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The Study of Needs Analysis of Tourism Topics and English Linguistic Features through Local-based Needs at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia

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Abstract

This study mainly attempted to find out the relevant tourism topics and English linguistic features through a local-based need at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province, Indonesia. The Golden Triangle Tourism Destination covers the three main tourism sites, namely Lake Toba and Samosir Island with its surroundings, Brastagi (Karo Highland), and Bukit Lawang (Orangutan conservation area and ecotourism). Theoretically and empirically, the local-based

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need promotes and empowers the tourism resources locally to meet the needs of tourism industry. In addition, it is also relevant to the statement “think globally and act locally”. The present study was carried out through the explorative and discovery research method. The respondents of this research were the tourism employees involved in tourism industry such as the state and private sectors, the formal and non-formal sectors, and the low and high level managements. The data were collected by a questionnaire, documentary sheet, and in-depth interviews. The data were analyzed by the descriptive analysis. The results of the study showed that 1) there were a number of various tourism topics with distinctive local conditions that were required by tourists and 2) the English linguistic features used, both spoken and written, by the tourism employees were unique and typical ones.

Keywords: Local need, Tourism topics, Linguistic features, Tourism English

Introduction

The rapid development of the globalization and information spreading out across the globe is the real fact in the era of information and communication technology. This condition leads to the massive movement of people from one country to another due to many reasons such as diplomatic affairs, business activities, academic goals, social missions, family visits, pleasure, etc. Such a busy situation consequently creates intensive and extensive use of communication and the chances of communication have been enhanced all over the world. This reality also has promoted the international tourism exchanges. As a result, tourism English, as an important medium of international tourism communication, is widely used in tourism industry. In this regard, English language plays a very crucial role as the predominant tool for communication in the global community, particularly in tourism industry.

Due to the massive mobility of people visiting different countries, tourism industry becomes an important sector to generate national revenues for many countries because it is generally known that tourism industry can make a substantial contribution to the economic sector. For example, it has contributed to the rapid growth in the regions including Southeast Asia such as Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, etc. In line with this statement, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) reports that regional tourism increased by the following percentages

during 1997-2007: North East Asia 52%, Southeast Asia 103%, South Asia 119%, and Oceania 44% (The Mountain Institute, 2000).

In Southeast Asia, Indonesia as one of the emerging tourism countries has set up tourism industry as one of the priorities for its national development sector. To respond to the recent rapid growth of tourism industry, the government of Indonesia actually has endeavoured hard and smartly to promote the Indonesian tourism industry to the global society by declaring the '*Indonesian Visit*' since 1991. The Indonesian tourism industry seemingly has not achieved its high momentum, albeit being one of the promising tourism destinations in the world. It is a fact that by the end of 2004, the foreign tourists visiting Indonesia only reached 5.4 million of 6.8 million targeted (Damayanti, 2004; Gelgel, 2006).

However, the Indonesian government continuously endeavours to develop, improve, and promote the Indonesian tourism industry. By the year 2008, the Indonesian government declared a similar program known as '*PesonaIndonesia 2008*' (*Wonderful Indonesia*' 2008) at the commemoration of the 100th year of Indonesian awakening. By years, this program seemingly has not yet optimally attracted tourists to visit Indonesia. The number of the tourists visiting Indonesia in the last five years is not satisfying. As a matter of fact, it is generally known that Indonesia is one of the world famous tourism destinations. Bali Island, for example, with its natural and cultural tourism, becomes one of the most famous places to visit. Bali is actually categorized successfully to attract the tourists from all over the world each year. However, the other places such as Jakarta, Yogyakarta, Batam, Toraja, Lombok and North Sumatra are still left behind. So, the Indonesian Visit is not nationally successful yet.

In order to promote Indonesia as one of the rising countries to visit, the government of Indonesia has declared that North Sumatra becomes one of the main gates for tourists in the western part of Indonesia. It seems that it is realistic because it is widely known that North Sumatra has a number of tourism objects either natural, cultural or historical ones. Those spread across North Sumatra (for example, Lake Toba and Samosir Island and its surroundings) have diverse and rich tourism objects and topics. Karo Highland in the western part of North Sumatra Province has Brastagi and Sinabung volcano geo-park, with its unique culture and tradition. Bukit Lawang in Langkat Regency has its typical tourism selling points such as Orang-utan conservation, ecotourism, and Bahorok River with its gigantic tropical forest.

However, the number of the tourists visiting North Sumatra tended to decline in the last few years due to many factors such as the global economic crisis, the fading tourism industry, the lack of promotion of tourism industry, the lack of tourism objects and topics and attractions to visit and see, and the lack of competence of the tourism employees in serving the tourists (Wahyudi, 2002; Damayanti, 2005). The competences fall into two domains including a) the lack of knowledge of tourism topics which can be seen, explored and visited by tourists and b) the lack of communication (hereafter English language) competence of the tourism employees. In their research, Husein and Dirgeyasa (2003) reported that English competence of tourism employees in Bukit Lawang is really low and needs improving.

Problem Statement

The local-based analysis in tourism industry has an important and significant contribution to make to the quantities and qualities of natural and human resources. Wea (2003) adds that acting locally also means to empower all resources either human or natural that the region and its people have in order to satisfy the global needs, particularly in terms of tourism industry.

The researchers (e.g., Naisbitt, 1994, as cited in Nangsari, 2000; Gelgel, 2006) argue that in the globalization era, the people or group of people, or even the government should implement the concept of “think globally and act locally”. This concept can be operationally carried out in the form of the local-based analysis. The essence of the local-based analysis is to promote and empower the tourism resources to meet the needs of tourism industry. The local-based analysis is relevant and assumed to be able to meet the needs of the tourists who visit a certain tourism destination including North Sumatra, Indonesia. The local-based analysis is a process of realization and empowerment of all resources that belong to the region so that they have the comparative advantage (Dwitagama, 2007).

However, the tourism local resources, local genius, or local wisdoms in North Sumatra are not known across the world and have not been exposed and empowered optimally in order to meet the tourists’ needs yet. In addition, the human resources serving the tourists in tourism industry also lack English communication competence.

Research Objectives

In line with the background of the study, the objectives of this research were formulated as follows: 1) to find out the relevant tourism topics at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia and 2) to find out the English linguistic features at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia.

Research Questions

The research questions that the present study sought to answer were formulated as follows:

- 1) What are the relevant tourism topics needed by tourists at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia?
- 2) What are the English linguistic features needed by tourism employees at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia?

Review of Literature

Local-based Need

Lately the term '*local based-need*' is really well-known and popular to discuss. Its identical terms are '*local-based resource*', '*local-genius*' or '*local-wisdom*', etc. However, this paper tended to use the term '*local-based need*'. Simply, the local-based need is defined as all resources showing the typical characteristics of a certain region in terms of economy, culture, natural features and its people, which are different from the other regions.

The local-based need is a matter of local competitiveness with regard to natural resources, human resources, culture and tradition, and services which are typically unique and different (Nangsari, 2000; Dwitagama, 2007). Dwitagama, (2007) further states that the local-based need can be simply defined as a process of realization and empowerment of all resources belonging to the region so that they have the comparative advantage. In the Indonesian context, cultural resources (hereafter culture-based tourism) become highly attractive to the foreign tourism in which it can earn 42.33 point with outstanding category. It earns much higher than the other-based tourism such as the natural resources (39.42 point) and the historical heritage (30.86 point).

Regarding the empowerment of the local-based resources, Sudrajat (2008) states that the quality and realization of the local-based need are influenced by the availability of the other resources which are widely known as 7 (seven) M's. The 7 (seven) M's stand for *Man, Money, Machine, Material, Method, Marketing and Management*. If the resources are adequate and available, the process of realization of the local-based resources will produce good and quality products. If they are not adequately available, the empowerment of the local-based need may run ineffectively.

Actually the local-based need is also relevant to the statement "think globally and act locally". The statement implies that in the era of globalization, the important point is to think and view globally but to empower and to use the local resources in order to meet the global needs of tourism industry (Nangsari, 2000; Wea, 2003). In short, acting locally also means to empower all resources, either human or natural, which the region and its people have to satisfy the global needs, particularly in terms of tourism industry.

Needs Analysis

Like the term '*local-based need*,' the term '*needs analysis*' also has its varieties by name. '*Needs analysis*' also means '*needs assessment*', '*needs evaluation*', or '*assessing needs*' (hereafter needs analysis) (Stevens, 1988, as cited in Gatehouse, 2001; Graves, 2000; Brown, 2004). Actually, needs analysis can be defined as kinds of activities that involve gathering and collecting information and relevant data that are used as the basis for developing teaching materials congruent with particular learners or groups' needs (Graves, 2000; Brown, 2004). Seals and Glasgow (1988, as cited in Sanjaya, 2008) state that, as a matter of fact, needs analysis is a matter of gap and discrepancies between what is and what should be. In other words, it is a gap between reality and hope.

It is really believed that needs analysis has been one of the key factors and an integral part of English for Specific Purpose (ESP) practitioners, i.e. researchers, course designers, material developers, testers, evaluators, and classroom teachers for many years (Wannapok, 2004). It is the process of establishing what and how a course should run. Widdowson (1983) adds that needs analysis is a type of need that is goal-oriented and can be defined as what the learner actually has to do to acquire the language.

Piyanapa (2004) in a slightly different context states that needs analysis is a means to identify what learners receive and to determine an ESP course or job requirements, which is what they have to be able to demonstrate at the end of their language course. In addition, Graves (1996) mentions that needs analysis involves finding out what learners (practitioners) know and can do and what they need to learn or do. In other words, needs analysis that can be called a target situation analysis (TSA) involves seeking and interpreting information required at the end of a language course. This is the best known framework for a TSA type of needs analysis which concentrates on communication purposes, communication settings, the means of communication, language skills, functions, and structures. In providing and developing materials of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the needs analysis process is a must. Without prior needs analysis, it is impossible to have learning or training materials that meet learners or trainees' needs.

English for Tourism

It is generally known that the 'English for Tourism' is sometimes used interchangeably with 'Tourism English'. The term 'English for Tourism', however, is more common and natural because it is more consistent with other terms such as English for Economics, English for Maritime, English for Medicine, etc. 'Tourism English' is not actually wrong but it is just less famous than the term 'English for Tourism'. In short, it is just a matter of convention among the people who are involved in tourism industry, particularly when they define English as a means for communication and transaction in tourism industry (hereafter, English for Tourism).

Like the other branches of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) such as English for Law, English for Aviation, or English for Business and Commerce, English for Tourism is actually typical English used in tourism industry. English for Tourism is the language designed to meet the English-language needs of professionals working in the tourism industry and/or students of tourism in further education. As a part of ESP, English for Tourism has its own linguistic features and typical characteristics.

Regarding the features and characteristics of English for Tourism, Ding (2008) states that in general English for Tourism is natural and straightforward and tends to use simple words, phrases, and sentences to describe or record the concrete stuff and facts just like taking a picture. Ding (2008) argues that some stylistic features of

English for Tourism are related to word use, especially the key words. He further states that the loanwords, specific vocabulary, abbreviations and compound words appear frequently. There are other characteristics such as nominalization of verb phrases, the frequent use of passive voices and present tenses, the frequent employment of descriptive adjectives, superlative adjectives, imperative sentences, etc (Sun, 2009).

Besides, English for Tourism tends to use objective and concise language in a clean and logical way; it is also known that it has to serve various purposes as there are different types of occasions for using it. Hu (2001) argues that English for Tourism has its own language functions including informative function, directive function, evocative function, informational function, aesthetic function, descriptive function, and persuasive function.

In <http://alison.com/courses/English-for-Tourism-Restaurant-Service>, it is stated that English for Tourism also covers the following contents such as how to communicate with potential customers during enquiries, how to reserve rooms for hotel guests, how to provide directions, understand guidebooks and write press releases, how to explain a tour itinerary, how to politely book a tour for a customer and how to conduct a tour commentary in English, how to take customers' orders including asking and answering questions and recommending dishes, how to describe dishes and also define the French terms used in English restaurants, and how to provide key English expressions for every stage of restaurant service.

Method

The Context of the Study

This study was carried out at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia. As stated previously, the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination covers the three main tourism sites: Lake Toba and Samosir Island with its surroundings, Brastagi (Karo Highland), and Bukit Lawang (Orang-utan conservation area and ecotourism).

Participants

The participants of this study were the tourism employees involved in tourism industry such as the state and private sectors, the formal and non-formal sectors, and

the low and high level managements. The total number of the participants was about 70 employees who were purposively sampled.

Materials

This research used a questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of the two parts that is a 5-rating scale and an open-ended part. In addition, the documentary sheet and in-depth interviews were also used in order to enrich the data. The data collection was carried out by the researcher himself with the help of the two colleagues and two students.

In addition, to measure the level of the local-based needs of tourism topics and English linguistic features, this study used a set of parameters proposed by Magdad (2000) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Parameters to Measure the Level of Needs of Tourism Topics and English Linguistic Features

No	Range	Level of Need
1	0 – 0.5	not needed
2	0.6 – 1.5	less needed
3	1.6 – 2.5	fairly needed
4	2.6 – 3.5	Needed
5	3.6 – 4.0	very needed

Research Procedure

The procedure of the research took place in the three following steps. First, the data were collected from the selected respondents. They were given the questionnaire which had already been prepared. The questionnaire was a 5-rating scale and had an open-ended part. The questionnaire consisted of a number of items in form of statements or questions which must be filled in and answered by the tourism employees. To enrich the data, the in-depth interviews were carried out with the selected tourism employees. In addition, the documentary sheet was also used to collect the data so that the data were adequate enough.

Second, after the data were collected by the three types of instruments, namely the questionnaire, the in-depth interviews, and documentary sheet, they were

validated in order to gain the reliable and valid data. The data validation was done by triangulation expert judgement.

Third, after the data were validated, they were analyzed in order to know the types and the level of needs of the tourism topics and English linguistic features. Magdad's (2000) parameters were used to measure the types and the level of needs of the tourism topics and English linguistic features. The data were analyzed by the descriptive analysis.

Findings

In line with the research objectives, the findings of this research were to find out the relevant tourism topics and English linguistic features through the local-based needs at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia. The data were classified into two types: 1) the tourism topics and 2) the English linguistic features.

1. Tourism Topics

The tourism topics were classified into three categories including a) natural views or sites, b) cultural events and activities, and historical heritages (remains).

a) Natural Views

In this context, the natural views were operationally and restrictedly defined as the tourism topics dealing with the natural views or sites which can be seen and enjoyed by the tourists. In relation to the natural views, the level of needs were relatively various and different from one another, as show in Table 2.

Table 2
The Level of Needs for Tourism Natural Views or Sites

No	Topics	Score	Remark
1	Toba Lake	3.7	very needed
2	Samosir Island	2.6	needed
3	Bahorok River	3.6	very needed
4	Leuser National Park	2.8	needed
5	Boat Rock Cave	1.7	fairly needed
6	Bat Cave	2.3	less needed

7	Tongging View	2.6	needed
8	Sinabung Volcano park	3.6	very needed
9	Sibayak Mountain	2.4	fairly needed
10	Forest Conservation Park	1.6	fairly needed
11	Sipiso-piso water fall	1.8	less needed
12	Lau Kawar Lake (three-coloured-water lake)	2.3	fairly needed
13	Sidebuk-DebukHotspring	1.5	less needed
14	NamuSira-sira rafting river	1.5	less needed

As indicated in Table 2, the three top needs of natural views needed by the tourists when visiting North Sumatra were Toba Lake, Sinabung Volcano Parks, and Bahorok River. Actually, it is not really surprising why they are at the level of *very needed*. Toba Lake, for example, is the biggest and the most beautiful lake in the Southeast Asia. Bahorok River with its icon as a rich bio-diversity tropical forest is also well-known for its Orang-utan Rehabilitation Centre. It is one of the only two world Orang-utan rehabilitation centres in the world. The other one is located in Tanjung Putting Malaysia-Indonesia. Finally, the most current, active, and interesting volcano in Indonesia is Sinabung Volcano Geopark. Samosir Island, Leuser National Park, Tongging views were categorized as *needed*. Few of the natural views or sites such as Siposo-piso water fall, Sibayak Mountain, Lau Kawar Lake, etc. were categorized as *fairly needed* and the rest were classified as *less needed*.

b) Cultural Events and Activities

Simply cultural events and activities were defined as cultural activities, rituals, and other attractions and activities carried out by the people of the area or done by the tourists themselves when visiting the tourism destinations. Like the natural views, the cultural events or activities needed by the tourists at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Province Indonesia were about 12 (twelve), as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The Level of Needs for Cultural Events and Activities

No	Topics	Score	Remark
1	Tor-tor dance	3.6	very needed

2	Toba lake festival	2.6	needed
3	Bataknesse Traditional Party	3.5	needed
4	Solu race (Bataknesse canoe racing)	1.4	less needed
5	Sigale-gale puppet show	2.8	needed
6	Rafting	2.6	needed
7	Jungle and river trek	2.7	fairly needed
8	Rock climbing	2.3	needed
9	Tubing down the river	2.5	fairly needed
10	Orang-utan feeding time/Crossing time	3.7	very needed
11	Fruit and flower festival	1.5	lessneeded
12	Karo culture festival	1.8	fairly needed

As shown in Table 3, the Tor-Tor dance and Orang-utan feeding time/Crossing time activities became the most interesting (*very needed*) events to be seen by the tourists. The Orang-utan feeding time/Crossing time, for example, became the most unforgettable memory and experience for them. Here, they could see how orang-utans were fed and treated tamely and in a friendly way like humans. The other topics such as Toba Lake Festival, Bataknesse traditional parties or traditional rites, Sigale-gale puppet show, Rafting down the river and jungle and river trek categorized as *needed* were also interesting to the tourists. Tubing down the river and Karonese cultural festival were at the level of *fairly needed*, whereas Solu, a Bataknesse traditional canoe race, and Fruit and flower festival were categorized as *less needed*.

c) *The Cultural and Historical Heritages*

The cultural and historical heritages or remains (hereafter cultural and historical heritages) were operationally and restrictedly defined as the tourism topics such as traditional house sites, traditional villages, and museums. The results showed that there were only 8 (eight) of the topics needed by the tourists with the different level of needs, as shows in Table 4.

Table 4

The Level of Needs for Cultural and Historical Heritages

No	Topics	Score	Remark
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1	Tomok village	2.6	needed
2	TuktukBatak village	2.6	needed
3	Bataknese Traditional house	3.6	very Needed
4	Batak traditional waving centre	1.8	fairly needed
5	Bataknesse Ulos centre	1.8	fairly needed
6	Orang-utan rehabilitation centre	2.6	needed
7	Karonese traditional house	3.7	very needed
8	Karonese traditional waving centre	1.6	fairly needed

As shown in Table 4, both Bataknese and Karonese traditional houses became the most favourite (*very needed*) places to be visited by the tourists. Tomok Village, Tutuk Village in Samosir Island, and Orang-utan rehabilitation centre in Bukit Lawang were categorized as *needed* by the tourists. The cultural and historical heritages which were classified as *fairly needed* were Karonese traditional waving centre and Batak traditional waving centre.

2. English Linguistic Features

The term ‘linguistic features’ in this context refers to language skills, language functions, grammar and structure, lexical choices, and intercultural communication (Luka, 2004; Risager, 2007).

a) The English Language Skills

When the tourism employees working with the tourists were asked to rate their need for English language skills, they rated all the four macro English language skills as shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Level of Needs for Language Skills

No	Description	Score	Level of Need
1	Listening	3.8	very needed
2	Speaking	3.6	very needed
3	Reading	1.8	fairly needed
4	Writing	1.6	fairly needed

Table 5 shows that listening and speaking skills were in the category of *very needed* among all the four skills of English. On the other hand, reading and writing skills were found to be *minimum* or *fairly needed*. According to the results, it is clear that the English skills for tourism such as listening and speaking play an important role in tourism industry. Reading and writing, to some extent, are also needed.

b) The Language Functions

In relation to the language functions, the result of the research indicated that the need for the language functions varied. However, the tourism employees used almost all of the language functions (including asking and giving information, offering help, commanding and requesting, stating agreement and disagreement, etc.) when communicating with the tourists. Among them, only ten language functions were needed and frequently and intensively used by the tourism employees (Table 6).

Table 6
The Level of Frequency of English Language Functions

NO	Function	F	Percentage
1	Offering something (including help and choice)	13	18.57
2	Asking and giving information and direction	11	15.72
3	Asking and giving and opinion	9	13.85
4	Asking and giving advice	8	10.92
5	Commanding and forbidding statements	7	9.85
6	Forgiving and responding to excuses	7	9.50
7	Stating agreement and disagreement, agreeing partially	6	8.57
8	Complimenting	4	5.71
9	Stating sympathy	3	4.28

10	Inviting	2	2.85
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As indicated in Table 6, the language functions such as *offering something* (18.57%), *asking and giving information and direction* (15.72%), and *asking and giving opinion* (13.85%) were really intensively and frequently used by the tourism employees. The other functions including *asking and giving advice* (10.92%), *commanding and forbidding statement* (9.85%), *forgiving and responding to excuses* (9.50%), and *stating agreement and disagreement, agreeing partially* (8.57%) were also quite dominant. However, the language functions such as *complementing* (5.71%), *stating sympathy* (4.28%), and *inviting* (2.85%) were rarely used by the tourism employees.

c) The English Grammatical Competence

The term ‘grammatical patterns’ actually refers to grammatical competence comprised of the usage of sentences, phrases, vocabulary choice, and also pronunciation (Sanguangarm, Sukamolson, & Anantasate, 2011). When the tourism employees were asked about the grammatical patterns they need when communicating with the tourists, most of them (94%) stated that they need simple grammatical patterns and the rest of them (6%) stated that they need moderate and advanced grammatical patterns. This was also similar to vocabulary choices. 93% of the employees need simple vocabulary and the rest need moderate (5.3%) and advanced (1.7%) vocabulary when communicating with the tourists. Finally, the clear pronunciations and precise meanings were also viewed as the most important component of the grammatical competence.

d) Intercultural Communication Competence

Understanding cultural communication or competence will minimize misunderstanding and social embarrassment when communication takes place between the tourism employees and the tourists. The intercultural communication means that the local tourism employees should understand and be able to use the culture values such as attitude, how to greet, and what values, norms or manner they should avoid.

In this case, they should be able to deal with unexpected situations as well as be able to work with others related to the tour activities. When the tourism employees

were asked about the non-verbal communication, most of them stated that they really need to understand the non-verbal communication of the tourists. It was believed the non-verbal communication also plays an important role and function when they communicate with the tourists. It was also believed that the non-verbal communication would help the oral communication flow smoothly. It is necessary to note that non-verbal communication is not universal across cultures. This could build up tourism employees' competence by setting related activities that support English usage integrated with building intercultural competence.

Discussion

In line with the findings of the research, the needs of tourism topics at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination reflect the North Sumatra's typical and distinctive local genuine tourism topics. The topics range from a) natural views or sites, b) cultural events and activities, and c) cultural and historical heritages (remains). As for the natural views, Toba Lake, Sinabung Volcano Geoparks, and Bahorok River became the most favourite places to visit. Actually, it is not really surprising why they are at the level of *very needed*. Toba Lake, for example, is the biggest and the most beautiful lake in the South East Asia. Also lately, the Sinabung Volcano Geopark, with its amazing view and unpredicted eruption has attracted many foreign tourists.

In terms of the cultural events and activities, the Tor-Tor dance and Orang-utan feeding time/Crossing time activities became the most interesting (*very needed*) events to see. The Orang-utan feeding time/Crossing time and orang-utan conservation became a distinctive tourism topic in North Sumatra. It really shows North Sumatra's tourism local genuine destination. It is generally known that there are only two regions in which Orang-utans inhabit in the world: Sumatra and Borneo (Malaysia and Indonesia).

Finally, regarding the cultural and historical heritages or remains, both Batakese and Karonese traditional houses became the most favourite (*very needed*) places to see. These two local traditional houses distinguish North Sumatra's unique and diverse traditional houses from the others.

This situation is really relevant to the concept of local-based analysis in which each region has its own unique and different resources. The local-based analysis is a matter of local competitiveness with regard to natural resources, human resources,

culture and traditions, and services that are typically unique and different (Nangsari, 2000; Dwitagama, 2007).

About the role of the local-based analysis in empowering the local resources, the researchers (e.g., Nangsari, 2000; Wea, 2003; Dwitagama, 2007; Santosa, 2008) state that acting locally also means to empower all resources either human or natural which the region and its people have to meet the needs of the world, particularly in terms of tourism industry.

In terms of the linguistic features, the tourism employees need a variety of English linguistic features such as language skills, language functions, grammar and structure, lexical choices, and intercultural communication (Luka, 2004; Risager, 2007). However, the level of need and frequencies of usage vary among them. For example, speaking and listening are the two dominant and intensive usages of language skills. Widdowson (1983) states that speaking and listening are very common and intensively used by the tourism employees working in tourism industry. Reading skill is also important to master by the tourism employees even though it is not as important as speaking and listening. However, the tourism employees also must be able to read information (including the price and characteristics of souvenirs, foods and facilities) that is often requested by foreign tourists (Boonyawattana, 1999). Compared with the other three skills, writing was viewed as the least important by the tourism employees. This is perhaps explained by the fact that writing is only used when the tourism employees prepare and outline the information they give to the foreign tourists.

The findings also show that the language functions such as *offering help (including help and choice)*, *asking and giving information and direction*, and *asking and giving opinion* are really intensively and frequently used by the tourism employees, (18.57%), (15.72%), and (13.85%), respectively. This clearly explains that the three types of functions are crucial and intensively used and require specific language use in the tourism industry.

As for the grammatical patterns that include the usages of sentences, phrases, vocabulary choice and also pronunciation, generally the tourism employees need simple and easy, and communicative communication. 94% of respondents stated that they need simple grammatical patterns. The need for simple, effective and communicative language by the tourism employees is relevant to the results obtained by the other researchers (e.g., Hui, 2002; Ding, 2008; Kang & Yu, 2011) who state

that generally English for Tourism is natural and straightforward and tends to use simple words, phrases, and sentences to describe or record the concrete stuff and facts just like taking a picture.

Finally, the research shows that the tourism employees really need the intercultural communication or competence such as how to respond, to compliment, and to deal with ethics and the topics of conversation which must be avoided. These findings are also relevant to those of Luka (2004) who states that the intercultural competence can be attitude, openness, straightforwardness, tolerance, etc. The intercultural competence plays an important role when individuals communicate with people from different cultures and countries. The cultural communication or intercultural competence actually plays an important role in serving and providing hospitality in tourism industry (Fallows & Steven, 2000; Risager, 2007).

Conclusion

The term ‘think globally and act locally’ is really significant and relevant for the empowerment and improvement of the local resources in tourism industry at the Golden Triangle Tourism Destination in North Sumatra Indonesia in order to meet the needs of the global tourism industry. The local-based resources need empowering, developing, and improving in order to serve the tourists in terms of tourism topics and linguistic features. The various required tourism topics can be classified into three categories including a) natural views or sites, b) cultural events and activities, and c) cultural and historical heritages. Meanwhile, the four main subdomains in linguistic features are a) language skills, b) language functions, c) grammatical competence, and d) intercultural competence.

Of the tourism topics, Orang-utan rehabilitation centre, Batak traditional waving centre, Toba Lake festival, Sipiso-piso water fall, etc. need more empowering so that they become good and favourite tourism topics. More attention should be paid to the lack of intercultural competence activities when tourism practitioners communicate with tourists in the real situations.

In short, the local resources need empowering in order to answer and meet the rapid and massive tourism industry across the globe and to provide comparative advantages among other tourism destinations either in the national or global setting. This finally shows that a certain tourism destination site has its distinctive local conditions.

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A Meta-ethnography of Task Representation in Second Language Reading-to-write

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Reading-to-write continues to be a gateway to effective academic writing. Given its notable importance, careful consideration needs to be given to L2 learners' reading-to-write task representations as part of this hybrid literacy skill, often referred to as writing-from-sources or integrated writing. In this regard, there has been considerable evidence that the successful management of academic tasks is challenging to many L2 writers. Noticeably, an important aspect of the challenge lies in the way these types of cognitively demanding tasks are interpreted. However, by relying solely on the insights provided by a limited number of participants within a particular context, the current methods used to investigate task representation may neglect the important fact that meanings and concepts can be transferred across cases and contexts. The present study aimed to examine how L2 writers perceive and interpret reading-to-write tasks across different learning contexts and to emphasize the perceived difficulties and facilitators of writing from sources among EFL reader-writers. Adopting a meta-ethnography as a systematic research review methodology, this paper synthesized the published qualitative studies on task representation in L2 writing from sources in order to heap together the qualitative findings on this fundamental aspect of source-based writing. Of the identified research reports, 6 studies met the inclusion criteria. Noblit and Hare's (1988, *Meta-ethnography: synthesizing qualitative studies*.

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Newbury Park: Sage) meta-ethnographic research framework was used to reduce the qualitative data to four conceptual axes of L2 reading-to-write task representation. The conceptual insights constructed through this meta-ethnography are intended to inform future measures to be used in examining L2 reader-writers' perceptions, to yield implications for second language reading-to-write instruction by shedding light on the factors which may influence L2 integrated writing development, and to offer avenues for further research.

Keywords: Reading-to-write, Task representation, Meta-ethnography, Writing from sources, Academic writing, Second language teaching

Introduction

One of the critical areas in L2 writing instruction is reading-based writing, the process of reading source texts, transferring, and integrating information from the reading texts to the writing tasks. Reading-to-write has spurred considerable research interest. It has also been referred to as 'text-responsible' writing (Leki, 1998, 2007), writing-from-sources, reading-based writing (Flower et al., 1990), and discourse synthesis (Spivey, 1984). Broadly speaking, reading-to-write involves reading with a clear mental representation of the writing task in hand, selecting relevant information from the reading material, and organizing and connecting it to the reader-writer's background knowledge and language resources in order to produce a newly written text.

In addition, the reading-to-write (RTW henceforth) ability is considered an essential skill for academic success. Emphasizing its importance, Spack (1997) argues that "perhaps the most important skill English teachers can engage students in is the complex ability to write from texts, a major part of their academic writing experience" (p. 41). Most academic tasks require comprehension of background reading texts and the integration of the presented information into an 'original' piece of writing, be it a report, a critique, a summary, or a response essay (Spivey, 1984, 1990, 1997; Spivey & King, 1989; Carson & Leki, 1993; Belcher & Hirvela, 2001; Nelson, 2001a, b).

Moreover, task representation is one of the vital aspects of RTW since it is the crucial phase when an understanding of the task requirements is constructed. Arguing for the importance of task representation, Wolfersberger (2007) states that

when confronted with any academic writing task, the first thing a student must do is create an understanding of what skills, products, and processes the task requires and make a plan of action that will lead to a written product that appropriately fulfills the writing task (p. 73).

Task representation includes developing an understanding of the rhetorical problem embedded in the task, setting goals to be pursued by the writer, and selecting strategies to be implemented when writing (Flower, 1990; Ruiz-Funes, 2001). RTW task representation has been investigated to explore how writers interpret reading-based writing tasks, to examine the relationships between task representation and actual RTW practices, and to compare task representation in the integrated reading-writing tasks vs. independent writing tasks (e.g., Watanabe, 2001; Plakans, 2008, 2009, 2010; Gebril, 2010; Gebril & Plakans, 2013; Petrić & Harwood, 2013).

However, research to date has not yet gained a complete understanding of the L2 writers' RTW task representation, the challenges they associate with these types of tasks, and the coping strategies they perceive to be useful in developing their RTW ability and essential for academic survival in a context famously featured by its ups and downs, as communicated by such metaphors as sink or swim, and publish or perish. Previous studies have examined students' RTW task representation focusing on few participants in a particular context. Thus, a synthesis is essential to focus closely on the shared meanings in writing from sources across different academic contexts. Additionally, due to the pervasiveness of qualitative methods in primary L2 writing studies, this meta-ethnographic account of L2 reading-to-write task representation would certainly inform second language RTW instruction and progress in academic contexts. As such, the present research was an attempt to produce a conceptual synthesis of the qualitative empirical studies on L2 RTW task representation.

The purpose of this study was to synthesize the research findings on L2 writers' interpretations, perceptions and attitudes when undertaking RTW tasks. Such research was needed to inform SL writing instruction of the aptness to be encouraged and the flaws to be prevented in guiding and assisting students' RTW development. Research of this kind was needed to discover the conceptual insights surrounding the multifaceted ability of reading-based writing, to expand our knowledge in regard to

the various dimensions of task representation, and to provide the field of SL writing instruction with more information on how to guide L2 writers in developing more sophisticated task representations and a repertoire of coping strategies to overcome the perceived challenges.

Method

Overview of the Methodological Framework

The present study was conducted within a meta-ethnographic framework of literature review. Narrative reviews are frequently used in SL writing literature as an aggregative method of synthesizing findings from both quantitative and qualitative realms. They aim at providing a broad vision, usually on a controversial issue or a state-of-art description of a central concern in the field (e.g., Ortega, 2012, 2013; Cumming, 2013). Notwithstanding the fact that narrative reviews provide comprehensive accounts with informed depictions of the current state of knowledge in the field, meta-ethnography is advocated as the best-suited method for making sense of the mass of data published in qualitative research studies.

In addition, a recognizable number of meta-analyses have been used to synthesize quantitative findings on various aspects of second language teaching and learning (e.g., Li, 2010; Oswald & Plonsky, 2010; Shintani, Li, & Ellis, 2013). Although a meta-analytic approach is useful for assembling statistically rigorous evidence, it falls short of accounting for the valuable insights reported in qualitative research studies, particularly when it comes to the field of SL writing which, according to Ortega (2012), is often viewed as characterized by “the concomitant preference for qualitative methods of various kinds” (p. 405). Due to the social nature of written communication, meta-ethnography has the potential to inductively coalesce findings from SL writing research.

Meta-ethnography is a reciprocal synthesis process which allows for comparing, contrasting, and connecting qualitative studies without missing the threads that structure the relationships between concepts within every single study. In a typical meta-ethnographic study design, “interpretations and explanations in the original studies are treated as data, and are translated across several studies to produce a synthesis” (Britten et al., 2002, p. 210). With its focus on induction and interpretation, a meta-ethnography not only provides a workable option for fusing

research findings across studies and generating incisive hypotheses but also originates in the same interpretive paradigm from which the methods employed in the primary qualitative studies flow (Popay, Rogers, & Williams, 1998; Pearson, Wiechula, & Long, 2003; Hannes & Macaitis, 2012).

The present research was carried out based on Noblit and Hare’s (1988) seven-step process for conducting a meta-ethnography. A brief description of each stage is given in Table 1.

Table 1

Noblit and Hare’s Seven-Steps of Meta-Ethnographic Reviews

Steps	Main purpose
1. getting started	Selecting a topic
2. deciding what is relevant to the initial interest	Collecting the primary studies
3. reading the studies	Analytical reading of the primary studies
4. determining how the studies are related	Identifying the concepts which link the primary studies
5. translating the studies into one another	Developing the shared conceptual categories
6. synthesizing translations	Constructing a line of argument
7. expressing the synthesis	Reporting and discussing the findings

Obviously, these steps cannot be thought of as subsequent stages but rather as reiterative, largely overlapping sub-processes.

The Present Study

By synthesizing the research findings on the interrelations between EFL learners’ interpretations of purposes, difficulties, and facilitators of writing from sources, this meta-ethnography would contribute to a better understanding of the fundamental issues and the dynamicity characterizing learning to write from sources in a second language. More precisely, this paper focused on task representation in L2 reading-based writing. Task representation is a critical aspect of successful reading-to-write performance. As noted by Plakans (2010), it plays an important part in “constructing an understanding of task demands” (p. 185) and affects task performance. By constructing a conceptual synthesis of EFL reader-writers’ understanding of writing

from sources as a crucial aspect of assimilating into the academic community, this study addressed the need for synthesizing the findings collected in naturalistic contexts of learning to write from sources. In this same line of thought, concluding a narrative account on the multiple dimensions of L2 academic literacy, Cumming (2013) called for “comparative surveys across different but comparable natural settings for teaching and learning” (p. 146). As such, this study is relevant because it compares the findings of several qualitative studies conducted in different contexts but under similar conditions (tasks that require L2 learners to engage in reading-based writing). In my view, research of this kind is likely to contribute to the continuum of research on L2 integrated reading-writing development and instruction by providing a multidimensional understanding of L2 writing from sources. To truly understand L2 writing from sources, there is a need for research, especially from multiple perspectives, on how L2 reader-writers represent reading-to-write tasks and how they perceive the associated difficulties and facilitators. Additionally, this study is important because the inductive and meta-interpretive insights this kind of research synthesis would provide was necessary if our knowledge of how L2 reader-writers interpret and approach writing from sources is to advance.

Search Strategies: Identifying Studies for Inclusion

An important phase of meta-ethnography is the systematic search for primary studies and framing the synthesis within a limited scope. As suggested by Noblit and Hare (1988), meta-ethnography is more meaningful when used to synthesize a small number of studies— as it is the case in most of the extant meta-ethnographies (Britten et al., 2002; Weed, 2005). Noblit and Hare (1988) also warn that “unless there is some substantive reason for an exhaustive search, generalizing from all studies of a particular setting yields trite conclusions” (p. 28). An important reason behind this restriction is “to avoid making (or trying to make) gross generalizations across disparate fields” (Britten et al., 2002, p. 210). That is, the primary studies included in a meta-ethnography are likely to result in a coherent conceptual understanding only if they are significantly comparable. Moreover, unlike the quantitative meta-analytic synthesis, which is often used to totalize all of the available data in order to deduce evidence-based conclusions, the qualitative synthesis, instead, focuses on conceptual insights. Nevertheless, this does not discard the importance of carrying out a systematic search for relevant literature, which remains a crucial step in any research

syntheses. As such, in this study, the electronic and manual searches were conducted to locate the published qualitative studies on learners' interpretations (task representation) of L2 writing from sources.

The electronic search aimed at identifying the reviews and empirical studies (published between 2003 and 2014) and involved navigating such databases as EBSCOhost which is a comprehensive database encompassing ERIC and PhycINFO, two of the most commonly used databases in applied linguistics (Oswald & Plonsky, 2010), and LLBA. The databases were searched using Boolean operators of the keywords: second (foreign) language, L2/SL reading-to-write perceptions OR task representations, L2/SL reading-writing development, academic literacy development, OR beliefs OR difficulties OR challenges OR (coping) strategies, English for Academic Writing EAP reading-writing, and English for Specific Purposes ESP reading-writing instruction.

Data collection also involved the manual search which covered five of the widely cited journals in the field of second language learning and writing. The searched journals were Applied Linguistics, Journal of Second Language Writing, English for Specific Purposes, Journal of English for Academic Purposes, and System. It should be noted that the synthesis was not aimed at being descriptively thorough, but rather at being conceptually interpretive. It is worth noting that gray literature, also known as 'fugitive literature' and refers to unpublished studies, was not searched.

Drawing upon the research questions addressed in the present meta-synthesis, the researcher used the following inclusion/exclusion criteria in order filter the initially collected studies:

The synthesis included fully published reports of the qualitative studies that explored SL learners' reading-to-write task representations and perceptions of writing from sources or of what they view as challenging or useful when undertaking an academic instructional course/assignment designed to promote L2 learners' reading-to-write ability.

Findings

Reading the Studies and Determining How They are Related

This stage of the meta-ethnography involved reading the primary studies attentively and methodically in order to identify and demonstrate the main task types and data sets. By so doing, it was easier to look back over the original articles to match up the primary interpretations in order to develop ideas.

Table 2

Study Characteristics: L2 Reader-Writers' Backgrounds, RTW Tasks, and Methods of Eliciting Qualitative Data

Study	Participants and Context	Task	Data
Allen 2004	1 Japanese third-year B.A. student majoring in Linguistics	A 2500-word research project	Interviews, journal studies and collection of written materials such as lecture notes, drafts and subject outlines
Cheng 2009	3 senior English-major Taiwanese students	A response essay based on the reading of four source texts	Think-aloud protocols, interview data and text analysis
Yeh 2009	7 Chinese students enrolling in a two-year English program at university	A 2000-word research paper	Interview data
Plakans 2010	10 undergraduate and graduate EFL students at a U.S. university	An essay in response to two reading excerpts	Think-aloud verbal protocol and interview data
Karimnia 2013	10 Iranian university teachers of TEFL	Research articles	Interview data
Hervela and Du 2013	2 Chinese undergraduate students at a U.S. university	Paraphrasing practice and source-based writing tasks	Think-aloud protocols and text-based interviews

Table 2 shows a summary of the methods (participants, contexts, tasks, and data) used in the primary studies. The findings of the six included reports illustrate the thoughts and interpretations of 33 SL writers' experiences with reading-to-write tasks. Almost, all of the reader-writers were Asian learners of English attending local or abroad universities. In the primary studies, the RTW tasks used to elicit data ranged from paraphrasing practice to writing research articles and included response essays and research paper assignments.

Recording, Comparing, and Combining the Findings

“A list of key metaphors, phrases, ideas and/or concepts” (Noblit & Hare, 1988, p. 28) was generated to determine how the studies were related. This was because meta-

ethnography works by means of selecting the concepts (metaphors) in studies and connecting them across studies (translating them into one another), usually as part of developing a coding scheme or a grid to be used for coding data. Table 3 illustrates the brief descriptions of the findings reported in the original studies on L2 reading-based writing.

Table 3

Translating L2 RTW Task Representation Studies into One Another

Study	Perspective on RTW task representation
Allen 2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RTW tasks are perceived as highly complex. • Task representation depends on the writer's capacity to integrate source text information. • Task representation and performance are influenced by literacy skills.
Cheng 2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Task representation is affected by L2 reader-writers' educational experience and previous engagement with writing, that is, 'students' history as learners'. • Task representation is influenced by reading and writing abilities. • Task representation affects the way literacy (reading-writing) skills are used. • Participants use reading-writing strategies which are consistent with their task representations.
Yeh 2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Representing citation functions in reading-to-write tasks depend on writers' perceptions of the relevance of citation functions to task requirements as they interpret them.
Plakans 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SL writers' understanding of the purpose of the readings in writing is related to experience with reading-to-write tasks.
Karimnia 2013	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading-to-write task representation can be influenced by educational experience.
Hervela and Du 2013	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When writing from sources, novice reader-writers tend to interpret: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - source-text integration skills, i.e. paraphrase, as a strategy for learning new vocabulary, phrases, and syntax transformation - quoting as an alternative for the daunting task of paraphrasing

Table 3 describes the different aspects of RTW task representation as well as the perceived difficulties and facilitators. It shows that L2 writers' task representations draw attention to vital issues regarding source-based writing in the academic context. RTW tasks are represented as complex, highly-ambiguous, and

high-risk tasks since they involve many activities such as selecting, relating, and organizing source-text information. They are, also, interpreted as related to source text integration ability, overall literacy skills, and experience in writing from sources.

Developing the Conceptual Categories

Conceptual categories can be formed in light of Schutz’s (1962) notions of the first and second-order constructs (e.g., Britten et al., 2002). The first-order constructs refer to primary studies’ participants’ understandings expressed in their own words while the second-order constructs refer to the explanatory labels used in the researchers’ interpretation of the first-order constructs. However, many meta-ethnographers synthesize the findings of the constituent studies based on the second-order interpretations which are then further abstracted to come up with the third-order interpretations (Toye et al., 2013), as it is the case in the present meta-ethnography. Table 4 includes the second-order constructs which constitute the raw data of this meta-ethnography.

Table 4

A Meta-Ethnographic Framework: Key Concepts in L2 Task Representation Research

Concepts	Aspects of RTW task representation (second-order interpretations)
Rhetorical awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of explicit instruction of rhetorical features is likely to cause less effective use of the assigned readings (Cheng, 2009). • A vague mental representation of the rhetorical purpose results in poor task performance, yet some learners may have satisfactory task representations which they fail to translate into a course of action as they read and write (Cheng, 2009). • Increased explicitness regarding the purpose and structure of the RTW task is likely to facilitate writing from sources (Allen, 2004). • Successful writers interpret RTW tasks based on the synthesis of source texts and intend to integrate the readings to support and elaborate their ideas (Plakans, 2010). • Awareness of writing conventions: experienced L2 writers tend to understand English academic writing as a form of conventionalized language where writers use certain forms ‘lexicalized chunks’ to realize their rhetorical purposes; these forms are learned through: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - extensive reading - consulting native speakers for ‘accurate’ usage (Karimnia, 2013)
Task complexity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading-based writing is understood to be requiring the ability to select information from source texts and to match the selected readings to the purpose and structure of the required tasks. L2 reader-writers may need explicit instruction on source-text integration skills; they need “to learn

	<p>that quoting is appropriate at times” (Allen, 2004).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Novice L2 writers tend to interpret: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - source-text integration skills, i.e. paraphrase, as a strategy for learning new vocabulary, phrases, and syntax transformation - quoting as an alternative for the daunting task of paraphrasing (Hervela & Du, 2013)
Literacy skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrating source-text information and mastering discourse synthesis is challenging to less proficient L2 writers (Plakans, 2010). • Less proficient L2 writers may face difficulties reporting the results and supporting the claims around which their texts are constructed (Karimnia, 2013).
Experience with writing from sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unfamiliarity with source-text-based writing seems to hamper task representation development (Allen, 2004). • Lack of research writing experience seems to cause inability to interpret task requirements of a source-based writing task as expected in the academic community (Cheng, 2009; Yeh, 2009).

Coding the conceptual categories and the second-order interpretations illustrated in Table 4 involved the two main phases. The first phase focused on identifying the actual concepts as employed in the report of each study and on thinking up a key concept which covers the related actual concepts. By so doing, four concepts were extracted: rhetorical awareness, task complexity, literacy skills, and experience with reading-based writing. In the second phase, the conclusions of each study were mined for explanations, interpretations or descriptions to form the second-order constructs, a technique which allows meta-ethnographers to view the concepts from various aspects (Britten et al., 2002). The second-order constructs are either kept in the original author’s wording (quotation marks are used) or reformulated based on the author’s paraphrasing of the primary reports. The second-order interpretations summarized in Table 4 represent multiple perspectives on RTW task representation. The key concepts and the third-order interpretations are described in the next section.

Synthesizing Translations: Constructing a Line of Argument

In the present meta-ethnography, the four concepts were found to be central across the studies: rhetorical awareness, task complexity, literacy skills, and experience with writing from sources. At this stage, the third-order interpretations developed from the synthesis of the aforementioned second-order interpretations were constructed to form a line of argument. Pointing at their vital role in the synthesis of qualitative data,

Britten et al. (2002) state that “it is these third-order interpretations that justify the claim that meta-ethnography achieves more than a traditional literature review, but in relation to a more focused question. They represent a conceptual development that constitutes a fresh contribution to the literature” (p. 214). The concepts and the third order interpretations are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
A Meta-ethnographic Synthesis: Key Concepts and Third Order Interpretation

Concepts	Third-order interpretations (generated hypotheses)
Rhetorical awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Source-text integration ability is affected by L2 writers’ rhetorical awareness; more experienced reader-writers are aware of the role of reading in writing and know where and how to integrate source text information. • Knowledge of source use skills and their rhetorical purposes might develop L2 writers’ evaluative reading of text material, extend their selection of source integration strategies (including reporting verbs, and types of citation) and help them move from knowledge-telling to knowledge-transforming in integrating source-text information. • Cultural factors are likely to affect the rhetorical dimensions of task representation most probably leading to task representations unsuited to the English rhetorical style.
Task complexity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If academic writing instruction is to be effective in developing L2 writers’ RTW ability, it has to address managing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ambiguous representations of the purpose and structure - reading with an orientation to use source text material - source-text integration skills such as summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting. - reproducing source text information in accordance with the purposes of different sections - the integration of reading material according to the academic discourse conventions - academic literacy development such as reading-writing abilities and skills specific to an academic community • Explicit/focused task instructions are likely to reduce task complexity by assisting task representation development.
Literacy Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • L2 writers are assumed to need multidimensional scaffolding in literacy instruction. • Novice researchers need to learn how to handle RTW tasks with their emergent writing skills, the phrases, and sentence patterns used in academic writing together with their rhetorical functions.

Experience with writing from sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning and writing strategy use seems to be moderated by experience. • At the early stages of engaging in writing from sources, L2 writers tend to rely on extensive reading and writing practice, paying more attention to form (especially, formulaic language). • After being exposed considerably to instances of reading-based writing in the field of research, one's attention is shifted to a focus on readership and rhetorical purposes. • Progress in RTW task representation and performance can be facilitated through seeking advice and receiving feedback from more experienced writers and academic skills advising staff. • Training and assistance, responsive academic staff, and awareness of student difficulties are likely to facilitate learning to write from sources.
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As one of the fundamental features of qualitative research, including meta-ethnography, is hypothesis-generation, it should be noted that the third-order interpretations illustrated in the Table 5 were derived from the synthesis of the second-order interpretations about the various aspects of L2 RTW task representation (Table 4) and proposed as the assumptions to be tested in future research studies on L2 reading-to-write.

Expressing the Synthesis: A Discussion of L2 RTW Task Representation and Beyond

This meta-ethnographic synthesis was intended to provide L2 writing researchers and instructors with informative insights on how SL learners interpret reading-to-write task requirements, together with the challenges they face and some viable facilitators in the process of acquiring the ability to write from sources.

The most noteworthy findings are with respect to the importance of rhetorical awareness, task demands, literacy level, and experience in the representation of RTW tasks. The findings show that these four aspects are significant factors which affect the way task requirements, the assigned readings, and the purposes of integrating source-text propositions are interpreted. These findings highlight the usefulness of tutoring and practice opportunities and suggest that L2 writers need practice and scaffolding in developing experience with reading-based writing skills such as strategies to understand, select from, and integrate source-text information. Likewise, providing exposure to writing that integrates reading skills, together with analytical

activities such as genre-analysis or navigating through small-scale corpora, might pave the way for a proper understanding of the demands of similar writing tasks.

The assumption of a relationship between literacy, experience and academic writing is in accord with the previous narrative research reviews (Ortega, 2012; Cumming, 2013), although this study extends those results by focusing upon task representation and pointing to other factors which may affect academic reading-based writing. Connecting the key concepts that have been identified into a coherent line of argument suggests that the knowledge of the rhetorical purposes associated with integrating sources (including citation functions together with awareness of task demands) affects RTW task representation, contributing thereby an important conceptual development to the existing literature on the emergence of the reading-to-write ability.

Furthermore, on the one hand, it seems that vague task representations may be attributed to the lack of explicit instruction on source integration practices and their rhetorical features in relationship with the purposes and strategies of a specific reading-to-write task or task section. As noticed by Cheng (2009),

despite of minimally two-year English composition instruction..., these participants were still not able to acquire the ability to develop their own voice in their essays, an essential trait of English academic writing (p. 13).

In this instance, the lack of explicit instruction on the rhetorical dimensions of reading-based writing resulted in less effective use of the assigned readings, even with receiving prior academic writing instruction and familiarity with the final written product. On the other hand, the issue of task representation can be related to the students' L2 literacy skills. In Karimnia's (2013) study, in spite of their explicit knowledge of audience and purpose awareness and perceiving their work as crucial to get published, less successful L2 writers tended to be more preoccupied with searching for words to express their ideas and develop their arguments and editing for grammatical accuracy while successful writers focused on awareness of audience and purpose. This finding is consistent with the previous research emphasizing the need for sophisticated literacy skills. That is, in order to develop sophisticated task representations, L2 writers need to be aware of the linguistic and rhetorical dimensions of reading-based writing, along with source-integration constructions such

as form-function-purpose interrelations in citation practices, reporting verbs, and patterns of academic discourse synthesis.

Conclusion and Implications

This meta-ethnography synthesized the studies which explored L2 writers' understandings regarding the reading-to-write ability. What is perhaps especially notable in this study is the emergent nature of RTW task representation. The latter cannot be thought of as a fixed mental image of task requirements but as a plan of action which emerges as reader-writers progress and gain more awareness and experience. Based on the synthesis and meta-interpretation of the constituent studies, the findings draw attention to the importance of informed reading-writing instruction and knowledge of the rhetorical dimensions of RTW task representation, especially in regard to learning to integrate source-text information.

Implications for RTW teaching and learning include the usefulness of explicit instruction in addressing L2 writers' reading needs, which obviously go beyond reading for the gist. As noted by Havela and Du (2013), "...teachers of academic writing need to foreground the rhetorical and cultural, not merely the linguistic, dimensions of paraphrasing" (p. 97). Novice SL writers may need academic reading courses which promote using discipline-specific RTW texts as materials for analytical-rhetorical reading (analyzing discourse-level generic features and their underlying rhetorical dimensions, such as reader, writer, and purpose), evaluative and critical reading (analyzing argument structures), reading to support learning to write, i.e., encouraging L2 writers to read as projected writers (Havela, 2004) by considering the writer's perspective (intentions/rhetorical choices) at various RTW tasks and subtasks.

The analysis of L2 writers' perceived difficulties raises important questions as to whether explicit instruction coupled with textual analysis activities, especially through collaborative discussions or interactive workshops, can help L2 writers perform reading-to-write tasks more effectively. Findings from this study also suggest that experience with reading-to-write tasks is likely to improve task representation in writing from sources, yet little is known about whether guided practice of authentic TRW tasks can help L2 writers overcome the experience barrier. Havela and Du (2013) found that decontextualized practice has limited usefulness in enabling L2 writers to understand the rhetorical dimensions of writing from sources and move

from knowledge telling to knowledge transforming, though it may help them grasp the linguistic mechanisms involved in performing such tasks. Nevertheless, more research is needed to investigate the potential role of different practice tasks in enhancing RTW skills and understanding the developmental dynamicity through which L2 writers advance from mastering reading-to-write sub-skills such as paraphrase to the successful orchestration of those skills in performing authentic reading-based writing tasks. Finally, one of the ways to gain a deepened understanding of acquiring the ability to write from sources is to respond to the lack of research comparing ESL and EFL learning contexts and instruction programs in order to assess the re-contextualization of ESL literacy instruction practices such as Writing Across the Curriculum in the USA and similar literacy programs in UK and Australia into the EFL context (see Cargill, Connor, & Li, 2012 for an initiative).

Methodologically speaking, this study used meta-ethnography as a useful approach for generating hypotheses which might be examined by other SL writing researchers. The methodology of the study was based on the assumption that meanings and concepts can be transferred across cases and contexts. Even though all of the constituent studies ended with a caution to the limited generalizability of their findings because of the limited number of participants, meta-ethnography is based on the claim that

there are generalizations to be made across qualitative research studies that do not supplant the detailed findings of individual studies, but add to them. To claim that generalization is not possible is to deny the transferability of any shared meanings or generative mechanisms (Britten et al. 2002, p. 214).

I believe that a meta-ethnographic approach has been worthwhile for synthesizing qualitative research to provide an in-depth understanding of the themes surrounding L2 RTW task representation across relatively larger numbers of participants and to highlight new horizons for advancing SL writing research, instruction, and development. However, it should be noted that one limitation of this study may be the limitedness of my vision in interpreting the findings of primary studies.

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Multilingual Behavior of Pesantren IMMIM Students in Makassar

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine 1) the pattern of language choice in various situations covering languages such as Indonesian, Arabic, English, and other local languages used at the Islamic boarding school (*Pesantren*) of IMMIM, 2) an overview of a linguistic phenomenon occurring at the *Pesantren* of IMMIM, and 3) the factors affecting students' languages selection.

This study was part of a *multimethod, multisite, or large-scale research* approach. To meet the need of the article, the researcher used a qualitative descriptive approach. The subjects were a group of 20 students who were purposively sampled to participate in this study. The instruments used to collect the data included observation, interview, and documentation. The data were analyzed descriptively through a three-stage model, namely data display, data reduction, and data presentation and verification.

The researcher found that 1) the pattern of language choice that was observed indicated that Indonesian was the instructional language for general school subjects and was used as a communication tool inside the classroom. Arabic was found to be the language hugely associated with Islamic subjects and also the language that must be used on certain days inside of *pesantren*. English was the language choice for the science subjects and must also be used on certain days. The local language was used

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to interact with students' families at the guest house during their visits to the pesantren; 2) aspects of *monolingualism, bilingualism, multilingualism, code-switching, code-mixing, diglossia, interference* and *Peslanglish* (Pesantren's Slang English) were observed which helped describe the overall linguistic situation at the pesantren; 3) the general factors affecting students' language selection were locations, topics, interlocutors, participants, and other determined factors (i.e., the students' educational backgrounds, motivation, habits, students' ages, mother tongues, teachers' educational backgrounds, and the environment).

Keywords: Language behavior, Multilingual, Language selection

Introduction

Multilingualism has played an important role in the globalization era as a tool to drive competitiveness among people or countries all over the world in such areas as economy, trade, politics, culture, and education. It was defined ordinarily as the ability to speak or to communicate in three or more languages (Vildomec, 1963; McArthur, 1992; Edwards, 1994; Kemp, 2009). The benefit of being multilingual outweighs the benefit of being monolingual because multilingualism is not restricted to linguistic knowledge only, but extends outside the area of language. The substantial long-lived cognitive, social, personal, academic, and professional benefits of enriched multilingual contexts have been well documented (Cummins, 1981; Diaz & Klingler, 1991; Cook, 2001; Lam & Rosario-Ramos, 2009). Therefore, in 2013, the United Nation (UN) took into account such multilingual advantages by organizing an essay writing contest on multilingualism (UN, 2013).

In 2015, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) will become ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), which demands that each country of ASEAN enhance its individual competence in order to be able to stay competitive in this era. Although the ASEAN Community is based on the three pillars (Political-Security Community, Economic Community and Socio-Cultural Community), education appears to be a cross-cutting element which supports a successful and stable formation of the ASEAN Community (Umezaki, 2012).

Indonesia is one country amongst the ASEAN members which provides its students with a foreign language education since the early age or in secondary school through a program called bilingual school or *Rintisan Sekolah Bertaraf Internasional*

(RSBI). Unfortunately, the program has been unsuccessful due to the unpreparedness of schools to deal with such a program and also due to the lack of students and teachers' competence in mastering English (Haryana, 2007; Mariati, 2007; Widowati, Rini, & Elvin, 2013). To fill the gap, it should be brought to the authorities' attention that there are still many schools out there that are capable of running the program such as the schools that are managed by various social foundations in Indonesia including *Pesantrens*. These schools do possess the students and teachers' multilingual competence required to make the program successful.

Pesantren or Islamic boarding school is an educational institution that has its roots in the Hinduism-Islamic educational system which was founded by Ki Hajar Dewantara as the indigenous education system of Indonesia since 1062 (Mastuhu, 1994; Yasmadi, 2002; Daulay, 2009; Madjid, 2013; Nizar, 2013; Engku & Zubaidah, 2014). Their educational learning system prioritizes the use of two foreign languages, Arabic and English, besides Indonesian and local languages, both as the medium of instruction in the teaching and learning process and in daily communication. The obligation to use these foreign languages is intended to improve students' knowledge in Islamic studies, and at the same time, expand their language repertoire.

Today, there are around 27.218 *pesantrens* in Indonesia including 240 *pesantrens* located in South Sulawesi/Makassar (Depag, 2011). *Pesantren* of IMMIM, one of the *pesantrens* of Makassar, was chosen as a research site for this study because of its interesting linguistic traditions. Since 1974, the two foreign languages, namely Arabic and English, have been taught at this school. Its students generally come from various tribes of eastern Indonesia with different ethnicities and languages, and also from other provinces in Indonesia such as Bugis, Makassar, Mandar, Palu, Kalimantan, Moluccas, Papua, and Java, making the *pesantren* community a very multilingual one.

Some previous studies that involved *pesantren* still focused on the method of language teaching and learning (Bin Tahir, 2011; Melor & Hadi, 2012). Some researchers studied linguistic and sociolinguistic issues related to the speech style, bilingualism, code-mixing and code-switching at *pesantren* (Hanidah, 2009; Rhohmatillah, 2013; Tantri, 2013), and some others discussed teaching morality, teaching *Kitab Kuning*, and religious learning (Van Bruinessen, 1994; Lukens-Bull, 2000; Zakaria, 2010). Those studies, however, did not consider thoroughly the

multilingual education that occurred at pesantren. These reasons motivated the researcher to conduct a research on the multilingual education at pesantren.

Based on the preliminary observation of the language use at pesantren of IMMIM, an interesting phenomenon related to *diglossia* surfaced that further raised the question of whether there was a distinctive pattern that could be drawn from the trends of language selection performed by the students at the school. In daily language use, the students are generally exposed to a variety of language usage patterns: (1) Indonesian, (2) Arabic, (3) English, and (4) the local languages. The choice of the language of courses depends on several factors such as the participants' linguistic background, interlocutors, the atmosphere, and topics.

The multilingualism phenomenon observed at this school was interesting to the researcher because such a linguistic situation, where a multilingual learning process and multilingual communication had become norms, was quite unique compared to the linguistic situations at other educational institutions. The pattern of language choice in such a multilingual community, such as that of pesantren of IMMIM, also can presumably lead to a variety of linguistic events. The linguistic events and the factors that influence language selection have been largely little known about. Yet, according to prevalent views in sociolinguistics, it is necessary to know one's awareness of and his or her loyalty in using language.

Despite the fact that Indonesia is a multilingual society with 726 languages (Crystal, 2000; Martí, at al., 2005), the multilingual education is still a new issue that must be examined in great depth to explore many sites which have contributed to the multilingual education. Thus, there are many aspects and approaches that should be considered before developing the multilingual education for pesantrens. The researcher applied a *multimethod, multisite, or large-scale research* approach to collect the data from a number of sites and employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection to explore the curriculum of several pesantrens in Makassar, languages choice and languages behavior, students and teachers' attitude toward the multilingual education, and the strategy used by students and teachers to develop their multilingual competence. The data will endorse the design of a needs analysis and situational analysis of the multilingual education for pesantren. It also enriches syllabus design, lesson plan, instruction, and course books of the multilingual education development for pesantren through research and development (Johnson, 1992).

This study focused on one variable that is multilingual behavior of pesantren IMMIM students in Makassar. In particular, the study addressed the following research questions in relation to the multilingual behavior of the students at this pesantren.

- 1) What is the pattern of the students' language choice in the classroom, outside the classroom and outside of pesantren?
- 2) How is the pattern of such linguistic events formed?
- 3) What factors have influenced students' language selection?

The significance of this research is expected to be used as information and reference before conducting further steps of a *multimethod* approach in the design of a needs analysis and situational analysis of the multilingual education development for pesantrens in Makassar.

Language Choice and Multilingual Behavior

The use of language is a form of social interaction that occurs in a variety of situations. The social interaction will live on due to the fact that language users regularly engage in activity of talking. Such an activity would be more successful if it is supported by tools and other determining factors such as situation (Labov, 1972). Language behavior and attitude are the two things that are closely related, which can determine the choice of language as well as the survival of a language. Language behavior is a mental attitude in selecting and using a language. Basically, one is free to choose the language and also to freely use the language. This freedom is a certain part of human rights. Although one is free to choose and use languages, but there are many factors that limit a person in selecting and using such languages (Burrige, 2010).

Language behavior and language attitude are part of a language community; the second term is almost difficult to give a meaningful difference. The research conducted by Ajzen (2002) concluded that language behavior was determined by four main factors, namely attitudes, social norms, habits, and a result that may occur. Among these four factors, the habit is the most powerful factor, whereas the attitude is the weakest factor. Therefore, it is clear that most of the language behavior is habitual and the attitude is not the only factor that determines the behavior.

Gumpers and Hymes (1972) confirmed the meaning of language behavior as the appropriate designation and definition of the domain of language behavior that

obviously calls for considerable insight into socio-cultural dynamicity of particular multilingual speech communities. Language behavior domains are reflect not only in a multilingual setting in which a number of activities have occurred but also in multilingual settings in which permissiveness is sought by a number of interested parties. Those domains encompassed the following 9 factors: family, playground and street, school, church, literature, press, military, courts, and governmental administration.

Based on the expert definition of language behavior, it is known that language behavior is closely related to the dynamic language community taking part in a variety of activities and groups. The use of language is also in tune with the cultural background of the community itself. The selection or the use of language occurs in the domains of a variety of speaking behaviors. Amongst those domains, there are 9 domains or regions, namely the social use of language families, group play, on the road, school, church, literature, journalism, military, judicial areas, and administration.

Some writers and researchers tried to define multilingualism based on the definition of monolingualism and bilingualism. The definitions, however, are still confused. For instance, Bloomfield (1933, p. 56) defined bilingualism as “the native-like control of two languages” whereas it is rigorous to be native-like caused by the fossilization of organ of speech in the early edge (12 years old) and it is tricky to master all skills of language that even a native cannot master them all (Zhaohong & Odlin, 2004). Consequently, the definition of bilingualism is still debated by the researchers and writers. Thus, the discussion of the definitions of multilingualism is complex.

In general, multilingual is a person who has the ability to use three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code-mixing. Different languages are used for different purposes and competence in each language varies and depends on such factors as register, occupation, and education (Vildomec, 1963; McArthur, 1992; Edwards, 1994). Multilingual individuals may not have equal proficiency in or control over all the languages they know. The term ‘polyglot’ is also sometimes used to describe multilingual individuals.

In a multilingual society, the attitude of one's language choice is determined by several factors. Among them are the topic of conversation, users of social classes, age groups, gender, and usage situations. A person who speaks two or more languages

will choose one of the languages to use, and sometimes this is called code-switching. Softer thing than code-switching is code-mixing that can be described as the pieces of the language used by a speaker, but basically he or she is using one language after another. The pieces of language taken from other languages are usually in the form of words, phrases or larger units of language. The use of flake form of words of language is called the borrowing (Bullock & Toribio, 2009).

Language contact results in multilingualism that often surfaces in the form of *mixes*, a label used here as a cover term for *code-switching*, *code-mixing* and *borrowing* in order to describe the utterances containing features of more than one language. Mixes are a *multilingual norm* of language use. They have had a mixed fate in the literature on multilingual acquisition. They are taken as evidence of linguistic shortcoming and linguistic proficiency, of language separation and language confusion, and of typical versus atypical developmental progress (Cruz-Ferreira, 2010).

The phenomenon of a speaker interfering the code basically uses a variant of a language. On the use of it, the speaker uses pieces of code and other languages. Once again, the speakers on the phenomenon of interference use codes only in a particular language variant. Someone who switches codes when talking to his or her interlocutor would be motivated. The motives underlying code switching are by examining the use made by speakers for the purpose of linguistic rhetoric. There has also been a good deal of interest in specifying the constraints on linguistic patterns of code mixing. Some progress has been made toward formalizing these constraints. Although there is likely to be much in these approaches which illuminate the dynamicity of monolingual style-switching, they have been developed mainly in bilingual communities (Milroy, 1998).

The views above imply that one's motivation to switch codes can be seen by observing the use of language for the purpose of linguistic rhetoric. Linguistic constraints on code switching patterns can also be seen by combining the labor theory of a universal language. Some improvement is classified into the code-mixing, code-switching, diglossia, and interference especially in people who use two or more languages.

Method

This study was part of a *multimethod, multisite, or large-scale research* approach (Johnson, 1992). To meet the need of the article, the researcher used a qualitative descriptive approach. 20 students from class II & III of senior high school of pesantren of IMMIM were purposively sampled. The following two criteria were used to choose the subjects: 1) they have lived in the pesantren for at least one year and 2) they can speak Indonesian, Arabic, English, and the local language well. The study was conducted from October, 07th 2013 to July, 05th 2014 in Makassar, Indonesia.

The primary data collection instrument was the researcher himself (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006) as an observer and an interviewer. It means that he decided what to be observed related to the problem statements. Then, he interpreted the data and confirmed the information about what has been observed by interviewing the students, the fellow students, and the teachers. The secondary instruments were an observation scheme and an interview protocol.

In collecting the data, the researcher employed three of the primary data collection techniques as follows:

a. Observation

The researcher as a nonparticipant observer or external observer was not directly involved in the situation that was being observed. The activities of observation were 1) the students' speaking activities in the classroom, language choice, and the reasons behind their use of such languages, 2) the students' speaking activities outside the classroom, language choice, and the reasons for using those languages, and 3) language use in the community, and the reasons behind their use of these languages. The researcher cross checked the data of the students' languages activities with their fellow students and teachers. The researcher wrote the field notes on the activities and used a videotape to record the verbal and nonverbal communication amongst the students, the fellow students, and the teachers, which later was confirmed and adjusted to field notes. Also, a volunteer assisted the researcher in the interview section.

b. Interview

In this study, the researcher interviewed the students, the fellow students, and the teachers using the voice recorders. The type of the interview was the semi-structured interview in which some questions were prepared before interviewing and some

additional questions were asked on the spot. The students and fellow students' interview was used to collect the qualitative data or confirmation toward what had been observed.

c. Documentation

In addition to the observation and interviews, the data were also gathered through documentary evidence.

The data analysis began with the selection of all the data collected from the various sources such as interview, observation, and documentation. The procedure of data analysis in this study coincided with the data collection process through a three stage model, namely data display, data reduction, data presentation and verification. However, these three stages took place simultaneously. Checking the validity of the data in the study referred to the formulation of the research result which involved three things, namely (1) persistence of observation, (2) triangulation of data, and (3) referential adequacy. The validity of the data was tested with the relevant reference sources through books, documents, and activities of students' speaking (Kothari, 2004; Cohen, Lawrence, & Keith, 2007).

Findings and Discussion

The observation and the interview data were derived from the teaching and learning process in the classroom, outside the classroom, and inside or outside of the pesantren environment. The data for students' spoken language were obtained from the tape recordings of the students' speaking and conversation activities. The data were also obtained from the documentation of the students' essays on the bulletin board, the administration documents, and the field notes.

All of the data were analyzed based on a sociological approach, a psychological approach, and a sociolinguistic approach which were all intended to cover the factors that may have affected the students' multilingual behavior.

Sociological Approach

Based on the findings related to the sociological approach, especially in the educational domain, the interpretation that can be drawn is that the Indonesian usage patterns are more likely to be required in a formal situation for general subjects, whether in the classroom or outside the classroom, and as the language choice for the activities outside the classroom such as scouts, ceremonial and sports.

The pattern of Arabic usage reveals that Arabic is used more as an instructional language for religious subjects in the classroom, and as a communication tool that must be used by the students outside the classroom on certain days. It is also used as an instructional language for the religious activities like speech practicing, reciting holy Quran, formal ceremonial, art, and writing on the wall board magazine.

The discovered pattern also suggests that English is used more as an instructional language for English and science subjects inside or outside the classroom. The use of English is also required during the specified time frame and in the certain activities such as the speech training, courses, ceremonial party, art, and writing on the wall magazine.

The pattern of local language usage indicates that the local languages are treated more as an alternative option especially when the students need to interact with each other or with the people from the same ethnic background in order to share secrets. The function of the local language itself is to enable its users to integrate into a particular ethnic community within the boarding school environment. When the students meet their families, they also tend to use the local languages. The use of the local languages is seen as a form of devotion and reverence to the parents and family.

The sociological approach of language behavior domains are reflected not only on a multilingual setting in which a number of activities have occurred but also in multilingual settings in which permissiveness is sought by a number of interested parties. It is in line with what Gumpers and Hymes (1972) pointed out about language behavior. The authors obviously called for considerable insight into socio-cultural dynamicity of particular multilingual speech communities.

Moreover, most of the students indicated that Arabic and English are widely used in the teaching of both languages in the classroom or outside the classroom. Arabic and English are also used in the religious celebrations and formal ceremonies. This means that there is a positive attitude that relates to the issue of pride when the students use these two foreign languages. On the other hand, they seemed to feel embarrassed and afraid when they do not use these foreign languages in certain situations. This phenomenon is mainly caused by the prohibition of Indonesian language or local language use in students' interactions with others within the pesantren environment. This is reinforced by various sanctions if they break the rules. The sanctions are usually in the form of requiring the students to memorize new

vocabulary in Arabic or English, clean the dormitory or barrack toilets, or pay certain fees for breaking the rules.

Furthermore, the students' multilingual behavior observed in the community outside of pesantren tends to favor the use of the native languages (Bugis, Makassar, Mandar, Maluku, and Javanese) during family-related occasions. Generally, the dominance of the Makassar language use by the students during familiar occasions can be interpreted as a positive attitude which reflects their pride toward their local language.

Psychological Approach

Language choice was analyzed using an approach that places an emphasis on the process of human psychology, which pays attention to individual motivation. In other words, social psychological research on language choice is more individual-oriented than social-oriented.

Based on the findings on students' motivation in studying Arabic, English, and Indonesian, it was found that most of them believed that the use of Arabic and English at school would increase their knowledge, expand relationships, and at the same time fulfill certain school language requirements. In addition, the sanctions or punishment imposed on the students who did not use Arabic or English were also believed to be a determining factor for language choice. This shows that some elements of the motivation are related to the personal needs such as the need to avoid punishment that is imposed when the students do not use these languages.

Sociolinguistic Approach

As mentioned earlier, the linguistic phenomena that frequently occurred at Pesantren of IMMIM were *code-switching*, *code-mixing*, *monolingual*, *bilingual*, *multilingual*, *diglossia*, *interference* and *Peslanglish* (Pesantren's Slang English). In the multilingual situation, the students tended to use their first language features when using the foreign languages. As a result, the various linguistic phenomena related to language selection occurred, one of which was code-mixing as in the following example:

Student said (in Indonesian): *Saya tahu ji itu*

Student said (in Arabic): أَنَا عَارِفٌ جِي ذَلِكَ (*Anaa 'aaref ji zaalik*)

Student said (in English): *I know ji that*

The frequent occurrence of the sentences similar to those three sentences in Indonesian, Arabic, and English shows that the students are heavily influenced by their local language, which is evident in their use of stem *Ji*. This means that code-mixing may occur in almost every sentence, indicating the heavy interference of the students' mother tongue. They also made use of some slang type of language, which the researcher has called it *Peslanglish*, as a medium to share secrets between them.

Student 1: *Be quite, Herbamount comes*

Student 2: *Just relax, he wouldn't teach us today, but Galaxy will*

The word *Herbamount* in the above instance refers to the students' description of the quick-tempered teacher, and the word *Galaxy* refers to the teacher who has a horrible face, large and big body, who is strict in giving punishment. Those words are used as slang and a way to share secrets and to humiliate the teacher they hated. This pattern of language selection is predicted to always be created and developed by the students to show intimacy within their group.

The influence of the first language will eventually diminish and disappear in formal speaking when the students live for about 8-11 months at the pesantren, in line with the increase in their second and third language proficiency. In their daily communication or non-formal speaking settings, it was observed that they were still influenced by their mother tongue, as depicted in Table 1.

Table 1

Languages Use at Pesantren of IMMIM

No	Situation	Code Switching	Code Mixing	Monolingual	Bilingual/ Multilingual	Diglossia	Interference
1	Indonesian in the classroom	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2	Arabic in the classroom	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	English in the classroom	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
4	PPKn and Math subjects	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
5	Religious Program	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
6	Scout Program, art, and sport	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
7	Writing on the bulletin board		✓	✓			✓
8	Individual letter				✓		
9	In the kitchen	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
10	In the environment of pesantren	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
11	In community outside pesantren	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓

(Source: Data of observation, 2014)

Factors Affecting Students' Multilingual Behavior

The selection of a particular language over another may have been influenced by several factors: the situation, the content of the conversation, and interaction functions. In addition, there are several other determining factors described as follows:

a. Students

1) The students' educational background

The majority of the students came from state primary schools, not from *Madrasah Ibtidaiyah* or Islamic elementary schools. This suggests that their Indonesian language was better as compared to their Arabic or English.

2) Motivation and habit

The students were motivated to choose Arabic and English, as well as Indonesian because of their desire to communicate with other students at the school and also to benefit from the available opportunity to practice their foreign languages. In addition, the habit of using foreign languages inside the pesantren was the most powerful factor in determining language behavior.

3) The age

The study found that age was a crucial factor which affected language learning. Students who were exposed to Multilingualism at an early age, especially the students of pesantren, were found to be more successful than their peers who had a later start. Early age was also found to be responsible for the children's increase in their multilingual proficiency level through the second/third language learning and practices.

4) Mother tongue

Mother tongues (Bugis, Makassar, Mandar, Moluccas, Java, and Indonesia) were very influential in determining language choice in the second as well as the third language acquisition and learning process. The results showed that the mother tongue became interrupted during the process of learning Arabic and English. This was a common occurrence; the students consciously or subconsciously made use of their first language features when using both Arabic and English. As a result, cases of *code-switching*, *code-mixing*, *bilingual*, *multilingual*, *digglossia* and *interference* were the common phenomena in the students' communication.

b. Teachers

The teachers and counselors at pesantren were also found to be influential in the students' language selection. The teachers of pesantren of IMMIM were found to be competent and had a good level of Arabic and English proficiency. Teachers were able to speak Arabic, English, or Indonesian well and they were able to respond to the students using the same language the students used.

c. Environment

The quality of language atmosphere was very important for the students to be successful in learning the languages. The results showed that language learning in the classroom environment can be characterized as a social and psychological factor which includes adjustments to the language selection, language use, and discipline. The existence of the disciplinary measures forced the students to speak a certain required language in accordance with the situation and the pesantren's rule such as using Indonesian for general subjects and classroom activities, using Arabic for religious instruction, and using English for science subjects. At certain times outside of the classroom while being unsupervised, the students used Arabic, English, Indonesian and local language, except for extracurricular activities such as scouts and sports in which the students chose to use Indonesian. In general, the environment, the interlocutors, and the situation did influence language choice at pesantren.

Conclusion

Based on the results and discussion, the following conclusions were drawn:

a. The Indonesian language functioned as the instructional language of general subjects and was used as a communication tool in the classroom. In addition, the Indonesian language was also used for extracurricular activities such as scouts, sports, ceremony, arts, and Indonesian speech competitions.

Arabic was the choice for Islamic subjects and used by the students on certain days inside pesantren to communicate with other fellow students. It was also the language used by the teachers of religious subjects for the recitation of the holy Qur'an and books of *Hadits*, and for communicating in a variety of activities such as Arabic speech practice, arts, debating, writing, formal ceremony, writing letters, announcements, calls, and conversations in or outside of the classroom.

English became the language choice for science subjects and was also used on certain days. English was used in a variety of activities with other fellow students and the English teachers such as in speech practice, arts, debating, formal ceremony,

writing for the wall magazine, writing letters, announcements, calls and conversations in and outside of the classroom.

The local languages were treated as tools to communicate or interact with other the fellow students from the same ethnic background, especially to share secrets. The local languages were particularly useful when students' families visited the pesantren or met the students outside of pesantren.

b. The cases of language selection that occurred at pesantren of IMMIM were *monolingual, bilingual, multilingual, code-switching, code-mixing, diglossia, interference, and Peslanglish*. In a language contact situation, the students tended to do a transfer of the features from their first language to the foreign language they used.

c. The factors affecting the language selection were the educational background of the students at the previous school, their level of motivation in selecting the languages, habits, ages, mother tongues, environment, and the teachers who were able to master two foreign languages and who facilitated the process of knowledge transfer to the students.

Implication of the Study

The present study aimed at investigating the language selection and multilingual behavior of pesantren of IMMIM students in Makassar. Some implications of the study can be concluded as follows:

First, based on the result of the study, it can be found that the in-depth consideration of language function, language selection, and the factors affecting the language selection is essential to strengthen the design of a needs analysis and situational analysis before developing multilingual education for pesantren. It is also beneficial to researchers who aim at designing a needs analysis to consider in great depth the sociological, psychological, and linguistic approaches.

Second, the study contributes to understanding the case of language selection that occurred at pesantren such as *monolingual, bilingual, multilingual, code-switching, code-mixing, diglossia, interference, peslanglish*, and transferring of the features from the first language to the foreign languages as information and reference in developing multilingual instructional model of pesantren.

However, the result of the present study is not intended to be generalized to all contexts/schools of multilingual behavior since the design of this research was

qualitative approach and the aim of this study was to investigate the language function, language selection, and the factors affecting the language selection at pesantren of IMMIM and how it can benefit the researchers to design a needs analysis and situational analysis accurately.

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The Attitudes of Teachers and Students of EFL Classes toward English Teaching and Learning Using Games and Pictures in Rural and Disadvantaged Schools in Indonesia: A Case Study

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a qualitative study aimed at assessing teachers' and students' attitudes toward English teaching and learning using games and pictures in rural and disadvantaged schools in Indonesia, taking into account the physical, cultural and socio-economic contexts. The data were collected from interviewing and observing English teachers (3 teachers) and students (15 students) of Junior High Schools in three different areas in East Nusa Tenggara Province. The results of this study revealed that the attitudes of both teachers and students toward teaching and learning English using games and pictures can be categorized into positive and negative ones. All the teachers think that English is important and that the use of games and pictures in teaching vocabulary to their students is a good way to improve the students' vocabulary acquisition and participation in the classroom. The students also have positive and negative attitudes toward teaching and learning English using games and pictures as media for teaching them. According to most of them, the use of games and pictures in teaching and learning process is an interesting phenomenon that can improve their motivation in learning English.

Keywords: Teachers' attitudes, Students' Attitudes, EFL Classes, Games, Pictures

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Introduction

It takes two to tango. It also takes two to make the teaching and learning process happen, both teacher and students. So the teacher and students are the key elements in the teaching learning process in the classroom. In the process of teaching and learning, not only the skills of the participants are needed but also other aspects have to be put into consideration, such as emotional intelligence.

In teaching, a teacher first of all has to have passion and interest not only for the subject but also for the students s/he is teaching. Having great passion and interest will create positive atmosphere in the classroom and this is important in the process of teaching and learning, especially teaching and learning English.

English is taught as the first foreign language in Indonesia. It is a core subject to be studied in all levels of schools, starting from junior high to universities/colleges. Several private institutions for early-year education have also included English in their curriculum as a core and/or elective unit.

As a school subject, English is not a really difficult subject to learn in schools in urban areas. Most teachers of these schools have already had good qualification to teach English, and students have already been skillful because it is not a totally new subject to them. However, teaching and learning English is still a problematical phenomenon for both teachers and students in rural areas. The difference between schools in urban and the ones in rural areas can be clearly seen through the level of support. Schools in urban areas can be said as having almost everything. They have the good aspects of students, teachers, teaching techniques, and resources, which cannot be found in rural areas.

In Indonesia, some schools which are located in urban areas and considered as outstanding—schools which fulfill the criteria of having good buildings, infrastructure, facilities, well-qualified teachers with up-dated teaching methods as well as teaching materials—have been trying to put English as the first priority among other subjects. English is even used as a medium of instruction for other subjects in these schools.

These schools also have good teaching-learning conditions because of the level of support mentioned above. Teachers do not find any difficulties in presenting materials and getting the students actively involved as many resources can be used to always create interesting teaching materials, like using games and pictures in the classroom. In this case, students can learn in such a way that they do not become

bored by the teaching-learning process because the teaching techniques presented are enjoyable. Teachers use games and pictures to improve students' vocabulary in a relaxed and enjoyable classroom context, and so students can actively participate in the lesson.

Unfortunately, not all schools are lucky enough to have this level of support, especially, schools in rural areas. These schools are far behind when compared to schools in big cities, not because the students lack the ability to compete with those in the city but because the teaching-learning conditions are very poor in these areas when considered from four main aspects, namely the students, the teachers, the teaching techniques, and the resources, as detailed below.

The students

There are some special features about students who have been involved in this study that should be taken into consideration in relation to vocabulary teaching and their present progress. They are junior high school students, aged between 13–15, who are in the eighth grade. Most of them do not speak Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia) as their first language but their local languages (mother tongues). Most of the teachers do not come originally from these places and so they do not speak local languages but Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia), and so they cannot use the local languages as instructional and explanatory language in the class. They do not really like to learn English as for them it does not belong to their culture.

Some other student-related problems which can affect learning are:

- (1) Going to school is a great difficulty for many students because of the distance from where they live to school. They will be tired by the time they get to school and will not be able to concentrate during lessons.
- (2) They are not used to having breakfast before going to school.
- (3) They have a low level of motivation toward English learning.
- (4) They believe that learning only takes place in the classroom with teachers, and they do not do any out-of-class learning.
- (5) The students tend to be unwilling to make the effort to study because they have experienced a very undemanding system since they were in elementary school where failure to study had no adverse consequences.

The Teachers

Most EFL teachers, especially those who teach in rural areas, find it difficult to communicate with students because of the language problem mentioned earlier. That is one of the reasons why vocabulary becomes such a difficult subject to be taught at these schools as there are no tools to bridge the gap in communication.

Moreover, teachers rarely or even never create teaching materials using different teaching techniques or teach in creative ways. This is not because they are unqualified but simply because they have never been included in any special in-service training for improving their teaching performance.

The Teaching Techniques

Teachers do not have a range of techniques and methods at their command. They rely only on the textbook and students' contributions are generally confined to standard responses and repetition. This is boring and monotonous for the students and for the teachers.

Resources

The only resource available to the English language teacher is the textbook provided. Opportunities for creativity in the classroom are therefore limited.

It can be seen that these are multiple factors that contribute to the poor teaching-learning conditions. Factors, such as lack of professional teachers, the far distance from houses to schools, lack of facilities in the library and/or laboratory, lack of support from parents, and lack of ability of the regional level to do the budgeting for schools, contribute greatly to the low quality of education in Indonesia in general.

However, better outcomes can be achieved if there is a change to even one of the factors mentioned above. For example, if there is a change in the way teachers present their materials and so those materials can be interestingly presented, the students might have a higher level of motivation and they might actively join the lesson despite their tiredness.

Three schools at junior high level in rural areas will be the places to conduct this study. These schools are all in East Nusa Tenggara Province (Indonesia)-which is one of the poorest provinces in Indonesia-located in three different regions. The

conditions in all these schools are more or less the same, seen from the physical condition of schools, facilities, resources, teachers, and teaching-learning conditions.

Generally, they have the same problem dealing with communication, because teachers do not originally come from those areas and do not speak the local languages well, and conversely, students do not speak Bahasa Indonesia well and this sometimes creates a communication gap.

The differences between teaching conditions in urban and rural areas contribute directly to the attitudes of both teachers and students in teaching and learning English, either positive or negative. However, the overall objective of this study was to examine teachers' and students' attitudes toward English teaching and learning using games and pictures in rural and disadvantaged schools in Indonesia, taking into account the physical, cultural and socio-economic contexts. The exemplificatory and exploratory purpose was to be able to identify whether or not teaching English using games and pictures in improving vocabulary acquisition of EFL students of Junior High Schools in rural areas in East Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, has good responses from both teachers and students from these three schools.

Literature Review

This part will discuss the use of games and pictures and how they would possibly improve the learning environment in the classroom.

Games

Games are considered as aids to language teaching. They can be presented in a fun and interesting way. However, "they should not be regarded as a marginal activity, filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do" (Lee, 1986, p. 3). Many writers who have dealt with using games in teaching vocabulary in the classroom for years argue that using games in the classroom is an effective way to help students acquire vocabulary and has great advantage (Lee, 1965, 1986; Silvers, 1982; Richard-Amato, 1988; Hansen, 1994; Wierus & Wierus, 1994; Zdybiewska, 1994; Uberman, 1998).

Fun activities can be found in games but there is "pedagogical value" attached to those fun activities. Besides, these kinds of activities are interesting to be applied in ESL or EFL class as "they are often highly motivating, relevant, interesting, and comprehensible" (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 147). Similarly, Lee (1965) states that

games usually have visibly and stimulative goals which can replace the monotonous and boring activities in teaching learning process, especially in EFL classroom. Lee further claims that

the situations which bring a foreign language to life in the classroom are provided by gestures, by handling and touching things, by actions and incidents, by pictures, by dramatization, by interesting stories spoken or in print-and not least by certain contests and games (Lee, 1965, p. 2).

In ESL or EFL class, most language games are aimed to “distract learners’ attention from the study of linguistic form” and make them “stop thinking about the language and instead use it, receptively or productively” (Lee, 1986, p. 3).

In this study, games were used as a tool to present vocabulary in the classroom as in vocabulary game. They could be seen as a creative language use. Teaching vocabulary through games is a technique used to motivate the students to learn as well as increase their interest and also include both productive and receptive skills at the same time (Chen, 2005).

Conceptual Framework and Characteristics

Why games? And what are the advantages of including games in the teaching learning process of vocabulary?

There are some advantages of using games in the classroom (Chen, 2005, p. 2), such as,

- they are learner-centered
- promote communicative competence
- create a meaningful context for language use
- increase learning motivation
- reduce learning anxiety
- integrate various linguistic skills
- encourage creative and spontaneous use of language
- construct a cooperative learning environment
- foster participatory attitudes of the students

Dealing with the advantages of games, Deesri (2002, p. 2) states that “games are effective because they provide motivation, lower students’ stress, and give them the opportunity for real communication”.

Games can also be said as natural part of growing up for students because they experiment, discover and interact with their environment through games. Games are referred to as “a powerful language learning tool” which helps the students to “use the language” by using both “productive and receptive skills” (Chen, 2005, p. 1).

Many teachers still do not consider presenting games in the classroom as a teaching technique in teaching vocabulary because the word game itself is seen as set of entertaining activities and not for learning. Games are thought as leisure activities which are not supposed to be conducted in the classroom during the teaching-learning process. According to them, the teaching and learning process itself has to deal with serious matters.

However, the concept of learning through games can be useful in the language classroom. It can be applied by all teachers in the classroom as long as it relates to the overall topic of the lesson and has a clear lexical or structural focus. According to Hu and Deng (2007), if teachers can apply the vocabulary games appropriately in the classroom in order to help the students in learning, the result of the study might be twice as much with only half the effort.

Types of Games

There are many types of games which can be applied in teaching vocabulary in the classroom, so teachers have a variety of choices. However, as mentioned before, in choosing the games, teachers have to be able to link them with the topic of the lesson that is going to be presented.

In addition, teachers have to know several important things before choosing the games. They have to be sure that the games are not too complicated for students to understand. Games should be simple so that students can understand the instruction easily. The types of games have to be at the students’ level which means the tasks should be within their ability, achievable but stimulating. By playing these kinds of games students can practice all the language skills or at least know something about the language they are learning. As stated by Uberman (1998, p. 87), games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency and communicative skills. If not for any of these

reasons, they used be used just because they help students see the beauty in a foreign language and not just problems that at times seem overwhelming.

There are many kinds of games to be applied in the classroom in teaching vocabulary such as labeling a diagram, matching definitions, guessing the word, hangman, half a crossword, matching pairs activities, alphabet-category game, bingo, memory game, puzzles (Watcyn-Jones, 1993; Hill, 1995; Wealand, 2008) with various levels of difficulty and so teachers have to be able to choose the right one for their students.

Pictures

In teaching vocabulary in an EFL classroom, there is a variety of techniques that can be used by teachers in defining words for students (Yun & Cervantes, 2006), and among all, there is the simplest one that is using pictures. The saying ‘a picture speaks a thousand words’ emphasizes how important it is to use pictures in the classroom. The use of pictures as visual representations in the classroom can help teachers to illustrate meaning to students. As with games, pictures can also act as stimulating and interesting media in the teaching-learning process, and they are considered as useful and effective media in teaching English as Second or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL).

Conceptual Framework and Characteristics

One of the basic reasons why teachers use pictures in teaching vocabulary is because pictures help students to understand easily, especially in schools where teachers and students do not communicate using the same language. In this case, there will be a gap in communication in the classroom, and pictures can help to bridge the communication gap between teachers and students.

Besides, there are some other beneficial things why pictures are needed in the teaching and learning process in the classroom:

- Mostly students respond well to pictures as pictures can greatly enhance students’ understanding of what teachers are talking about.
- Pictures make teachers’ verbal description clearer. “Adding the visual to the verbal clarifies thoughts and brings everything into focus” (Nash, 2009, p. 79)
- Students can become active participants in their own learning while teachers are only facilitators.

- Using pictures takes the pressure off having to listen to get information and also helps to make directions more meaningful.
- Pictures activate different parts of the brain (Boulter, 2002) and there is a close relation between memory and visual images (Harris, 1991).

Other reasons for choosing pictures in the classroom are because they are easily found, they can be used for enjoyment, they set the scene or context, they give us information, they interest us, and they are a key resource (Goodman, 2006, p. 1). Pictures can be useful in the classroom for teachers to make directions more meaningful for students. They also can be used in teaching about processes, like how to make something or how to do something. A good technique is also to link pictures with words.

Types of Pictures

The types of pictures to be used in vocabulary learning in the classroom have to be in line with the teaching material; in this case teachers have to know the objective of the lesson to match with the pictures which are going to be used (Tuttle, 1975). Moreover, teachers have to make sure that pictures which are going to be used are clear and large enough for the class to look at. Pictures can be taken from different sources such as magazines, newspapers, books, catalogs, calendars, posters, advertisements, coloring books, comic books, postcards, etc.

There are several samples of ideas for ESL/EFL teachers in teaching vocabulary using pictures which can also be applied to teach other skills of English. Houston (1999, p. 2-3) listed some of these ideas:

- Copy some interesting pictures of people from magazine ads. Give a picture to each student, have the student fold up the bottom of the picture about half an inch, and write something the person might be thinking or saying. Put all the pictures up on the board, and let everyone come up and take a look.
- Draw a map of your country or another country that your students know well. By drawing lines, show students where you went on a trip, and tell them about it. Then call on several students to do the same. The trips can be truthful or fictional.
- Hang up four different posters (example – one of a world map, one of a famous singer, one of a flower, and one of Einstein) in the four corners of your room.

Tell students to choose one corner to stand in, and talk about why they chose that poster.

- Pass around some magazines, and have each student choose an ad that he or she likes. Give students an opportunity to explain their choices.

There are still many more activities using pictures which can be applied in the classroom by teachers by considering the level of students and learning objectives. In this study, the games and pictures were taken from various sources in order to match with the topics from the textbooks prepared by schools and the level of the students' grade.

Method

Subjects

The study took place in East Nusa Tenggara Province in Indonesia, and the participants were the students and their English teachers. The students were in the eighth grade of three different schools in three different rural areas. The study lasted for six months (two months for each school).

There were some reasons why these schools were chosen, and one of the major reasons was because the teachers from these schools often complain about how difficult it has been teaching in rural areas. One thing that made it more difficult was the communication gap between students and teachers. Teachers in these areas and in almost all rural areas do not originally come from these areas and so they do not understand the local languages well. On the other hand, students always communicate using their local languages. This condition had made it difficult for both teachers and students to understand each other in the teaching learning process in the classroom.

The subjects of this research were the students of the eighth grade of each school. There were some classes of the same level at each school, for example there were classes like VIIIA, VIIIB, VIIIC, etc. but only one class was permitted to be used and it was randomly chosen as these schools had no graded classes. The reason why the students of the eighth grade were chosen was because they had been learning English for more than one year (started when they were in the seventh grade) and so it was not totally new to them. This could not be applied to the students of the seventh grade because they had just started learning English and they did not recognize English at all before, so they might find difficulties learning English using games and

pictures. It could actually be applied to the students of the ninth grade, but they failed to get permission from the principals because they were being prepared for their final examination and so they could not be bothered with other things.

Data Collection

Observation and interview were the instruments of this study. The researcher used a list of questions to interview both the teachers and students (the type of interviews was semi-structured with fixed-alternative-yes/no and open-ended questions). The observation sheets as well as the field notes (done on a continuous basis and in narrative genre) were used as the main instruments in order to obtain greater clarity in classroom practices and a true picture of opinions or feelings.

The interviews were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia and sometimes it was needed to switch to the students' local dialect if they did not really understand the questions.

The researcher observed the teaching and learning process in the classroom for about two months. In this case, the researcher observed the way the teachers taught and how the students learned and participated in the teaching and learning process. In order to support the observation data, both the teachers and students were interviewed. The data were then interpreted in the qualitative way in describing the attitudes of both the teachers and students toward English teaching and learning using games and pictures in the rural and disadvantaged schools in Indonesia, taking into account the physical, cultural and socio-economic contexts.

Results and Discussion

Based on the interview and observation, the attitudes of both the teachers and students toward teaching and learning English in general, and teaching English using games and pictures in particular were categorized into the positive and negative ones, taking into account the physical, cultural, and socio-economic contexts.

Teachers' Positive Attitudes

Teachers had several positive attitudes toward things dealing with teaching and learning English:

1. All the teachers in the three schools think that English is important. This can be seen from the way they see the subject they are teaching. They are very serious in

teaching their students because they want their students to master English well. This attitude can also be seen from their answers in the interview:

Extracts from interview

School 1

Interviewer : Okay. Now, according to you, how important is English?

Teacher : To me, personally, English is important, especially for the future.

Extracts from interviews

School 2

Interviewer : Okay. Now, according to you, how important is English?

Teacher : To me, English is very important, especially for the future time. Nowadays English is needed everywhere.

Extracts from interviews

School 3

Interviewer : Okay. Now, according to you, how important is English?

Teacher : To me, English is very important as it's one of the subjects which is included in national examination.

2. The teachers had positive attitudes about giving homework to students. They always give homework to students before ending the lesson. According to them, giving homework is important as it can help students to do the review of the previous lesson at home and so they will not forget the lesson easily. The answers can be seen from the extracts below:

Extracts from interviews

School 1

Interviewer : Eem..how often do you give homework to your students?

Teacher : I always give them homework after every meeting time.

Interviewer : According to you, what is the purpose of homework?

Teacher : To me, homework is given in order to make them learn and find the answers of the given questions at home, as not all things can be done in the classroom because of the limit of time.

Extracts from interviews

School 2

Interviewer : What do you think the purpose of giving them homework?

Teacher : It's good to always give them homework, actually. First, they can review the previous lessons, second, they can spend their time wisely by studying at home and not just playing, etc. But if they have no motivation at all to do it and also no back up support from their parents, it'll be useless. We, teachers are not going to spend time with them

24 hours in a day so we can't control them. So I've decided to focus only on in class learning.

Extracts from interviews

School 3

Interviewer : Okay, now about homework. How often do you give homework to your students?

Teacher : I always give them homework every time we finish the lesson.

Interviewer : According to you, what's the purpose of giving them homework?

Teacher : My aim is to give them opportunity to review the lesson at home and so they won't forget the lesson easily.

On this point, teachers of the first and second school had positive attitude toward their students do the homework, whereas a teacher of school 3 preferred not to give any more homework as the students did not always do it, so he preferred to focus on class learning.

3. The teachers of school 1 and 3 had positive attitudes toward the way their students learn English.

Extracts from interviews

School 1

Interviewer : What about students' motivation? How do you motivate the unmotivated?

Teacher : Eem..I keep on giving questions to him or her. Although it's difficult for him or her to answer or even s/he will give no answer at all but yeah.. I keep pushing them and so they can say a word. It hasn't worked yet, but I do hope someday it'll work.

Interviewer : How do you push them?

Teacher : With a bit anger, of course. I do hope by using that way they can change to be braver. Actually, they've got a good motivation to learn English, all I need is to make them brave, that's all.

Extracts from interviews

School 3

Interviewer : How do you motivate the unmotivated?

Teacher : By giving motivation and compliments. I also try to show them that I really appreciate every effort they make, no matter how small it is.

Interviewer : So you find it works?

Teacher : I think so, that's what I've seen so far... although their improvement isn't much but they have the willing to study, that's more important to me.

For them, the students' improvement is not that important but their motivation and willingness to study is the most important thing in learning. This attitude influences the way they see their students as EFL learners in the classroom. These two teachers have good motivation in teaching and getting their students to be active in the classroom.

4. Another positive attitude of these teachers was showed toward the new teaching media using games and pictures. After teaching using games and pictures for several times, they all agreed that the media are good ones in improving the students' vocabulary acquisition and participation in the classroom. Teachers also showed their positive attitude toward the use of games and pictures in teaching by mentioning the advantages and benefits like the ones mentioned in the part of literature review that the students become active participants and respond well during the teaching and learning process.

Extracts from interviews

School 1

Interviewer : How do you find teaching using the new technique compared to the previous one?

Teacher : Wow, this technique is great. It's very helpful because eeh,-- I can see that the students become brave to say things and answer the questions out loud individually for the questions I give. Even though it's not that fluent, but that's okay. To me, it's a good start.

Interviewer : Do you think the students can actively participate in the classroom using this technique?

Teacher : Definitely, they become very active in joining the lesson. I am so happy as a teacher as I don't need to spend 80 minutes period talking alone in the classroom ((smile)).

Extracts from interviews

School 2

Interviewer : How do you find teaching using the new technique compared to the previous one?

Teacher : Well, to me, this' a good technique. But I think it'll be time consuming, so 80 minutes isn't going to be enough for finishing one topic.

Interviewer : Do you think the students can actively participate in the classroom using this technique?

Teacher : Yes, I can see that some of them are active during the teaching-learning process in the classroom.

Extracts from interviews

School 3

Interviewer : How do you find teaching using the new technique compared to the previous one?

Teacher : Emm.. I think this new technique or method is good and helpful, not only for me as a teacher but also for the students.

Interviewer : Do you think the students can actively participate in the classroom using this technique?

Teacher : Certainly. I can see that they are very active and energetic in joining the English class. Even those who were very quiet in the class before seem enjoy the lesson very much. It's awesome.

Teachers' Negative Attitudes

In addition to their positive attitudes, the teachers also had some negative attitudes toward things dealing with teaching and learning English.

1. They had negative attitudes toward teaching in rural areas as for them it was more difficult than teaching in cities, seen from many aspects including students' attitudes toward the difficulty of English. Teachers' negative attitudes dealing with the comfort and easiness of teaching in the urban areas compared to the places they are teaching refers to the physical situation and condition of teaching English in the rural and disadvantaged schools. Looking from the angle of socio-economic aspect, the teachers also had negative attitudes dealing with the students' way of living; having no breakfast and walking for quite a long distance to schools make their students lazy to study. Lack of parents' attention to their education also makes these students demotivate in learning, especially English subject.

Extracts from interviews

School 1

Interviewer : So you are saying, teaching in other places, especially in cities is far better than here?

Teacher : Absolutely, it's better, easier and more comfortable, because your students can understand what you teach easily. Besides, it's also easy to find teaching materials. For the students here, English is more difficult than other subjects as they say the way it's written is totally different from the way it is read. Not to mention the way to pronounce English words.

Extracts from interviews

School 2

Interviewer : Is it because of the condition of the students themselves? I mean, does the low motivation relates to their social, economics and cultural condition?

Teacher : It might be, because it's not like this in Kupang and from what I heard from my other fellow teachers who teach in other rural areas, the condition of the students in their schools is not this bad. Their laziness to come to school because they live far away from here and they always come on foot. Most of the students never have breakfast. How can they have meal for breakfast if their parents sell all the foodstuff in the market?.. It's not that their parents don't have enough money for their meal and school. The problem is they prepare the money to be used in cultural and traditional occasion for the sake of name and glory. What I can see is culture and tradition are on the top of everything else, including school. Most parents don't really care about their children's school, whether or not they attend the class, do their homework, etc.. as for them once they come to school to register their children, it'll be the responsibility for teachers to take care of their children. They don't want to know anything else about school matters but by the end of the semester, their children have to pass the test, that's it.. Otherwise, they'll come with some traditional weapon and destroy this school..... ((smile))

For the teachers of school 1 and 3, they do not really mind teaching these students although English is seen as something which is very difficult, because according to them, these students have high level of motivation to study, and that is more important. Whereas, the teacher of the second school seems to be pessimistic about his students as they have no motivation at all to learn English. This refers to the cultural aspect, as schools 1 and 3 are located on the similar island called Timor Island, while school 2 is located on a different island. It is assumed that being on the similar island makes students of these two schools have more or less similar cultural background.

2. Teachers also have negative attitudes toward the teaching method they have been using so far. They realize that they have been using an unhelpful method but they have no other choice as it has been used for years in their schools.

Extracts from interviews

School 1

Interviewer : Would you please briefly describe activities you have implemented in the classroom dealing with teaching and learning vocabulary?

Teacher : Eem.. first of all, I read them a text, eem.. then I ask them to write down the words

which are considered as difficult ones and the meanings in their books, then.. eeh, while I am reading the text in front of the classroom, they have to write down the things they catch from my reading.

Interviewer : Does it work so far?

Teacher : Frankly speaking, this method isn't good at all, but I really don't know what else to do as for us here no other methods can be used in teaching English, especially vocabulary.

Extracts from interviews

School 2

Interviewer : Would you please briefly describe activities you have implemented in the classroom dealing with teaching and learning vocabulary?

Teacher : Well.. actually, I've no special activity for teaching vocabulary. I just teach whatever inside the textbook. If there's a text, I'll write it down on board, translate into Bahasa Indonesia and ask them to write down in their notebooks. Sometimes I teach structure, and that's it.

Interviewer : Does it work, so far?

Teacher : Well, I can't say that it works as no improvement at all. It's a kind of static. If I ask about the material of the previous lesson, nobody knows. Everyone will be quiet and smile ((laugh))

Extracts from interviews

School 3

Interviewer : Would you please briefly describe activities you have implemented in the classroom dealing with teaching and learning vocabulary?

Teacher : First I write down the text on the blackboard, then I ask the students to copy down in their books, and find the difficult words in their dictionaries.

Interviewer : So they find the meaning of the difficult words themselves?

Teacher : Yes.

Interviewer : What happens to those who don't have dictionaries? I asked them yesterday and most of them said they didn't have dictionaries.

Teacher : I usually put them in groups. So those who don't have dictionaries will be in the same group with those who have, so they can work together.

Interviewer : Do you find the way you use work so far?

Teacher : Well, for the condition of schools in rural areas like this, I think this method isn't bad at all, it's quite helpful.. as there're no other methods so far... I realize that by using this way, the students find it boring and monotonous, but what else we can do?.. As long as they can study well, I don't think there's a problem with that.

By using the method, their teaching is mainly about reading and a little bit of structure and no other skills included. No particular method is used for teaching vocabulary.

Students' Positive Attitudes

The students have several positive attitudes toward English teaching and learning, and one of their positive attitudes is they always study regularly at home. Almost all the students of schools 1 and 3 have similar attitudes, but only few students of school 2 say they usually study regularly at home. Others say they will study if they have homework or even if they have time. About where they usually study, almost all the students say they can study wherever they want at home.

Extracts from interviews

School 1

- Interviewer : What time do you usually study in the dormitory?
Student 4 : 6 p.m to 8 p.m
Interviewer : Everyday?
Student 4 : Yes.

Extracts from interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : What time do you usually study at home?
Student 2 : From 7 to 8 p.m.
Interviewer : Every day?
Student 2 : Not always.. only when I have to do my homework.

Extracts from interviews

School 3

- Interviewer : What time do you usually study at home?
Student 4 : I usually study at night as I have to help my parents in the field after school.
Interviewer : Aren't you tired after working in the field?
Student 4 : No, I get used to it.

Another positive attitude of the students is they can arrange their time equally between helping their parents at home and studying, and the students of the first and third schools can do this better than the students of the second school.

Mostly, the students of schools 1 and 3 like English although it is difficult. A few students of school 2 say they like English because it is important, but mostly say they do not like English (see the part of 6.2.4. students' negative attitudes).

Extracts from Interviews

School 1

- Interviewer : What's your favourite subject?
Student 3 : English.
Interviewer : Any subjects you don't like?
Student 3 : Mathematics.
Interviewer : Why do you like English?
Student 3 : It's interesting.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : What subject do you like best?
Student 5 : English.
Interviewer : What subject don't you like?
Student 5 : Natural sciences.
Interviewer : Why do you like English?
Student 5 : Because English is important.

Extracts from Interviews

School 3

- Interviewer : What subject do you like best?
Student 4 : English.
Interviewer : Any particular subjects you don't like?
Student 4 : None.
Interviewer : Why do you like English?
Student 4 : Because English is ++ important and I'm interested in learning it.

The same thing happens with their attitudes toward school and homework. The students of school 1 and 3 say they like coming to school as well as doing their homework, but the students of the third school are not so interested in these two things (see the next part of students' negative attitudes).

After having been taught using the games and pictures method, all the students of these three schools agree that they do like this method and want to be taught using this method rather than the previous one.

Extracts from Interviews

School 1

- Interviewer : Okay, student 1,..we have been using games and pictures in learning English for several times, how do you find it so far, which one is better, learning English by reading and writing or using games and pictures?

- Student 1 : Using games and pictures is better.
- Interviewer : Do you find it difficult to use games and pictures in learning?
- Student 1 : No, not at all.
- Interviewer : In order to memorize well, which way is better used, the new way with games and pictures or the previous one used by your teacher?
- Student 1 : The new way using games and pictures is better.
- Interviewer : Why do you think it is so?
- Student 1 : By looking at the pictures, it's easy for us to remember the words.
- Interviewer : Do you think you can participate actively in the teaching learning process by using this method?
- Student 1 : Yes.
- Interviewer : What about the previous method?
- Student 1 : The class was silent most of the time as what we did were to listen to the teacher and write down in our books.
- Interviewer : Which method do you prefer from the two?
- Student 1 : The new method, the one with games and pictures.
- Interviewer : Why?
- Student 1 : Because it's more interesting and easier to understand. We are not bored as well.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : Okay, student 3,..we have been using games and pictures in learning English for several times, how do you find it so far, which one is better, learning English by reading and writing or using games and pictures?
- Student 3 : The new way is better.
- Interviewer : Do you find it difficult to use games and pictures in learning?
- Student 3 : No. Pictures help me understand things easily.
- Interviewer : In order to memorize well, which way is better used, the new way with games and pictures or the previous one used by your teacher?
- Student 3 : The new way is better.
- Interviewer : Why do you think it is so?
- Student 3 : I can understand well by looking at the pictures.
- Interviewer : What about the previous method?
- Student 3 : We don't understand.
- Interviewer : Do you think you can participate actively in the teaching learning process by using this method?
- Student 3 : Yes.

- Interviewer : What about the previous method?
- Student 3 : We don't understand many things because what we always do is just to write down the lesson.
- Interviewer : Which method do you prefer from the two?
- Student 3 : Games and pictures.
- Interviewer : Why?
- Student 3 : It's easier to do the exercises while looking at the pictures.

Extracts from Interviews

School 3

- Interviewer : Okay, student 4,..we have been using games and pictures in learning English for several times, how do you find it so far, which one is better, learning English by reading and writing or using games and pictures?
- Student 4 : The one with games and pictures.
- Interviewer : Do you find it difficult to use games and pictures in learning?
- Student 4 : No, Pictures make everything clear.
- Interviewer : In order to memorize well, which way is better used, the new way with games and pictures or the previous one used by your teacher?
- Student 4 : Using games and pictures is better.
- Interviewer : What makes you think that way?
- Student 4 : Pictures make things clearer and make the lesson more interesting.
- Interviewer : Do you think you can participate actively in the teaching learning process by using this method?
- Student 4 : Yes, my friends and I can be active during the teaching learning process in the classroom as we can find the answer ourselves and at the same time we can play while learning.
- Interviewer : What about the previous method?
- Student 4 : In the previous method the things we always do are to listen to the teacher's explanation and to copy down in our books.
- Interviewer : Which method do you prefer from the two in learning new words in English?
- Student 4 : I prefer learning with games and pictures.
- Interviewer : Why?
- Student 4 : It makes learning more interesting and fun.

They find this method easier either for memorizing things or participating well in the classroom. According to them, the teaching-learning process in the classroom becomes more interesting and fun using games and pictures.

Students' Negative Attitudes

Alongside their positive attitudes, the students also have some negative attitudes toward things dealing with teaching and learning English. Most of the students, especially those who are from the first and third schools, think that English is interesting, on the other hand, all of them think that it is a difficult subject to be learnt. The way these students' sees English as a difficult subject can be seen from physical and cultural aspects. Physically, they do not really like the difference between the oral and written forms of words in English. This is mostly felt by the students of schools 1 and 3. The students of schools 3 find it difficult to learn English because basically they do not really like this subject. This is categorized as the cultural aspect because English is viewed as a language which does not belong to their culture.

Extracts from Interviews

School 1

- Interviewer : Do you think English is easy or difficult?
Student 5 : It's difficult.
Interviewer : Why do you think it is difficult?
Student 5 : It might be because the way we write and read is not the same and it makes us confused, and also there are many words have to be memorized.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : Do you think English is easy or difficult?
Student 2 : It's difficult, because it's not our language..and this makes us not like English.

Extracts from Interviews

School 3

- Interviewer : Do you think English is easy or difficult?
Student 5 : There are some parts which are easy, but some others are difficult. The way to pronounce English words is quite easy but at the time when we have to memorize the words is the difficult part ((smile)).

The way to spell and pronounce words in English is difficult for them, and also they find it difficult to remember and memorize the words. Difficulty is the only negative attitude for the students of school 1 and 3.

For the students of school 2, their other negative attitudes are they like neither school nor homework. They also do not like English and do not have a regular schedule to study at home.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : Do you like coming to school?
Student 3 : Sometimes yes, sometimes no.
Interviewer : Why is that?
Student 3 : ((smile)) if I get up late, I won't come to school.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : Does he usually give homework?
Student 2 : Not always.
Interviewer : Do you always do your homework?
Student 2 : Only if it's easy.
Interviewer : And what happens if it's difficult?
Student 2 : ((smile and nod))

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : Any particular subject that you don't like?
Student 1 : Yes. English.
Interviewer : Why don't you like English?
Student 1 : Em..em.. +++ because it's difficult and I don't understand.

Extracts from Interviews

School 2

- Interviewer : What time do you usually study at home?
Student 4 : From 8 to 9 p.m.
Interviewer : Every night?
Student 4 : Sometimes.

It can be seen from the result of the interviews that both the teachers and students from schools 1 and 3 have almost similar attitudes toward English as well as the use of games and pictures in teaching, while a little different attitude has been shown by the teacher and students of school 2. This might be because of the location of schools. Schools 1 and 3 are on the similar island and school 2 is located on a different island from the other two schools. Living on a similar island creates similar cultural belief among them and so they have quite similar ways of seeing things. In short, the way we see things will create our attitudes toward those things and this issue relates to our cultural beliefs.

Conclusion

There are many important factors to make the teaching and learning process become successful, and one of them is the attitudes of both teachers and students. If they have negative attitudes toward one another as well as the subject they are dealing with, then it would be possible that the process of teaching and learning will fail. The teaching and learning English, particularly, English vocabulary will be interesting if teachers use games and pictures as the ones used in this study. All the teachers and students like using these media and show positive attitude toward them. However, both parties also show negative attitudes toward teaching and learning English that is generally seen from both the physical and socio-economis, as well as the cultural aspects.

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**Attitudes toward Autonomy in Learning English: A Case in
Cenderawasih University Papua, Indonesia**

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

This paper addressed the issue of autonomy in learning focusing on perceptions of learners and lecturers on the issue of autonomy in learning English. Experiences show that differences in perceptions on various aspects of instruction among teachers and learners may be counterproductive to attainment of certain educational innovations. A survey was conducted at Cenderawasih University Jayapura to assess students' attitude toward autonomy in learning and lecturers' beliefs in their learners' capacity to be responsible for seeking opportunities for making progress in their learning of English. Two sets of questionnaires were developed and distributed to 57 students and 9 lecturers of English Teaching Program. The results showed that although the majority of the learners tend to show positive attitude toward autonomy in learning English, they have not explored it fully because of lacking confidence and training. In a rather cautious way the lecturers acknowledged the value of autonomous learning for their learners. However, they were reluctant to assign the learners to work independently because the learners were considered less willing and lacked capacity for performing such tasks successfully. Consequently the lecturers were reluctant to seek the efforts to foster their learners to be autonomous in learning.

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Key words: Attitudes, Learner autonomy, Learning English

Introduction

Teaching is a complex profession (Amstrong, Henson, & Savage, 2009). Therefore, teachers should be carefully selected according to competence. In other words, not everyone can be a teacher, as teachers should be able to develop their pedagogical, professional, social, as well as personal competences (Ministry of National Education, 2011). In teaching, teachers not only merely impart knowledge to students in accordance with their best preparation, but are also required to be able to motivate students to learn and teach them how to learn in a manner that is relevant, meaningful and memorable. One of the ways to teach students how to learn is through autonomous learning.

Autonomy in language learning has been the subject of many researchers and practitioners since decades ago (Holec, 1981; Littlewood, 2000; Benson, 2001, 2006; Liang, 2004; Murphy, 2008). Research in this field continues to be done in order to obtain a better understanding of autonomy in language learning and how it can be applied in different contexts. To understand what autonomy is needs to refer to various definitions given by scholars. Dickinson (1995) defines autonomy as a situation where the learner takes full responsibility for all of his/her own learning and how s/he implements his/her own decision, while according to Cotterall (2000), autonomy in learning can be defined as the learners' determination of their own learning goal, contents and progression, and selected methods as well as of the proper techniques to be used during the learning journey. From these points of views, it can be said that to be an autonomous language learner someone is required to be able to take more control over his/her own learning both inside and outside the classroom and to determine the direction of their own learning. This notion is in a line with Holec's (1981) determination of autonomy in which he defines it as the capacity of a learner by which s/he is able to take charge of his/her own learning. Taking charge of learners' own learning lead to learners feeling responsible for and capable of applying various means for effective independent learning. For instance, the learner himself or herself should have the skill of how to learn, be able to manage their time well, be passionate and curious about learning, be aware of his/her strengths and weaknesses, as well as be able to criticize his/her own learning more effectively.

One of the current trends in education is to encourage more active participation of the learners in the process of learning inside and outside of the classroom. This is reflected in the newly adopted school curriculum, the Competency Based Curricula (CBC) and the 2013 Curricula in Indonesia. One of the main principles of the CBC and the 2013 Curriculum is maximum growth in learners' potentials, progress, individual needs as well as societal needs. As far as the CBC and the 2013 Curricula are concerned, the issue of autonomy in learning or autonomous learning (henceforth AL) is very much relevant to the above-mentioned principle of learner-centeredness being promoted by the curricula.

Despite being one important feature of the CBC and the 2013 curricula that is implemented in Indonesia currently, the spirit of AL seems not to be rigorously interpreted and reflected in many education programs in Indonesia. The main reason for this reluctance among the teachers and lecturers for promoting this principle of learning possibly came from the view of some practitioners and scholars in the area of AL, who question the applicability of AL as a western approach to learning in Oriental or Asian context (Lamb, 2004).

The idea of autonomy in learning in the Indonesian context is rather new and somewhat challenging both for teachers and learners since this kind of approach to learning is uncommon and seems to contradict with the tradition of teaching-learning practice in this country. Here in Indonesia, most of the teaching and learning process still takes the teacher-centered approach in which teachers control what is taught, and when and how it is taught. They generally rely heavily on the textbooks to guide the curricular and instructional decision. The students, on the other hand, tend to copy what the teachers say or note down on the board and they do not participate actively in the class activities, hence unreflective in their learning. The evaluation or assessment generally emphasizes the memorization of things. Therefore, the Indonesian students are culturally passive, silent and shy (Exley, 2005). In reality, little change has occurred in the way teaching and learning is delivered in school including that of higher education institutions. Teachers complain that their learners are lazy, passive, and lack motivation for actively searching for opportunities to improve their own learning achievement. The concerns of teachers have been shared among those foreign teachers teaching at a number of Asian countries such as Japan (Aoki, 2001; Uzuki, 2002) and Hongkong (Benson 2001; Littlewood, 2007).

There is a potential problem here considering what Kennedy (1988, as cited in Farmer & Sweeney, 1994) points out. The author argues that unfavorable reaction to any innovations in education might be caused by cultural factors as well as other factors such as politics, economy, geography, educational systems and personal procedures. The constraint from the cultural factor, for instance, is clearly presented by Dardjowidjojo (2001) as the philosophies of “*Manut-lan-miturut*,” “*Ewuh pakewuh*,” and “*Sabda Pandita Ratu*” (pp. 314-316). These philosophies, even though derived from Javanese culture, are also found in many different ethnic groups in Indonesia. The first philosophy *Manut-lan-miturut*, means the more obedient children are to parents or elders the better they are considered. The norms set up by parents are expected to be followed by children. Children are not encouraged to express their views, critically question and disagree with their parents or elders, and discuss controversial issues and the like. Whereas the second philosophy *Ewuh pakewuh* indicates the possessing of uncomfortable and uneasy feeling of the community members in having different opinions with the leader or superior, the last philosophy *Sabda Pendita Ratu* indicates the unwillingness of the leader in admitting any wrong saying or doing. These philosophies greatly affect the atmosphere at the schools. Especially when students learn in the classroom, they feel that they will not be considered as good students if they criticize, ask critical questions, or express views different from their teachers’, as teachers are their parents while they are at schools. With this cultural background, however, fostering autonomous learning is not as easy as to be said. Nevertheless, it does not mean it cannot be implemented. Yet, as an English lecturer, I realized that to help a learner to become an autonomous learner in learning English is very necessary. Although autonomy should be seen as the ultimate goal of learning (Benson, 2009), it is also as a vital part of the learning process (Tanyeli & Kuter, 2013), and plays an increasingly important role in language learning. Autonomous learning will help learners change their behavior by encouraging them to take responsibility for their own language learning, change their attitude toward the English class, and to deal with their English foreign language learning problems.

The trend toward autonomous learning has been popular in the scope of language centers around the globe, including Indonesia. AL was first introduced to ELT context of learning at higher education institutions in eastern Indonesia including Cenderawasih University (UNCEN) in the 1990s. At that time, the learners were

mostly junior lecturers taking intensive English Course run by the English Language Center of this university. It was a reality that for these lecturers and their English instructors the concept of autonomy was somewhat new. The purpose of this introduction was to train course participants to work independently to help extend their learning of English using self-access learning facilities available at the center since the time allocated for the language training was felt too little to help prepare the lectures to improve their TOEFL scores optimally (P2T.IT-CIDA, 1992). Reactions of the lecturers were mixed. In general, when course participants were assigned to do self-directed learning as part of their structured class activity, generally they did not see the importance of doing the activity for their own learning. Only a small number of the learners actually made use of their independent study time working in the Self Access Centre on their project based on their contract for self-study because they thought it helped their English to improve (UNCEN RC Report, 1992). This study aimed to gather information on perspectives of learners and their lecturers at the English Teaching Program at Cenderawasih University on the emerging importance of autonomous learning in the context of teaching and learning process.

Attitude and Learner Autonomy

According to Hogg and Vaughan (2005), an attitude is maintaining belief, feeling, and behavior tendency toward an object, groups, events or symbols. According to Mohamed and Waheet (2011, p. 227) attitude is “a central part of human identity”, in which in daily life, people love, dislike, oppose, agree or disagree with, or hate an object. There are three components that influence attitudes. They are cognitive, affective and behavioral information (Maio, Maio & Haddock, 2010). Thurstone (1928) defines attitude as influence or refusal, assessment, liking or disliking, positive or negative tendency toward a psychological object. Thurstone’s definition of attitude is in line with that of Ajzan (1988) who claims that attitude of a person is positive or negative attributes to anything. Gardner (1980) and Baker (1992), on the other hand, define it in a very simple term as the overall feelings of a person toward any particular thing and a person’s persistent way of behaving in a particular way. In the SLA context, what exactly an attitude constitutes is not easy to describe since there is not clear distinction between attitude and motivation. But the thing that we should be aware of is that attitude is one of the key or important elements for learning a language (Gardner, 1985; Starks & Paltridge, 1996; Karahan, 2007).

Baker (1988, as cited in Ellis, 1994) asserts an important characteristic of attitudes that ‘attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one’ (p. 117). In other words, it can be said that attitude toward a psychological or physical object may have an impact on a person’s behavior toward this particular object. Attitude can be related to learner autonomy. That is to say, if a learner has a positive view on the concept of autonomy in learning, there is a chance that the learner may make a lot of efforts to create an opportunity for himself/herself to enhance his/her own learning either by working individually or with others. Yet, this is not always the case, since studies in second language learning (Edwards 1984; Lanoue 1991, as cited in Ellis, 1994) have revealed that having positive attitude toward a language, its speakers and culture is not a guarantee for the learners to willingly put a lot of efforts in learning the language. In brief, it may be said that attitude, be it positive or negative toward a psychological object, may influence people to act favorably or unfavorably toward that particular object- autonomy in learning in this case. What is autonomy in learning will be discussed shortly.

Dickinson (1995) refers to full autonomy in which no involvement of teachers or institutions exists when the learners make decisions concerning their learning and implement the decisions the way they wish to. Holec (1981, as cited in Dickinson, 1995) summarizes AL activities such as taking the responsibility for all decisions made regarding all aspects of learning including determining objectives, defining contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques used, monitoring procedures of acquisition and evaluating what has been learned. This definition is very similar to that of Hedge (2000) who defines autonomy as the ability of learners to take responsibility for their own learning and to plan, organize and monitor the process of learning independently. Another definition of autonomy is proposed by Little (1991, as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 49), “a capacity –for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action”. By this, Little suggests when a learner gains autonomy, s/he develops particular emotional or psychological relation with the content of learning and the process of learning itself. This capacity of the learners to be autonomous will be reflected in the way they learn a particular subject, for instance, or when they intend to transfer their skill of learning into learning other subjects.

Another version of what learner autonomy refers to is given by Benson (2001, p. 110) who declares that autonomy is “an attribute of the learner rather than the learning situation”. He describes learner autonomy as “the capacity to take control of one’s own learning” (p. 47).

Autonomy in Learning (AL) used in this study refers not to full autonomy in which learners learn without help of anyone else but more to psychological readiness to take charge of their own learning motivated by own needs and purposes, whether they work with or without others, in classroom or out of class contexts, in pursuing the learning targets they have in mind. Investigating the psychological readiness of the students of English Teaching Program of Cenderawasih University in developing autonomous learning is indispensable as the ultimate goal of education for a long time is learner autonomy. In this regard, Scharle and Szabó (2000) suggest that there are three stages of the process of becoming autonomous. They are raising students’ awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles.

Previous Studies

With reference to Indonesian learners of English, two nation-wide surveys had been conducted by Hamied (1997) and Huda (1993). Both studies confirm that the learners in fact show positive attitude to English learning. The similar result was reported from an attitude survey conducted on English Department students at Cenderawasih University (Kafudji, 1999) in which the students expressed positive reactions toward learning English. A study of language learning attitude and activity among adolescents in provincial Indonesia also found that Indonesian students who are still very young already learning English independently whether inside or outside the classroom (Lamb, 2004). As a result, it can be concluded that basically Indonesian learners regardless of their levels of education tend to show positive attitude toward learning English.

A study conducted by Usuki (2002) on Japanese students’ attitude toward autonomy in learning English finds out that contrary to the arguments that question the suitability of autonomous learning mode for the Asian learners, the Japanese students in fact have positive internal perception toward their individual role in learning.

This study seeks to find out whether the Indonesian learners of English at English Teaching Program, Cenderawasih University will also show positive reaction

toward learning English independently, or they are happy to be dependent on their lecturers to be fed with English.

The reason for choosing the topic of AL is significant especially when learners' role is central for most of learning initiatives and activities. In classes where active learning is to take place learners should be the agent of learning not just the subject of learning waiting to be instructed by teachers with what to do and how to learn. This is appropriate to be inquired in relation to Indonesian context as Oriental classroom which is commonly labeled teacher-centered classrooms. As a result of changing in teaching and learning paradigm which has brought about a new orientation to educational practices moving away from a more teacher-centered style toward a learner-centered one which put more responsibility and encourage more involvement of the learners in directing their own learning (Breeze, 2001) there must be a change.

Answering the question is necessary to foresee potential successes and problems when fostering AL in learning English among Indonesian learners.

Research Question

This study sought to answer two essential questions regarding the concept of AL and its relevance to the current practice of teaching and learning:

1. How do the English learners perceive their roles in regard to Autonomous Learning?
2. What are the lecturers' perspectives in promoting Autonomous Learning among their learners?

Theoretical Framework

This study is built based on three theories of learning. They are autonomous learning, constructivism theory, and collaborative theory of learning. Autonomy learning is a modern learning theory based on the theory of constructivism in which it focuses on a student-centered learning model. Constructivism, however, is a philosophical orientation in teaching theories. This theory articulates that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences (Christie, 2005). According to Good and Brophy (1994, as cited in Cooperstein & Kocevar-Weidinger, 2004), there are four aspects of a constructivist lesson: learners construct their own meaning, new learning builds on prior knowledge,

learning is enhanced by social interaction, and meaningful learning develops through authentic tasks. Collaborative learning theory is a theory of learning in which the process of learning is based on the interaction among learners whether they learn in groups or in pairs in achieving the learning goals.

Method

This study adopted a survey as the most appropriate design for investigating the issues of interest. The attitude survey was conducted in March 2013 at the English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Cenderawasih University, in Jayapura, Papua. These students were selected for the survey to see their perceptions on the potential of AL as an important tool for enhancing learning. As English learners, it would be valuable to equip them with such a tool to enable them to explore various learning resources available to aide their learning of English effectively and efficiently. Similarly, the lecturers were also involved in this survey because of their vital role in preparing learners and necessary circumstance in which autonomy in learning could be fostered.

Two sets of questionnaires were prepared and distributed to the students as well as their lecturers, respectively. The results of the questionnaires would show both students' and their lecturers perspectives on the urgency and feasibility of promoting AL among English Teaching Program students of this campus.

Subjects of the Study

Two parallel classes of semester four students of English Teaching Program (N = 57) were randomly selected for this survey. The data were also gathered from the 9 lecturers of the English Teaching Program. The biodata of the subjects of this study can be seen in Tables 1 and 2:

Table 1

Student Subjects of the Study

Age	Female	Male	Total	Experience of Learning English (Years)
≤ 20	9	3	12	8
21 – 25	22	19	41	9
26 – 30	1	-	1	14

31 – 35	1	1	2	19
36 – 40	1	-	1	24
Total	34	23	57	-
Subject				

Table 2

Lecturer Subjects of the Study

Age	Female	Male	Total	Experience of Teaching English (Years)
31 - 35	1	-	1	8
36 - 40	1	2	3	13
41 - 45	-	1	1	8
46 - 50	2	1	3	19
51 - 55	-	1	1	19
Total	4	5	9	-
Subject				

Instruments of the Study

The questionnaires were developed using criteria provided by Wenden (1991) to define autonomy, i.e. willingness to take on responsibility for own learning, and capability to take charge of own learning. Apart from these questions, there were additional questions given to gain information on learners’ study habits and preferred learning techniques. The learner questionnaire aimed at getting information on learners’ preferred way of learning, study habits, responsibility in learning, and self-confidence in independent learning, and willingness to take on responsibility in learning (English). Apart from the questionnaire for the students, another questionnaire was distributed to their lecturers aiming to get their views on their learners’ preferred learning styles, self-confidence in learning independently, the load of independent work assigned to learners, number of the learners who were willing to and could actually learn independently, and the lecturers’ expectation of learners’ independence in learning English.

Three experts’ judgments were taken in this study in order to improve the content validity of both questionnaires for the students and lecturers. Modifications

were done according to their comments and suggestions before the questionnaires were piloted. The researcher applied the factors analysis for every group of statements in the questionnaires. In assuring the capability of the questionnaires with the factors analysis, the researcher applied Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) which should be over 0.50. KMO test for the student's questionnaire was found to be 0.71 for the 2nd group of statements, 0.76 for the 3rd group of statements, and 0.73 for the 4th group of statements. The KMO test for the lecturers' questionnaire was found to be 0.79 for the 2nd group statements and 0.72 for the 3rd group statements.

In measuring the reliability of the questionnaire, Split-half technique which is analyzed by Spearman Brown formula was applied. The questionnaire for the students was piloted with the English Teaching Program students who were not involved in the real study in February 15, 2013. The calculation revealed that the coefficient correlation was 0.68 and the reliability of the questionnaire was 0.809 indicating that the instrument was valid and reliable for its each item, so this instrument can be used to collect data. An instrument is considered reliable if the minimum of its reliability coefficient is 0.6

Data Collection

The questionnaire was distributed to the students during the class period and collected right after they completed it at the end of the class. Besides using the questionnaire on lecturer's perspectives about AL, the researcher also conducted an unstructured interview session with 9 lecturers out of 10 serving at the English Teaching Program. Each lecturer was presented 11 questions dealing with knowledge about autonomy in learning, the autonomous nature of the students in learning, the students' awareness about the importance of being autonomous learners, students' motivation of being autonomous learners, the extent to which the lecturers provide opportunities for the learners to become autonomous learners, and the need of training about autonomy in learning for the learners, as well as the lecturers' beliefs about the learners' willingness to be autonomous learners. The questions asked in the interview were similar to the topic of the questionnaire for the lecturers. The interview was conducted within a week (from 18-23 of March, 2013). It took about an hour and a half for each lecturer and conducted in their offices with their time preferences.

In this survey, the data collected were presented as they were, from which objective reflections on both the lecturers and the learners' perceptions on AL can be gained so as to give the factual picture.

To analyze the data collected from the questionnaire, first the data were sorted into 2 groups, lecturers' and students', then tallied and tabulated. After that, the counts and percentages were presented.

Results

All the respondents returned the questionnaires. After calculating the percentages, the results of the 2 categories (the learners' and the lecturers' perceptions) are presented below.

The Learners' Perceptions

The following is summary of the learners' responses on the questions addressed to them regarding their preferred learning styles, study habits, and attitude toward autonomy in learning.

- a. The most appealing learning techniques for them are oral interactions with native speakers, reading textbooks and other books, watching TV or listening to the radio news, and listening to recording (favored by more than 50%); individual work is the least favored (32%) technique.
- b. The learners admit that they occasionally (39 %) and usually (35%) do go over their lessons at home.
- c. Many learners (80%) claim that they, every now and then, look for opportunities to learn outside of the class.
- d. When they are working on their English outside of classroom, many of the learners (between 69% to 81 %) admit they usually do any of the following in isolation or in combination: reading textbooks, reading course books, practicing singing karaoke songs, reading magazines/novels, or memorizing vocabulary words.
- e. Learners' reaction to responsibility for their own learning appears to be very positive. They feel they have been responsible (88%), and they should be the ones who have to take responsibility for their future learning (70%). Yet, they agree they still need a help from their teacher (50%).
- f. In principle, the majority of the learners (88%) agree to take more responsibility for their own learning.

g. The enthusiasm of the learner for taking over control on their own learning seems to be low. They are still hesitated about their ability to reach success since more than 75% of them feel they are not sure about their own ability to reach successful learning in English.

h. Half of them state their hesitance of being successful is caused by their experience of being less successful in carrying out independent learning activities recently.

i. Despite the fact that more than half of them (60%) seem to be willing to work independently, quite a number of them (30 %) still do not feel ready to do so.

In order to get a balanced picture of the perceptions on learner autonomy, the teachers' were also asked to respond to this principle in learning. Below are their responses.

Lecturers' Perceptions

a. The most appealing techniques for the learners according to the lecturers (67%) are reading textbooks, course books, and so forth ; oral interaction with native speakers was favored next (44%); whereas about 33 % believed watching TV or listening to the radio news, listening to recordings and doing independent study tasks were liked by their learners.

b. More than half of the lecturers (56%) believe their learners do not have a lot of confidence in themselves to be successful in learning independently.

c. In general, the lecturers only require a small amount of independent work from their learners because according to them less than 50 % of their learners would actually carry out the tasks at home.

d. Surprisingly, the majority of the lecturers (78%) still confide in their learner's willingness to be responsible for their own learning.

e. Though, less than half of the lecturers (45%) report that so far their learners have not shown much responsibility yet. The rest feel their learners have been showing lots of responsibility.

f. On the question about the lecturers' expectation for their learners' independence in learning, a significant number of them (89%) agree to grant more opportunities for that purpose.

Discussions

This study found that although majority of the learners showed positive reactions toward AL in English, they seemed to be slightly lacking confidence in their own ability to be successful in carrying out independent learning tasks. Apart from this major finding, more specific findings were found regarding the learners' and their lecturers' perceptions on AL and learners' attitudes reflected in their learning were reported in this study.

Assigning independent learning activities will probably match learners' preferred learning styles and learning techniques since they proved to vary in the way they prefer to learn. The most favored learning strategies were those related to visual (e.g. reading text books /course books, watching TV/news) and auditory learning (listening to radio/recordings), following Reid's (1987) classification of perceptual learning modalities.

Observing their current practices and habits of learning undertakings, the learners have to be exercising, to a certain extent, the principle of AL such as reading textbooks, course books, magazines, etc. or practicing singing karaoke songs and memorizing vocabulary words.

Although the learners tend to show positive reactions toward autonomy in learning, they admit not to have practiced it much, and therefore would like to exercise it more for their own benefits with more supports from their lecturers who can prepare the learners to be able to take more initiative in learning independently. Similar observations are given by their lecturers saying, in principle, their learners can be considered having positive attitude toward autonomy in learning, yet emphasizing the importance of building learners' confidence in their own capacity to conduct successful learning. The need for more lecturers' help in preparing the learners seems to align with what the learners have revealed below. When the learners are asked for their confidence in exercising AL, based on their experience they imply more guidance from the lecturers that is necessary to provide technical guidance for exercising better autonomy in learning.

Considering the learners' need for guidance from their lecturers may suggest that so far the learners have not been provided with proper training to become independent learners.

An important message that is drawn from the lecturers' reaction to AL and worth considering is that the lecturers see their learners as lacking confidence in conducting AL. Despite providing help in training them in AL, the lecturers reduce the amount of independent workload to a minimum level. Although the lecturers recognize the benefits of promoting AL and their learners' potential to perform the task of learning independently, they might not feel urgent to train the students to become more independent learners. The lecturers' attitude and how they respond by assigning tasks for independent work for their learners, explain why the learners showed inconsistency in their attitudes toward AL and their actual efforts in taking responsibility for their own learning of English.

From the above discussions, it can be concluded that regardless of the awareness of the important contributions that AL may offer the learners in learning English, both the learners and their lecturers have not made use of this learning mode to the optimum level. There might be two main reasons for this situation, one regarding the learners themselves and the other relating to their lecturers.

The learners had not been given sufficient training required by them in order to exercise their AL in learning English as it is supposed to be. Providing sufficient training on autonomy in learning English for students is crucial in gaining the best insight of the students' roles in autonomy in learning, like good, responsible and aware learners. Regarding the learners' role, Joshi (2011) asserts that the one who becomes the most active in autonomy in learning is the learners. They have to do a lot on their own with the suggestions and facilitations from the teachers. By doing so, they become more independent in selecting every aspect of learning and at the same time they have more responsibilities to be accomplished. Despite their dependency on the lecturers to make decisions about their learning, the learners seem to reflect the sense of responsibility to a certain extent in making efforts to enhance their own learning.

The lecturers, on the other hand, are hesitant in promoting AL in their learners because of the fact that they are so much accustomed to adopting the teacher-centered approach in their everyday teaching and learning practices and this leads to them believing that their learners are heavily dependent on them to make decisions for the learning. The reluctance of the English teaching program lecturers in promoting AL for their students might happen because the lecturer themselves do not have any autonomy-oriented training. As Balçikanlı (2010) declares, "Language teachers

without any autonomy-oriented training may face difficulties in creating such classroom culture” (p. 91).

Consequently, the lecturers feel it is not urgent to train the learners to be proficient in AL. Usuki’s (2002) study finds out similar attitude displayed by Japanese teachers in the study downgrading their learners’ potential and eagerness to take more responsibility for their learning as a result of the stereotypical views many teachers hold about the Japanese learners in particular and Asians in general. The above Indonesian learners like their fellows Asians experience the similar treatment from their teachers. Coming from a similar background, the teachers assume that learners lack internal motivation to improve their own learning without relying too much on their teachers. However, it is proven in this study that the learners, similar to the Japanese ones, are aware of their major responsibility in directing the course of their English learning while acknowledging the important role their lecturers in facilitating them to foster AL.

Conclusion

This study concluded, in principle, that the learners are aware of the contributions they can make toward their own English learning so they have been involved in a variety of learning activities inside and out of classroom chosen by themselves individually to support their learning.

Yet, they seem to underline the lecturers’ role in preparing them and purposefully creating the need on their side to engage more in independent work since they can see the direct impact of the lecturers’ work in their overall learning achievements.

Consequently, the lecturers’ stereotypical views on learner-dependency need to be changed. They need to be more open to give it a go to their learners to gain more control on their learning while supporting from behind as facilitators. To train the learners to foster AL, the lecturers may consider using the learner training packet by Anita Wenden (1991) for a start. This training packet outlines the procedures for diagnosing language learners’ ability as self-sufficient learners and provides guidelines for using tasks and classroom context to encourage autonomy in learning.

This study is far from comprehensive, as it only investigated the very surface of attitude of the fourth semester English Teaching Program students at Cenderawasih University and their lecturers’ attitude toward autonomy in learning English through

survey research. Deeper and further studies through the qualitative research approach need to be conducted to thoroughly explore how these students take control over what they learn, why they learn, and how to learn either in the classroom or out of the classroom through participation observation, interviews and students' diaries in collecting data. These further studies are significant to be conducted in gaining the more insights of how to encourage the students to become autonomous learner in learning English.

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