic, attitude, and self-efficacy. In learning language skills, learning literature contributes to the improvement of reading skills, writing skills and vocabulary building. At the broader sense, teaching literature is urgently required to form the way a stylistic may be improved, how attitude should be based and self-efficacy the students should expect. Definitely, in teaching language skills, especially reading and writing skills, teaching literature can improve the reading habits and reading competence. In addition, writing skills of the students can be improved though effective writing process and the development of vocabulary can be achieved.

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Women's Language in the Communicative Styles of Female Lecturers in Indonesian University Context

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Abstract

Communicative style is an important aspect of teachers' and students' communication in the class. The use of communicative styles in the class by teachers can influence the success of interaction in the class. This communicative style can be influenced by many factors; one of them is gender differences. For that purpose, this article aims to explore the characteristics of women's language applied by teachers in the class. The researchers applied a descriptive qualitative research design. This research was conducted in one state university in Makassar and took two female lecturers as the subject of study. To collect data, the researchers recorded the teaching process of the two female lecturers in the class. The recordings which were taken three times for each lecturer were transcribed and analyzed based on the features of women's language proposed by Lakoff (1973; 1976; 2004). Findings from this study revealed that female teachers applied several characteristics of women's language in their teaching process. Female lecturers applied some hedges, intensifiers, some emphatic stress, question tags, and some super polite forms. This finding reveals that women's language is used by women in every setting of communication, such as in the teaching process. The communicative styles of the female lecturers were influenced by the notions of women's language. Findings from this study are significant in the discussion of language and gender in communication. The results are also

beneficial for practices in the language teaching process, as input for teachers/lecturers in their effort to create effective classroom interaction.

Introduction

Discourse on gender still becomes a debatable issue in today's society. There are a lot of problems in a human's life that can be affected by gender differences. Eckert (1998, p. 64) states that gender differences can be found in "different cultures, places, and groups". In fact, gender differences have become one of the important topics in any part of society. This is in line with what James and Berger (1996, p. 273) view that gender is "the most extensively investigated constructs of the social sciences".

Studies by Keeler (1990), Kuipers (1990), Hassan (2000), Ampofo, Beoku-Betts, Njambi, & Osirim, (2004), Itakuro, & Tsui (2004), Youngs (2004), Brumfiel (2006), Mahmud (2010), Shinnar, Giacomin, & Janssen (2012), Li (2014) had focused on gender differences in society and had shown that gender differences are one of the major topics of discussions in different areas in society such as in political and social sciences. Therefore, it can be stated that gender differences contribute a lot to the dynamics of society.

Studies in the field of education had also shown that gender differences had become the area of investigation. Hadidi and Monsefi (2015), for example, had reported that female teachers were more interactive, supportive and acted more patiently with their students' mistakes. They asked more referential questions, gave more compliments and used fewer directive forms, but, on the other hand, male teachers used more competitive styles in their classes, more display questions, and one could see more evaluation on their part, while they also used fewer acknowledgment forms than female teachers. Dera and Mahdi (2013) also confirmed that female teachers reported less use of ICT in their instruction than male teachers. These studies show that there are different phenomena in terms of teaching and learning in the field of education which may be caused by the dynamics of gender issues in society.

Among those important aspects of education affected by gender issues is the way the teachers communicate in the class. Women perceive themselves as feminine, so they communicate more indirectly, elaboratively, and emotionally (Hippel, Wiryakusuma, Bowden, & Shochet 2011). Moreover, Attaran and Moghaddam (2012) analyzed the

speech content of female teachers and found significant differences among male and female teachers considering various categories of speech content categories such as linguistic dimensions, prepositions, psychological processes, and pronouns. These studies showed that teachers as the main actors in teaching have different speech styles to communicate with students. These different speech styles are affected by many factors such as age differences, gender differences, educational background, and environment.

the speech content of male and female teachers in the

context of Iranian EFL classes

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One of the factors influencing those different types of communicating is related to the notions of gender differences in communication. This notion had been illuminated earlier by the prominent scholar in gender studies, Lakoff with her influential work "*Language in women's Place"* (1973; 1976; 2004). Specifically, Lakoff (1973; 1976; 2004) reveals ten types of speech features commonly used by women such as, lexical hedges or filler, tag question, rising intonation on declarative, 'empty' adjectives, precise color terms, intensifier, hypercorrect grammar, super polite forms, avoidance of strong swear words and emphatic stress. These types are claimed to be used more often by women than men as reflected in their way of communicating and therefore influence the forms of communication of men and women in communication.

Studies on women's language had been conducted in many different contexts. Women were found to have higher empathy than men whereas men are less forgiving (Mellor & Fung, 2012, p. 98). A study on women's language in Japanese society by Nakamura (2014), for example, proved that women's language is a socially salient linguistic concept and a hegemonic cultural notion in Japan. In fact, the Japanese believe that women's language has a long history peculiar to the Japanese language and consider women's language as one of its crucial characteristics (p. 1). Other scholars had investigated the gender across language and show that in many languages, gender can

be represented in the languages people used to communicate (Hellinger & Motschenbacher, 2015). Another study shows the differences between females and males in using the function words, neologisms/blog words as well as the use of tag questions and adverbs initiating sentences (Ali & Krish, 2016, p. 21).

In Indonesia, discourse on gender and education has also attracted the attention of the scholar of gender and women's studies. Damayanti (2014)'s study also showed that the illustrations accompanying linguistic texts fortified the representations of gender asymmetry. Females were depicted more dependent than males and were also construed to be admirers of an action carried out by the males. A study by Emilia, Moecharam, & Syifa (2017) shows that teachers and students can develop gender awareness in the classroom practices through the use of the textbooks since gender differences shaped the construction of the textbooks. These studies show that gender issues also contributed to the educational contexts of Indonesia and therefore, need for more explorations.

Women's language in Indonesian context had also been observed. Kuntjara (2005) had studied about gender representation in the language used by Javanese women. She found that women buyers were assertive and confident in achieving their desired price. The women were more assertive when they were the sole seller than when accompanied by a male seller. The male buyers, in contrast, were less assertive and less confident. The male sellers are assertive and confident. Kuntjara and Ronsumbre (2015) also found that the most dominant speech styles used by young female teacher are female speech style while the most dominant speech style used by the young male teacher is male speech style. In addition, Chandra and Yulia in their study (2018) found some women's language features which appeared in Nicki Minaj's comments such as intensifier, emphatic stress, filler, rising intonation, and lexical hedge. This appearance was influenced by some factors such as father's speech, ethnicity, the community of practice, and different social psychological perceptions.

Referring to these phenomena, the researchers concluded that teachers' ways of communicating in the class need to be further investigated especially in Indonesian EFL classroom. There is still a very limited study in terms of women's language in relation to teachers' communicative styles, especially in universities. Therefore, it was a fundamental requirement of the researchers to investigate the trends of male and female teachers' communicative styles in the EFL classroom interaction. This research is then directed to identify the features of women's language reflected in the communicative

styles of female lecturers in the EFL classroom interaction. Findings from this study contribute significantly to the study on gender differences in classroom interaction. It becomes also beneficial inputs for practitioners of classroom interaction especially teachers and students in order to create effective classroom interaction by considering the gender differences and other factors which influence the classroom interactions.

Related Literature

Women's language

The beginning of the term 'women's language' began in the 1970s with Robin Lakoff's search for specific features of women's speech. Her book *Language and women's place* (1973; 1976; 2004) has been very influential. Lakoff proposed some features of women's language.

The first feature is the use of lexical hedges or commonly named hedging. Hedging functions a lot like a mean to facilitate turn-taking, politeness, mitigate face-threats, but it is also considered a means of conveying vagueness purposely (Rosanti & Jealani, 2016). Thus, they play a crucial role in social interaction strategies. Lakoff decided to hedge as one of the characteristics of women's speech features and she (1973, p. 271) analyses hedges as, "words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness-words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy". He states that words and phrases manifest hedging power (like rather, very, in a manner of speaking) which sets some boundaries in how to interpret linguistic items as hedges. Lakoff (1973, p. 213) adds hedges, "interact with felicity conditions for utterances and with rules of conversation". Thus, setting the coordinates for interpreting hedges is manifestations which are conditioned by pragmatic factors. Meyerhoff (1992) stated the meaning of "hedge" is a word of phrase that makes the utterance seems less certain or less specific. Functions of hedges also elucidated into several situations, hedges become appropriate choice to let the utterances are vague or to express uncertainty and they use intensifying devices to persuade their addressee to take them seriously (Hyland, 2000; Pan, 2011).

The second feature is the use of question tag. The tag question is a syntactic device listed by Lakoff which may express uncertainty. We find that syntactically too women's speech is peculiar. There is no syntactic rule in English that only women may use, but there is at least one rule that a woman will use in more conversational situations than a man. This is the rule of tag question formation (Lakoff, 1973, p. 53). Holmes (2001 cited in White, 2003) describes four different functions of tag questions, three of which do not follow Lakoff's original

proposal of tags expressing tentativeness. They are expressing uncertainty, facilitative, softening, and confrontational.

The third feature of women's language is the use of empty adjectives. Lakoff (1973, p. 53), said that these words aren't, basically "feminine", rather, they signal "uninvolved", or "out of power". Any group in a society to which these labels are applicable may presumably use these words; they are often considered "feminine", "unmasculine", because women are the "uninvolved", "out of power". This kind of adjectives called "empty" adjectives, which means that those only convey an emotional reaction rather than specific information.

Another type of women's language is the use of precise color terms. Lakoff (cited in Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 318), claims that women use color words like mauve, beige, aquamarine, lavender, and magenta but most men do not. Fine discrimination of color is relevant for women, but not for men. Men find such discussion amusing because they consider such a question trivial, irrelevant to the real world.

Lakoff (1973) believe that because women have been denied access to power in society, they use different linguistic strategies to express and secure their social status. Therefore, intensifiers are assumed to be used by women to indicate their different roles which they play in society (Samar & Alibakhshi, 2007; Tagliamonte & Roberts, 2005; Sharp, 2012). The basic intensifier is "very" and can be used with many verbs. Other intensifiers often have quite the same meaning as "very" but have other forms. A few examples of intensifiers are: *very, extremely, really, fantastically*, *remarkably,* etc. (Sardabi & Afghari, 2015).

Lakoff (cited in Holmes, 1992, p. 314), stated that hypercorrect grammar is the consistent use of standard verb forms. Lakoff said that hypercorrect grammar involves avoidance of terms considered vulgar or course, such as 'ain't', and the use of precise pronunciation, such as sounding the final 'g' in words such as 'going' instead of the more casual 'goin'.

Other features of women's language are the use of super polite forms and the avoidance of swearing expressions. Lakoff (1973, pp. 50-51) stated that as children, women are encouraged to be "little ladies". Little ladies do not scream as vociferously as little boys are chastised more severely for throwing tantrums or showing temper: "high spirits" are expected and therefore tolerated in little boys; docility and resignation are the corresponding traits expected of little girls. Women usually use softer forms such us "Oh, Dear!" or 'Darn!', while the men use stronger ones such as 'Dammit!" or 'Shit!". It is implied here that women's

language is polite and therefore need to avoid using impolite expressions such as swearing words.

The last is the use of emphatic stress. Women tend to use words which are used to emphasize the utterance or strengthen the meaning of an utterance. For example, It was a *brilliant* performance. The word *brilliant* is one of the examples of emphatic stress. This word can be used to strengthen the meaning of the utterance.

Communicative styles

Communication style is defined operationally in terms of nine descriptors or subconstructs: attentive, relaxed, friendly, precise, dominant, impression leaving, open, dramatic, animated and argumentative (Emanuel, 2013). Every person will produce more than one communication style while speaking. The only matter is the level, and it might be greater or less degree. Robert Norton developed nine specific communicator styles typically used in the communication process that inform the nature of the relationship between communicators.

The first style of communication is the dominant style. Communication can appear to be dominant when speakers are speaking frequently, strongly, in a dominating and take-charge manner. Communicators using a dominant style are often perceived by others as individuals who possess high levels of self-confidence. Communicators who prefer this style also rely on the use of body language including recurring eye contact and the negotiation of others' personal space to emphasize communicative dominance.

People communicating can also be dramatic. Norton (1983) indicates that a communicator is enacting the dramatic style when he or she, "manipulates exaggerations, fantasies, stories, metaphor, rhythm, voice and other stylistic devices to highlight and understate content" (p. 65). This style of communication requires the communicator to merge both physical and verbal techniques to create a performance of the message. Communication using this style is often accomplished through storytelling, the application of jokes, and the use of hyperboles. The actual meaning of a dramatic communicator's message may be hidden and could require background knowledge of the communicator to uncover it. Communicators may use this style to deal with negative information they cannot convey to someone else at face value. Other reasons for selecting a dramatic style of communication are to reinforce a communicator's status in the group or to alleviate stress among group members.

Argumentative style of communication usually belongs to people who are not afraid to challenge others, especially if they have evidence to support their position. Consequently, they

expect their communication partners to present similar substantiation when making a claim. Contentious communicators are very precise about the words they use and view communication as being straightforward without any area for delineation. Individuals interacting with someone who uses this style may feel the need to defend themselves, which may result in less focus on the message.

Animated communicators, another type of communicative style, typically reveal more about their thoughts and emotions through body language than through verbal communication. When interacting with communication partners, people who use this style rely heavily on facial expressions to convey meaning. Some of these expressions include eye contact to show interest in a communication partner or to reveal emotions, smiling to show pleasure, and nodding to show support or agreement (Coeling & Cukr, 2000) Communicators using an animated communication style also gesture frequently, using their hands in addition to posture and body positioning to indicate thoughts.

People communication can use impression-leaving style. This communication style is somewhat difficult to distinguish from others because it relies heavily on the impression formed of the sender by the receiver. People who use this style deliver messages in a manner that is unique and easy for receivers to differentiate from other communication partners. This quality makes people using an impression-leaving style easy to remember. It is possible that people who use an impression-leaving style could use another style but communicate in such a way that differentiates them from other people who use that style.

Another style of communicating is a relaxed style. Norton (1983) explains that relaxed communicator styles are indicated by calmness, peace, and serenity. Thus, relaxed communicators are people who approach communication in a relaxed style and appear calm when interacting with their communication partners, even in high-stress situations. This demeanor often provides reassurance to their partners because they do not appear anxious and can make others feel comfortable. Relaxed communicators speak in a natural but confident manner and do not seem to be nervous when observed by communication partners.

The next style of communicating is attentive style in which the communicator is a good listener and lets communication partners know they are being heard. As Norton (1983) explains that the "attentive style signals on ongoing willingness to provide feedback that the person's message is being processed in an alert and/or understanding manner" (p.154). Body language such as eye contact and nodding let communication partners know that the attentive communicator is listening. People who use this style of communication are often regarded as

empathetic and are able to internalize their partner's message, which is one reason that communication partners tend to open up to them.

The open communicator style is used to describe an individual who is conversational, expansive, somewhat frank, possibly outspoken, affable, convivial, gregarious, unreserved, unsecretive, extroverted, and approachable (Norton, 1983). Thus people who use an open style of communication are not afraid to express their thoughts and emotions and will generally let others know how they feel. Open communicators reveal personal information rather quickly when interacting with communication partners, with little regard to the potential outcome. Adjectives used to describe this type of communicator are talkative, approachable, and conversational. An open communication style could be considered a positive or a negative attribute and would depend a great deal on the communication partner's perception.

Communicators also used a friendly style of communication which has a positive effect on their communication partners. This effect results in people seeking interaction with them. Friendly communicators use both body language and verbal communication to reinforce the self-image of others by showing them that they attract people who are friendly. This style of communication is also characterized by the recognition of the accomplishments and value of communication partners. The last style is precise style in which according to Norton (1983), precise styles is "….the degree that the teacher can unambiguously move the students to that knowledge (the course material)" (p. 238). Thus, precise teachers/ presenters are in control of the content. They are able to explain the content or confusion regarding the material.

Research Method

This study employs qualitative research which deals with the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive, narrative, and visual data in order to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012). The researchers employ this method to collect and analyze data which are suitable with the purpose of this research in order to get the description about women's language used by the female lecturers in teaching English in the class as well as the reflection of that women's language in the lecturers' communicative styles.

The sources of the data were taken from the recordings of the teaching process in English Literature Program of one state university in Makassar. The researchers selected two female lecturers who had been teaching in the program. The researchers chose two female lecturers since the two lecturers provided interactive discussion in their teaching process. The

two lecturers were recorded three times. The process of teaching which was recorded lasted for one and a half hour. Six long transcriptions were obtained from the recordings. These recordings were then transcribed and analyzed based on women's language features (Lakoff, 1973; 1976; 2004) and communicative styles (Norton, 1983).

The transcribed recordings were then interpreted, elaborated for analysis, and reported. The data analysis applied the technique of Discourse analysis, which is a kind of discipline in linguistic study. Jones (2011, p. 10) refers to discourse analysis as a process of "entextualization, in which activities include transforming actions into texts and texts into action". The teaching process of the lecturers in the class provided the explorations of women's language uses in a particular context, which may bring a significant contribution to the process of analyzing the meaning and context as usually examined in doing discourse analysis.

Findings

This part presents some examples of lecturers' utterances in the process of English language teaching which show the features of women's language. The conversations of the female lecturer 1 (FL1) and the female lecturer 2 (FL2) with the Students (Ss) or one student (S) were discussed in the following extracts:

Lexical Hedges

One of the features of women's language applied by the lecturers in the class is the form of lexical hedges. The following extracts are examples of the use of lexical hedges by the lecturers in teaching English:

Extract 1: **Lexical Hedges "Well"**

FL1:   **Well**, *now, is it possible to combine the present and the past?*

Ss: *No*

FL1:   **Well**, *just try. No, yes. Now,* **well,** *you are between yes and no.* **Now,** *try to combine two sentences. Okay, you just imagine that you see a man and the man in the past give you a present. How can you combine the sentences?* **Well,** *one by one.* **Well,** *the first is I see a man, I see a man. Who is the man?*

Extract 2: **Lexical Hedges "Well" and "Maybe"**

FL1:   **Well**, *this is a writing paragraph, Okay. People name it if they write ideas from their respective heads. Although I may see there are some of*

*the same, such as less listening, cultural currents. Well, **maybe** you read the same source, but anyway, the sentence is different well.*

Extract 3: Lexical Hedges "I think"

FL2:   *Okay, you do not know in say what? what? What is what? **I think. I think about.. I think** about something and what is something that? I think something …*

S: *Something that we want to know, **I mean***

FL2:   *Well, something. When we talk about something, then we refer to what?*

S: *It refers to a thing*

FL2:   *No No. Well**,** when we talk about something.. **Well,** that is, yeah.. Something refers yea something..good..so what is what?*

The extracts above show the use of lexical hedges by the lecturers in teaching English in the class. In extract 1, the lecturer used "well" in her explanation about the use of present and past tense. In the first turn, she uttered "well" to begin her question. Next, she also used it to explain more about the materials. It can be seen in this extract that the use of "well" functions to keep the flow of her explanation in the class. In the second extract, besides the use of "well" at the beginning of her sentence, she also used another hedge which can be seen in the use of "maybe". This hedge also functions to help her in her conversation in order to keep fluent in her explanation. In extract 3, beside the use of "well", she also used "I think", "I mean" which are all the kinds of hedges which are used to keep the flow of her conversation in the class. Therefore, it can be seen in these three extracts that the lecturers applied many kinds of hedges in the class in order to help them explain their subjects in the class.

Intensifiers

Another feature of women's language applied by the lecturers in the class is the use of intensifiers. The extracts below are the examples of the use of those intensifiers by the lecturers in the class:

Extract 4: Using Intensifier

FL1:   ***So** today we will start for the subject Introduction to literature to literature, anyone has read something? about this subject? Maybe read something about literature, what is literature.. no one? **So** all of you knew about.. nothing? Mam*

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> *just wants to ask you... Who has read the literary work here? What has been read?"*

Ss: *poetry*

Extract 5: Using Intensifier

FL1:   *Um..your assignment two weeks ago, I **just** want to remind you one more time well. I do not like copy paste. **So** if there is an assignment that is exactly the same I'll not give value both ways. because there is in this class did it.*

Ss: *(silent)*

FL1:   *Suci, please share it (the assignment)!*

Extract 6: Using Intensifier

FL2:   *No, okay, then, kita lihat emm last definition a by Katamba word refers to a particular physical real section of the lexeme in speech or writing. **So** lexeme, apa itu lexeme? Pernah mendengar kata lexeme? Pernah?*

      *(No, okay that, we see emm last definition a by Katamba word refers to a particular physical real section of the lexeme in speech or writing. **So** lexeme, what is lexeme? Ever heard the word lexeme? Ever?)*

Ss: *Belum*

      (Not yet)

FL2:   *Masa tidak pernah, I have **just** said it*

      (How come you never? I just said @)

Ss: *(laughing)*

The extracts above shows the use of intensifier in the form of "so" and :just". In extract 4, the lecturer used "so" in the beginning of her explanation. In extract 5, beside the word "so", the lecturer used the word "just". These words function as intensifiers which function to reinforce and confirm the meaning of the sentence.

Emphatic Stress

Another feature of women's language appeared in the utterances of the lecturers in teaching English in the class is the use of emphatic stress. The extracts below are the examples of the use of emphatic stress by the lecturers:

Extract 7: Emphatic Stress

FL1: *Jadi hari ini kita mulai untuk mata kuliah introduction to culture.* **Ada yang sudah membaca? mungkin membaca sesuatu tentang apa itu sastra apa itu**, *Awan? semua datang tanpa ada, nggak ada? kalian ndak suka bertanya-tanya dong, bagaimanami?yak siapa yang sudah baca karya sastra disini? Apa Yang sudah dibaca?*

(So, today we will star the introduction to culture class. is anyone reading already maybe something about what is literature, what is awan? all of you came without reading first? So, you all don't like to ask, so why? Okay, anyone has read the literary work? What is it?)

Ss: *Puisi, novel.*

(Poetry. Novel?")

Extract 8: Emphatic Stress

FL2: *itulah yg disebut dengan kata. oke ..you know* **Richard** *? no? sendiri you know ? That is called word. Okay.. you know Richard ? no ? you know?"*

Ss: *no*

FL2: *Okay, let see apa itu lexim. pernah mendengar kata lexim ? pernah*

(let see what is lexem .have you ever hear it ? ever ?}

Ss: *belum*

(not yet)

Extract 9

FL2: *I see a table and the table is an object. And I tell you then, what is an object? and another question word is who.* **What is who?**

S: **Asking someone**

FL2: **Someone. Okay,** *someone. Someone can be the subject and can be the object of the sentences.* **Okay, remember, our subject is structure**. *And another question words is where. Where, Where? Where is about. I think about*

In the above extracts, the lecturers used some expressions as emphatic stress. In extract 1, the lecturer said "**Ada yang sudah membaca? mungkin membaca sesuatu tentang apa itu**

sastra apa itu". This expression was meant to give a stress on the activities they were going to do in the class. The same case can be seen extract 2 when the lecturer said "***You know Richard? no? sendiri you know ?***". This expression was meant to stress on her explanation. The lecturer wanted to give emphatic stress. In extract 3, the lecturer said, "***Okay remember, our subject is structure***" which was meant also to stress her explanation. The word "remember" was meant to remind the students which can show her emphatic feelings.

Question Tags

Another feature of women's language is the use of questions tags. The following extracts show the use of those question tags by the lecturers:

Extract 10: Question Tag

FL1 : *Wattpad. We wattpad kan short story juga ya? bisa juga jadi short story atau novel.*

*(wattpad. **Wattpad is also short story, right?** can also be a short story or novel)*

Ss: *komik*

(comic)

Extract 11: Question tag

FL1: *Verb to verb, from verb to read verb, reread, read, read again that much in the know the student again. Ok, repeat again why don't say reread? **Reread, read again yes because the word re means again doing the same thing, in the repeat again, rewrite write again, is it right?***

Extract 12: Question Tag

FL1: *Barasanji. Apa lagi? Jadi kalo saya yang bicara budaya, seperti itu saya hubungkan dengan karya sastra maka ketika saya baca karya sastra budaya-budaya seperti itulah yang akan mucul dalam karya sastra. Iya toh?*

*(Barasanji. What else? So if I were to speak of culture, as it was connected with the literary work then when I read literary cultures such as that which will appear in the literature. **Isn't it?**)*

Ss: *iya*

(yes)

In extract 10, the lecturer said, "*Wattpad is also a short story, **<u>right"</u>*.** The use of the word "right" at the end of her sentence is a type of question tag which was meant to ask to make sure that her statement was correct or not. In extract 11, the lecturer said to the students, "***Reread, read again yes because the word re means again doing the same thing, in the repeat again, rewrite write again, is it right ?.*** In the end, she said, "is it right?". That was the kind of question tag which was aimed to convince her students that what did she said was wrong or right to be believed. The same case can be seen in extract 12 when the lecturer said "***Isn't it?***" at the end of her explanation. That was also a type of question tag which was meant to ensure to the students that her explanation is something which was true. The question tags used by the lecturers in the extracts above functioned to gain more emphasis that what they said in their explanations were already true or correct.

Super Polite Forms

Another feature of women's language is the use of super polite forms. The following extracts show the use of those super polite forms by the lecturers:

Extract 13: Super polite forms

Ss: *Novel*

FL1:   *Novel English or Indonesia*

Ss: *Indonesia*

       (Indonesian)

FL1:   ***thank you*** *that's fine. Ada lagi (one of the superpolite forms)*

       (thank you that's fine. Any more)

Ss: *short story*

S: *cerita yang di ambil dari cerita Ramayana itu di pulau Jawa dan karya sastra tersebut akan berbeda dengan karya sastra tersebut berbeda dengan karya sastra di Eropa...*

       (the story taken from the Ramayana story on the island of Java and the literary work will be different from the literary works are different from the works of literature in Europe...)

FL1:   *ok?* ***Thank you*** *ada lagi yang mau ngomong*

       (ok? ***Thank you*** *there's more who wants to talk)*

Extract 14: Super Polite forms

*FL2:   Okay. **Please** pose your note put on your paper on your base, write down your name...Okay, then. I think just all, submits the work ... okay stop writing attention **please** .. okay the class stop writing submits the work ..*

Extract 15: Super Polite Forms

FL2: oh oh. Ria angraeni, Ria angraeni mana orangnya?

oh oh. Ria angraeni, Ria angraeni where is she?'

Ria angraeni   : (berjalan dan mengambil tugas)

(walking and taking assignments)'

*FL2: **tabe' dek***

(Sorry dek)

FL2: Nur rahma

In extract 13, the lecturer used the superpolite form in her expression when she said "***thank you***" many times. In extract 14, the lecturer used "***please***" in her instruction. The same case can be seen in extract 15, the lecturer used an apologetic term derived from Bugis-Makassar expression "***tabe***" which meant "excuse me". Those expressions in extracts above are a feature of superpolite forms which are also features of women's language.

Discussion

This study had explored the application of women's language features in the way the female lecturers communicate in the teaching process in the class. There are fifteen extracts of conversations taken as samples of expressions from the female lecturers which were analyzed to find out the features of women's language. This finding shows the existence of "women's language" in the teaching process of the lecturers in the class. Findings from this study also show that in any type of communication where women interact, women's language features also existed. The female lecturers observed in this study (FL1 and FL2) also proved to use several features of women's language in their teaching process. Lakoff (1973; 1976; 2004) and Tannen (1990; 1994) had previously observed the existence of women's language as one characteristics of women in communicating. Findings in this study also show that lecturers in the study applied some features of women's language.

The first feature is the lexical hedges (extract 1-3). The use of lexical hedges, for example, were used when they talk in order to fill the silence within the conversation or even they use it for giving them time to think about what they are going to say next (Lakoff, 1976). Talbot (2010) proposed that hedges or fillers are used to reduce the force of utterance. A study by Mirzapour and Mahand (2012) shows that hedges had a significant function as communicative strategies to increase or reduce the force of statements. Hedges also functioned to signal the speaker's lack of confidence or to assert something tentatively. Another study by Jalilifar, and Alavi-Nia (2012) had also proved that hedges can assist politicians to increase or decrease commitment, blur or sharpen the boundaries between good and evil, and bolster or emasculate solidarity. Lexical hedges are usually used by women as a weakening tool since it expresses uncertainty and is also a way to soften an utterance. As can be seen in this study, hedges helped the lecturers to maintain the flow of the conversation.

The second feature is intensifiers (extract 4-6). The intensifier is an element that is used with other expressions to indicate an attempt to intensify the meaning of the expression they modify. Lakoff (1976) categorized intensifier as part of the hedging where it weakens the feeling of the speaker in the language. In this study, intensifiers were employed by the lecturers to intensify the meaning they wanted to say. This feature relates to gender as women, in seeking to be heard, tend to use intensifiers to boost the language, or to "intensify a proposition's force" (Holmes, 2013). A study by Amir, Abidin, Darus, and Ismail (2012) had also shown that intensifiers were used mostly by women in bloggers showing the characteristics of their women's language. As said by Lakoff (1975, cited in Homes 2001) that women "use intensifying devices to persuade their addressee to take them seriously" (p. 287) because they are lacking status in society.

The third feature is emphatic stress (extract 7-9). Emphatic stress is utilized to emphasize the utterance or strengthen the meaning of an utterance. Women apply stress in their utterance in order to get attention. Lakoff (2004, cited in Chandra and Yulia, 2018) states that women boosting the force of their utterance because they want to be heard or paid attention. In this study, this feature of women's language was employed to get attention to what they stated in the class.

The fourth feature is question tags (extract 10-12). Tag question is a grammatical structure in which a declarative statement or an imperative is turned into a question by adding

an interrogative fragment called the tag. It is used as a midway between an absolute statement and yes no question (Lakoff, 1976). It can be seen in this study that question tags were used by the lecturers to emphasize their ideas in the class.

The last feature appearing in this study is the use of super polite forms (extract 13-15). The lecturers in this study proved to employ some polite terms in their teaching process. This shows that the female lecturers observed in this study were trying to be polite, although they as lecturers may act dominantly in the class. The aspect of intimacy and solidarity seen in the polite expressions show that the lecturers paid attention to the good flow of communication. Biber and Burges (2000) confirm that women's focus in conversation is on 'personal and interactional aspects of conversation', whereas men's focus is more on 'transferring information'. According to Stanton (2001), conversations for women are for the sake of 'developing and preserving intimacy', while for men, 'maintaining power' is more important than other aspects, such as intimacy

This finding also shows that the features of women's language applied by the lecturers helped them in communicating their ideas. This is in line with findings of other studies conducted by Jia (2010) and Rubbyanti (2017). Moreover, regarding the reasons, most respondents claimed that they use those features because they tend to reflect uncertainty and reflect women's lack of confidence in conversation (Febrianti, 2013). According to Lakoff (2004), women's speech style conveys weakness, uncertainty, and unimportance. All of these studies had found that most of the women's language is used to reduce the force of the statement. In their teaching process, the lecturers need some strategies to clearly transfer their ideas in teaching. However, since there should be good relation among the participants in the class, the lecturers should try to minimize the unpleasant condition.

The application of those features of women's language by the lecturers in this study shows that, as women, the female lecturers are likely to be good listeners in the class and tend to pay attention to students' need. The features such as using intensifiers, emphatic stress, super polite forms, and tag questions show that women are likely to apply the attentive communicative style. Someone who has an attentive communication style is a good listener and lets communication partners know they are being heard. As Norton (1983) explains that the "attentive style signals on ongoing willingness to provide feedback that the person's message is being processed in an alert and/or understanding manner" (p.154).

Conclusion

These findings also show that women's language can give positive contributions to the ways lecturers communicate and teach in the class. In the class, lecturers need to become a facilitator who can manage and understand students' need. Students have various backgrounds and therefore, teachers or lecturers need to facilitate them in order that they can reach good achievement as learners. This "women's language" can affect the performance of the English lecturers in teaching English in the class. Overall, these above findings show that discourse on gender in education is important and need to be taken into consideration. Issues on women's language in communication need to be a focus of attention of scholars. This study has found that women's language was employed in the teaching process and therefore function a lot to help the communication.

The results of this study made a significant contribution to the literature of women's language as stated by the above scholars showing men and women differences in communications, such as the tendency of women to be passive, tentative, more intimacy whereas men tend to be active, certain, and more power-oriented. Findings from this study contribute significantly to the study on gender differences in classroom interaction. It becomes also beneficial inputs for practitioners of classroom interaction especially teachers and students in order to create effective classroom interaction by considering the gender differences and others factors which influence the classroom interactions.

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Teaching Practice:
Immersion Program for Teacher Development Profession

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Abstract

This study is a report of the teaching practice results conducted by the secondary school teachers in Samarinda, Indonesia. Six aspects of teaching: knowledge of subject matters, planning, developing the lessons, communicating, managing, and evaluation were evaluated in this study. Drawing on the qualitative approach, this study assigned 10 student-teachers as the participants. Rate on student-teachers performance and response describing problems in the teaching practice was described. Data of this study were analyzed from the data collection, data reduction, data display and verification and conclusion drawing (Miles and Huberman, 1994)

and theme analysis from Spradely (2006). Results show that students-teachers assured that six teaching aspects were crucial in teaching practice in the actual classroom. The results are varied in terms of development of teaching materials, responses of students, and activities in the school. The evidences indicate that teaching practice substantially improved teaching performance of the student-teachers. In addition, self-evaluation using classroom observation basis was meaningful to improve student-teacher's competence, knowledge in teaching, and skills in English.

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Introduction

This paper reports results of observation of teaching practice on Senior High School (SMA) in Samarinda Indonesia in context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching undertaken by undergraduate students majoring in English language education. For the undergraduate students in the university, teaching practice is a 12-week program that students need to take as an end-session requirement. The implementation of the teaching practice, however, raises problems for students about competencies the students have gained from teaching courses in campus and practical concernsat the schools.

In the area of teacher training, teaching practice is beneficial for students-teachers to elevate their teaching competencies and improve teacher's professional development. It is essential to induce teaching profession, equipping student-teachers real world of school. Teaching practice also a place to expose student-teachers to the real world of schools and other responsibilities of teacher outside the classroom though social interactions with staffs of the schools the student-teachers conduct the teaching practice. Glattenhorn (1987) admits that by gaining increased experience in one's teaching role student-teachers systematically gain increased experience in their professional growth through examination of their teaching ability. Regarding problems at school, teaching practice in most cases is not well-prepared by student-teachers having the duties of teaching practice at schools that vary. Internally, student-teachers' competences for teaching in the real world facing learners at schools is in restriction.

Knowledge on curriculum, teaching materials, and instructional design is lack and student-teachers are not confident to apply. Specifically, the problems concern with English competences they accomplish that they have to maintain in the schools when teaching. Also, there are gaps between teaching materials and designs the student-teachers acquire from campus in some cases and what mentors at school produce and use in classroom teaching. Besides, teaching practice is conducted while student-teachers still have other courses at campus and at the same time they have to prepare for teaching and work for other courses. It is hard for student-teachers to do so that the teaching practice is served in underestimated preparation and in trivialities.

Teaching practice for the undergraduate students is aimed at implementing knowledge obtained from the lectures processes into the real situation of teaching that covers knowledge consists of planning teaching materials, real teaching, writing test item, and evaluating overall materials that have been taught. Specifically, the objectives vary in three scopes: (1) to conduct teaching-learning process in the classroom based on Prepared Lesson Plan, (2) to apply knowledge revealed from courses to real classroom, and (3) to identify and solve problems encountered in the classroom. Activities for the teaching practice capture: observation, teaching (planning, applying and evaluating) for at least five times, and participation of weekly discussion with teaching supervisor (Manuals of Teaching Practice, Mulawarman University, 2012).

Teaching practice is usually done over a semester with 11-12 weeks immersing students-teacher at a school. During the 12 week session, student-teachers should have teaching practice in the classroom for six times, once for teaching exam, and the other one final exam. The rest of the weeks, around 4 to 6 weeks, is used to adapt school conduct and administration aiding school-teachers or school activities. In whatever form it is done, teaching practice undergoes to inducting student teachers more fully into the professional work of teachers. Student teachers are expected to command all responsibilities of a teacher that allows them experiences of being a part of a real classroom setting, of getting to know learners, of planning and organizing the classroom tasks, designing instructional materials, demonstrating materials, interactions and evaluating students accomplishment. Hence, student teachers could also cope with unfamiliar situations, controlling and managing learners or establishing a working relationship with the mentor or supervisor (Pak, 2008).

This study is intended to see how teaching practices is conducted to improve EFL student-teachers of English language education program in Mulawarman University Samarinda

and what typical problems are encountered during the teaching practice. Specifically, this study focuses on how competences of teaching are applied in the classroom setting by the student-teachers and how external factors contribute to the perception of the student-teachers regarding the teaching practice process.

Review of Literature
Teaching Practice

Teaching practice is defined as teaching activities in the classroom conducted by a student-teacher at a school. Teaching practice refers to all parts of training course which involve planning, teaching and evaluation of actual lessons (Budiharso, 2016). The activities consist of lesson observation and demonstration teaching. As a set of activities, teaching practice deals with students as the object of teaching, student teacher and mentor who observes the students teacher when s/he is teaching in the classroom.

Teaching practice is an essential component of any teacher education program, granting student teachers experience in the actual teaching and learning environment. During teaching practice, a student teacher is given the opportunity to try art of teaching before actually getting into the real world of teaching profession (Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009:1).Due to the changing classroom environment and learning process, there has been a shift in the concept of teaching practice: teaching practice is associated with an apprenticeship model and the concept of field experience associated with an experiential model (Menter, 1989:460). In essence, teaching practice equips authentic context in which student teachers are exposed to experience, complexities and richness of reality of being a teacher, allowing opportunities to establish whether the right career choice has been made or not (Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009:3).

Teaching practice is an integral component of teacher training (Marais and Meier, 2004:220; Perry, 2004:2). In order to achieve the standards required for qualified teacher status, a student teacher is subject to do teaching practice at schools. Teaching practice can be conducted in a number of forms: student teachers go for once a day each week; others do over a semester; the others work in a two- to six- weeks (Perry, 2004:2).

In our university, teaching practice is classified as parts of course for teaching program for undergraduate students. The courses aim to provide student teachers with practical experience in teaching in school. Specifically, teaching practice course is set to strengthen the ability to increase students' knowledge and skills in education courses and teaching students at schools. Student teachers particularly can produce lesson plans for the needs of teaching

practices (Pak, David & Gitu, 2008a). In addition, Mulawarman University defines teaching practice course into two packages: a 2-credit microteaching and a 4-credit apprenticeship. Microteaching prepares student-teachers at campus with artificial peer-teaching, equipping students with theories of teaching and instructional design. The apprenticeship immerses student-teachers with real experiences teaching at school implementing all theories in the real classroom at school.

During teaching practice, various activities have been designed by some experts, such as: Pak, David & Gitu (2008), Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009), Gan (2012) and Hall (2015), stating that student teachers work with individual pupils, and organize and teach groups and whole classes to facilitate learning in pupils. Pak, David & Gitu (2008a) emphasize that student teachers can also monitor and evaluate the work produced by the pupils, adjusting teaching and future planning in the light of this information. Student teachers will be able to evaluate each lesson taught, reflecting on their own professional development and demonstrating a sound understanding of the role of the teacher.

Pak, David & Gitu (2008b) report design of teaching practice course at Brunei University represent the culmination of the preparation for a student teacher to become a trained teacher. Pak, David & Gitu (2008b) identify that the teaching practice experience consists of an extensive period of school-based activities such as observations, discussions, planning, teaching, assessing, evaluating and reflecting, undertaken in a supervised working atmosphere. The experience is designed to provide opportunities to develop planning, teaching and evaluation skills within a school setting. According to Pak, David & Gitu (2008a), during the practice the student will keep records of daily lesson plans and other activities in which he/she participated. Whenever possible, students will also observe lesson delivery of cooperating and other experienced regular teachers. The exact nature of the content will be determined during the time the student spends in the school, dependent on the opportunities that arise during the placement. Students will be given opportunities to teach their subject specialization(s) individually.

Further Pak, David & Gitu (2008a) point out that teaching practice at school initially provide benefits for students to observe a range of teaching and learning situations, familiarize students with school routine activities, and plan and discuss lessons with mentor teachers. In addition, student-teachers can observe the teaching practice to see teaching and learning situation, familiarize them with school routine and activities, information on teaching tasks, and plan and discuss lessons with mentor teachers. Pak, David & Gitu (2008b) also suggest

that student teachers could observe how teachers work in different classes and different levels, content of the lessons they will teach, develop knowledge on available resources, organize and prepare resources for teaching. This way, Pak, David & Gitu (2008a) argue that student-teachers will ask mentors to guide and coach them to monitor and evaluate students' works and adjust teaching techniques and future planning. Regarding the materials of teaching, student teachers can learn to evaluate lessons, reflect on their professional development, and responsibilities of being a professional teacher, thus student-teachers can reflect how to develop their own teaching competences, style and creativity (Pak, David & Gitu, 2008b).

Teaching is not 'just' a body of knowledge and competencies that can be passed on in a course. Teacher training is not somewhat prescriptive, pointing us towards certain ways of teaching and of thinking about teaching, rather than truly encouraging us to think through for ourselves the full range of possibilities for our classrooms (Hall, 2015). What teacher training seeks to do is to equip teachers with the skills and abilities they need to help, or help them develop, in their work. For beginner teachers, these skills and abilities could perhaps be labelled 'professional competencies', perhaps the ability to analyze and explain language, or key techniques and approaches for managing classrooms. More experienced teachers might develop reflective skills as well as 'higher level' insights into classroom practice (Pak, David & Gitu, 2008a).

Assessment on teaching practice is focused on the preparation for the teaching and practical activities when student-teachers are teaching in the classroom. In this regards, assessment design developed by Pak, David and Gitu (2008b) is adapted. The profile deals with a 4-scale form. As seen in Table 1, the form basically focuses on the six main teaching processes and competencies: knowledge of subject matters, planning, developing the lessons, communicating, managing, and evaluation.

Table 1. Assessment on Performance on Teaching Practice

No	Subject of assessment	1	2	3	4
A	**Knowledge of subject matters or skills**				
	1. Mastery on a subject and skill knowledge				
	2. Use of appropriate examples				
B	**Planning**				
	3. Delineating learning objectives				
	4. Selecting content/materials/media				
	5. Determining procedures				

C	**Developing the lessons**				
	6. Arousing interest				
	7. Stimulating thinking				
	8. Encouraging participation				
	9. Maintaining pace of lesson				
	10. Lesson closure				
D	**Communicating**				
	11. Probing and informing/explaining				
	12. Questioning and responding				
	13. Use of voice				
	14. Command of language				
	15. Using media and resources				
	16. Empathy				
	17. Self-confident				
E	**Managing**				
	18. Establishing rapport				
	19. Managing behaviors				
	20. Managing group/individual work				
	21. Managing time				
F	**Evaluation**				
	22. Using and giving pupil feedback				
	23. Monitoring pupil understanding and modifying teaching				
	24. Encouraging pupil self-evaluation				
	25. Using and marking written work				

1-Needs serious attention; 2-Satisfactory; 3 -Good; 4-Outstanding

Teacher Competency

Teacher competences in area of ELT had been discussed by Girard (1974) and William (1974, and more recently, Gan (2012) report studies of Murdoch (1994) and Richards (2010). The first statement of Williams (1973) that is native-speaker centered is discussed here. Teaching practice is a starting point for teachers to practice English in the classroom context. It is almost impossible for one who is not English to achieve an acceptable of proficiency in the English language except a set of knowledge which function as the individual training in English has been accomplished by the teacher (Williams, 1973:108).

The competence of English teacher according to Williams (1973:108-110) are (1) a very good knowledge of grammar, (2) phonetics and pronunciations, (3) vocabulary and usage. The sets of the knowledge require good command of English teachers since they reflect the

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basic knowledge of English. Grammar is a recognition of the pattern and unity underlying verbal experience, a description in words of verbal behavior. We must know our grammar and be able to break down a point of grammar into its smallest and most basic elements and teach each element one by one. Teachers should realize that it is very important to reflect on grammar.

In addition, Girard (1970:100-102) outlines three competences that emerge from the pupil's conception of good language-teacher; first, teacher must offer a good model in the use of the foreign language, especially the spoken language; second, a teacher must be a good technician of a language teaching. It provides situation to make his pupils understand, correct their pronunciation and develop, and stimulate activity in the foreign language; third, an English teacher must also be a good psychologist. The teacher must be well aware of all his pupils, individual problems, capable of coping with them and of creating at all stages an atmosphere of mutual confidence and sympathy in teacher-class relationship.

Further, Girard (1970) mentions that the first two competences are developed by a serious teacher-training course which aims at providing the trainee with a good mastery of the language he is going to teach and with the classroom techniques he will need in order to teach that language in any useful way. We can assume that pupils are motivated if they have the feeling of learning good authentic language, especially the spoken language, and if the teacher proves capable of giving them a good model, which he can make his pupils reproduce. The third quality depends very much on the personality of the teacher, which is the most difficult things to change.

The stages of development of the language must be carried in his head, so that it becomes a well-integrated growth in the pupils' mind. As the point note of grammar, William (1973) states:

I do not advocate the teaching of grammar as such to pupils. I have only tried to point out how important the knowledge of grammar is for the teacher of English

A language teacher, willy-nilly, is a phonetician. Since questions of pronunciation cannot be avoided, the simpler we can make them better, we may have a good phonetics. The teacher needs knowledge of phonetics to help him mark out the ground and foresee where the main problems of his students will arise.

At this point William (1973) asserts a teacher must know the phonetic alphabet, but whether he should teach it to his students is a matter of arguments. To be well-prepared on phonetics, William suggests the teacher to (1) have a sound knowledge of stress, intonation and the phonetic alphabet, (2) know how the individual sounds are made, (3) master those tricks of the phonetic trade which provide short cuts in correcting mistakes, (4) be acquainted with the pronunciation problems of his students, and (5) know where to look for detailed information on the previous four point.The non-English teacher should be trained in such a way that typically English idioms become second nature to him. New vocabulary must be learned in context if the necessary proficiency is to be acquired. The trainee will have to buildup his vocabulary with careful guidance from his teacher. In teaching vocabulary, a teacher should not attempt to do too much at a time.

In the recent era, a shift seems to occur as a result of the world Englishes and Lingua Franca Academia as reported by Gan (2012:55) regarding a general consensus that language proficiency is the foundation of non-native ESL teacher trainees' ability to fulfill their future professional role (Murdoch, 1994) and language proficiency in many teacher-preparation program. Language proficiency not only makes contribution to teaching skills, it also leads to enhanced confidence in teachers' teaching ability and an adequate sense of professional legitimacy (Richards, 2010 in Gan, 2012:55).

Summarizing researches of Littlewod (2007); Li (1996) and Carless (2006), and Gan (2012) maintains that some secondary school English teachers in Asia often lack confidence in conducting communication activities in English because the teachers themselves feel that their own proficiency is not sufficient to engage in communication or deal with students' unforeseen needs. Cullen (1994) then rightly point out that the problematic command of spoken English among the teaching force is not just a concern for teachers or pre-service teachers but should also be a concern for those involved in planning pre-service teacher training programs.

Murdoch (1994) asserts that language proficiency will always represent the bedrock of ESL teacher's professional confidence. In addition, Richards (2010) rates ten specific language competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively:

1. competence to provide good language models

2. competence to maintain use of the target language in classroom

3. competence to maintain fluent use of the target language

4. competence to give explanation and instruction in the target language

5. competence to give examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanation (e.g. vocabulary)

6. competence to use appropriate classroom language

7. competence to select target-language resources, e.g. newspaper, internet websites)

8. competence to monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy

9. competence to give correct feedback on learner language

10. competence to provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty

Methods

A qualitative research approach was used in the study. The subjects of this study were 10 students-teachers, conducting teaching practice in two SMAs in Samarinda, 4 mentors and one lecturer from English Department Mulawarman University Samarinda. The informants were all undergraduate students majoring in English language education conducting teaching practice at school. Teaching practice was conducted for one semester or 16 weeks duration and10 weeks of which were used for the observation in the classroom, preparing lesson plans, real teaching, and assessment. Lecturers visited students during their teaching practice period and the school teachers performed as mentor teacher. In each session students-teachers teaching, mentor and lecturer observed the student-teacher performance. If mentor and lecturer considered students teacher achieved criteria of competency, they let the student-teacher taught without being supervised.

Data were collected mainly through observation and semi-structured interviews with all 10 student teachers, 4 mentors and one lecturer at the end of a 10-week teaching practice period. Observation was used to see students performance during teaching. Interview explored students problems, challenges and hopes about teaching practice at school and comments on the perspectives of mentors and lecturer. The informants were briefed on the focus of the inquiry. The interviewer directed and encouraged dialogue by asking reflective and probing questions. At the end of interview, students-teacher, mentors and lecturer were asked to write their most problem and challenges they experienced during teaching practice. Data obtained from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed thematically. The themes were derived from the key research questions. Literature assisted in identifying the final categories, students-teacher experiences and how these experiences influence their perception of the teaching profession. Both positive and negative experiences of student teachers during teaching practice

were administered and suggestions bearing with ways of assisting student teachers to achieve the desired outcomes from teaching practice were proposed.

Results

Teaching Performance

Student-teachers' performance assessed using rate percentage is focused on six indicators of teaching: knowledge of subject matters, planning, developing the lessons, communicating, managing, and evaluation. Table 2 summarizes the student-teachers' response on the level of difficulty of the teaching aspects.

Table 2. Level of Difficulty on teaching aspects

No	Aspect of teaching	Response	
		F	%
1	Evaluation	8	80
2	Developing the lessons	6	60
3	Managing	5	50
4	Communicating	4	40
5	Planning	3	30
6	Knowledge of subject matters and skills	1	10

Data in Table 2 shows that evaluation is the most difficult problem as 80% of 10 student-teachers affirmed. Respectively, developing the lessons during teaching process is the second problems (60%). Student-teachers admit that evaluation is often ignored as it comes in the last session of teaching. In addition, developing lesson into paces and order of topics is difficult to apply. It pertains to rigid procedure that is difficult to memorize.

The third problems during teaching is managing the classroom (50%) and communicating to learners (40%). Managing classroom rule needs experience to perform in front of audience, however, improvisation is possibly to act based on context. Strategies to compensate in the management of the classroom can be integrated with communicating techniques. The most difficult activities to maintain are during this session student-teachers should speak English in a full session until the end of the classroom session. To speak in English language during the whole session in a classroom needs exercises and endurance to maintain the stamina.

However, planning and the mastery of subject matters are not so annoying student-teachers; the range of difficulty is 30% for planning and 20% for the mastery of knowledge. Planning teaching is not quite difficult to do because preparation has been made as the student-teachers select the topics for teaching and sets the organization of the teaching procedures. Accordingly, the mastery of subject matters has been incurred during preparation. Understanding the knowledge and skills starts from the reading the literature when preparation of teaching materials were developed and culminates in the performance of teaching in the classroom.

Overall, components of each aspect that arouse problem for the student-teachers are listed as follows:

1. Use of appropriate examples
2. Determining procedures
3. Encouraging participation
4. Maintaining pace of lesson
5. Lesson closure
6. Questioning and responding
7. Using media and resources
8. Empathy
9. Self-confident
10. Managing group/individual work
11. Using and giving pupil feedback
12. Monitoring pupil understanding and modifying teaching
13. Using and marking written work
14. Encouraging pupil self-evaluation

Results of Observation

Observations conducted for this study were of two kinds: pre-observation to see the mentor's performance, and observation to see the student-teacher's performance. Pre-observation was done twice. The results of the class observation were as follows. In the pre-observation, the researcher identified the teaching style employed by the mentor. Teaching activities conducted by the mentor was basically lecturing. Mentor explained the topic in front of the class and students' participation were accessed through questions and responses. At the early stage, mentor gave review on related or previous topic, then he discussed the intended

topic through questions and responses. Presentations of topics were given in terms of examples and comments. At every pause of discussion, mentor asked students such as: "Does it make sense? or Do you understand?"

For the needs of Teaching Practice, mentor suggested the student-teacher write summary of every topic. The copy of the summary was distributed to the students. Techniques used to explain in the classroom were free to choose, using OHP media or conventionally using blackboard as a media. In this case, student-teacher distributed the summary copy of every topic and to use OHP as a media of teaching. At the end of teaching time of every topic, oral and written exercises were given.

Student-teacher improved his performance on teaching for two main information. *First*, mentor gave comments on the performances of student-teacher who for eight times of teaching he always observed in the class for the whole time of teaching. *Second*, student-teacher should have discussion with teaching practice supervisor and classmates which were conducted regularly every week. Mentor's comments were discussed in the regular meeting and supervisor together with classmates suggested some useful and fruitful ideas and applicable techniques.

In addition to perspectives from mentors and lecturer, three main perspectives are reported.

First, student-teachers performance in general was good. They all always arrived at the class on time. The student-teachers had achieved standard technique of teaching, materials of teaching, media, mastery of the course, classroom management and test writing. They are all personality acceptable to all students at school. Understanding on teaching course at the university and curriculum at school they should perform has been adjusted at appropriate level for the school objectives. This way, contributions from mentors has been internalized successfully by student-teachers.

Second, the weaknesses of student-teachers appeared in terms their performance in the classroom especially when spoke English as medium of instruction. Specifically, they were not confident on pronouncing some English words inaccurately if they pertained to subject-specific topic. Sometimes they used indirectly technique to answer question where students felt that the technique as such was complicated and sometimes difficult to understand. It is the problems of oral English competency to perform in front of audience and problems on subject-specific oral performance. Subject-specific relates to vocabulary selection, grammar and idiom that is used to explain topics in various genres, e.g. soccer, medical, culture, literary work, economy, etc. through reading or oral communication.

Third, some students being taught did not know the essence of teaching practice and the attendance of the student-teacher in their class. They expected to be informed what topic should have been read before the student-teacher was teaching. These factors appeared for two reasons: students were not informed by the institution about what teaching practice was; and student-teacher's performance on the class was dependent on mentor supervision. It was difficult for student-teacher to give information about the topic if mentor did not inform before.

Results of Interview
Practice Transformation

Practice transformation described three evidences: conforming theories and practice, the importance of teaching practice, learners welcome, and development of teaching materials in pursuance to syllabus.

With regard to internalizing theory into practice, of 10 informants, 60 (60%) admit there is a discrepancy between theories they learned in campus and reality of instruction. However, 4 (40%) stated they could adapt the problems and immediately matched with the needs for teaching practice. Among the 60% students -teacher stated that they could not reconcile the teaching methods as explained during their lectures with those used in schools by teachers. However, most informants indicated that they were prepared and able to translate theory into practice during the teaching practice. Of 10 student-teachers, 8 (80%) said that they found teaching practice is very interesting because they were able to apply what they had studied. They acknowledged the importance of positive reinforcement and of creating a favorable environment for learning.

Excerpt (1) and (2) indicates testimonies from regarding the important position of teaching practice for student-teachers:

(1) *To me, teacher practice is for improving my teaching competency. I find there has been a challenge, pleasure and a great fulfillment. I have learnt a lot.* [S-1A]

(2) *Teaching practice is as essential as in any other subject. It leads to teacher learning. I feel teaching practice improves teacher's professional. I enjoy to involve.* [S-2B]

Positive opinions appeared for student-teachers on perceiving teaching practice with qualification of teacher in his performance. See excerpt (3).

(3) *It is very arrogant to say that you can just walk into a classroom and teach English, just*
   because you speak English very well. You can't learn to teach a language by trial and
   error. You cannot practice the guinea pigs in the classroom. [S-5A]

However, despite a thorough teacher preparation, 80% student-teachers affirmed that it occurred at the first time teaching learners underestimated and performed unfriendly welcome on the presence of student-teachers. Of course, it was not easy to teach because the learners were not co-operative, they did not do assignments, were noisy and were not actively involved in classroom activities. In addition, there was a language barrier as most students-teacher get difficulty using English for classroom interaction. This affected the student teachers' performance during teaching practice and their perception of the teaching profession in general.

In regard to development of teaching materials and teaching methodology, 100% student-teachers should model of performance of mentors. Of 10 student-teachers 20% received no guidance to adapt the model and 80% were welcome. In addition, teaching materials the student-teachers should develop depends largely on Lesson Plans model exemplified by the mentors. Of 10 student-teachers, 80% received satisfied supervision and assistance from mentors. This way, teaching practice is perceived to be prescriptive by student-teachers who were treated unfairly. Excerpts (3) and (4) witnessed the occurrence. Of 10 student-teachers, 2 (20%) admit that teaching practice is prescriptive and difficult to apply. See excerpt (4) as the witnesses.

(4) *For me, teaching practice is prescribed and ineffective. We are prescribed to*
   administrative work and tight schedule to come on time at school. Some times mentors
   are strict to instruct. When I asked to consult teaching materials development and
   teaching method, my mentor did not answer friendly. "It is your job to delve. So, work
   on your own efforts" she said. [S-4B]

External Factors

Results of interview pertaining to external factors described time to teaching practice, relationship between mentor and student-teachers, and involvement in school activities. In terms of timing to conduct the teaching practice at school, all (100%) informants testified that teaching practice started just in time that students-teachers are not comfortable. Problems appear as students-teachers do not have preparation since they still have to continue attending

lectures in the university. It is inconvenient because they had to prepare for their lessons at school, complete assessment of learners' work, at the same time they were required to do their own assignments for their lectures. It is not so good, but challenge having to do both at the same time.

In addition to relationship between mentor and student-teacher, the evidence shows that overall impression of mentors against student teachers was fairly positive. All informants (100%) indicated that the mentors were supportive and always willing to help. They said that mentors gave student teachers valuable advice and shared their skills and experiences. The informants appreciated the positive attitudes displayed by their mentors which made them feel part of the school. However, some of them found their mentors were not cooperative and declined their motivation to practice. Such unprofessional conduct could have affected their preparedness and willingness to teaching.

However, negative impression occurred also impressing a mentor whose conduct is typical. See excerpt (5).

(5) *I experience that mentors often asked me to do the work that is his own job, not relate to teaching practice. It happened also that I have to replace his teaching in a number of parallel classes and the mentor was away from school.* [S-2A]

Regarding involvement in school activities, one of two schools did not introduce student-teachers to teaching staffs at the first time they came arrived at school. Informants felt a sense of alienation. One student teacher remarked as in script (6).

(6) *Formerly, we were not introduced to staff. Psychologically, we were depressed because we felt like strangers.* [S-5A]

Such feelings of alienation resulted in a lack of self-confidence, which in turn reduced the effectiveness of teaching practice and negatively affected student teachers' attitude towards the teaching profession. However, a good reception from the headmaster and teacher provided a positive attitude towards teaching, as confirmed by one of the student teachers who received a good reception from school B. Let see excerpt (7) as the testimony.

(7) *We were introduced to the staff. They took us to the classes and we introduced ourselves to the learners. Learners were told to respect us. We were introduced as teachers not as student teachers. To a certain extent it influenced the way other teachers and learners related to us. We are more confident.* [S-5B]

Informants clarified that other staff members who were not mentors did not make them feel welcome and they performed low respect. For some reasons, administrative staffs are not fair to the students-teacher. Attitude that indicates an unfriendly conduct and intolerance cooperation appeared. Of course, it affects involvement on school's activities.

Teaching involves many experiences, and student teachers are required to get involved in all aspects of the school. In this study not every student-teacher is involved in the school activities. The student teachers were limited in their participation in the school activities.

Discussion

The findings of this study typically represent characteristics of teaching practices by EFL Indonesian learners. Internal factors representing competences in teaching were revealed and other four eternal factors were presented in this study.

First of all, implementation of theories to real world at school has been perceived formally by student-teachers as obligatory and positive responses appeared to internalized the problems. Teaching practice is requisite to achieve standard competency as English language teacher. Competences of English teacher should involve competences in English language and teaching perspectives. Proficiency is an extremely important aspect of teacher expertise, and is perhaps the biggest obstacle to the implementation in the teaching process (Mohd-Asraf, Hossain & Eng, 2019). This finding confirms statement from William (1973), Girard (1974), Murdoch (1996) and Richards (2010). Language proficiency is the standard competence student teachers should accomplish to assure that they can use English as a medium of instruction during teaching. Language proficiency also supports student-teachers to develop teaching materials.

This study confirms a research by Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009) stating what student-teachers do during teaching practice are about to implement theories in the actual use in the classroom. Evidently, problems pertaining to attitude, implementation of teaching strategies, curriculum design, teaching materials development are present. Through teaching practice, student-teachers are equipped to planning instructional design, teaching in the classroom, and

evaluation. Evidently, teaching practice is the way teacher's profession development is induced.

Teaching practice as the immersion program for students teachers is a good media. As an immersion program of teaching, it is evident that student-teacher must design his material into well-prepared order. *First*, he must write down the complicated and long materials into a summary of maximum in two pages. This demands ability of high command on good writing. *Second*, student-teacher, if he uses OHP to present his topics in the classroom, he must paraphrase the topic into the transparency. *Third*, student-teacher inevitably speaks English to explain when presenting teaching materials. It involves mastery of the materials and pronunciation. *Finally*, under the supervision of a mentor and supervisor who are doctorate levels is another reason of being constrained. This requires student-teacher prepare well-performance. Therefore, to make up the teacher's performance better, he must increase his knowledge on grammar, vocabulary and usage and phonetics.

Furthermore, Girard (1970) admits that three qualities of English teacher include to perform acceptable teaching technique, design good teaching materials, and provide good item tests. However, students' responses indicate that student-teacher's pronunciation should be improved. Other comment is the way of explaining, eliciting examples and answering students' questions. To do this job, student-teacher needs to know strategy of communicative teaching where a teacher does not directly answer such a question. However, simple concept, direct reasoning and clear organization of ideas are of essential. It is evident that teacher as a model and a mechanic seem to be applicable.

For the sake of using mentor as a model of teaching, it is sometimes difficult for not all teaching programs and materials are openly discussed by the mentor to the student-teacher. Such the condition makes the student-teacher is under high pressure. The implication of this condition is that the class atmosphere is influenced. Students claim that student-teacher does not master the materials well, and as a result, they are not highly motivated to join the class. As a matter of facts, mentor is not always ready to inform all programs due to the simple reason he does not believe enough to student-teacher to teach (Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009).

It is this study content courses and skill courses presented for teaching practice need different attitude to prepare. Student-teachers need basic and enough knowledge to choose the course before he is ready to have real teaching. Therefore, the role of classroom observation is crucial (Kiggundu and Nayimuli, 2009). This study shows that having twice observation, the student-teacher is well facilitated. In other side, the role of the presence of the mentor in the

classroom may raise advantages and disadvantages. The advantage is students can remain serious to follow the class so that the class interaction is running smoothly. The disadvantage is the student-teacher remains to feel under the constraint and is not self-confidence (Pak, David & Gitu, 2008a).

Student-teacher needs a well preparation in terms of: mastery of teaching materials and good performance in oral English. Mastery of teaching materials begins from selecting basic materials, summarizing into systematic organization, writing in transparency or power points, designing classroom interaction, and writing items for the test. Performance on oral English is required to support self-confidence when class presentation has been his individual responsibility (Gan, 2012; Pak, David & Gitu, 2008b).

Other required skill essential to support the teaching practice is developing assessment instruments of classroom tests. The instruments may be in forms of: questionnaire, interview, tests, and observation. After the skills are possessed, the mastery of analyzing the instruments is required. Both skills can support the student-teacher more self-confidence (Lear,2019; Budiharso, 2016). Involvement in the school activities is important for student-teachers to know about administration system at schools and involvement on the administration activities will improve their performance and self-confidence in teaching.

Above all, teaching practice is really a good media as an immersion program for English teacher. Teaching practice is just the beginning acquisition of teaching competences. Student teachers will need years to become experts. Such expert teachers would have acquired a huge repertoire of experiences and skills over many years. Expert teachers know the content that they teach very well (having taught them repeatedly), can easily handle diversity in learners, and can capitalize on "teachable moments". Professional grows this the acquisition of knowledge and competences about teaching and pupils that they teach, and how pupils learn. This requires a life time of commitment and dedication. One cannot expect a student teacher or novice teacher to be able to demonstrate such expertise. Such considerations will bring more consistency to the assessment of teaching practice in the final semester (Pak, David & Gitu, 2008b).

Ten specific language competencies that a language teacher needs in order to teach effectively as stated by Richards (2010) are well prepared in teaching practice. Mostly, language competences is closely related to a teacher's ability to speak the target language fluently and confidently in classroom (Gan, 2012:54). Particularly, student-teachers can use of good language models, fluent use of the target language, explanation and instruction

in the target language, and give examples of words and grammatical structures, give accurate explanation (e.g. vocabulary), and give correct feedback on learner language (Gan, 2012; Pak, David & Gitu, 2008a).

Conclusion

The objective of this study is to see if teaching practice as an immersion program contributes professional development. In summary, this study reveals that teaching practice does improve teaching qualification for student-teacher. In a global perspective, teaching practice is required for the pre-service training to equip student-teachers with professional expertise. In general, as an integral part of teaching profession development and training, teaching practice serves teacher-students proficiency in English language and teaching strategies. Six teaching aspects that student-teachers concerns during the teaching practice include: knowledge of subject matters, planning, developing the lessons, communicating, managing, and evaluation. Teaching practice immensely serves teaching qualification, improving English proficiency particularly for the use in the classroom for use of oral interaction during teaching learning process. Self-confident improves as student-teachers are competent to use English for the models, explanation and instruction in the target language, give examples of words and grammatical structures, give accurate explanation (e.g. vocabulary), and give correct feedback on learner language. English proficiency also contributes for the preparation of teaching materials and developing innovative materials. Knowledge of school administration and networking between student-teachers with other teachers, staffs and student elevates confident and performance, assuring that teaching practice is deemed significance to improve teaching competences. Teaching practice for undergraduate students is significant as for the pre-service training program to induce teaching competences.

Pedagogical Implication

Teaching practice as an immersion program is beneficial to improve teaching experience, English proficiency and skills of developing instructional design. Student-teachers should tailor the experience of teaching, development of instructional design and improving English proficiency to enhance their skills in teaching. Mentors can develop teaching supervision more specific and head of English language programs can administer the teaching practice records for the improvement of curriculum, teaching programs and implementation of teaching practice and the needs at schools.

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