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The Use of Parallel Team-Teaching: The Case of Teaching Speaking for Economics Students in the Indonesian Context

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

The objectives of this research were twofold: (1) to find out whether or not the use of parallel team-teaching improves the students' speaking skill; and (2) to find out whether or not the students are interested in joining the speaking class through parallel team-teaching. This research employed a quasi-experimental design. The sample consisted of 80 Economics students of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin Baubau in the academic year 2012/ 2013. The research data were collected using two instruments: a speaking test to measure the students' speaking skill; and a questionnaire to ascertain students' interest. The data on the students' speaking skill were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics, and the data on the students' interest using descriptive statistics. The results of the research showed that: (1) the use of parallel team-teaching in teaching speaking improved the students' speaking skill; (2) the use of parallel team-teaching increased the students' interest in participation in the speaking class.

Keywords: Parallel team-teaching, teaching speaking. Economics students

Introduction

Teaching speaking is a main focus in English teaching. Sasmedi (2004) stated that the principles of teaching English and all of the processes of teaching should be communicative because university graduates are directed towards life skills which enhance for communication to access job opportunities.

To teach the speaking skill, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the activities involved in speech such as expressing emotions, communicating intention, reacting to others and to situation, and influencing other human beings.

In teaching speaking, the teacher should define the exact purposes of the speaking lesson. For instance, the teacher must explain clearly the objective of the material that will be taught in every session to the students. Because of this, the students will understand the reasons why they should learn this particular lesson and then this will motivate them to learn.

Many teachers make efforts to make their class interesting by using various methods, techniques, instruments and materials in order to stimulate students to learn English. The researcher realized the importance of the English teachers taking part in the present study to be more creative and innovative in choosing the best way for communicative activities that urge and motivate the students to improve their speaking skill. Being creative in this case, the teacher has to be able to decide the appropriate communicative activities or tasks on the topic given.

Based on experience in teaching the economics students of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University and his primary observation to these students, the researcher perceived that there were many students who could not communicate with each other in English, either in the classroom or out-side of the classroom. They have low achievement in speaking and frequently remain quiet and passive in taking part in English communication. They are also not interested in joining the speaking class. There are many factors that may cause the low achievement and low participation of students in English communication which can be attributed to large class size (40-45 students), lack of opportunities for students to practice, and the fact that some lecturers rarely choose and create teaching techniques and activities which stimulate communication among the students. In response to these problems, it is necessary for teachers to choose appropriate teaching techniques that can address all the problems; in this sense, team teaching can be seen as a feasible alternative.

Buckley (1998) explains that team-teaching involves a group of instructors working purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively to help a group of students of any age learn. Teachers together set goals for a course, design a syllabus, prepare individual lesson plans, teach students, and evaluate the results. They share insights, argue with one another, and perhaps even challenge students to decide which approach is better. Furthermore, Aubrey (2004) states that team-teaching occurs when two or more teachers collaborate to teach a group of students together. In formal team-teaching two or more persons work with the same group students and share the responsibilities. Furthermore, the classroom teacher may also work with the assistance of a student teacher or a teacher assistant. When two or similar classes are scheduled, the teacher can combine classes as a team. It is particularly effective if one of the classrooms is large enough to hold the combined group. For example if two teachers are involved, one might meet with two thirds of the students to present a new grammar point while the other directs remedial work to lead conversation practice (Allen & Vallette, 1977).

Team-teaching has some advantages such as: (1) teaching can be easily conducted as two or more instructors can work together over the planning, teaching, and evaluating of the course; (2) team-teaching brings various experiences to the class and allow students to optimize their learning process that go beyond direct instruction; and (3) team-teaching approaches facilitate the instructors in selecting and developing authentic materials to create challenging and interesting tasks. Shafer (2000) explains team-teaching simply as teamwork between two or more qualified instructors who together plan, teach and evaluate the course. There appear to be two broad categories of team-teaching: (1) two or more instructors teach the same students at the same time within the same classroom; and (2) the instructors work together but do not necessarily teach the same groups of students or necessarily teach at the same time.

Being aware of the problems of students in speaking and the advantages of team-teaching, the researcher was motivated to overcome the problems by applying parallel team-teaching to improve students' speaking skill. This research has two main objectives: (1) to find out whether the use of parallel team-teaching improves the students' speaking skill; and (2) to assess whether the students are interested in joining the speaking class through parallel team-teaching.

Review of Related Literature

A. The Concepts of Speaking

Clark and Clark (1977) define speaking as fundamentally an instrumental act. Here the speakers talk in order to have some effect on their listeners. For instance, when they assert something, it means that they change their state of knowledge. When they ask questions, they expect their interlocutor to provide information for them. However, when they request something, it signifies that they need the interlocutor to do something for them. On the other hand, Burn and Joyce (1997) and Laoma (2004) define speaking as an interactive process of how to construct meaning which involves producing, receiving as well as processing information.

According to Widdowson (1985), speaking is an act of communication commonly performed in face-to-face interaction. It occurs as a part of dialogue or form of verbal exchange in an interaction. In relation to this definition, Nunan (2003) asserts that this language skill consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning.

1. Components of Speaking Skills

There are four components of speaking skill introduced by Heaton (1988, p. 100), namely: accuracy, influence, comprehensibility, as well as the content. They are described as follows:

a. Accuracy

Accuracy, according to Bryne (1988), refers to the use of correct forms of utterances which do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic or discourse features of a language. In other words, accuracy refers to the correctness of speakers/learners in using the language system. This includes the correct use of grammar, pronunciation, and also vocabulary.

b. Fluency

Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 90) stated that fluency is the ability to produce written or spoken language easily which indicates that spoken language is produced naturally. They also added that fluency is the ability to speak with a good, but not necessarily perfect, command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar. Meanwhile, Simon and Schuster (in Amin, 2006, p. 22)

defined fluency as: (1) the quality of flowing, smoothness, freedom from harshness; and (2) the ability to write or to speak easily, smoothly, and expressively.

c. Comprehensibility

Comprehensibility is the process of understanding the utterances conveyed by the speaker and received by the listener. Also, comprehensibility in speaking means that people can understand what we say, and vice versa. Harmer (1998, p. 107) says that if two people want to communicate with each other, they have to speak because they have different information. If there is a 'gap' between them, it is not good communication if the people are still confused by what is said. Clark and Clark (1977, p. 47) stated that

... comprehension has two common senses. In its narrow sense it denotes the mental processes by which listeners take in the sounds uttered by a speaker and use them to construct an interpretation of what they think the speaker intended to convey. Comprehension in its broader sense, however, rarely ends here, for listeners normally put the interpretations they have built to work.

From the varied definitions above, the writer concludes that comprehensibility is the process of understanding the utterances conveyed by the speaker and received by the listener. Comprehensibility is one of the variables assessed by the researcher of the present study because it can also indicate the students' speaking ability.

d. Content

Jacobs (1981, p. 38) explains that content should be clear to the listeners so that they can understand what the messages convey and gain information from them. Content refers to how suitable or substantive the explanation is toward the object to be explained. To have good content in speaking, the information to be conveyed should be well unified and have a sense of completeness.

Accuracy, fluency, comprehensibility and content are important areas of discussion in this research because four of them represent the aspects that can help this researcher to ascertain students' speaking ability.

2. Principles of Teaching Speaking

Westwood, Peter and Oliver (1979, p. 57) see the principles of oral language based on: (1) creating an enjoyable, entertaining social learning situation which gives pleasure to the students. Teacher personality is a vital factor in this regard; (2) keeping the group small, not more than five or six students; (3) arranging for intensive sessions in two or three short sessions daily; (4) ensuring active participation remembering that it is what a student practices saying, not what he hears, that improves communication ability; (5) creating clearly defined, short-term goals for each session by teaching a certain adjective, adverb, or conjunction, e.g. 'and' and 'but'; (6) using material which aid language practice and games to hold student attention as the basis for language simulation; (7) observing the slow learner and giving some degree of repetition in teaching if necessary; (8) using pleasure and praise as reinforcement.

In speaking class, it is hoped the students express their ideas, information, and feelings. Practice of language is crucial in developing the students' ability in speaking. The students will not be able speak fluently if they do not practice the language with appropriate and accurate language.

The writer concludes that teaching speaking refers to the organized activities when the students participate actively in speaking under the control of the teachers. And teaching speaking principles is an important element for consideration in the successful teaching of speaking.

B. The Concept of Parallel Team-Teaching

Parallel team-teaching occurs when two or more teachers collaborate to teach a group of students together. It can be defined as a group of two or more teachers working together to plan, conduct and evaluate the learning activities for the same group of learners. Team-teaching can operate simply as a team work between two or more qualified instructors who make presentations together to an audience. Buckley (1998, p. 25) explains that parallel team-teaching involves a group of instructors working purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively to help a group of students of any age in learning. Teachers set goals together for a course, design a syllabus, prepare individual lesson plans, teach students, and evaluate the results. They share insights, argue with one another, and perhaps even challenge students to decide which approach is better to be used in the process of teaching and learning.

The parallel team-teaching approach allows for more interaction between teachers and students. Faculty evaluates students on their achievement of the learning goals; students evaluate faculty members on their teaching proficiency. Emphasis is on student and faculty growth, balancing initiative and shared responsibility, specialization and broadening horizons, the clear and interesting presentation of content and student development, democratic participation and common expectations, and cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes. This combination of analysis, synthesis, critical thinking, and practical applications can be carried out at all levels of education, from kindergarten through graduate school.

Shafer (2000) explains that there appear to be two broad categories of team-teaching: (1) Category A: Two or more instructors teach the same students at the same time within the same classroom; (2) Category B: The instructors work together but do not necessarily teach the same groups of students nor necessarily teach at the same time.

In this research, the researcher attempts to establish one parallel-team teaching model called the Mixed Category (Category C) in parallel team-teaching. This is a combination of category A and B, where two instructors teach at the same or sometimes different times to the same students within the same classroom. Materials are the main consideration of teaching, whether complicated or not. If complicated, both teachers are obliged to teach together but if simple, it is not necessary to teach together.

Beavers (2006, p. 10) points out that there are several crucial elements for successful team-teaching. Foremost is flexibility with regard to both logistical and scholarly matters. Second is a commitment to the process that includes attendance by each faculty member at the other's classes. Attendance by both faculty members demonstrates to the students that two potentially separate courses are one in the eyes of faculty, and provides many opportunities for planned or impromptu interactions to illustrate the synergy between the subjects. Third is a combination of trust and spirit of adventure.

Perry (2005, p. 27) recommends that collaborative team-teaching be limited to two people, as good team-teaching becomes too complex with more than two teachers. Additionally, it is stressed that the prospective team-teaching partner be someone possessing a 'healthy psyche', someone who does not demand power to control, as well as someone who is not defensive or easily offended.

C. Research Question

Based on the aforementioned issues, the problem under investigation is identified where many students of the English Education Study Program Unidayan cannot communicate with each other in English. They have low achievement in speaking and frequently keep quiet and passive in taking part in English communication.

With awareness of the problems of students in speaking and the advantages of parallel team-teaching, the researcher formulated the following research questions:

1. Does the application of parallel team-teaching improve the students' speaking skill on the English Education Study Program Unidayan?
2. Are the students of the English Education Study Program Unidayan interested in joining the speaking class conducted through parallel team-teaching?

Method

A. Design and sample

This research applied a quasi-experimental design. It used two groups, one group receiving treatment by using parallel team-teaching, and the other group subject to the conventional teaching and learning process. Both groups were given the pretest and posttest.

The total population used in this research was a sample of 80 students namely 37 male and 43 female students. They were taken randomly from the second semester students of the Economics Faculty at Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University. The researcher used this technique because all of the selected sample had similar characteristics and the same relatively baseline knowledge in speaking. From the entire sample above then they were divided into two groups: 40 students of 18 male and 22 male students in the experimental group; and 40 students of 19 male and 21 male students in the control Group.

B. Teaching procedure of Parallel Team-Teaching

The treatment was conducted in 6 meetings. Each meeting ran 90 minutes. In this case, the researcher used parallel team-teaching in the experimental group and a conventional technique in the control group.

The procedures of using parallel team-teaching in the experimental group in a mixed category were as follows:

1. The parallel team-teaching introduced the objective of the teaching (together or alone). Team teachers described what the students would be able to do after the teaching and learning process. It was important because this could motivate the students motivated to participate in the teaching and learning process.
2. The parallel team-teaching provided motivation before the learning process, in each meeting (together or alone). Students who were not motivated would not learn effectively. They would not retain information, and some of them might even become disruptive.
3. The parallel team-teaching gave an explanation of the topic which had been given before (together or alone). This was done in order to remind the students about the material before and was a way to brain-storm among the students before learning the subsequent materials.
4. The parallel team-teaching presented the speaking material (together or alone). It was given in order to be read and understood by students before the material was explained by teachers.
5. The parallel team-teaching assumed the responsibility for instructing material to the class that was given (together or alone). The team teacher explained the materials to the students, then went around the classroom to ensure that students were on the right track and to see whether they needed help while they worked in pair and group work.
6. The students were asked by the team teachers if they found any problems related to the material given (together or alone). When the students had read and heard the explanation about the material from teachers and still found any problem, they could directly ask the teachers for clarification.
7. The team teachers asked some students to perform the topic in front of the class (together or alone). The students presented what they had prepared for their speaking in groups or in pairs.
8. The team teachers corrected the students' mistakes in speaking (together or alone). When the students had spoken and they made the mistakes, team teachers corrected

the students' speaking either immediately or at a delayed time. Delayed correction was generally used in correcting students' mistakes in grammar and vocabulary and on the spot correction was generally used in correcting pronunciation.

Meanwhile, the procedures of teaching speaking in the control group by using conventional technique were as follows:

1. The teacher introduced the objective of the learning and described what the students were able to do after the lecture (alone). It was important because it could make the students to be motivated in joining teaching and learning process.
2. The teacher raised motivation to learn English (alone). Students who were not motivated would not learn effectively, retain information, or even become disruptive.
3. The teacher showed the model of the topic to be discussed (alone). It was showed in order that it could be understood so students could know how to proceed.
4. The teacher explained the material given, and what had to be done by students (alone). This was done to ensure they would understand the instructions.
5. The teacher asked students to prepare their talks related to topic given. Students prepared these seated.
6. The students asked the teacher if they found any problems related to the material given (alone).
7. The teacher asked the students to perform the topic in front of the class (alone) and invited them to the front of the class or in their seats to present their talks which had been prepared.
8. The teacher corrected the students' mistakes in speaking (alone). When the students had spoken and they made the mistakes, the teacher corrected the students' mistakes in their speaking.

C. Data collection and data analysis

In collecting the data, the researcher used two kinds of instruments, namely a test and a questionnaire. The test consisted of the pretest and posttest. The pretest was administered before applying the parallel team-teaching. On the other hand, the posttest was administered after the

application of the parallel team-teaching. The test based on curriculum of the Economics Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University. The questionnaire in this research had been given to find out the students' interest toward the application of parallel team-teaching. The questionnaire used a Likert scale. The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents after the last treatment.

In analyzing the data, the student data on their speaking skill were scored using criteria level introduced by Heaton (1988, p. 100) and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics; the data from the questionnaire were scored by using a Likert scale then analyzed through descriptive statistics. All the data analysis was processed through a SPSS program version 17.0).

Findings and Discussion

A. Findings

1. The Development of Students' Speaking Comprehension Before and after the Treatment

The following explains the mean scores and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest of both experimental and control groups.

Table 1:

The Mean Score and Standard Deviation of the Students' Pretest and Posttest

	Group	Mean	Standard deviation
Pretest	Experimental Group	39.56	17.22
	Control Group	39.80	16.40
posttest	Experimental Group	71.59	8.61
	Control Group	57.97	12.86

From the table above it is clear that the mean score and the standard deviation of both experimental and control group before and after the treatment are very different.

The table also showed that the mean score of the experimental group and control group were mostly the same score before giving the treatment; the mean score of the students' pretest of

the experimental group was 39.59 and the standard deviation was 17.22; the control group was 39.80 and standard deviation 16.40. The mean score of both groups were different after the treatment was carried out. The mean score after the treatment was 71.59 for the experimental group with standard deviation at 8.61, and 57.97 for the control group with standard deviation at 12.86; it means that the mean score of the experimental group was higher than the control group ($74.72 > 59.99$) and the progress score of the experimental group was higher than the control group ($32.03 > 18.17$). This indicates that the use of parallel team-teaching was better than the conventional approach.

The data of student improvement in the experimental and control groups are illustrated in the following figure.

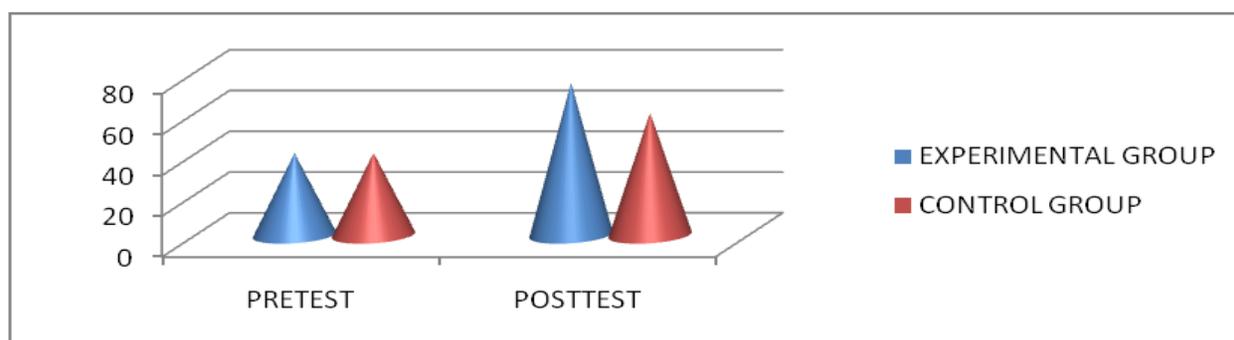


Figure 1:
Students' Improvement in Experimental and Control Groups

2. Test of Significance (T-Test)

The hypothesis was tested by using inferential analysis. In this case, the researcher used independent sample test, that is, a test to know the significance difference between the result of students' mean scores in the pretest and posttest of both Experimental and Control Group.

Assuming that the level of significance (α) = 0.05, the only thing which is needed; the degree of freedom (df) = 80, where $N1 + N2 - 2 = 78$; than the result of the t-test is presented in the following table.

Table 2:

The Probability Value of T-Test of the Students' Achievement on Control and Experimental Group

Variables	P-Value	(α)	Remarks
Pretest of experimental and control group	0.95	0.05	Not Significance Different
Posttest of experimental and control group	0.00	0.05	Significantly Different
Pretest and Posttest in experimental group	0.00	0.05	Parallel-team teaching improve significantly the students speaking skill

Based on the result of the data analysis as summarized in table 2 on the pretest of the experimental and control groups, the researcher found that the Probability value (0.95) is higher than the level of significance at t-table (0.05) and the degree of freedom 78. It means that H_0 was accepted and H_1 was rejected. In other words, there was no significant difference between the students' speaking ability in both groups before the treatment. This is supported by Gay (2006, p.124) who states that when variables have equal interval, it is assumed that the difference between close score is essentially the same.

While the data on posttest of experimental and control groups showed that the probability value was smaller than α ($0.00 < 0.05$). It indicated that the alternative hypothesis (H_1) was accepted and the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected. It means that there is significant difference between scores of posttest in experimental and control groups, namely that the experimental group is higher than the control group. On the other hand, the Probability value of pretest and posttest of the experimental group was smaller than α ($0.00 < 0.05$). It also indicated that the use of parallel team-teaching can to make significant contribution to teaching speaking.

3. The Students' Interest

The questionnaires were distributed to the students of the Economics Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University to ascertain their interest in using parallel team-teaching in teaching speaking. The students' interval scores from the questionnaires are shown in table 3.

Table 3:
The Percentage of the Students' Interest toward Interactive Learning

Interval Score	Category	Interactive Learning	
		F	%
84-100	Strongly Interested	28	70
68-83	Interested	12	30
52-67	Neutral	0	0
36-51	Not Interested	0	0
20-35	Not Interested at all	0	0
Total		40	100
Main score		85.45	
Standard deviation		3.72	

The data of the students' interval score based on the questionnaire in table 4 indicates that parallel team-teaching shows that 28 students (70 percent) felt strongly interested, 12 students (30 percent) of the students felt interested, and none of the students felt neutral, not interested or not interested at all.

Further analysis showed that the mean score of students' interest was 85.45 with standard deviation 3.72 which was categorized as *strongly interest*. It can be concluded that the students of the Economics faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University are strongly interested in studying English through parallel team-teaching.

B. Discussion

1. The students' speaking skill.

The findings show that the use of parallel team-teaching significantly improves the students' speaking skill. It is proved by α (0.05) value of the students' posttest which is higher than P-value (0.00). This concurs with findings by Gay (2006, p. 358) who stated that there is significance between pretest and posttest findings if the P-value or sig. (2-tailed) is less than or equal to α (0.05).

Generally, the prior knowledge of both experimental and control groups was relatively the same based on their pretest. The pretest was given before conducting the treatments. Based on their pretest, almost all students could not speak English. The main score of the experimental

group was 40.16, while the main score of the control group was 40.28. Both of the main scores were categorized into Poor Classification. Based on the posttest, the main score of the experimental group was 71.59 and was categorized into the Very Good classification, while the main score of control group was 57.97 and was categorized into Good Classification. Both experimental and control groups were increased after the treatment. But the mean score of experimental group was higher than the control group. It means that both parallel team-teaching and conventional techniques could develop the students' speaking skill; however, using parallel team-teaching develops the students' speaking skill more significantly than the conventional technique.

2. The students' interest

The analysis showed that the use of parallel team-teaching influenced significantly the students' level of interest in participation in the speaking class. This means that there is a good applicable strategy in teaching speaking skill. In other words, the students' interest is an indication of the degree of success that foreign language students are likely to really attain in a foreign language setting.

In this study, the interest of the students was considered as output because they were expected to have very high interest category toward the use of parallel team-teaching in learning speaking. The students stated that their participation in the speaking class with parallel team-teaching could build their interest in the learning process. Most students were in favour of the use of parallel team-teaching in the speaking class.

3. Factors for success

a. The Students' Participation

All students as the sample in this research attended all meetings. They actively participated in every teaching and learning process. The majority of the students paid close attention, participated well in expressing clear ideas and opinions in the classroom activities, asked for teachers' help, and increasingly presented their ideas in front of the class from the first to the sixth meeting. This concurs with Tyler (2005) who stated that participation is the key to a lively class as it provides the opportunities to practice speaking and persuasive skills, as well as the ability to listen. It means that students' participation can lead to insights about the kind of

learning and thinking an instructor values, such as growth in critical thinking, active learning, development of listening and speaking skills, and the ability to join a discipline's conversation.

b. The Teachers' Roles

In applying parallel team-teaching in teaching speaking the researcher used pair and group work as activities in the classroom. In doing pair work and group work, the teachers had to go around the class in order to observe and help the students. The high frequency of this term is interpreted as a sign of teachers' ability to monitor their students' work in all meetings. The teachers had to address the students' difficulties by rectifying unclear instructions to activities, finding the meaning of difficult words or expressions, or correcting grammar and mispronunciation. But teachers did not need to over correct errors because this would act as a demotivating factor for students. Teachers gave students maximum opportunity to interact with each other in pairs and groups in oral activities.

In brief, the teachers' roles were as reporter, organizer, and facilitator. They were active in encouraging students to participate in speaking English by means of organizing the talk, and facilitating the students' linguistic repertoire with sufficient expression and appropriate words they might need in expressing their ideas.

4. Advantages and Disadvantages Parallel-Team Teaching

To consider the teaching and learning process by applying parallel team-teaching, the researcher assumed that the application of parallel team-teaching can assist the students to practice speaking together. The advantages of this strategy are:

1) For Students

1. Team-teaching brings various experiences to the class and allows students to optimize their learning process that go beyond the direct instruction.
2. Students receive sufficient attention. A group of teachers is able to divide their time more efficiently by taking turns leading the class and helping individual students. This also allows a teacher to help lead small groups for group projects, or take aside students that may be falling behind the rest of their class.

2) For Teachers

1. Teaching by using parallel team-teaching can spread responsibility, encourage creativity, deepen friendships, and build a sense of community among teachers. In effect, teachers complement one another as they share insights, propose new approaches, and challenge assumptions. They learn new perspectives and insights, techniques and values from observing one another.
2. Teaching can be easily conducted because two or more instructors can work together over the planning, teaching, and evaluation of the course.

On the other hand, parallel team-teaching has also some disadvantages:

1. Some teachers are rigid personality types or may be wedded to a single method. Some simply dislike the other teachers on the team and fear they will be expected to do more work for the same salary.
2. Team-teaching makes more demands on time and energy. Members must arrange mutually agreeable times for planning and evaluation. Discussions can be draining and group decisions take a longer time.
3. Resistance may also be evident among students as they are confused by conflicting opinions. Too much variety may hinder habit formation.

Conclusions

Based on the research findings and discussion in this study, the researcher comes to the following conclusions. Firstly, the use of parallel team-teaching in teaching speaking has improved the students' speaking skill, as is evident in the mean score of the students' posttest in experimental group which is higher than that achieved through a conventional teaching technique. Secondly, the use of parallel team-teaching increased the students' interest in participation in the speaking class. This leads to the conclusion that the students in this study exhibited a very high interest in speaking through parallel team-teaching.

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Internet-Based Interactive Grammar Games as a Part of the English Language Proficiency Test Preparation Course: Positive Attitudes Result in Higher Test Scores

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Within the recent few decades there has been a significant rise in demand for English language proficiency tests (ELPT). Since grammar comprises the substantial part of these tests, students frequently have to sign up for test preparation courses and struggle through complicated grammar concepts and drills. Nevertheless, instead of attaining high results, students often experience stress. In an attempt to improve students' attitudes towards grammar learning, a test preparation course was complemented with the interactive grammar games. This study investigates the impact of playing interactive Internet-based grammar games during the ELPT course on EFL students' grammar test results. The research took place in Kyrgyzstan in one of the test preparation centers and involved 40 prospective university students aged 15-18 years randomly assigned to two treatment and two control groups. At the end of every month of the ELPT course students completed a TOEFL grammar test. All tests completed by the treatment groups show a stable progress. Surprisingly, the test results of the control groups after the first month of the course slightly decrease in relation to their pretest results. By the end of the course both groups report the progress; however, the final test results of the treatment groups are higher. The attitudes survey completed by the treatment groups suggests that students tend to perceive the interactive Internet-based grammar games as beneficial for their learning and helpful for

understanding new grammar concepts. These findings will help the ELPT tutors to make their classes more efficient and less stressful for the learners.

Key words: grammar, English language proficiency test (ELPT), Internet-based interactive grammar games

Introduction

Mastering grammar is considered one of the most sophisticated and complicated components of the foreign language acquisition process. Besides being a sign of the effective language user, English grammar proficiency is also one of the principal requirements for entering the majority of universities all over the world. The latter reason encourages many students to sign up for test preparation courses and, as a consequence, suffer through the months of drilling and memorization of grammar rules. The idea of taking a test could lead to learning anxiety and significantly decrease students' learning potential (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008; Zeidner & Matthews, 2005). One way to overcome test anxiety, according to Bembenutty (2008), is to learn to self-regulate the learning process. In other words, students need to increase their motivation to learn by shifting the focus from taking a test. To meet this condition, a teacher has to introduce some meaningful and encouraging techniques.

Since the majority of the modern youth are proficient information communications technology (ICT) users (Prensky, 2001), one of the techniques serving the purpose of assisting students' learning for the test is the implementation of the Internet-based interactive grammar games from Internet web-sites, such as www.eslgamesworld.com, www.eslgamesplus.com, www.quia.com, and others (Appendix 1). Playing interactive games as a part of the test preparation course syllabus could lead to high learning performance due to reduction of test anxiety (Bembenutty, 2008; Cizek & Burg, 2006; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Zeidner & Matthews, 2005). In addition, mastering a new concept requires constant practice and linking it to prior knowledge (Bembenutty, 2008); hence, playing Internet-based interactive grammar games could serve as a good alternative to drilling exercises.

Moreover, while playing interactive games, students are plunged into the atmosphere of the familiar popular television shows and are focused on winning. For those reasons, solving grammar tasks becomes the secondary goal and students do not feel stress from learning grammar. In contrast to the regular test preparation course, where students focus on attaining a

passing score and have difficulty communicating despite their knowledge of grammar (Oldenburg, 2005), interactive games allow students to achieve practical knowledge as well. In contrast to books and movies, computer games are interactive and allow for socialization and participation in the process (Prensky, 2001a).

Nothing can be more natural than learning through playing games (Prensky, 2001a). It is reasonable to assume that grammar courses supplemented with games would benefit students' learning experiences. Surprisingly, despite the numerous possible advantages for education, the issue of games as an educational tool in test preparation courses is seldom investigated. This research is particularly concerned with Internet-based interactive grammar games teaching technique inasmuch as it is possible to implement it in almost any setting worldwide. This teaching technique could be particularly beneficial for teaching in small classrooms where students have limited space and cannot play active games, as well as for teaching large groups of students where a teacher is as a rule physically unable to make the learning process interactive for every student. Implementation of Internet-based games could also help to bridge instructors and their technologically equipped students and thus make the English grammar acquisition less painful.

The aim of this research is to test the assumption that practicing new grammar concepts by playing Internet-based interactive grammar games could: 1) positively change students' attitudes towards learning grammar and shift students' focus from grammar drills to meaningful communication; 2) result in higher test performance. Consequently, the research seeks to answer the following questions:

1) Does playing interactive Internet-based grammar games lead to students' positive attitudes about learning grammar?

2) Do students playing interactive Internet-based grammar games during the ELPT course score higher grammar test results than the students who do not play these games during the ELPT course?

Theoretical Background

It is so obvious for children to play games to learn (Crawford, 1984); however, when we become older, we gradually alienate ourselves from this learning technique. For some reason, only those who teach children are expected to incorporate games into their lessons. Nevertheless,

the vast body of research proves that a game is the best learning medium for all ages (Shute, Rieber, & Van Eck, 2011). Games create a setting that encourages learning (Clegg, 1991; Salies, 2002), provide the opportunity for collaboration (Schwartzman, 1997), guarantee immediate feedback and self-reflection (Millis & Cottell, 1998), and stimulate competition (Marzano, 2007). Besides, when students enjoy the game they forget that they are learning (Sharp, 2012). Thus, we can reduce the stress from learning and ensure our students' better perception of the information flow. The curiosity about the outcomes of the game (Marzano, 2007) keeps students concentrated up till the end and leads to learning without conscious efforts on behalf of a player.

Contemporary learning theories (Gee, 2008) undermine the earlier beliefs about the nature of the learning process and argue that we learn through *experiences*. Once gained, the experience is further used to resolve the problem in similar contexts (Gee, 2008). One way to support the experience is to connect it with some strong emotions (Kensinger & Schacter, 2008). Even though negative emotions stimulate better memorization (Charles, Mather, & Carstensen, 2003; Ortony, Turner, & Antos, 1983), they are not appropriate for language learning contexts since our goal is to encourage learning and not to frighten away our prospective students. Games usually arouse positive emotions and are a perfect support for our experiences (Gee, 2008). Furthermore, since they are based on repetitive patterns, they create many opportunities for consolidation of the received experiences (Huizinga, 1955) in the similar contexts.

Other conditions pivotal for remembering the experiences are goal-orientation and interpretation (Gee, 2008), both of which are attained while playing most of the games. On the one hand, students always want to win and for that reason become more attentive and entirely concentrated on the game. On the other hand, students receive the immediate feedback that can confirm or reject the appropriateness of the newly acquired experiences (Gee, 2008). The mistake of one team gives other teams more chances to work out the correct choice and become a winner.

When selecting a game we need to give credit to the preferences of our students. Anyone born after 1980 is usually knowledgeable about technology (Carlson, 2005), and it is highly predictable that modern students are attracted to playing computer games (Prensky, 2001). Since research confirms the positive outcomes of technology-mediated teaching (Chapelle, 2001; Georgalas, 2012; Fančovičová & Prokop, 2008), especially in the area of foreign language teaching (Garrison & Anderson, 2003; Omaggio-Hadley, 2001; Shrum & Glisan, 2010), it is reasonable to think favourably on computer games. Since test-taking is usually associated with a

high level of anxiety (Bembenutty, 2008), the implementation of computer games instead of regular grammar drilling exercises is supposed to raise students' learning motivation and thus lower learning tension (Prensky, 2001a).

The issue of learning stress is closely correlated with the test preparation (Bembenutty, 2008). That is why such a learning tool as computer games could be a winning solution for the test preparation courses. Since there are many Internet resources freely available to the majority of EFL teachers all over the world (Morrison, 2002), it is worth using ICT to shift students' focus from mere learning of grammar to the accomplishment of meaningful tasks. In contrast to the educational computer games, the games retrieved from the Internet allow the teacher to be selective towards what topic to address and what interface is more likely to meet the interests of the certain group of learners. In addition, students can always play the game outside the classroom to attain better results or consolidate the gained experiences.

However, there is always a danger that games could make the lesson less "academic" and do not lead to the expected learning outcomes (Coffey, 2009; Deubel, 2006). Other researches highlight that games could be destructive and confusing for students (Annetta, Minogue, Holmes & Cheng, 2009). To make a final decision about the appropriateness of the Internet-based interactive grammar games for test preparation, further research is needed.

Internet-based Interactive Grammar Games. Internet-based interactive grammar games are those retrieved from the various Internet websites in the real class time. As a rule, the format of these games resembles a popular television show. For example: *Rags to the Riches* (<http://www.quia.com/rr/60219.html>); *Will Spin* (<http://www.eslgamesplus.com/preposition-interactive-grammar-game-for-esl-wheel-game/>); *Billionaire* (http://eslgamesworld.com/members/games/ClassroomGames/Billionaire/Conditionals%20Billionaire%20Game/index.html?zoom_highlight=get), and others where learners earn points for the correct answers. Another alternative could be a sporting game; for instance, *Basketball* (<http://www.eslgamesworld.com/members/games/grammar/basketball/active%20vs.%20passive%20voice/active%20vs.%20passive%20voice.html>) or *Duel* (<http://www.englishmedialab.com/GrammarGames/En%20garde/gerunds%20infinitive/gerunds%20or%20infinitive.html>). The correct answer to the grammar question opens the access to the virtual game of basketball, football, or any other virtual sporting game.

One more variety of Internet-based interactive grammar games is a challenge board where students can choose the topic and point value of the question, thus regulating the complexity of the task. The choice of the game depends on the grammar issue needing practice. The games could be played as a competition among teams as well as a competition among individual students, depending on the students' number and teaching goals. The game is displayed on a screen via the overhead projector. The teacher announces turns, clicks on the answers selected by the students and in some cases calculates points. For some games students need to choose team representatives to perform the tasks at the computer to exclude the teacher's interference with the game outcomes.

Even though these games have proved to be very handy in teaching grammar, there are some inevitable drawbacks. First of all, there could be a problem with Internet access; the site could be under maintenance, making it impossible to introduce a game at a certain moment of a lesson. That is why it is highly recommended to check the game availability immediately before the class. Secondly, not all the games are accurate and a teacher needs to play the game prior to introducing it to the students. One more substantial disadvantage is that the sites that offer free grammar games support themselves by placing various commercials irrelevant to the students. To overcome this problem the teacher needs to adjust the game to full screen mode so as not to display ads to the learners. Finally, the most significant problem with these games is that in most cases, the teacher cannot change the content of the game and can use only the tasks provided by the game developers. Unfortunately, it is not always enough for attaining the course goals and meeting learners' interests. However, those games introduced in this article could serve as a starting point for the EFL/ ESL instructors and cover the basic ELPT teaching needs.

Limitations

Though teaching grammar through Internet-based interactive grammar games could be very effective for the most of the educational contexts, it would be unavailable for the digital immigrants or classes that do not have an access to the Internet. Moreover, interactive learning could be favored only by a certain group of learners who are open to technological advances. In case the learners are completely unfamiliar with ICT, the exposure to the Internet-based interactive games could possibly discourage rather than motivate them as learners of grammar.

Methodology

Participants

A total number of 40 students with mixed socio-cultural backgrounds and mixed gender aged between 15 and 18 were independently and randomly assigned in four different ELPT preparation groups. Overall, there were two treatment (n= 20) and two control groups (n=20). All the participants were enrolled in a three-month (48 hours) ELPT course with the goal of passing the university ELP entrance exam. The participation in the research was anonymous and had no effect on students' academic standing.

Design and Procedures

The research took place in one of the ELPT preparation sites in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, within the 2014-2015 academic years. The data collection instruments were a specially designed semi-structured attitudes questionnaire (Appendix 2) and standardized ELP progress grammar tests. At the end of the first month of the ELPT preparation course, 19 members of the treatment group completed the questionnaire and expressed their attitudes to playing Internet-based interactive grammar games as part of the course. Students indicated what ICTs were the most helpful for their learning and to what extent they agreed that Internet-based interactive grammar games improved their understanding of grammar items.

In the course of the research all the participants from the control and treatment groups were required to complete four progress ELP tests. The first test (Pretest) was assigned prior to the training. Subsequent tests were assigned at the end of every month of the course. First, the percentage of progress was separately calculated for each participant. After that the average results of the treatment and control groups were compared and analyzed. The completed questionnaires were initially classified according to the gender of the respondents. After that, the number of responses supporting the implementation of Internet-based games was calculated separately for each of the groups. Finally, the extent to which students believe that Internet-based interactive grammar games assist their understanding of grammar was measured.

Results and Discussion

Overall, the collected data suggest that students approve the Internet-based interactive grammar games as the part of the ELPT course. Out of 19 research participants, 84% ticked

interactive games as a desired component of the ELPT preparation course. Among the supporters were 11 male and five female contributors. As for the other ICTs, the second most popular choice for the male students was watching videos (61.5%), while female students gave equal preference to the ideas of showing images of the new concepts and talking to foreigners via instant messengers (50%). For male students, talking to a native speaker during the ELPT course lagged slightly behind (31%), with 54% preferring to watch PowerPoint presentations. Only 17% of respondents (females) believed that PowerPoint presentations could help them to improve their grammar knowledge. Surprisingly, in both gender groups the least popular technologies were the search engines and electronic dictionaries (males: 15%; females: 17%); even though class observation demonstrated the opposite. Students heavily relied on their electronic dictionaries and search engines during the class unless they were forbidden to use them.

Table 1:
Students' Preferences for ICT in the ELPT Preparation Course

Participants	Videos	Internet-based games	Power point presentations	Images	Search engines	Electronic dictionaries	Instant messengers
All supporters n= 19 (%)	53	84	42	32	16	16	37
Male n= 13 (%)	61.5	85	54	23	15	15	31
Female n= 6 (%)	33	83	17	50	17	17	50

As for the participants' attitudes towards their grammar progress due to playing Internet-based interactive grammar games as a part of the ELPT preparation course, eight students confirmed their strong confidence that these games helped them to understand the new grammar better. Another six respondents agreed that the games were helpful for mastering grammar. Three students stated that Internet-based interactive grammar games only sometimes assisted their understanding of the new grammar concepts. One respondent answered that she was not sure about the effect of playing games.

As for the gender bias in favor of the Internet-based grammar games in the ELPT preparation course, in general, male respondents appeared to be more supportive than female respondents. Males were more categorical in their judgments. One of them indicated that games were the least interesting part of the course; however, playing games helped him to understand the new grammar. Even though two females and one male respondents suggested that the games were “too easy” for them, all the contributors agreed that the games were helpful for understanding the new grammar.

Table 2:

EFL Students' Attitudes about the Effect of Internet-based Interactive Grammar Games on Understanding of New Grammar Concepts

Level of agreement	Total number n= 19 (%)	Male n= 13 (%)	Female n= 6 (%)
Strongly agree	47	54	33
Agree	32	31	33
Only sometimes	16	15	17
Not sure	5		17

Progress test results of the treatment group prove the effectiveness of the Internet-based interactive grammar games as the ELPT preparation technique. The data suggests that throughout the course all the participants of the treatment group demonstrated a gradual progress in their grammar test scores. Interestingly, the control group had a decrease in the test scores after the first month of training, but by the end of the course they almost caught up with the progress attained by the treatment group within the three months of training.

Table 3:

Treatment and Control Groups' Test Scores

Treatment Group					Control Group				
Participants	Pretest	First Month	Second Month	Third Month	Participants	Pretest	First Month	Second Month	Third Month
M1	450	470	495	505	1F	440	470	510	450
M2	460	480	490	500	2M	440	445	460	460

M3	453	470	495	555	3M	550	530	590	600
M4	463	540	550	565	4M	480	470	515	535
M5	350	400	420	435	5M	453	530	455	470
F6	460	510	530	560	6M	447	440	510	515
M7	360	415	480	485	7 F	451	425	460	470
M8	425	450	460	480	8F	443	445	450	450
M9	420	470	490	505	9F	420	470	470	480
F10	417	450	465	475	10M	450	445	495	535
M11	403	455	460	485	M11	470	495	510	520
M12	390	400	400	460	12M	497	500	505	495
M13	405	410	410	475	13F	457	430	420	420
M14	437	450	460	490	14F	477	435	450	460
M15	390	460	470	485	15M	460	470	495	500
M16	417	440	455	480	16F	460	430	440	460
M17	417	440	470	530	17F	450	475	475	485
M18	417	490	510	540	18M	460	450	470	475
M19	410	445	460	470	19F	461	464	482	487
M20	418	456	470	499	20M	459	461	480	489

The overall progress demonstrated by the treatment group is 11 % higher than the progress achieved by the control group. The treatment group demonstrates its highest performance after the first and the third months of the ELPT course. The highest scores of the control group are fixed by the end of the third month.

Figures two and three show each participant's progress over the period of the research. Test results of the control group suggest that, after the first month of the course, students' performance became worse than it was prior to the training, a finding which could be explained by test anxiety and excessive focus on grammar. The treatment group demonstrates some progress from test to test that supports the claim that games shift the focus from formal learning of grammar and encourage the meaningful use of the target language accompanied by the experiential perception of the new grammar rules.

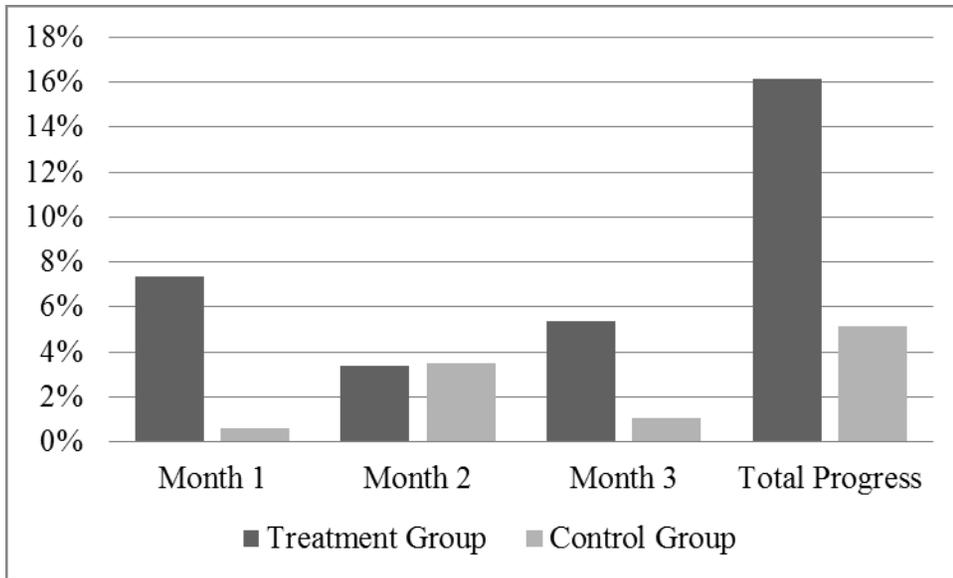


Figure 1.

Average treatment and controlling groups' progress by month

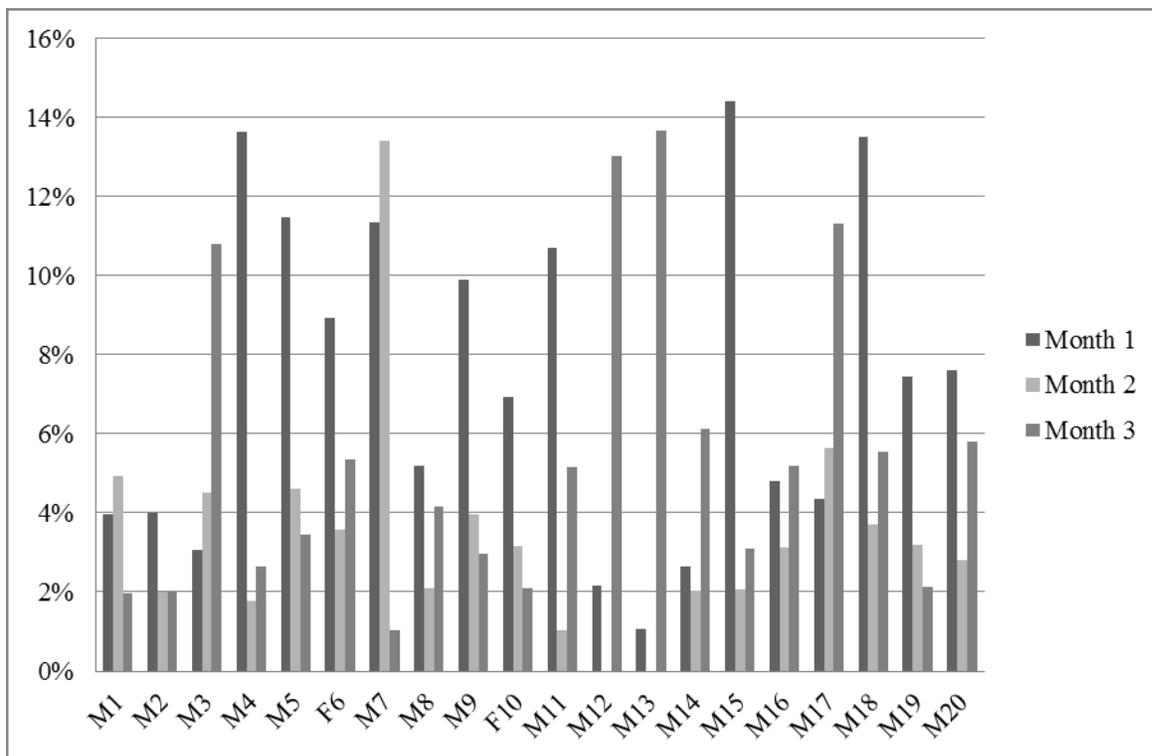


Figure 2.

Treatment groups' progress by month

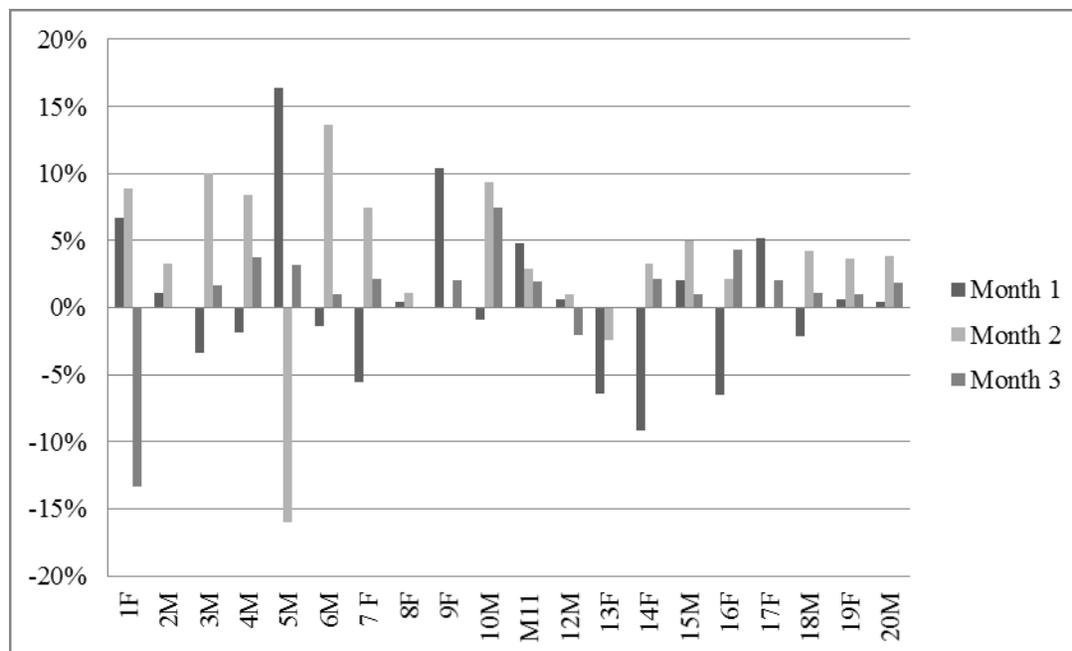


Figure 3.

Control groups' progress by month

Conclusions

Gaming is one of the best learning techniques invented (Shute, Rieber, & Van Eck, 2011); however, it is not a common practice to play games with students, especially when it concerns the language proficiency for test preparation courses. This research supports the idea that besides being a form of a passing time for the new ICT literate generation, games can serve as an optimal teaching technique. Attitudes questionnaire (Appendix 2) responses and the progress test results of the research participants show that implementation of the Internet-based interactive grammar games in the test preparation course is engaging and beneficial for English grammar learners.

The research data suggest that the majority of respondents were satisfied with the Internet-based grammar games introduced during the ELPT preparation course. Many students found games helpful for understanding new grammar concepts. Some of them even stated that games were the best part of the ELPT course they were taking.

Test results of the treatment and control groups showed that the progress achieved after the course with the implementation of Internet-based interactive grammar games was slightly higher than the progress attained through drilling of new grammar patterns. Hence, it is possible

to conclude that playing Internet-based grammar games as a part of the ELPT course is slightly more efficient than the traditional approach to students' test preparation since it not only provides the opportunity to practice newly acquired grammar patterns but also reduces students' test anxiety and encourages students' positive attitude towards learning grammar. However, games with open access do not always match expectations and sometimes even contain mistakes. Instead of mediating the learning, such games may mislead and confuse students. That is why, the next step in introducing the Internet-based grammar games in teaching should be focused on the improvement of the open-access Internet-based games' quality. ESL and EFL teachers need training to be able to modify and design their own games to meet the needs of their teaching.

Even though the teaching technique introduced in this study could be very effective in the majority of classroom settings, it would be impossible to use if there is no access to the Internet. However, it could be possible to attempt to apply the same principle of interactivity without using technology and thus make it available for the digital immigrants. Possibly an instructor could develop some form of grid to display on a board or a poster and read questions assigned to certain numbers. It could be interesting to further study the outcomes of the ICT mediated and non-ICT mediated teaching of the ELPT course. Another potential research could be focused on effect of using Internet-based interactive grammar games in the English proficiency test preparation course for the large classrooms and different age and gender groups.

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Appendix 1

List of Advised Interactive Grammar Games

Parts of Speech

<http://www.quia.com/rr/143009.html>

<http://www.quia.com/rr/93516.html>

<http://www.quia.com/rr/83922.html>

<http://www.quia.com/cb/125663.html>

Countable and Uncountable Nouns

<http://www.eslgamesplus.com/countable-uncountable-a-an-rally/>

Articles

<https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/determiners-and-quantifiers/indefinite-article-and>

www.eslgamesplus.com/articles-nouns-quiz/

Other and Another

<http://www.multimedia-english.com/activities/free/other-another-others-557>

Verb Tenses

<http://www.eslgamesplus.com/verb-tenses-interactive-grammar-game-for-esl-jeopardy-quiz-game/>

Passive Voice

<http://www.eslgamesworld.com/members/games/grammar/basketball/active%20vs.%20passive%20voice/active%20vs.%20passive%20voice.html>

Subject-Verb Agreement

<http://gotkidsgames.com/sv/sv.html>

<http://www.gotkidsgames.com/sv/svSports.html>

<http://www.gotkidsgames.com/sv/sv2.html>

Inversion

http://www.englishtenses.com/exercise/inversion_exercise

<http://www.cityu.edu.hk/elc/quiz/inverse.htm>

Pronouns

<http://www.quia.com/cb/125663.html>

<http://www.quia.com/cb/815940.html>

Adjectives

<http://www.quia.com/cb/550823.html>

Gerunds and Infinitives

<http://www.eslgamesworld.com/members/games/grammar/En%20garde/gerunds%20infinitive/gerunds%20or%20infinitive.html>

Modal Verbs

<http://www.quia.com/cb/214905.html>

Conditionals

<http://eslgamesworld.com/members/games/ClassroomGames/Billionaire/Conditionals%20Billionaire%20Game/index.html>

<http://eslgamesworld.com/members/games/grammar/bling%20the%20teacher/conditionals/conditionals%20practice.html>

Appendix 2

<p><i>Please take time to honestly answer all the questions. Your answers are very valuable and could help to improve the teaching of foreign languages (English).</i></p> <p>CONFIDENTIALITY IS GUARANTEED!</p>	
Age:	Gender:
1) What do you like most about the course?	
2) What do you like least about the course?	
3) In your opinion what a computer should be used for during the lesson? A. Watching a video (specify) B. Explaining grammar (PowerPoint) C. Showing images of the new concepts (words) D. Googling information E. Translating words F. Playing games (specify) G. Talking to foreigners (Skype, instant messengers) H. Your own ideas:	
4) Do you agree that playing on-line grammar games helps you to understand new grammar better?	

- A. Strongly agree
- B. Agree
- C. Not sure

- D. Only sometimes
- E. Disagree
- F. Strongly disagree

5) Do you agree that the Interned grammar games you played on the lessons were:

- A. Too easy: Yes/ No
- B. Too difficult: Yes/ No
- C. Too boring: Yes/ No

- D. Normal: Yes/ No
- E. Childish: Yes/ No
- F. Your own opinion:

THANK YOU!



Speaking Ability and Psychological Barriers of the Second Year Students of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap in Speaking English

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Abstract

The objective of the research was to find out the speaking ability of the second year students of the Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap and to determine their psychological barriers encountered in speaking English in hotel simulations. This research used quantitative and qualitative methods for the research. In collecting the data, the researcher used four instruments, namely a speaking test, observation, interviews and questionnaires. A speaking test was used to measure the students' speaking ability and three others were used to ascertain

their psychological barriers in speaking English in hotel simulations. Based on the result of data analysis, the students were categorized as poor in pronunciation, good in grammar and vocabulary, very good in fluency and comprehension. Moreover, in speaking English in the hotel simulation the second year students encountered some psychological barriers: (1) anxiety which consisted of some indicators, such as feeling nervous, feeling worries, having dizzy attacks and feeling embarrassed. (2) Emotional distress that consisted of feeling angry and afraid in speaking English in hotel simulations. The effect of those psychological barriers was the students had low motivation. They had no positive mood or motivation, and could not focus on conversation, even finding it difficult to produce speech. In conclusion, the speaking ability of the second year students of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap was good. In speaking English in hotel simulations, the second year students of Hotel Department encountered some psychological barriers, namely anxiety which manifested itself in feeling nervous, worried, and embarrassed, and emotional distress shown by feeling angry and afraid. Two of the psychological barriers caused students to experience low motivation in speaking English in hotel simulations.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Psychological Factors, Speaking, Communication, and Hotel Services and Hotel Simulation

Introduction

English as a foreign language has become an essential language for workplace needs in the world. It is one of the most important subjects in each country because it is an international language. In learning English the primary purpose is not only to recognize its role, but also to use and apply it proficiently. Therefore, to enable students to achieve such a purpose, teachers need to help them by taking an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course. ESP courses help them to meet their needs based on their proficiency in the specific context of work or study.

Serio (1998, p. 94) states, “ESP is normally concerned with the language skills needed to function in a specific occupational subculture”. It means that it helps students understand their subject easily. Moreover, an ESP course is designed to enable students to use the language in the target situation so that they can easily master and apply their subject.

Indeed, in some countries such as Indonesia, ESP is taught in every vocational high school at all levels. For instance, students who learn English for mathematics will be taught

mathematical terms that relate to it. In similar cases, in terms of teaching ESP, it is also applied for students who take different majors who are taught based on their proficiency in their department.

In brief, ESP courses help students improve their ability based on their own proficiency. In addition, they are enabled to apply their skills in their field directly because they are only taught English that relates to their department. For example, students of the Hotel Department will take the role of a professional person in communicating with customers and guests because they can use their creativity and their own traveling experience to make links between classroom activities and real life situations. Besides, Master (1998, p. 208) states that English for hotel work requires extensive practice with day to day spoken English, both formal and informal. In this way, students will be more creative and professional based on their proficiency.

Even though ESP teachers possess some relevant training, students may still encounter difficulties in applying their knowledge and their skill in their field. Ellis (1997) states that there some areas of interlanguage that can affect students in learning second language acquisition, such as social aspects, discourse, psycholinguistics, linguistics and individual differences. In addition, Lee (2009) explains that barriers to effective communication can take on different forms, physical, psychological or even emotional. In general, students find it difficult to speak because of psychological barriers and linguistic barriers. The former are mental structures and processes in learning and use of language that influence students in producing speech or speaking. Most students exhibit good capability in the classroom, have self-confidence when they speak with their friends, but when they encounter unknown interlocutors, they may be nervous, shy and strained rendering them speechless because of the psychological barriers. According to Guang and Jia-xia (2007), psychological barriers in oral English communication are abnormal phenomena including nervousness, anxiety, self-abasement and lack of self-confidence, caused by fear or shyness of speaking English.

Further to this, linguistic barriers can also influence how they communicate with others. For example, it can be seen in students of the Hotel Department when handling guests and shows itself in their capability, fluency and comprehensibility in speaking with guests. It manifests itself in the lack of vocabulary (especially specific vocabulary), and poor knowledge of discourse processes and communication strategies. As a consequence, students cannot exchange information with foreign guests effectively with the result that miscommunication and

misunderstanding occurs between the speaker and the listener. All are the examples of linguistic barriers.

In response to these difficulties, students need more knowledge and experiences to improve themselves in achieving effective communication as a way to solve problems faced and overcome barriers influencing them. In this particular case, students of the Hotel Department need sufficient English to respond to and resolve any problems that arise when they apply their skills in their field. In order to address psychological barriers, it is essential to encourage students to speak confidently in English by making English teachers aware that English is a language communication tool and that learning English should not simply focus on learning grammar, but rather on its use in real communicative events. To learn to speak, we do not need to take into account whether the grammar is correct; rather, it is key that in order for students to gain a basic understanding in real life scenarios, we should give them authentic opportunities to speak in English. For example, they may take five minutes to enable students to take turns reporting to class. This is not only for the purpose of increasing their confidence, but also to improve the level of their spoken language. Also, a timely recognition of the progress of students on the basis of their proficiency should be given in equal treatment, especially for introverted and shy students who require encouragement and care to overcome issues of tension, the psychological barrier of shyness and mother-tongue dependence. To achieve this, foreign faculty from other institutions could be invited for speaking practice with the students as a means to eliminate the psychological barriers and boost confidence. In this way, interest in learning would greatly improve, as well as oral communicative competence.

Based on these recommendations, the researchers are interested in conducting research to find out students' ability in speaking and individual differences in the psychological barriers among second year students of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 SidenrengKabupatenSidrap in speaking English. The following research questions direct the investigation of this research:

1. What is the ability of the second year students of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap in speaking English?
2. What are their psychological barriers in speaking English?

Literature review

1. English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

ESP is normally concerned with the language skills needed to function and explain a specific occupational program in order to enable students meet their need based on their proficiency. Wello and Amin (1999) state that ESP is international in scope and specific in purposes. It focuses on the communicative as well as the written needs of professionals environments. Thus, ESP generally involves experience-based language and is aimed at preparing learners for real world situations. Learners are usually introduced to the various benefits of language study for international, cultural, global, and professional communication.

The main objective of teaching and learning a foreign language is to provide the learners with communicative competence, linguistic competence, and cultural competence. With these competencies, the learners are expected to be able to use the language proficiently enough in the target language and to be proficient enough to use the target language to communicate effectively in social contexts. The learners are expected to use it to convey messages in academic or occupational contexts, to define their own attitudes, to protect themselves from criticism, to express preference, sympathy and disapproval, and many other purposes.

In terms of ESP characteristics, Wello and Amin (1999) state that ESP courses can be characterized by some features, but in practice it is common to find courses which the organizer wish to think of as essential that the subject be addressed clearly based on the common ground and similar perception and understanding among ESP practitioners-teachers, course designer/material writers, and organizers.

Stevens (1988) claims that ESP needs to be distinguished from absolute and variable characteristics. Similarly, Robinson (1991) formulates those ESP characteristics in the following:

1. An ESP course is normally goal directed
2. An ESP course is based on a needs analysis
3. The students of an ESP course are likely to be adults rather than children
4. ESP courses may be written about as though they consist of identical students.

2. Psychological Factors

Psychological factors consist of individual differences and personal factors. In terms of the former, Ellis (1997) states that affective factors such as learners' personalities can influence the degree of anxiety they experience and their preparedness to take risks in learning and using English. Learners' preferred ways of learning (learning styles) may influence their overall orientation to the learning task and kind of input (for example, spoken or written) they find it easiest to work with.

Personal Factors are seen in more detail in motivation aspects: arousal, needs, beliefs, goals and self-regulation. Arousal is a physical or psychological reaction to the environment. Extreme arousal can result in anxiety, which is both a cause and a result of poor performance (Eggen & Kauchak, 1988). A need is a real or perceived lack of something desirable. Maslow (1943 in Eggen & Kauchak, 1988) described a hierarchy beginning with survival and safety needs, progressing through belonging and esteem needs, and ending with intellectual and aesthetic needs. Cognitive needs include needs for competence, control and achievement. Attribution theory describes people's desire to understand and explain their performance on tasks.

Psychological Barriers

Psychological barriers can influence students' speaking are; anxiety low motivation, and emotional distress. According to Lee (2009), those barriers of effective communication assume different forms. They can be physical, psychological or even emotional and are seen in a negative atmosphere, lack of knowledge and emotional distress. Patel (2008) suggests that psychological barriers to communication include people's emotions, perceptions, and selectivity.

3. Communication

a. The Definition and the Nature of Communication

Megawati (2006, p. 6) states "communication in speaking is two processes between the speaker and the listener and involves the productive as speaking and receptive as listening". So, both speaker and listener are active during the communication. Neufeldt (1995, p. 282) defines communication as "giving or exchange of information, signals, or messages as by talk, gestures, or writing". Furthermore, Titone (1983) and Altman, Valenzi, and Hodgetts (1985) define

communication as a system for transmitting information and meanings from sender to receiver. Both contain a meaning so that communication entails a process of transferring information from the speaker to the listener. We use the word meanings in our definitions, because true communication requires an understanding of the message; in brief, the receiver must get the meaning.

b. Function of Communication

We have seen what communication is and the nature of communication. Now let us consider what it does for us. We study communication because it fulfills several very important functions. Verderber (1984) explains that all communication has a social function and a decision making function that touches and affects every aspect of our lives.

c. Barriers to Communication

Not all attempts at communication are successful. Sometimes a breakdown in transmission is brought about by a particular communication barrier. Altman Valenzi and Hodgetts (1985) state that, in overall terms, there are four major barriers to effective communication:

1. Some people do not communicate well because of emotional blocks. Such as: anger, fear, and defensiveness.
2. Some people have trouble communicating because of different frames of reference. Lacking a common ground from which to work, they find themselves unable to convey their meanings properly.
3. Some people cannot communicate well because they are incapable of expressing themselves properly in either written or oral terms. They lack the capacity to use words, and since words are the medium through which thoughts, ideas, and feelings are conveyed, they are poor communicators. Others have a limited vocabulary, which results in their having difficulty expressing themselves.
4. Some people are ineffective communicators because they cannot use their personalities effectively. Communication depends not only on what individuals say, but also on how they say it. In verbal communication a person's outward appearance, as manifested by gestures, smiles, voice quality, and vitality, is all important in helping to transfer meanings.

d. Achieving Effective Communication

Verderber (1984, p. 4) states “the key to communication is meaning”. If we get meaning (ideas and feelings) from a person, an action, a painting, a building, a room, or whatever we are dealing with, we say that it communicated. But in this case, we are not so much concerned with the ideas and feelings that we get from inanimate things. We are concerned with the ideas and feelings we get from people like teachers, guests, visitors, etc.

Stimulating ideas and feelings alone, however, does not result in effective communication. One person may communicate with another in such a way that the communication has a different meaning for each person. It may be caused from several barriers we have explained above that make people difficult to achieve effective communication. Therefore, in order to improve communication ability, they must overcome the barriers or difficulties encountered. While, there are many ways to do this. All of them require the individual to obtain feedback from the receiver.

Altman et al. (1985) explain that some useful techniques that we can do to obtain feedback include face-to-face communication, simplicity and repetition, empathy, the understanding on nonverbal behavior, and effective listening.

4. Speaking

Morgan (1966) indicates that speaking has two meanings: (a) to convey information, ideas, opinion, etc., orally and (b) to use or be able to use a language for vocal communication.

Types of Classroom Speaking Performance

Brown (2001, p. 271) has devised six categories applied to the kinds of oral production that students are expected to carry out in the classroom: Imitative, Intensive, Responsive, Transactional dialogue, Interpersonal dialogue, and Extensive (monologue).

Techniques of Speaking.

Kasmo (2000) states that to overcome the problem, the personnel of a hotel should engage in training that includes: how to make preparations and suggestions, persuade people and take action. Additionally, Kasmo advises that good communicators should possess a variety of characteristics including self-confidence, strong will, a good attitude, spontaneous action and

creativity, rhetoric, speak briefly and clearly, and maintain eye contact. They should also be well-prepared, plan well and be able to brainstorm ideas.

5. Hotel Services and Hotel Simulation

a. Hotel Guest

This term consists of two words, namely “Hotel” and “Guest.” In the decision letter of Menparpostel SK: KM 34/HK 103/MPPT-87; Hotel means a kind of accommodation that uses some of or all buildings to prepare and serve an inn, food and drink, and other services for public society. It is managed commercially and must meet some requirements (Sugiarto, 1998, p. 1). Guest means (a) a person staying at a house or a hotel, and (b) a person invited to a theatre, restaurant, etc., by somebody else who pays.

1) Kinds of Hotel

Kasmo (2000) divides the hotel into two big departments based on the structure of hotel organization:

1. The front of the hotel, meaning departments where all personnel will interact and come into contact directly with the guests, visitors and customers coming to the hotel. Also, it consists of the General Manager, Personnel front office, Personnel public area and F & B service.
2. The back of the hotel, meaning a part of hotel where personnel will not interact and have contact directly with the guests, visitors and customers. It consists of kitchen personnel, stewards, accountants, etc.

2) Hotel Management

Make the guests feel at concerns all personnel in the hotel. Master (1998) states that key to making the guests enjoy their experience is a good management. A hotel must demand their personal to maximize their service in handling guests. They have to be able to respond to and resolve any problem that might arise when the guests arrive at the hotel, during they stay, and when the guests leave the hotel.

a. Personnel at the Front of the House

Kasmo (2000) state that there are three sets of personnel working at the front of the hotel:

1) General Manager

The General Manager could be the owner of the hotel, businessman, staff or someone that is pointed by his boss. As General Manager, he has to be able to speak many languages. Moreover, he must be educated and have the capability to lead a big company. In addition, he must be responsible for staff needs and understand what the guests need. Most importantly, he must have a high quality of leadership. The General Manager decides on some planning and allocation of jobs.

2) Personnel at the Front Office

The personnel at the front office are three people:

1. Front Office (F.O.) Manager who is the head of reception, in charge of ordering of rooms, the cashier and public area.
2. Receptionist who is responsible to the F.O Manager, receiving and handling guests, doing a count of room bills, doing hotel bookkeeping and managing all the goods of hotel.
3. Secretary who is responsible for serving the guests, administration, travel agency, distributing the hotel prospectus and other media promotion.

3) Personnel in the Public Area

1. Porter who guards the guests when they arrive, stay and leave the hotel.
2. Night Porter who serves the guests coming at night and prepares a list for departure of the guests
3. Doorman who picks the guests up and takes them to their room when they come and calls a taxi for them when they leave the hotel.
4. Pageboy who helps the guests, porter, receptionist, and gives them direction when they need.
5. Bellboy who manages the goods of guest from and to the room
6. Operator who connects all the telephone lines.

From the three sets of personnel at the front of the hotel, those at the front office have a main role and responsibility in handling the guests because they meet the guests for the first time. They have many jobs that must be done and finished successfully. The most important is how to make the guests happy and enjoy their stay

Kasmo (2000) explains that to handle the guests well, care and attention must be given from the first meeting when they come (check-in) till they leave the hotel (check-out). This process places several demands on the front office: Insight, Service orientation, Flexibility, Decision-making, Physical readiness, Good appearance, Fluency in many languages, Communicative ability, sympathetic attitude, Professional and helpful, Capability of promotion and organization, and Computer literacy.

b. Handling Guests

1) Checking into the Hotel

Reception is one of the front office jobs. In this case, they must welcome the guests well and in a friendly manner. Also, they must give them clear information about room facilitation and help them to check into the hotel.

Master (2000) states that hotel management in helping a guest to check into the hotel can be divided three functional areas that describe the work routines of hotel personnel in the registration area:

1. Taking reservations by telephone.
2. Responding to inquiries for reservations by letter.
3. Receiving guests.

2) Staying at the Hotel

The front office has to be professional. They must communicate effectively with the guests to give information and direction about places inside and outside the hotel, tickets for entertainment and schedules for transportation.

In the restaurant, staff must show best service by welcoming guests, directing them to their tables, listening and responding to requests for translation and description of menu items.

Additionally, they need to comprehend orders in English, explain the bill, apologize for errors if necessary, and know the appropriate non-verbal behavior to maintain the respect of the customer.

3) Checking-Out

Finally, staff need special proficiency and language skills used in dealing with guests who are leaving the hotel. They especially need to handle guests' complaints and the payment of bills, for example by using some expressions such as: "this can't be right!", "I'll check it for you" or "I'm afraid there is no mistake".

c. Hotel Simulation

Jones (1989, p. 5) defines simulation as reality of function in a simulated and structured environment. He further states that reality of function is the key concept in simulation. Simulation is often a problem-solving activity to which the student brings his own personality, experience and opinions (Livingstone, 1983, p. 64). Simulation can be defined as a structured set of circumstances that mirror real life and participants act as instructed (Dougill, 1987, p. 19).

1) The Characteristics of Simulation

Jones (1989, p. 4) identifies the characteristics of simulation as follows:

- a. Reality of Function. This covers not only what the participants say and do, but also what they think.
- b. Simulated Environment.
- c. Structure. A simulation requires a structure.

2) The advantages of simulation

Jones (1989, p.113) sees the advantages of conducting a simulation as follows:

1. Simulation removes the teacher, who as controller, is in an ideal position to monitor the language and behavior;
2. Simulation provides realism of both action and (usually) documentation;
3. Simulation contains built-in motivation, and language which is cohesive in action, focusing on points of duty and function;
4. Simulation helps break the ice and be used for cross-cultural purposes
5. Simulation is an excellent means of assessing language ability.

Research Methodology

Research Design

In this research, the writers used quantitative and qualitative methods. It aimed at finding out the speaking ability and psychological barriers by the second year students of the Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap in speaking English in hotel simulations.

Research Setting

This research was conducted in SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap, located at Jl. A. P. Petta Rani No. 25 Pangkajene Kabupaten Sidrap.

SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap is the most popular Vocational High School in Kabupaten Sidrap which aims at helping students use their creativity and their own experiences to make links between classroom activities and real life situations. Many kinds of departments are have been established to enable students to choose from based on their own proficiency, such as: the Hotel Department, Pattern Maker Department, and Technique of Computer Department, etc. Furthermore, the school is equipped with complete facilities to support and encourage students in the teaching and learning process in order to enhance their skill and proficiency. In addition, it is managed by trained practitioners and supported by professional teachers that provide students with communicative and cultural competence. An atmosphere is created which encourages them to compete with one another, yet be creative and professional.

Population and Sample

1. Population

The population of the research was the second year students of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrapin academic year 2013/2014 which consists of 18 students.

The writers chose them as the population of this research because they had taken a technique course and have many experiences in practicing how to welcome and speak well with the guests.

2. Sample

The sample of this research was census sampling. As Sugiyono (2011, p. 124) states, census sampling can be used when all the population were chosen as a sample in one study. The

researcher applied it by choosing all the second year students of the Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap as the sample of this research because this school has solely one class of the Hotel Department..

Instruments of Research

In collecting data, the researchers used four kinds of instruments: a speaking test, observation, Questionnaire, and interview.

The Procedures of Collecting Data

In collecting data, the researchers carried out specific procedures. Firstly, the researcher explained the purpose of research. Then, the students were asked two questions orally about hotels while being recorded. It was intended as a way to measure students' ability in speaking English. After that, the researchers divided the students into some groups based on the personnel of the hotel, namely guest, receptionist, doorman, and bell boy. By using these positions, the students communicated with each in a hotel simulation. While communicating, the writers observed them to ascertain what psychological barriers they encountered when speaking. Also, the writers interviewed the students to confirm the psychological barriers that were found. Then, the writers distributed the questionnaires to delve further into their psychological barriers encountered in the hotel simulation

Technique of Data Analysis

Quantitative and qualitative analyses were used to investigate the data collected through the instruments mentioned previously. The data from tests was analyzed into percentage and mean scores at various levels. This was to measure the students' ability in speaking. The data collected from the observation was analyzed by using descriptive analysis from data from the correspondents. In this case, the researcher gave percentages based on the rating scale standard. Both questionnaire and observation enabled the writers to find out the psychological barriers encountered by students of the Hotel Department. Questionnaire data was identified in percentage rates and interview data was also analyzed by using descriptive analysis. In this case, the writer explained and described the students' psychological barriers based on the results of observation. This was intended as a way to ascertain and confirm their psychological barriers at the time. The

data from the speaking test was scored according to the scoring classification in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension (Adapted from Harris, 1969, p. 84)

Table 1

The Scale of Students' Observation

No	Psychological Barriers	Indicators
1.	Anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Nervous ❖ Worry ❖ Feel headache ❖ Feeling embarrassment ❖ Have dizzy attacks ❖ Tremble
2.	Low Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Not interesting ❖ No Interest ❖ Have no energy ❖ No enjoyment of lessons ❖ Feel no benefit of knowing the language ❖ Avoiding asking other people question
3.	Emotional Distress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Feel afraid ❖ No mood ❖ Angry ❖ Have no self confident ❖ Difficult to focus on the conversation ❖ Going blank

Results and discussion

Findings

1. English Speaking Ability of Students in the Hotel Department

Before analyzing the data, the writer firstly determined the scores of the item. In analyzing the data, the writer asked the students two questions about hotels to which they answered freely for about three minutes. Furthermore, the writer listened while recording and analyzing the five components such as pronunciation (f1), grammar (f2), vocabulary (f3), Fluency (f4), and comprehension (f5). The maximum total score of the English speaking test is 5 (five) and the minimum is 1 (one).

For understanding and clarifying purposes, the writers presented the frequency of the achievement of the students in each part.

Table 2

The Score of Students English Speaking Test

No	Respondents	Score							
		f1	f2	f3	f4	f5	Total	Score	Category
1	Eliana	3	3	5	4	5	19	76	Very Good
2	Ila	2	3	3	4	5	15,5	62	Good
3	Asni	2	2	3	3	4	13	52	Poor
4	Ansar	2	3	3	3	5	16	64	Good
5	Andi Sari	3	3	4	4	5	18	72	Good
6	Krisdamayanti	2	3	3	3	5	14	56	Poor
7	Apriyani	2	2	3	4	5	15	60	Good
8	Dwi Putri	2	3	3	4	4	14	56	Poor
9	Indri NS	2	2	2	3	5	13,5	54	Poor
10	Ari Wirda	3	4	5	5	5	21,5	86	Very Good
11	Andi Krisna	2	2	2	3	4	12	48	Poor
12	Aldi	3	3	4	3	4	16	64	Good
13	Rupita S Putri	3	3	3	3	5	15,5	62	Good
14	Desi	2	2	2	2	3	11	44	Poor
15	Suarni	1	2	3	3	3	11	44	Poor
16	Hendra	1	2	2	4	3	11,5	46	Poor
17	Ririn	2	3	3	3	3	12,5	50	Poor
18	Arizal	3	4	4	3	5	18,5	74	Good
	Total	40	46	54	56	73		1070	

a). The Students' Pronunciation Achievement

The frequency score and the percentage of the students' Pronunciation can be seen in the following tables.

Table 3

The Frequency and Percentage of the Students' Achievement in term of Pronunciation;

Range of score		Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
100 -90	5	Excellent	0	0
89 – 75	4	Very good	0	0
74 – 60	3	Good	6	33,3
59 – 30	2	Poor	10	55,6
29 – 10	1	Very Poor	2	11,1

Total	18	100
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b). The Students' Grammar Achievement

The frequency score and the percentage of the students' Grammar can be seen in the following tables.

Table 4

The Frequency and Percentage of the Students' Achievement in term of Grammar;

Range of score	Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
100 -90	5	Excellent	0
89 – 75	4	Very good	11,1
74 – 60	3	Good	50
59 – 30	2	Poor	38,9
29 – 10	1	Very Poor	0
Total	18	100	

c). The Students' Vocabulary Achievement

The frequency score and the percentage of the students' Vocabulary can be seen in the following tables.

Table 5

The Frequency and Percentage of the Students' Achievement in term of Vocabulary;

Range of score	Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
100 -90	5	Excellent	11,1
89 – 75	4	Very good	16,7
74 – 60	3	Good	50
59 – 30	2	Poor	22,2

29 – 10	1	Very Poor	0	0
Total			18	100

d). The Students' Fluency Achievement

The frequency score and the percentage of the students' Fluency can be seen in the following tables.

Table 6

The Frequency and Percentage of the Students' Achievement in term of Fluency;

Range of score		Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
100 -90	5	Excellent	1	5,6
89 – 75	4	Very good	6	33,3
74 – 60	3	Good	10	55,5
59 – 30	2	Poor	1	5,6
29 – 10	1	Very Poor	0	0
Total			18	100

e). The Students' Comprehension Achievement

The frequency score and the percentage of the students' Comprehension can be seen in the following tables.

Table 7

The Frequency and Percentage of the Students' Achievement in term of Comprehension;

Range of score		Classification	Frequency	Percent (%)
100 -90	5	Excellent	10	55,6
89 – 75	4	Very good	4	22,2
74 – 60	3	Good	4	22,2
59 – 30	2	Poor	0	0

29 – 10	1	Very Poor	0	0
Total			18	100

2. Psychological Barriers of the Second Year Students of Hotel Department in Speaking English

a. Data Analysis through Observation and Interview

In conducting the observation, the writer divided the students into groups based on several personnel in hotels such as receptionist, doorman, bellboy and guest. After that, the students simulated their position in speaking English. At the time, the writer helped by the head of the Hotel Program observed them to find out the students' psychological barriers. Then, the writer interviewed them after they simulated the position to confirm their psychological barriers.

The result of observation showed that there were five students who did not face any psychological barriers when they spoke English in the hotel simulation. They were happy and had good self confidence as shown in the picture in figure 1 below



Figure 1 Student felt confident, motivated and happy in speaking

The writer asked : “did you feel nervous or shy just now?”

Student I : “I never feel nervous or shy. I am very happy and motivation so much when I speak with guest bahkan in English.”

(Interview on May, 5th, 2013)

The writer : “how about you, apakahtadimerasagugupatocemas.

Students II : “no mom”, I always happy when teacher suruhqtpraktekspertiini.
Apalagiinjurusan kami.Harusterbiasauntuktidakgugupdancemas.

(Interview on May, 5th, 2013)

For the three other students, they answered similarly that they did not feel nervous or anxious. They had very good self confidence in speaking English with the guest. When they did not know how to speak in English, they would communicate by using body language to make their interlocutors understand in conversation.

However, most of them encountered psychological barriers, namely 13 students felt anxiety, had low motivation and had emotional distress. It was shown in the observation data that five students exhibited signs of anxiety. They were nervous, shy, trembled, and had dizzy attacks as the following picture showed



Figure 2. Student felt nervous and shy

The writer asked : “What did you feel when you speak English with the guest?”

Students 1 : “I feel nervous mom, and I sepertinyalangsunggemetar, how about guest baratasli?”

Student 2 : “I langsungpusing mom, I don’t want to speak, I will ask my friend to change me.”

(Interview on May, 5th, 2013)

The writer : “did you enjoy your speaking just now”

Student 3 : “I don’t like mom, sayatidakberanibicaradengannya, tdak PD mom.”

(Interview on May, 5th, 2013)

The writer : “are you OK?”

Student : “Yes, Mom.”
The writer : tadiwaktu proses reservasikenapamenunduk??? Did you get nervous??
Student : yes, selaingugup, sayatiba-tibapusing. Munginkarenatidakterbiasa, jadinya mending diamaja mom.

(Interview on May, 5th, 2013)

In addition, two students showed indication of low motivation. They were not interested and had no mood and energy. One student showed signs of emotional distress as he looked angry and had no self confidence to speak.

Moreover, some students showed two kinds of psychological barriers. In this case, two students exhibited anxiety and low motivation. They looked nervous, had dizzy attacks, and were unable to say anything as a result of their lack of motivation to speak.

The writer : “why did you just keep silent?”
Student : “I don’t know what happened, I tdakbisabcara and lupalsemua yang sayamaubilang.

(Interview on May, 6th, 2013)

This was one condition in which the students were tense to the extent that they could not say anything. The effect was that they were no longer motivated to speak.

Additionally, two students showed indicators of anxiety and emotional distress and one of them showed the indicators of emotional distress and low motivation.

The writer asked : “did you feel nervous?”
Students 1 : “of course mom, I don’t mood to speak English. I never interested to speak with orang barat?”
Student 2 : “I nervous, and shy. So, sometimes I am difficult to speak.”

(Interview on May, 6th, 2013)

b. Data Analysis through Questionnaire

Based on the results of the observations and interviews above, it was clear that the students encountered some psychological barriers such as, (1) anxiety manifesting itself in feelings of nervousness, shyness, and trembling, (2) low motivation exhibited through showing interest or no energy, and (3) emotional distress such as anger, no mood, feelings of fear etc.

To delve further and confirm those findings, the writer also used questionnaires. They consisted of fifteen closed ended items and were analyzed individually. The students answered them according to their experiences in the field and their feelings when they took part in the simulation in speaking English. The analyses are as follows:

Table 8

The students feel nervous in speaking English

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	16	88,9 %
2	No	2	11,1 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 9

Students feel headache when facing guests

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	8	44,4 %
2	No	10	55,6 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 10

Experience feeling of Embarrassment

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	13	72,2 %
2	No	5	27,8 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 11

Thinking of their worries

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	15	83,3 %
2	No	3	16,7 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 12

Having Dizzy Attacks

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	7	38,9 %
2	No	11	61,1 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 13

Avoiding asking people Questions

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	11	61,1 %
2	No	7	38,9 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 14

Not Interesting Talking with the Guest

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	14	77,8 %
2	No	4	22,2 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 15

Have no Self Confidence

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	10	55,6 %
2	No	8	44,4 %

	Total	18	100 %
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Table 16

The students' Blood Pressure Rises

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	11	61,1 %
2	No	7	38,9 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 17

Students Go Blank

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	14	77,8 %
2	No	4	22,2 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 18

Feeling Knowledge has no benefits

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	4	22,2 %
2	No	14	77,8 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 19

Feeling Afraid

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	7	38,9 %
2	No	11	61,1 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 20

Have no mood and Angry

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	2	11,1 %
2	No	16	88,9 %
	Total	18	100 %

Table 21

The Students can't focus on the Conversation

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	5	27,8 %
2	No	13	72,2 %
	Total	18	100 %

The last item of questionnaire is to know whether the students motivated to speak or not.

Table 22

No Motivation to Speak with the Guest

No	Classification	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	8	44,4 %
2	No	10	55,6 %
	Total	18	100 %

Discussion

1. English Speaking Ability of Students Hotel Department

Collating findings from the data analysis, the writers stated that from five components of speaking, most students were poor on pronunciation and grammar. It was seen that ten students were poor and two of students were very poor on pronunciation. Further to this, seven students were poor on grammar. These numbers showed that some students' deficiencies must be seriously addressed on these two important components of language.

Dewi (1998) explains that to produce appropriate and accurate language, we need to pay attention to phonology, vocabulary, and grammar, all of which determine the efficiency of language in conveying meaning. For speaking, these elements are essential because without some degree of phonological, vocabulary and grammatical competence, there can be no communication. These play an important role in making effective communication and speaking fluently. In any conversation, it is not the sole responsibility of the speaker to make themselves understood. The listener must also make an effort to understand by responding to the speaker. Therefore, based on the result of the students' scores, the teacher must make efforts to improve their teaching in speaking so that students can improve their ability in speaking.

In addition, it was revealed that in the speaking test the students faced some problems and made numerous mistakes. The mistakes that the students made were exemplified in the following description.

1) Mispronunciation

Pronunciation is one of the important components that a good English speaker uses when he/she expresses his/her ideas in an interaction in order to have a good communication. In fact, the students made some mistakes in pronouncing some English words. They found it hard to pronounce some English words because mostly they were influenced by the use of their mother tongue. This is in line with Wenden (1987) who said that to be a successful language learner, one should use the language as often as possible, think with the target language, and live and study in an environment where the target language is spoken. Therefore, to achieve good pronunciation among students, the teacher should pay much attention to the teaching and learning process.

Some mistakes that the students made when pronouncing English words are as below:

1. The substitution of phonemes, as below

a. /ie/ becomes /a/

Example: Facilities/Facilitis/ becomes /Facilitas/

b. /ð/ becomes /d/

Example: That/ ðæt/ becomes /dæt/

This/ ðis/ becomes /dis/

2. English words which are pronounced based on the written print.

Examples are:

a. cupboard/kabed/ becomes / cupbord/

b. music /mju:zik/ becomes /musik/

It can be concluded that the students need a real and authentic situation where they can practice pronunciation as well. This point is raised since the implementation of the team interview technique in the classroom placed students together in teams or a whole class practiced their pronunciation. The teacher read and pronounced the English words clearly so that the students were exposed to accessible language models.

The most difficult pronunciation problems the students had were pronouncing the phonemes / ð, 0/ either in initial, middle and final position of the words, the consonant cluster /ght, rld/ in the final position.

2) Grammatical Error

Most of the grammatical errors the students made were patterns of syntax, such as: concord, word order, and incomplete sentences. In fact, the researcher found that the students lacked grammar accuracy. In constructing English sentences, they used the Indonesian system to achieve understanding so that they could communicate in English.

Below is the grammatical errors the students made:

1. The misuse of singular and plural nouns.

For example; “In my hotel, there are much facilities.”

2. The excess of TO BE as the predicate in simple present tense sentence.

For example:

“you are go.”

It can be noted that most of the students still needed more practice to overcome barriers in grammar. Therefore, during the implementation of the teaching-learning process, the teacher corrected the students’ grammatical errors.

3) The Inappropriate Word Choice

The inappropriate use of English words is due to the words that the students select because of wrong diction, and wrong class of words. It can be noted that the students’ mistakes in word choice were caused by the lack of English vocabulary and the non-mastery of word usage.

2. Psychological Barriers of the Second Year Students of Hotel Department in Speaking English.

Regarding the results of the data analysis of the observation, interview and questionnaire, the writers reported that students encountered some psychological barriers in speaking English with hotel guests whether in hotel simulations or real situations when they applied their knowledge.

Based on the data analysis above, the writers showed that there were three kinds of psychological barriers they encountered: anxiety, low motivation and emotional distress. Each part consisted of different indicators showing the students' psychological barriers.

The item of table 8 showed that most of students felt nervous when they spoke English with guests. Nervousness is one indicator of anxiety which influences students' performance significantly in speaking. As Scovel (1978) stated, too much anxiety has a debilitating effect on performance.

In addition, the item of table 10 revealed that most students often experienced the feeling of embarrassment. It was seen that thirteen of them stated they feel shy.

Besides this, some of the students had dizzy attacks, felt headache, their blood pressure rose, or their breath became a little faster when they spoke English with guests as shown in tables 9, 12 and 16. Eggen and Kauchack (1998) state that all symptoms showed the indicators of anxiety. Consequently, students' performance in speaking may also suffer.

The item of table 11 showed that fifteen students sometimes were preoccupied by their worries. Horwitz et al. (1986) state anxiety is a subjective feeling of worry and nervousness. It is a kind of troubled feeling in the mind. It was clear that when the students feel worried they cannot concentrate on speaking. From this, the writers conclude that one of the psychological barriers the students encountered in speaking English with guests is anxiety. It consists of some indicators that students feel and experience, namely feeling nervous, tension, and embarrassed as well as feeling worried.

Furthermore, low motivation influenced students' performance in speaking also as the consequence of anxiety. The item of table 14 showed that most of students had not interest in speaking English with guests. The item of table 15 showed that ten of students had no self confidence. Juhansar (2006) explains that the students who have no self-confidence cannot

communicate well with others. The effect of this may cause the speaker to feel shy to speak English.

Also, the table 22 revealed eight students had no motivation in speaking English with guests. As explained previously, low motivation will affect their performance in speaking. Sometimes they are not happy and they cannot speak well. Consequently, they do not focus on the conversation as table 21 showed that some students cannot focus on English conversation.

Moreover, the writer found that emotional distress was one kind of psychological barrier. In this case, the students tended to show their emotion due to avoidance of speaking with the guest. It was shown by tables 19 and 2, both of which illustrated that some students felt afraid to speak with guests; two of them even stated that they might become angry when they were asked to speak with guests. Consequently, most of them avoided asking other people questions as table 13 showed because of symptoms of emotional distress. Besides this, they were in no mood to speak, a condition which, in turn, can cause poor speaking performance.

From explanation above the writer stated that the teachers must look for good method and design the process of learning teaching to improve the students' skill and overcome their psychological barriers. ESP is one important subject that is needed for their professional careers. ESP is design as well as possible to make them professional and creative. It means that ESP is positioned as a subject which enables students to prepare themselves for real world situation.

Speaking with the guest is a part of ESP training. Therefore, teachers must be able to apply such practice in their lessons in order to help students overcome problems faced in the communication process. One reason why the students need ESP is that it will help students recognize and understand relevant and authentic language related to their major fields of study.

Conclusions and suggestions

1. English Speaking Ability

The second year students' ability of Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap in speaking English is poor in terms of pronunciation, yet good in grammar and vocabulary, and very good in fluency and comprehension. These findings were seen in their scores. Individually, two students are very good in English speaking ability, seven students are

good and nine of them are poor in speaking. Generally, the second year students of the Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrapgot received good scores in speaking.

2. Students' Psychological barriers in speaking English.

The second year students of the Hotel Department of SMKN 1 Sidenreng Kabupaten Sidrap encountered some psychological barriers in speaking English in hotel simulations:

- a. Anxiety manifesting itself in feeling nervous, worried, embarrassed, and headaches.
- b. Emotional distress of feeling angry, afraid and lacking self-confidence.

The effect of two kinds of psychological barriers above is seen in the students' low motivation. It is also shown that they do not have a positive mood in speaking, avoid asking other people questions, have difficulties in thinking, not being able to focus on conversation and 'go blank' or are lost for words when they speak with the guests.

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Re-examination of Psychological Needs and L2 Motivation of Japanese EFL learners: An Interview Study

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Abstract

The purposes of this study are to (a) re-examine the definitions of Japanese university EFL learners' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness and (b) make suggestions on improving a commonly used EFL learner questionnaire based on self-determination theory (SDT). The theory postulates that the more individuals' innate psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are fulfilled, the more their behavior is intrinsically motivated. Many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have applied the framework to the language-learning context, helping to shed light on L2 learners' motivation. In studies of Japanese EFL learner motivation, one questionnaire (Hiromori, 2006a) has been widely used or adopted. Those studies yielded results both in line and out of line with the theory. This calls for a re-examination of the relationship between needs fulfillment and motivation and of the commonly used questionnaire. In this study, 18 Japanese university EFL learners participated in a semi-structured interview. The analysis of interview data showed that (i) whereas the fulfillment of autonomy - meaning freedom of choice - might motivate some L2 learners, it can demotivate

others; (ii) a good relationship with the teacher might motivate learners while a good relationship with other classmates can have a positive or marginal impact on L2 motivation, depending on the learner; and (iii) competence needs satisfaction is most likely to motivate Japanese EFL learners. The results suggest three aspects that should be considered to improve the commonly used questionnaire in the Japanese EFL setting: (1) a redefinition of L2 learners' autonomy needs; (2) an amendment of autonomy-related items based on the redefinition; and (3) the addition of items to gauge the teacher–student relationship. Studies similar to the current one should be conducted to test the applicability of a motivational questionnaire and SDT in various settings.

Key words: EFL learners' motivation, self-determination theory, semi-structured interview

Introduction

In second language acquisition (SLA) research, second/foreign language (L2) learners' motivation is one of the most abundantly investigated areas (for a review, see Lasagabaster, Doiz, & Sierra, 2014; Uebuchi, 2004). In the 1950s, Robert Gardner and his associates initiated investigations into the role of attitude and motivation in L2 learning within socio-educational framework research (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). This line of research focused primarily on general motivational components of integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is characterized by learners' willingness to integrate into the target language community and culture. Instrumental motivation, by contrast, refers to a more practical reason for learning an L2 - namely, to gain social and/or economic rewards through L2 achievement. Although Gardner and his associates argued that integrative motivation was a predictor of L2 acquisition (e.g., Gardner, 2000; Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorcroft, 1985), some researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 1990; Kurahachi, 1994; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2000) raised the issue that integrative motivation might not be relevant for EFL learners because they have little direct exposure to a community or culture of native speakers of the L2 and, therefore, are unlikely to have a clear target language community or culture.

In subsequent motivation research, self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000, 2002) became one of the most influential theories. SDT was originally a large-scale theory used to explain human motivation in general. Many SLA researchers have applied the framework

to the language-learning context, which helped unfold L2 motivation processes (Noels, 2003). SDT studies have been conducted in many countries, including Japan. The vast majority of such studies conducted in Japan used or adapted one questionnaire (Hiromori, 2006a) and yielded results both in line and out of line with the theory. This poses two questions: (a) existence or non-existence of the causality between the psychological needs and motivation, especially the link between autonomy and motivation; and (b) validity of the commonly used, SDT-based questionnaire in the Japanese EFL setting. This study re-examines the relationship between Japanese EFL learners' motivation and fulfillment of their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The study also aims to offer suggestions for improving the commonly used questionnaire in the Japanese EFL setting.

Background of the Study

Self-Determination Theory

In SDT, motivation resides along a continuum among intrinsic motivation at one end, extrinsic motivation in the middle, and amotivation at the other end (see Figure 1). Intrinsic motivation refers to the motivation to engage in something because the action itself is enjoyable and satisfying, whereas extrinsic motivation is a drive to do something for an independent outcome (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Deci and Ryan postulated four regulations within extrinsic motivation, depending on the degree of internalization involved in the action: integrated, identified, introjected, and external regulations. As their labels suggest, integrated regulation is the most self-determined form of regulation, whereas external regulation is the least autonomous. Placed at the opposite end of the scale from intrinsic motivation is amotivation, a state of no regulation/motivation.

SDT presupposes the existence of three basic psychological needs: the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This theory offers different types of motivation and degrees of regulation to show how we can be motivated, depending on how much our needs are satisfied. Thus, the more individuals' innate psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are fulfilled, the more their behavior is intrinsically motivated.

Needs for autonomy are defined as individuals' desire for "being the perceived origin or source of one's own behavior" (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 8). Deci and Ryan further explained that autonomy pertains to acting from interest and integrated values; thus, "when autonomous,

individuals experience their behavior as an expression of the self, such that, even when actions are influenced by outside sources, the actors concur with those influences, feeling both initiative and value with regard to them” (p. 8). In the Japanese EFL context, one can argue that needs for autonomy are commonly defined as learners’ wanting to learn English more autonomously (Hiromori, 2006a). Interpreted more concretely, they are learners’ needs for determining their actions themselves and for taking responsibility for their own studies. The definitions are reflected in widely used questionnaire items to measure the degree of Japanese EFL learners’ autonomy needs fulfillment, such as “I am free to express my ideas and opinions on English learning,” “My feelings are taken into consideration in English classes,” “My teacher asks for the opinions of students about the content and/or procedure of the class,” and “My teacher always decides what to study in the English course” (reversed item) (Hiromori, 2006a, 2006b; Tanaka & Hiromori, 2007).

Needs for competence refer to people’s desire to feel “effective in one’s ongoing interactions with the social environment and experiencing opportunities to exercise and express one’s capacities” (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7). Applied to the English learning setting, they are interpreted as individuals’ desire to be able to understand and make themselves understood in English based on their capability and confidence to successfully complete English assignments and tasks (Hiromori, 2006a). These definitions are the basis of questionnaire items commonly used to measure the degree of competence needs satisfaction of Japanese EFL learners, such as “I think I can get a good grade in English,” “I am satisfied with my effort in English classes,” and “I feel a sense of achievement in the English course” (Hiromori, 2006a, 2006b; Tanaka & Hiromori, 2007).

Finally, needs for relatedness are expressed in the desire to feel “connected to others, to caring for and being cared for by those others, [and] to having a sense of belongingness both with other individuals and with one’s community” (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p. 7). In the English learning setting, these needs can be translated as wanting to connect with other classmates and the teacher as well as engage in English learning cooperatively with other classmates and the teacher (Hiromori, 2006a). Questionnaire items reflecting this definition include “I work hand-in-hand with my friends on a group activity” and “I get along with my friends during an English class” (Hiromori, 2006a, 2006b).

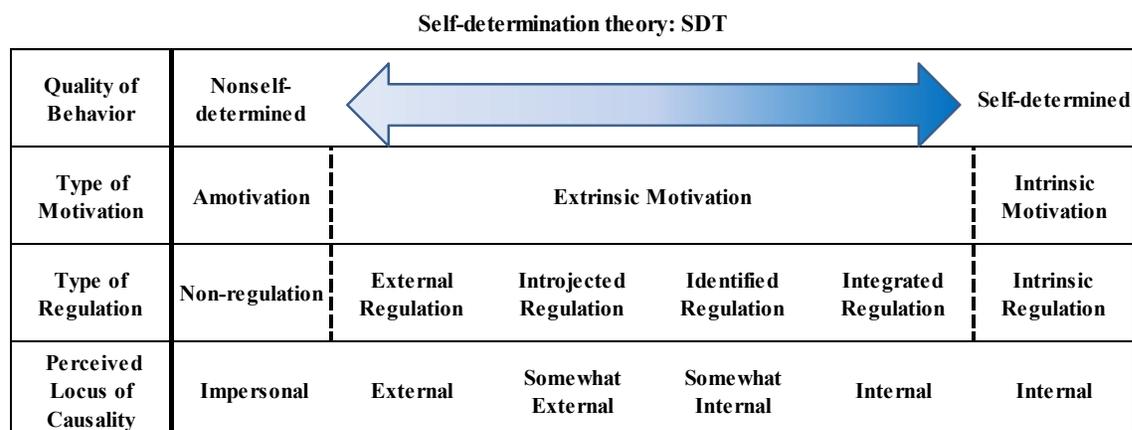


Figure 1. The self-determination continuum, with types of motivation, types of regulation, and locus of causality. Adapted from Deci, E. L., and Ryan, R. M., (Eds.), 2002, *Handbook of self-determination research*, p.16.

Research Based on SDT in the Japanese EFL Context

A strong emphasis has been placed on English in the Japanese formal educational setting; it is one of the three main subjects in junior and senior high schools, and almost all universities require English language courses for at least first- and second-year students, regardless of their majors. However, students are not always willing to learn English; some students even experience demotivation when learning English (Agawa & Ueda, 2013; Yamamori, 2004). Given such circumstances, EFL learners' motivation is of great interest to many researchers and practitioners in Japan, and more knowledge on this matter has been actively sought. Several motivational studies have dealt with SDT in the Japanese EFL context, as this theory is one of the most influential in motivation research. For example, Hiromori (2006a) collected questionnaire data from university students and used a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis to confirm the causal relationship between the fulfillment of innate needs and motivation as hypothesized in the theory. Yet the model's goodness of fit was relatively poor.¹ In Otoshi and Heffernan's (2011) study, data were collected at two universities, and participants were either business or English majors. The results yielded a somewhat acceptable level of fit indices of the model; however, the sufficiency of autonomy needs did not display a causal relationship with intrinsic motivation. Moreover, Agawa and Takeuchi's (2016) study, in which 317 participants from academically varied universities responded to a questionnaire, found that

autonomy needs fulfillment has a negative impact on intrinsic or extrinsic motivation of Japanese L2 learners and, furthermore, might even demotivate them. The fit indices of the model reached an acceptable level in the study.

Some studies have sought to determine if pedagogical interventions to fulfill English learners' three basic needs improve their intrinsic motivation. A few studies, such as Dei (2011), Hiromori (2006a, 2006b), and Tanaka and Hiromori (2007), demonstrated that satisfying the innate needs could generally enhance English learners' motivation. Conversely, Maekawa and Yashima (2012) did not observe an increase in their participants' self-determined regulations in their L2 study, although their psychological needs were successfully satisfied.

The mixed results shown in the previous studies suggest the necessity of investigating two points: the review of the relationship between psychological needs fulfillment and motivation and the review of commonly used measurement scales. First, the unstable causal relationship between needs fulfillment and L2 motivation indicated in previous studies requires a review of the relationship between psychological needs satisfaction and motivation of Japanese EFL learners. In particular, as the relationship between autonomy needs fulfillment and motivation is a causal relationship that acts least in line with the theory, the existence or non-existence of the causality should be more closely investigated than the causalities involving the other two needs. In the following subsections, the authors will take a close look at the literature related to autonomy needs fulfillment and its impact on L2 motivation. Second, the inconsistent results of studies that have drawn from different samples call for a review of the measurement instrument. All of the aforementioned studies used or adopted the questionnaire originally developed by Hiromori (2006a); thus, it is possible that the questionnaire has some aspects that need to be improved. In the following subsections, the authors will discuss autonomy needs and L2 motivation before raising possible issues regarding the widely used questionnaire.

Influence of Autonomy Needs Fulfillment on L2 Motivation

The central feature of learner autonomy, which many researchers agree on, is that students should take responsibility for their own learning (e.g., Benson, 2003; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991). Littlewood (1999) claimed that "taking responsibility" pertains to learners taking ownership of learning processes, such as deciding on goals, choosing approaches, and evaluating

outcomes. From this perspective, autonomy support, in a nutshell, means giving students a choice.

However, some researchers have argued that autonomy is perceived differently depending on the sociocultural and educational settings. For example, Littlewood (1999) suggested two kinds of language learners' autonomy: (a) proactive autonomy and (b) reactive autonomy. Following Holec's (1981) definition, Littlewood defined proactive autonomy as the "ability to take charge of learning, determining objectives, selecting methods and techniques, and evaluating what has been acquired" (p. 75). Expanding on this conventional concept, he proposed an additional form of autonomy: reactive autonomy. Reactive autonomy is defined as "the kind of autonomy which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p. 75). Through his careful observation and discussion of learners in different cultures, Littlewood proposed that East Asian students would have a high level of reactive autonomy.

Iyengar and Lepper (1999) shed light on autonomy in different cultures via an empirical study. They investigated the relationship between the degree of self-determination and intensity of intrinsic motivation in children. They compared Anglo-American and Asian-American pupils between seven and nine years old and found that Anglo-American children were more intrinsically motivated when they could choose what they would learn than when others made those choices for them. In contrast, Asian-American children were more intrinsically motivated when the choices were made by trusted authority figures (i.e., their mothers) or peers compared to themselves.

Having choices might not be as valued by Japanese students either; this could continue to be the case even after they finish secondary school. Nakata (2006, 2010) suggested that, upon entrance to a university, many students are not willing to enforce learner autonomy. To explain this phenomenon, he pointed to the educational context in Japanese junior and senior high schools, where most learners are exposed to exam-oriented learning with a teacher-centered approach in a large class (usually 35–40 students).

As suggested in the studies discussed thus far, there might be different versions and/or perceptions of autonomy depending on the culture and educational settings. If this is the case, from a pedagogical point of view, autonomy support in the Japanese EFL classroom should be altered to fit the students. From a researcher's viewpoint, different perceptions of autonomy

support in different socio-cultural settings might be a cause of the mixed outcome of SDT applied research in the Japanese EFL setting. Therefore, this study will focus mainly on revealing the connection between obtaining a higher degree of discretion and motivating Japanese EFL learners.

The Review of the Widely Used Questionnaire

Hiromori's (2006a, 2006b) questionnaire is by far the most widely used in the Japanese L2 motivation studies based on SDT. It consists of two parts: the English Learning Motivation Scale and the Psychological Needs Scale. The English Learning Motivation Scale is designed to ask participants to indicate their intensity of motivation to learn English. The Psychological Needs Scale asks how much participants feel their basic psychological needs regarding English learning are fulfilled. The most commonly used format is the five-point Likert scale, where participants are asked to respond to statements in terms of the extent to which they agree with them (e.g., strongly agree, strongly disagree).

Table 1 shows the questionnaire items in the Psychological Needs Scale and their characteristics. The letter P in the Characteristic column indicates that the questionnaire item asks for participants' perception, whereas the letter C means that the item asks for the condition of English classes the participants are taking. For example, the first item in the Competence (i.e., the construct to measure the degree to which learners' competence needs are fulfilled) section reads "I am satisfied with my effort in English classes," and a letter P is designated as its characteristic. This means that the item asks for participants' perception (i.e., how much sense of satisfaction the participants feel in their effort in English classes). On the other hand, a letter C is put for the first item in the Autonomy section, "My teacher always decides what to study in the English course." This means the item aims to find out the condition, or state, of the English classroom by asking about the proportion of teacher-made decisions. Some items have P/C as their item characteristics because they are considered to measure both. For example, the first item in Relatedness, "I think I get along with my friends who are in the same English course," asks how participants see (perception) their relationship with others (condition) in their English classes. The two-lettered coding designated for all Relatedness items reflects that the conditions asked in this construct, such as classroom atmosphere or group dynamics condition, can be understood quite subjectively and might be rated differently depending on the participant's

viewpoint. In contrast, the conditions of the Autonomy items, such as whether or not opportunities to have a say are given to the learners, are rated fairly objectively by respondents because judgments are based on the frequency or proportion of student-made decisions in the classroom.

It should be noted that all items used to measure the degree to which learners' autonomy needs are fulfilled ask for the conditions that students are given by the teacher, rather than students' feelings or perceptions on how autonomy is supported by the teacher in the English course. Thus, interpreting the data from these items requires caution because the items are based on the assumption that giving a certain condition (giving choices in this case) to students automatically satisfies their autonomy needs. Indeed, some researchers (e.g. Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016; Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Littlewood, 1999; Nakata, 2006, 2010) have pointed out that obtaining a choice might not always be cherished by people who are in an East Asian cultural and educational context. Surely Hiromori's (2006a, 2006b) students appreciated gaining greater control over their English learning processes. His questionnaire successfully measured his students' autonomy needs fulfillment because the researcher knew his students well and therefore was able to come up with precise conditions, as articulated in the questionnaire items, to satisfy their needs, which boosted their motivation. On the other hand, some other studies (e.g. Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016; Maekawa & Yashima, 2012; Otoshi & Heffernan, 2011) failed to see the connection between the conditions offered to their learners and their L2 motivation enhancement; this was likely because the conditions did not match their perception of how autonomy should be supported. Thus, with additional autonomy items that ask about the perception of Japanese EFL learners, the questionnaire could represent Japanese EFL learners' autonomy needs satisfaction and motivation more accurately.

Table 1

Items in the Psychological Needs Scale and their Characteristics

Needs Fulfillment	Questionnaire item	Characteristic
Autonomy	My teacher always decides what to study in English classes. (reversed item)	C
	I have freedom of choice on assignments in English classes.	C
	My teacher asks for the opinions of students about the content and/or procedure of classes.	C
	I have opportunities to express my ideas and opinions on English learning.	C
Competence	I am satisfied with my effort in English classes.	P
	I think I can get a good grade in English classes.	P
	I often feel incompetent in English. (reversed item)	P
	I feel I can do well in English classes if I try.	P
Relatedness	I think I get along with my friends who are in the same English course.	P/C
	I think I've been able to work together with my friends on a group activity.	P/C
	I think there is an atmosphere where we learn from each other in English classes.	P/C
	I think I've been able to cooperate in a group activity in the English class.	P/C

Note. C = the item asks the condition of the English classes; P = the item asks participant's feelings/perception. Questionnaire items taken from "*Gaikokugo gakushusyua no doukizuke wo takameru riron to jissen [Theory and practice to improve foreign language learners]*" by T. Hiromori, 2006, Tokyo: Taiga, p.141, and translated to English by the authors.

Purposes of the Study

The review of the literature shows the need to investigate the causality between autonomy and motivation. In addition, a closer look at the widely used questionnaire suggests the need for modification of the autonomy items. As a step toward amendment, this study aims to specify modification points to the questionnaire by examining the relationship between autonomy and Japanese EFL learners' motivation. The study also aims to confirm the relationship among competence, relatedness, and Japanese EFL learners' motivation.

Method

Participants

Eighteen university students in Japan participated in the interview study after providing written consent. All of them were provided with the background to and summary of the research, possible demands on participants,² and the researcher's contact information. They agreed to participate in an interview and to allow the content of their interview to be audio recorded. In an effort to ensure that participants represented the population of Japanese university EFL learners, interviewees were chosen from academically varied universities (i.e., extremely competitive schools: University A, middle-range schools: University B, and easy-to-get-into schools: University C). Their majors also varied (i.e., English, law, Japanese, medicine, and psychology). Reflecting the different degrees of academic and English proficiency demanded by their universities and/or majors, the interviewees' English levels varied as well, with the most proficient student falling in the B2 (Independent User) level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) and the least falling in the A2 (Basic User) level of CEFR. In seeking participants, the authors asked the candidate students and/or their teachers to inform them of the applicants' level of L2 motivation so that the authors could make sure to interview highly motivated, moderately motivated, and marginally motivated English learners from each level of the universities. Of the 18 participants, nine were males and nine were females. To ensure anonymity, all participants were assigned codes and were referred to by these codes thereafter. The codes indicate participants' university, L2 motivation level, and gender. The first letter in the code (A, B, or C) shows the characteristics of the participant's university; the second one (H, M, or L) illustrates the level of his/her L2 motivation; and the last letter in the parentheses indicates gender (see Table 2).

Table 2
Participants' Characteristics and Their Codes

Motivation	Participant Code		
	University A	University B	University C
High	AH (m)	BH (m)	CH (f)
	AH (f)	BH (f)	CH (m)
Moderate	AM (m)	BM1 (m)	CM1 (f)
	AM (f)	BM2 (m)	CM2 (f)
Low	AL (m)	BL (m)	CL (m)
	AL (f)	BL (f)	CL (f)

Note: A = University A; B = University B; C = University C; H = highly motivated; M = moderately motivated; L = little motivated; m = male; f = female.

Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the 18 participants to examine the connection between needs fulfillment and motivation. All the interviews were carried out by one of the authors of this paper in participants' native language (i.e., Japanese). Four questions were asked of all participants. The first question was used to gradually introduce the three main topics (i.e., questions 2–4) to the participants, rather than abruptly shifting to narrowly focused points at the very beginning of the interview. The second to fourth questions probed the relationship between L2 motivation and the autonomy needs, competence, and relatedness fulfillment, respectively. If the participants responded to the first question with answers to the questions planned to be asked later, the interviewer did not subsequently ask the question to avoid redundancy. The participants were encouraged to elaborate on their answers with explanations and examples. The translations of the four questions are as follows:

1. What motivates or demotivates you to learn English?
2. When/If you have more choices in English class, how does/will it influence your motivation to learn English?
3. When/If you have a good relationship with your classmates in group work in English class, how does/will it influence your motivation to learn English?

4. When/If you feel competent in English, how does/will it influence your motivation to learn English?

Each interview, which took approximately 30–40 minutes, was administered in a face-to-face manner in a quiet room, and all the contents were audio recorded for later analysis.

Data Analysis

The audio-recorded interview data were transcribed by a professional transcriptionist who was instructed to transcribe the files verbatim. The transcribed data were then coded by classifying elements of the data into three categories: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Coded elements were organized by using the analysis worksheet proposed by modified grounded theory (Kinoshita, 2003) where the first author of this paper added her interpretation to the variations. Following Seale (1999), her coding and interpretations were returned to the informants for member validation (i.e., participants checked that the researcher's coding and interpretations accurately represented what they meant in the interview). After going through the interactive process, the excerpts were translated into English for result presentation. The first author of this paper translated the excerpts; the translation was then checked by a native speaker of English who had basic knowledge of SLA and the Japanese language. In the process of translation, it became clear that some implicit information given in Japanese needed to be articulated in the English version. This was mainly due to the structural feature of the Japanese language where a speaker often omitted the subject, object, and/or another part of a sentence. In order to obtain message clarity and flow in the English version, some supplementation was given, which is notified with parentheses at the beginning and end of the statements.

Results and Discussion

Overall Findings

The interview results showed that (1) the fulfillment of autonomy needs, which has been understood as giving freedom of choice to students, could motivate some L2 learners whereas it

could demotivate other students; (2) a good relationship with the teacher might motivate learners, and a good relationship with other classmates could have a positive or marginal impact on L2 motivation, depending on the learner; and (3) competence needs satisfaction is most likely to motivate Japanese EFL learners.

The following presentation of the interview study's main results match the motivational factors expressed in the interviews to their corresponding psychological needs in SDT. The authors then add their interpretations to the excerpts that have been validated by respondents. Previous studies are referred to in the discussion where relevant.

Autonomy Needs Fulfillment and Motivation

Positive impact of giving choices on L2 motivation. Some interviewees expressed positive attitudes toward more discretion being given in their English classes:

[AH(f)]: I think it is quite difficult to match what the teacher would like us to do and what students would like to do. Then if the teacher and students can decide what to do in class by, for example, the teacher giving us some suggestions which we students can choose from, students' motivation will probably increase.

[BL(m)]: Everyone would agree that people make better progress when they are doing what they like. So I think it's better if we can learn about what we are interested in using English. It's better than when we do what is decided (by someone else).

[CL(f)]: (My motivation) will go up (if I'm given choices) because when I choose a task by myself, I know why I am doing it. Then I will take responsibility for the outcome.

AH, BL, and CL explained that, by being involved in decision making, they can engage in English learning tasks that are matched to their values and interests. To them, obtaining the freedom of choice enables them to work on tasks that they understand and accept their values.

Negative impact of giving choices on L2 motivation. Some informants responded negatively to the idea of English teachers letting students make their own choices when learning English:

[AM(f)]: I'm not the kind of person who would like to come up with some kind of idea by myself. I feel more motivated when I'm given a task by the teacher. If I am told to think (what I should do to learn English), I will feel it is too much hassle.

[CM1(f)]: If the teacher asks us how and what we want to learn, I won't be able to come up with an idea because I don't even know much about the subject matter.

AM is satisfied with and motivated by the condition where choices are made by the teacher. She does not like to make choices and feels it is bothersome when she is told to do so. In her case, making a choice is something she would do when it is imposed. CM1 does not feel competent enough to make choices regarding English learning. Similar to CM1, AL feels it difficult to make his own choices to successfully improve his English grade. He does not believe that being able to make his own choice is a condition to enhance his English learning motivation; rather, the condition is likely to lower his motivation. He explicitly explained why he would feel that way by comparing mathematics, which he is very good at, and English, which he does not feel very competent in:

[AL(m)]: Math has a limited number of things to remember... English doesn't work that way. The grammar changes over time, some verbs are irregular, and there are countless numbers of words to remember. It would be painful to decide what to study myself, because there's no clear line between what I must remember and what I don't have to. The first step, deciding what I need to cover, is a pain already.

To CM1 and AL, making choices in English learning is something that would be forced by others. Uebuchi (2004) pointed out that being given autonomy could be perceived differently by the individual, depending on his/her sense of competence. He acknowledged that autonomy support means - in a nutshell - giving a choice. However, he argued that, if an individual lacks a certain level of perceived competence, being given a choice can be understood as being forced to make a choice. This suggests that some Japanese students would not feel that their autonomy was being supported by simply being given a choice. Rather, they might appreciate and accept

choices made by others. One of the interviewees repeatedly expressed his preference for teacher instructions to freedom of choice:

[BH(m)]: I want the teacher to set a goal for us so that I can push myself to achieve that. I'd like the teacher to show small steps to get to the goal.

[BH(m)]: I get more motivated when everything that will be covered in class is decided (by the teacher). If I'm told I can do whatever I want, I'll lose my competitive mind completely and I tend to think like "working this much is enough, because I'm told I can work at my own pace" or "I can work slower today because I didn't do my homework." Then my study workload will decrease rapidly.

It has been clearly shown that some Japanese EFL learners do not value having their own choices about English learning and rather appreciate choices made by the teacher. This seems to suggest a gap between what SDT postulates and the phenomena observed in the Japanese EFL context. However, before hastily denying the theory, the following two points should be reconsidered: (1) the original definition of autonomy proposed in SDT (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2002) and (2) how the concept of SDT's autonomy is interpreted in the Japanese EFL settings.

As for the first point, it must be noted that, in discussing what autonomy entails, Deci and Ryan (2002) did not exclude actions influenced by others:

When autonomous, individuals experience their behavior as an expression of the self, such that, even when actions are influenced by outside sources, the actors concur with those influences, feeling both initiative and value with regard to them. (p. 8)

Following the above definition, as long as students understand and accept the value, the teacher making choices for them does not contradict autonomy support. In fact, having students make choices when they do not understand the rationale might be considered to be discouraging their autonomy. This brings up the second point: how the SDT's definition of autonomy is applied in the Japanese EFL setting. As the authors mentioned in the Background of the Study section, the

needs for autonomy are interpreted as the needs for determining their actions themselves and for taking responsibility for their own studies. Reflecting the definition, the most commonly used questionnaire in the EFL setting is designed to measure autonomy needs fulfillment exclusively by the degree of freedom of choice students are given. This raises a serious question of the instrument's validity. The redefinition of the autonomy needs in the Japanese EFL setting and amendment of the questionnaire items based on the redefinition should be carried out.

Suggested modification for the current questionnaire. The preceding discussion on autonomy needs fulfillment and motivation suggests the need to redefine autonomy needs in the Japanese EFL setting and the amendment of questionnaire items according to the redefinition. As the analysis of the interview data revealed, although some Japanese EFL learners might be motivated by having greater learner discretion in English classes, others might lose their motivation. For those who lose their L2 motivation, being given choices does not support their autonomy needs as they do not see the rationale or value of making choices for their English learning. Therefore, the revised definition should remove choice as the key concept and should not exclude influence by others. As students' autonomy is supported as long as they understand and accept the value of other-made choices, the revised definition of autonomy should be learners' desire to engage in tasks and activities for which they appreciate and accept the values.

Regarding a questionnaire for future studies, it should not include items to ask the degree of freedom that students are given because such items do not necessarily gauge their autonomy needs fulfillment. Instead, there need to be new items to measure how much students understand and accept the value of English learning tasks in which they engage, which reflects the redefinition of autonomy needs.

Relatedness Needs Fulfillment and Motivation

Impact of the teacher–student relationship on learner motivation. The first question, which asked about participants' source of L2 motivation in general, revealed that students' relationships with their teachers influenced learner motivation:

[AH(f)]: I think the impact from my English teachers in junior and senior high school was big. The English teachers, both Japanese and non-Japanese, talked to me more actively than teachers of other subjects. That was maybe because I kind of liked English

and often asked the teachers questions. Then the teachers treated me kindly by, for example, giving me English learning materials. I think the junior and senior high school teachers who paid me that kind of attention influenced me a lot. If I had met less friendly teachers, I wouldn't have liked English so much.

[AL(f)]: My motivation to learn English was the highest when I was a freshman. That might be because the teacher was charismatic and I admired her, so I didn't want her to think I was no good.

In some cases, a teacher could negatively influence students' motivation:

[BM(m)]: Teachers have an influence on students' motivation for sure. Students sometimes lose motivation to study because of a teacher.

Needs for relatedness in the Japanese EFL setting are commonly understood as wanting to connect and engage in English learning activities cooperatively with other classmates and the teacher. Dei's (2011) study endorsed the value of the teacher–student relationship in the English classroom, where he found a medium correlation ($r = .37$) between the intrinsic motivation of Japanese EFL learners and the need for relatedness with the teacher. In his study, the teacher paid attention to each and every learner, making time for individual guidance and providing positive and supportive feedback on students' assignments. AH's comments in this study confirm that the teacher's attention and encouragement to students help increase L2 learner motivation.

Impact of the relationship among classmates on L2 motivation. A good relationship with other classmates can have a positive impact on L2 motivation:

[CL(f)]: You can't learn English by studying it alone. I think learning it through group work is more effective.

[Interviewer]: Do you think your motivation to learn in an English class will increase if you get along with your group mates?

[CL(f)]: Yes, I think so. If the group members are not bad, I would feel like learning English more.

[CH(m)]: If we get to know each other well—for example, if I find a classmate has the same hobby as me through an activity in an English class, and we get closer out of class through the hobby—then I will probably enjoy studying English with that friend as well.

CH also mentioned the effectiveness of learning English with other students.

[CH(m)]: When I study English with my fellow students, we discuss the meaning of parts of our task. When my friend explains something to me, I understand it better. In that way, learning with friends has a kind of synergetic effect compared with studying alone.

CL and CH seem to enjoy learning English with someone with whom they get along well. To them, studying with friends might be a pleasant activity, thereby improving their L2 motivation. Another aspect worth mentioning here is that, when they have an opportunity to work cooperatively with others, it leads to successful learning, which in turn improves their motivation.

Some other students are more focused on the effectiveness of working in a successful group than for the pleasure of it:

[Interviewer]: Do you think having a good relationship with other group members might improve your motivation to learn English?

[BL(m)]: Yes, it has a pretty good chance (of motivation improvement). (In preparation of a group presentation,) we need to have a deep understanding of English. So, in the process of trying to understand English better, we tend to get interested in the language.

[Interviewer]: Do you mean you might get interested in the language because you and your group members have a good relationship and help each other prepare the presentation?

[BL(m)]: That's right.

Therefore, having a positive relationship among classmates might improve some EFL learners' motivation. The effects are twofold. First, L2 motivation of some learners might be increased through a good relationship with other classmates. Second, motivation to learn English

might be enhanced through learning success, which is the by-product of a good member relationship.

However, for some other EFL learners, a good relationship with other classmates might have little impact on their motivation:

[AM(m)]: I think I put my efforts into English learning when I work with friends or people who I enjoy working with. But, well, when a task is set, I work on it regardless of whether I am alone or with other people.

[Interviewer]: A relationship with other classmates might not influence your motivation?

[AM(m)]: I think a good relationship in a group has a lot to do with working efficiency, but to me, it might have little to do with my motivation to learn English.

[AL(m)]: (When I was in high school,) I made myself learn English words when I was on the train. But some people would like to learn words at their desk at home. If I work with that kind of person in a group, we might not be able to work as a good team.

[Interviewer]: Do you mean your learning styles are different?

[AL(m)]: Yes.

It is clear that both AM and AL have already developed their own learning styles, which involve working alone. It should also be noted that both of them are students at an exclusive university and they are likely quite confident with their learning styles. For such students, having a good relationship with others does not seem to be a very efficient way to learn something and, thus, does not influence their motivation to learn English.

Suggested addition to the current questionnaire. The original purpose of probing the link between the relatedness needs satisfaction and L2 motivation was to confirm the causality between the two. However, the results of the current study, which are also supported by Dei's (2011) study, suggested that a good teacher–student relationship might contribute to enhancing Japanese EFL learners' motivation. As the widely used questionnaire includes only items that concern relationships among students, the addition of items to measure the teacher–student relationship is called for. It has been shown in the preceding discussion that a teacher's attention,

support, and encouragement of individual learners can successfully improve the teacher–student relationship; therefore, questions to gauge learners’ perception of these factors should be added.

Competence Needs Fulfillment and Motivation

The interview results confirmed that competence needs satisfaction can be a powerful motivator of Japanese EFL learners:

[AH(f)]: (I came to like English because,) compared with other subjects like math and science, I was clearly better at English.

[AH(f)]: Sometimes I get interested in a subject matter a bit and I get into studying it for a while. Then I find my grade in the subject has gone up. I like the subject more because it is interesting and my grade goes up when I study it. I think this is the cycle I have when I come to like a subject.

[CH(m)]: (What is important is) a sense of achievement. For example, if I read a passage in English and if I understand the meaning well, I would feel a sense of achievement. If there are questions related to the passage and if I can answer them correctly, I would feel even happier. In such cases, I would feel like continuing my English study.

[CM(f)]: When I can do (a task) successfully, I begin to like the course itself. Once I grasp the technique to do well in the course, I like to be a bit creative and try a slightly different technique at the next opportunity.

The other side of the picture is that, when learners feel less competent in English - for instance, they feel that they are falling behind in class or are overwhelmed by the amount of work - they are more likely to begin disliking English:

[AL(m)]: (As we advanced to higher grades, English) questions got more difficult and my grades went down. Then I tended to pay more attention to other subjects that I was good at and enjoyed studying those subjects rather than English. At high school, the

amount of things that we needed to remember increased dramatically... The amount was outrageous, and I felt it was basically impossible (to remember all of them).

[BM(m)]: My motivation to work on English goes down when I can't read some words that I don't know and, in addition to that, I find I don't understand some grammar items in the passage.

[CL(f)]: I studied little in every English class and I increasingly understood less, and then I started to hate English.

As the results of the interviews clearly demonstrate, the satisfaction of competence needs help increase Japanese university students' motivation to learn English. This finding is in line with SDT and previous studies (e.g., Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016; Dei, 2011; Hiromori, 2006a; 2006b), confirming the importance of students' competence needs satisfaction in English classes.

Conclusions

This study aimed to re-examine the causality between fulfilling EFL learners' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The other purpose of the study was to specify modification points to the commonly used questionnaire in the Japanese EFL setting.

The results of this interview study present some interesting points. First, the analysis of the interview data revealed that, whereas some Japanese EFL learners might be motivated by obtaining greater learner discretion in English classes, others might lose their motivation. For those who would lose their L2 motivation, being given choices does not support their autonomy needs because they do not see the rationale or value of making choices for their English learning. This calls for the redefinition of autonomy needs in the Japanese EFL setting and the amendment of questionnaire items according to the redefinition.

Second, it was found that a good teacher–student relationship might contribute to enhancing learner motivation. Furthermore, whereas some students can be motivated by being connected to other classmates, other students do not see the rationale or have the desire to work

with others in English classes. As the current widely used questionnaire does not include items asking how learners perceive their relationship with their teacher, the addition of items to gauge the teacher–student relationship is suggested.

Finally, it was confirmed that the satisfaction of competence needs could function as a strong motivator of Japanese university EFL students.

Based on the suggestions made in this study, the questionnaire should be modified. Then, using the amended questionnaire, one can proceed to validate SDT in the Japanese EFL contexts. A similar procedure should be undertaken in different contexts to test the versatility of the amended questionnaire and SDT. Upon verification of the theory, pedagogical implications for enhancing L2 learners' motivation could be proposed, which can be examined in an actual classroom. Although taking all these steps sounds like a lot of work, this study could serve as a concrete step toward expanding the opportunity to improve L2 learners in various settings.

Notes

¹ GFI = .75, AGFI = .70, CFI = .82, RMSEA = .90. An adequate model fit is indicated by the values of $GFI \geq .90$, $AGFI \geq .90$, $CFI \geq .90$, and $RMSEA \leq .10$.

² Time demands and possible discomfort that might be caused in the interview were outlined.

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Negotiation of Meaning in Face-to-Face Interaction among High Proficiency ESL Learners: 'Generation Y' Gender Interaction

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Abstract

This paper analyses the linguistic output produced by high-proficiency ESL learners during face-to-face interaction. This study focuses on the Generation Y participants born in the year of 1990 – 1996 who have just completed secondary or higher secondary schools. Generation Y or 'Gen Y' who are born in the year of 1980 – 2000 are also known as 'digital natives' (Prensky, 2001), highly involved in interacting with advanced technology tools and are used to interacting with their peers within a computer – mediated environment. However, less is known about the patterns of interaction of this particular group of ESL learners in face-to-face environment. This study aims to address this gap by analysing how they negotiate meaning based on the given tasks. It also aims to find out whether gender plays a role in the interaction. The participants involved in the study were 11 females and 11 males, 22 in total and paired in a mixed-gender dyads. A decision making two-way tasks were utilized to elicit the data and the analysis of the data was based on a framework by Varonis and Gass (1985) on negotiation routine. The results revealed that the males took greater advantage of the conversation by producing semantic modification as in more 'talk' for comprehensible output whereas females utilized the conversation more for comprehensible input.

Keywords: face to face interaction; high proficiency; Generation Y; second language

Introduction

Negotiation of meaning is a process that involves speakers to undergo a series of talk before accomplishing a transparent understanding of each other. Negotiation of meaning happens when there is a trouble in the conversation (Long, 1981) and a great deal of modification featured in the interaction. The interaction is activated when the indication in the form of comment or questions signals or triggers the need for response. When the message has not been successfully conveyed, the hearer then reacts by repeating or modifying the message (Pica, Lincoln – Porter, Paninos & Linnell, 1996). Such adjustments or attempts made by learners can occur in alternate order, back and forth until the meaning of the message is resolved. These attempts come in the form of comprehension checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks with restoration and modification (Pica, 1988).

A subconscious process is assumed to be a part of the cognitive process in negotiation of meaning when utterances are modified to be pushed out (Varonis & Gass, 1985a, 1985b) for the interlocutor's comprehension. The linguistic problem is noticed when the learners 'push' them to respond by modifying their utterances (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). That is to say a cognitive process is taking place during negotiation of meaning. The response towards the signaling is modified by replacing, rephrasing and adding lexical items to the phrase or even acts as a substitution of its original form. This supports Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (1985) and Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis (1985) where learners begin to develop and understand the linguistic features in a language. These interactions are most worthwhile as they offer learners the opportunity to focus on form (Long, 1983). An example of negotiation of meaning is as below:

NS: Do you wanna hamburger?
NNS: Uh?
NS: What do you wanna eat?
NNS: Oh! Yeah, hamburger

Long, 1981, p.269

The above example reveals that negotiation in second language acquisition (SLA) means efforts were made to recognize the gap that occurs during a conversation in order to achieve comprehension. It indicates that more turns are taking place in order to achieve understanding.

Therefore more opportunities are available to negotiate in terms of comprehensible input and comprehensible output.

There are four interconnected categories suggested by Pica (1989; 1994) in the course of negotiation of meaning. These categories have been used in various researches (Pedersen, 2010; Smith, 2003; Tam Shu Sim, 2010) as the fundamental framework to understand interaction and negotiation of meaning. When a non – understanding occurs during a conversation, learners' attention will be directed towards it prompting them to push out different types of indicators which correspond with clarification requests, confirmation requests and comprehension checks. Trigger, signal, response, reaction and back and forth moves are the linguistic features used to serve as a source of L2 data and the descriptions are completely described in Pica et al (1989), Pica et al (1991) and Pica (1994). An example of the interconnected categories is as below:

NNS: the windows are crozed
NS: the windows have what?
NNS: closed
NS: crossed? I'm not sure what you're saying there
NNS: windows are closed
NS: oh the windows are closed oh OK sorry
Pica, 1994

As the above example illustrates the occurrences of comprehensible breakdown gave the interlocutors the opportunity to 'push out' or produce modified output. The modified version can occur a number of times with different types of responses before being able to resolve the meaning of the message. Here the modification functions as a utility in the negotiation maximising the potential of comprehensible input, output and attention to form.

The effectiveness of negotiation of meaning lies within the task design involving the variables, in this case the interlocutors. A task used for experimental design will encourage learners to interact which leads to real communication necessary for the development of communicative competence. The type of task used will also affect the output production, consciousness on the linguistic formation in filling the gap of negotiation. This is where learners will begin to notice and focus on form (Long, 2000). Noticing on form causes learners to notice the gap in the interaction, giving them the opportunity to produce linguistically which helps to resolve the meaning. In this aspect, task design would not only promote learner's interaction, but also contribute to demonstrate the role of input and output in promoting SLA. Some examples of

tasks that are commonly used to elicit data are jigsaw tasks, information gap, problem solving, decision making and opinion exchange (Ellis, 2003).

In brief, research on negotiation of meaning has long focused on oral interactions and has been left idle when the use of synchronous computer – mediated interaction was introduced (Arslanyilmaz, 2007, 2012; Kawaguchi, 2011; Pedersen, 2010; Pellettieri, 2000; Tam Shu Sim, 2010). Learners turn out to be too engrossed with the use of advanced technology and became dependent on them. Eventually in most cases learners begin to lose their expression of conveyance in face to face interactions. By replicating and adopting some of the theoretical framework formulated by the researchers in the field of SLA, the investigation and findings for this study will be an added contribution and follow the evolvement of negotiation of meaning. Thus, this study intends to investigate the linguistic output during communication exchange to see the frequency of occurrences of negotiation of meaning between high proficiency language learners of ‘Gen Y’.

Generation Y

Since the inception of electronic communication, the use of advanced technology is preferred widely as a communication tool, and many studies have been conducted in the advent of CALL (Ducate & Lomicka, 2008; Kennedy & Levy, 2009; Tudini, 2007). Although it provides learners with language learning experience beyond the classroom environment (Warschauer, 1997), the augmented use of electronic communication has fully embraced the Generation Y interactions (Wei Liu, 2012). Therefore face to face interaction seems to be less frequent than electronic communication.

“Generation Y” or ‘Gen Y’ is the first generation of “digital natives” (Prensky, 2001) who grew up with modern and high technologies and it is a norm for them to interact utilizing the high technologies. They are versatile and knowledgeable in the usage of advanced technology but oblivious when it comes to face to face interaction (Punitha, 2008). They are confident in communicating through networking, texting and chatting utilizing social media. This is due to prolonged exposure to technology leading them to rely on electronic communication. Users prefer instant messaging as a tool of communication instead of face to face interaction. In addition emoticon is notably utilized to signify real – life emotions to express one’s feelings instead of witnessing the gestures, body language of an individual. Research indicates that Gen Y

is at most content-engaging for their professional and personal lives through electronic communication (Forbes, 2013). However in order to evaluate the performance and progression of Gen Y in professional development, face to face discussion is still the most preferred process (Forbes, 2013). As such, face to face interaction is essential at the professional level for growth and promotion.

Gender Interaction

Studies in gender differences in speech have long been observed (Varonis & Gass, 1986). These observations were made on the instrument of linguistic change (Labov, 1984), differentiating the changes of sound, to “woman’s language” (Lakoff, 1973) encourages the use of semantic device tag. Zimmerman and West (1975) investigated conversation dominance and describe it as an attempt for gender-based dominance in the form of interruptions. All these observations came to the conclusion that females and males interact differently in a language. It seems that the interaction formed by these two genders is reconstructed based on their partner’s gender. Tannen (1990) claims that there have been consistent gender differences in the conversational interaction produced in terms of patterns and style which are visible during the paired discourse either in matched gender or mixed gender discourse. In a matched gender discourse, language is produced differently in terms of number of number of turns in talk, types of talk and topics (Tannen, 1990). Whilst in the mixed gender settings, Aries (1976) concludes that men have more variation in their interpersonal styles and increase the amount of talk in the conversational interaction. This indicates that men tend to increase the quantity of talk, and it is due to an act of dominance, power and status that intensify the performance ability.

The literature indicates both females and males tend to alter their interactional features in a conversational interaction based on the gender of their partners (Ross-Feldman, 2007). Consideration should also be given to correlation between in a cross- cultural research or subcultures, educational background and status before coming to assumptions. Despite the growth of research on gender interaction, Varonis & Gass (1986) point out that research on L2 learners’ gender differences in negotiating of meaning is lacking. Varonis & Gass (1986) examined and found that in a picture describing tasks the men indicated the lack of understanding more than the women, whilst in the conversation task the women intensified signals showing a lack of understanding compared men. In the same field, Shehadeh (1999) claims that women

utilize the conversation for clarity and comprehension. Thus, further research is required before constructing a generalization on gender and second language.

In this study of Generation Y, it will be interesting to discover their linguistic output. This is especially important given that in the Generation Y, males and females are considered as equal partners in education, employment, job opportunities and the command of language. The findings hope to provide a further understanding of the underlying linguistic patterns or features that vary between males and females.

Research Questions

The present study seeks to provide answers for the following research questions in the linguistic output by the male and female participants of Gen Y:

1. What are the differences in the number of turns and words of negotiation routines in negotiation of meaning among the genders?
2. What are the differences of features in terms of indicators and responses of negotiation routines in negotiation meaning among the genders?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study are currently undergoing a certificate course at an Education training centre in Malaysia. This centre offers a comprehensive preparation program to equip learners prior to applying for an inflight attendant position in various airlines. Therefore the program offers interactional activity, behavioural interview questions practices and situational practices; in other words 'soft skills'. English language is one essential subject in the program.

Prior to conducting the experiment for the current study, an English Language proficiency placement test, a test by the English Unlimited Cambridge University Press was administered. It has 120 multiple – choice questions that have to be completed within 40 minutes. This is to filter the participants and determine their level. The focus of the study is to investigate the high proficiency level which is the advanced level, based on the score of 96 and above. See table 1 for the illustration of the score and level for the placement test:

Table 1:

Illustration of the placement of level

Score	Level
0 – 15	Beginner
16 – 35	Elementary
36 – 55	Pre – Intermediate
56 – 75	Intermediate
76 – 95	Upper – Intermediate
96 +	Advanced

For the present study 22 participants were selected, consisting of 11 male and 11 female participants. They were born between the years 1990 – 1996, and were aged 18 – 24 ($M = 19.91$, $SD = 1.688$) at the time of the study and all the participants were Malaysian nationals. They were from the ethnicity of Chinese, Indians, Punjabi, Malay and Eurasians (Portuguese) ethnicity. They were paired into mixed gender dyads as in male-female dyads. The reason for this pairing is to examine the interactional features, to classify certain patterns derived from the interaction data. For ethical issues, consent letters were filled in by the participants.

Procedures

The participants were well exposed to task discussion as they were often given simple topics to work on in groups as part of their activity. However they were not exposed to pair discussion at all, thus prior to data collection they were given warm-up sessions and exercise on pair discussion days before the data collection. The participants were well acquainted with each other so there would not be any hindrance for them to communicate with each other, yet it is noted that familiarity might impact their interaction. Studies have considered that familiarity of participants with each other could affect the output of the interactional patterns (Boulima, 1999; Robinson, 2000; Varonis & Gass, 1985b). An audio digital recording device was used to record the interaction, which was light and sensitive meaning that the researcher was able to record the interactions easily.

The data collection took 11 weeks. Each week each pair completed their tasks. This arrangement was organized by the centre coordinator as not to interfere with the participants' on-going classes. The interaction took place out of the classroom environment, conducted at the

office of the centre. A written consent letter was obtained by the researchers to conduct research and collect the data.

Decision-Making Tasks

The decision-making task type was chosen to utilize for obtaining the data. Decision-making tasks have the potential to generate interactions (Long, 1981). This is because it is a convergent task (Duff, 1986) that gives opportunities for turn taking, asking questions and works as a two-way information of exchange. In other words, it gives ample opportunity for both interactants to interact. These tasks were to encourage the participants in sharing their real life experiences and required them to come to a mutually agreed decision. Further to this, since it is a decision-making task, the interactants had a goal to complete with the aim of mutual agreement.

Two decision-making tasks were utilized, type A and type B (See Appendices A & B). The design of the task is replicated and modified from MUET (*Malaysian University English Test*) model papers speaking test (Kaur, Subramaniam & Subramaniam, 2013). The first task requires participants to plan a farewell dinner for a friend and the second task requires them to introduce Malaysian delicacies to a visitor from Europe. Since it is a learning activity there is no time frame given to complete the task. However participants were allocated ten minutes of preparation time for each task before beginning the task discussion.

By participating in this study, learners will experience a preview of a MUET speaking test, not only as a learning activity for language competency, it is also a part of the interactional activity practices required for them to prepare for flight attendant job interviews.

Analysis

All interactions in face to face environments were transcribed and labelled accordingly. The gender of the speakers were identified and labelled as M – Male and F – Female. The non – verbal communication that took place during the face to face interaction was not included. Likewise, the hesitation markers in the content such as ‘ahs’, ‘uhms’, ‘erms’, ‘mms’ and the inflection of ‘la’ found in the utterance were not analysed. The inflection of ‘la’ is a common term used as a separate particle at the end of a word; verb or noun. Some of the examples i.e ‘come la’, ‘no need la’ and ‘ok la’. This is a common practice in conversation by Malaysian.

Thus, the study intends to focus on the linguistic output in the form of interactional features during face to face contact and does not focus on the paralinguistic features resulting from the interactions.

A widely quoted framework by Varonis and Gass (1985a, p. 329) designed for non-native/ non-native conversation is employed to analyse the transcript data for communication breakdown. This study also uses data emanating from Varonis and Gass' (1985b, p.74) proposed model for non-understanding where the term 'indicator' of non-understanding indicates the negotiation of routine, the number of words and turns. Finally, Pica et al.'s (1989) categories of indicators and responses help in identifying the patterns, indicators and responses from the transcript data.

Turns

According to Varonis and Gass (1985b), the number of turns within the negotiation routines demonstrates the effort and volume of work made in negotiation before resolving the message meaning. When the negotiation routine gets more complicated, it only means that more opportunities were given for the learners to acquire comprehensible input and output. Excerpt 1 shows the number of turns involved, which is eight turns in total. Turn – taking is evident in the excerpt as equal opportunity was given for both participants to interact.

Excerpt 1

- | | | |
|----|--------|---|
| 1. | Female | : So how many people will be coming? |
| 2. | Male | : hmmm...from my side I think by ten or fifteen people coming |
| 3. | Female | : also there will be twenty people? |
| 4. | Male | : yeah.... |
| 5. | Female | : so one person will bring one food.... |
| 6. | Male | : one food? what do you mean by one food? like ah..what food? |
| 7. | Female | : so for the party... |
| 8. | Male | : oh ok |
-

In a negotiation routine, the greater number of negotiated turns results in a greater conversational trouble which then requires clarification of meaning (Varonis & Gass, 1985b). In other words more opportunity for signaling or comprehension checking were utilized. For the present study, the participants were at the advanced level of language proficiency, therefore it is

predicted that their interaction flow would be smooth without having to pause or slow down for communication trouble.

Words

The number of words is also measured in the present study. According to Duff (1986), the total number of words derived in the target language signifies that the interactants are willing to take part in communicating and to continue with their interaction. So the number of words too gives another perspective on the negotiation routine.

For the present study, the same procedures are applied, that is the number of words employed within the negotiation routines are measured. The greater number of words produced within the negotiated routines indicates the willingness to ‘talk’ to negotiate meaning. And this creates ample opportunities for comprehensible input and output, and noticing of form in SLA. Excerpt 2 demonstrates the number of words identified in the negotiation routines. Note that the hesitation markers ‘ahs’, ‘uhms’, ‘mms’ and the inflection ‘la’ were not counted as words.

Excerpt 2

1. Male	: I suggest them aya...asampedas...	(5 words)
2. Female	: uh huh, nasi ayam pedas?	(3 words)
3. Male	: Ayam pedas...	(2 words)
4. Female	: oh sorryayam pedas	(4 words)
5. Male	: oh no...asam pedas. It's a Malacca-	(7 words)
6. Female	: oh ok....	(2 words)

Excerpt 2 – translation of code switching

1. Male	: I suggest them chic.....spicy chicken...	(5 words)
2. Female	: uh huh, spicy chicken rice?	(3 words)
3. Male	: Spicy chicken....	(2 words)
4. Female	: oh sorryspicy chicken	(4 words)
5. Male	: oh no...sour spicy. It's a Malacca-	(7 words)
6. Female	: oh ok....	(2 words)

**Note: Malacca is a state in Malaysia*

In this particular excerpt, it is noticed that the male has contributed a total of 14 words and the female has uttered 9 words. The female signals the lack of non-understanding with a

question in line 2 which gives the male the opportunity to modify his speech to ensure better understanding. Thus, the visibility of comprehensible input and output are highlighted.

Negotiation Routines

Negotiation routine as defined by Varonis and Gass (1985b) is a model that explains the episodes of occurrences in an interaction, specifically in negotiation of meaning. These episodes reflected as set of routines allow the interactants to recognize unequivocal communication problems occurrences during the interaction. According to the model, these episodes are actually responses towards the occurrences of non-understanding (Smith, 2003), as in responding to communication trouble in a conversation. This classic model consists of three essential components and one optional component. The three components are trigger, indicator and response and followed by the optional component which is the reaction to response as shown in figure 1.

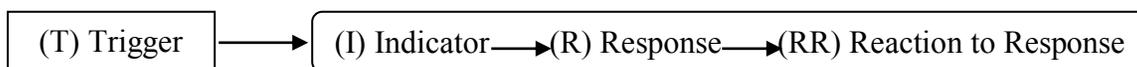


Figure 1

Model for negotiation by Varonis & Gass (1985)

To briefly explain the mechanism of negotiation routine, it activates a signal of non – understanding by the hearer during the communication. This causes a temporary halt of the discourse that provides opportunity to the interlocutors to resolve the troublesome of the conversation and then turn back up to the main stream of discourse. This temporary halt or the incomprehensibility of message is caused by a trigger or a lexical trigger. The trigger consists of unfamiliar words that prompts doubts or uncertainties deemed to be significant. When that happens, it gives interlocutors the opportunity to focus on new or unfamiliar words. The following excerpt 3 (example) is taken from the present study to indicate the activation of negotiation routines.

Excerpt 3

F : so one person will bring one food....	<i>Trigger</i>
M: one food? what do you mean by one food? like ahhh..what food?...	<i>Indicator</i>
F : so for the party...	<i>Response</i>
M: oh ok	<i>Reaction to Response</i>

In excerpt 3, the utterance “so one person will bring one food” acts as a trigger of non-understanding. The reaction to the trigger was in a form of indicators in the category of clarification request and confirmation checks comprising utterances such as “one food?”, “what do you mean by one food?” “what food?”. In the response that was uttered “so for the party”. The word “party” provided a clarifying answer and “oh ok” was the reaction as a signal of comprehension signal which falls into the category of reaction to the response.

Since the research questions asked whether the high proficiency learners are required to negotiate meaning, further observation was made on the type of indicators and responses by employing Pica et al’s (1994) schema of indicators and responses. The four interconnected components described earlier will assist in distinguishing the differences among the genders.

Results and Discussion

The present study will firstly discuss the data in the negotiated number of turns by gender followed by the negotiated numbers of words contributed, then a data comparison will be made between female and male learners and to answer research question 1.

Turns

Table 2 shows the raw number of turns and negotiated turns among the female and male participants. There were a total of 2354 turns occurring in the whole study and 26% or 608 turns were dedicated to the negotiation sequences. The results reveal that the learners were engaged in a face-to-face interaction which facilitates the negotiation of meaning, and were immersed in negotiated interaction for about a quarter of their total turns. The remaining three quarters of the interaction was focused on task goal completion. The findings support the support the findings

by Tam (2009) which is 28% for the face-to-face interaction although the participants were paired in a mixed ability dyads which were high-low proficiency

Table 2

Distribution of total turns and negotiated turns in face to face interaction

Gender	Negotiated turns	Total turns	Percentage
Female	303	1206	25%
Male	305	1148	27%
Total	608	2354	26%

From the table above, it can be observed that the negotiation turns for both genders are a quarter of their total turns of the study. There is a marginal difference of 2% by males compared to females. The result also suggests that the occurrences of conversation trouble were almost parallel for both female and male Gen Y learners.

Table 3

Comparison of negotiated turns between the male and female

Gender	N (Dyads)	<i>M</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
Turns	11	.182	.026	20	.979

Table 3 demonstrates the comparison of negotiated turns between male and female participants. For the number of turns within the negotiation routines ($t = .026$, $p = .979$), shows no significant difference although the results from Table 2 indicate contrary.

In a negotiation routine, the greater number of negotiated turns can result in greater conversational trouble that requires additional work to clarify the message meaning (Varonis & Gass, 1985b). In other words more opportunity for signalling or comprehension checking was utilized. For this study the language proficiency of the participants was at the advanced level, therefore it is predicted that their interaction flow would be smooth without having to pause or slow down for communication. But the result indicated that a quarter of their interaction flows are devoted to the negotiation routines, which means communication trouble does occur among the high proficiency learners. It is also plausible that they were seeking clarification, checking for confirmation and checking for confirmation by elaboration. When compared to a study by Tam (2009) which examined participants paired in a mixed ability dyads, the differences were

only 5% in the face-to-face interaction. This indicates that one cannot assume that high proficiency learners do not have difficulty in comprehension of meaning among each other.

Words

Table 4 shows the raw number of words and negotiated words among the genders. There were a total of 19,016 words which occurred in this study of which 3899 were devoted to negotiation routines. The result reveals that males contributed slightly more in producing the amount of ‘talk’ compared to females by a difference of 3%. In terms of the total number of words, males produced slightly more than females. It seems that males were more eager to negotiate meaning compared to females. Once again males used the opportunity to comprehend message meaning and work towards the goal oriented task.

Table 4

Total words and negotiated words among the genders in face-to-face interaction

Gender	Negotiated words	Total words	Percentage
Female	1454	7810	19%
Male	2445	11206	22%
Total	3899	19016	21%

Table 5

Comparison of negotiated words between the male and female

Gender	N (Dyads)	<i>M</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
Words	11	90.091	1.808	20	.086

* Bonferroni adjustment 0.1

For the number of words within the negotiated routines ($t = 1.808$, $p = .086$) the negotiated words by the male participants are significantly higher than the female participants.

To sum up, it was found that there was a minimal difference in the number of turns between the male and female participants in negotiation routines, although statistically there was no significant difference. Likewise, for the number the words within the negotiation routines, the males taking greater advantage in the number of words. shown to produce greater amount of ‘talk’. Males were eager to negotiate meaning talk as in producing a greater amount of ‘talk’.

Next, the study will discuss the data of indicators contributed by the genders and followed by the responses. Statistical testing is conducted to compare and contrast the two genders.

Indicators

Table 6 illustrates the distribution of indicators among the female and male participants. Five types of indicators adapted from Pica et al. (1989, 1994) were employed to categorize the transcript data. Upon comparing and contrasting the male and female indicators, the results reveal that the females have the highest number of occurrences (103 occurrences out of a total of 170 occurrences) which takes up 60% of the total indicators. This shows that in a mixed gender dyads interaction, the females from the high proficiency levels have a tendency to not towards the males' utterances.

In the female data transcript it was found that the most common indicator with the highest occurrences was type 4 i.e. request for confirmation through completion or elaboration of trigger, 35 occurrences (one – third of the total occurrences of indicators), followed closely by type 2 which is request for confirmation through repetition where 30 occurrences were utilized. The third most common type is type 1 which is the explicit statement or request for clarification and this corroborates the findings by Tam, Kan and Lee (2010) for the low proficiency learners in the face-to-face interaction. And finally the least common type is type 3 by the females which is the request for confirmation through modification of trigger. It can be noticed that type 5 requesting confirmation through comprehension check is not favoured by the females. Thus, it seems that females from 'Gen Y' preferred to indicate a lack of understanding by seeking confirmation through completing or elaborating from the triggered utterance. In simpler terms, females would prefer to seek verification by expanding the utterance in their own words.

In the male data transcript however, it was found that they contradict the findings from the female data. The results reveal that the most common type uttered by male participants is type 2, i.e request for confirmation through repetition, 25 occurrences, followed closely by type 1 which is the explicit statement or request for clarification, 22 occurrences. Finally type 3 which is the request for confirmation through modification of trigger and type 4, request for confirmation through completion or elaboration of trigger. As for type 5 request for confirmation through comprehension check, it is found to be irrelevant for males. Hence, male participants prefer to indicate their lack of understanding by repeating the trigger utterance as well as requesting for

clarification explicitly with the utterance of ‘*what*’, ‘*hmm*’, ‘*ah ha*’. These two types of indicators are known to give more potential for SLA. Furthermore, Pica et al. (1989) added that type 1 indicator provides maximum potential for modified interaction for comprehensible input and output in SLA.

Table 6

Distribution of indicators among the female and male participants

Type of indicators	Female	%	Male	%	Total (%)
1. Explicit statement or request for clarification	24	23	22	33	46 (27%)
2. Request for confirmation through repetition	30	29	25	37	55 (32%)
3. Request for confirmation through modification of trigger	14	14	10	15	24 (14%)
4. Request for confirmation through completion or elaboration of trigger	35	34	10	15	45 (27%)
5. Request for confirmation through comprehension check e.g Do you understand?	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	103	[100]	67	[100]	170 (100%)

In general upon observing the distribution of indicators by both genders, it is interesting to see that the preferred type of indicators slightly differed between males and females participants. The females preferred to signal the lack of comprehensibility with the highest occurrences of type 4 followed closely by type 2 whilst males preferred indicator is type 2 which is by repetition of the trigger and followed by type 1. Upon closer observation, type 1 indicator gives optimum opportunity for modified interactions e.g syntactic, lexical and morphosyntactic modifications. Although the females provide a greater number of occurrences of indicators as a signal of non-understanding, it is the males from the high proficiency who have been shown to provide greater opportunities for modified interactions.

Responses

In negotiation routines, ‘responses’ play a key role in modified interaction, as it is evident that learners comprehend the message meaning. In other words, ‘responses’ provide the maximum opening for interactants to modify their previous utterance so that the hearer would get

an optimum result of clearer understanding (Varonis & Gass, 1985). Based on Pica et al.'s (1989) schema of responses, certain types of responses are shown to be beneficial for linguistic development. Thus, the present study employed Pica et al.'s (1989) the schema of responses to categorize the transcript data from the genders as shown in Table 7.

Table 7 illustrates the distribution of responses from both genders. Out of 319 occurrences of responses, 170 occurrences are by males (53%) and 149 occurrences are by females (47%). The result shows that there is a difference of 6%, which indicates that the males contributed higher number of responses in negotiation routines. Among all types of responses listed in the table, type 4 which is self-modification of trigger is seen to contribute the highest occurrences for both genders. There were a total of 57 (38%) occurrences by the females and 81 (48%) occurrences by the males. For the present study, the researcher was more interested in examining the linguistic development that emerging from the responses which signify the comprehensible output. Thus, the type of responses observed closer are the type 4 - Self-modification of trigger inclusive of the sub categories A, B, C and D.

Under the self-modification of trigger the sub-category A refers to phonological modification as in pronunciation while B entails the semantic modification, through synonym, paraphrase or example. Next C which denotes morphological modification through addition, substitution or deletion of inflectional morpheme (s) and or functor (s). Finally the sub-category D refers to syntactic modification through embedding and elaboration in clause (s). In fact these sub – categories assist greatly in the input of the modified interaction, helping learners to develop linguistically and in terms of noticing on form.

Table 7

Distribution of responses among the female and male participants

Type of responses	Female	%	Male	%	Total(%)
1. Switch to a new topic	0	[0]	0	[0]	0
2. Suppliance of information relevant to topic, but not directly responsive to indicator	11	[7]	8	[5]	19
3. Repetition of indicator	10	[7]	18	[11]	28
4. Self-modification of trigger (Production of modified i.e comprehensible output)	1	[1]	5	[3]	6
a. Phonological modification	31	[21]	35	[21]	66
b. Semantic modification, through					

synonym, paraphrase or example	15	[10]	24	[14]	39
c. Morphological modification through addition, substitution, or deletion of inflectional morpheme (s) and/or functor (s)	10	[7]	17	[9]	25
d. Syntactic modification through embedding and elaboration in clause (s)	1	[1]	10	[6]	11
	10	[6]	11	[6]	77
5. Repetition of trigger					
6. Confirmation or acknowledgement of indicator only	3	[2]	0	[0]	3
7. Indication of difficulty or inability to respond	42	[28]	30	[18]	36
	15	[10]	12	[7]	9
8. Comprehension signal					
9. Continuation move					
TOTAL	149	[100]	170	[100]	319

In mixed – gender dyads data transcript, the highest occurrences of responses for female within the type 4 response is the sub category 4B (21%) followed by 4C (10%), then 4D (7%) and finally 4A (1%). Interestingly, the occurrence pattern from the highest to the least are the same with males data transcript, which is the 4B (21%), followed by 4C (14%), then 4D (9%) and finally 4A (3%) which can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8

Systematic list of responses within type 4 for comprehensible output

Systematic list of responses by female		Systematic list of responses by male	
4B	Semantic modification, through synonym, paraphrase, or example - 31 occurrences	4B	Semantic modification, through synonym, paraphrase, or example - 35 occurrences
4C	Morphological modification through addition, substitution, or deletion of inflectional morpheme (s) and/or functor (s) - 15 occurrences	4C	Morphological modification through addition, substitution, or deletion of inflectional morpheme (s) and/or functor (s) - 24 occurrences
4D	Syntactic modification through embedding and elaboration in clause (s) -10 occurrences	4D	Syntactic modification through embedding and elaboration in clause (s) -17 occurrences
4A	Phonological modification – 1 occurrence	4A	Phonological modification – 5 occurrences

57 (41%) occurrences in total	81 (59%) occurrences in total
A combined total of 138 (100%) occurrences	

Based on the tabulated results presented in Table 8 specifically on Type 4 responses, it was found that males produced a higher number of occurrences of responses. In other words for the production of modified interaction, males from the present study have been shown to engage in the conversation by producing more ‘talk’, making use of the opportunity to produce linguistic modification for comprehensible output that helps SLA. As a result, males from Gen Y are likely to respond to ambiguous triggers, attempts to respond to contextual illustration.

Another interesting finding to consider are the sub category 4A responses, with phonological modification. It is predicted that this type of response is less favoured by both genders because the language proficiency levels of both genders is the same, that is both are of high proficiency levels. Hence it can be assumed that syntactic pronunciation was not the indication of incomprehensibility meaning of the message for the current participants. Surprisingly, there were a few occurrences found in the male data transcript, a minimal number. An example of excerpt from the present study can be found in Table 9.

Table 9

Excerpt showing the phonological modification that occurred among high-proficiency learners

Excerpt	Schema	Categories
M: and any suggestions? Ohhh I was thinking of Chilos also...	Trigger	The utterance ‘Chilos’ activates the negotiation routines
F: Chilis?	Indicator	Request for confirmation through modification of trigger. ‘Chilis’ is modified utterance form the trigger ‘Chilos’ (Chilis is referred to a restaurant of Grill and Bar in Malaysia)
M: yeah Chilis....	Response	Self – modification of trigger: Phonological modification. The interlocutor accepts and confirm with the right pronunciation.
F: yeah it’s a good idea too.... I love Chilis.....	Reaction to response	Syntactic modification through embedding and elaboration in clause (s)

The results for the type of responses have revealed that males took greater advantage by attempting contextual modification for comprehensible output. Hence, the present study discusses the gender which would benefit the conversation for comprehensible input.

As Pica et al (1989, 1996) indicated earlier, certain types of responses are conducive for linguistic development. There are also certain types of responses that could actually be employed as a signal of comprehending the message and thus return to the main stream of the discourse without switching topic or pausing. These types of responses are type 6, type 8 and type 9 responses. Type 6 response acts as confirming or acknowledging the indicator with a minimal response (Smith, 2003) or short response e.g. 'yes', 'ok', 'yeah' and 'ah ha'. Whilst type 8 refers to comprehension signal indicating the comprehensibility of the message by saying 'ok, I understand', 'ok sure'. Finally type 9 suggests continuation move, responses that eventually come to an agreement and smoothly leads back to the conversation.

Based on the selected types of responses, out of 120 responses, 67 (56%) responses were contributed by females and 53 (44%) responses were contributed by males. In female data transcript, the highest number of occurrences is type 8 with 42 (35%) responses, tailed by type 9 with 15 (12%) responses and lastly type 6 with 10 (8%) of responses. This pattern of hierarchy is similar to the male data transcript but with a lower number of occurrences which can be found in table 10.

Table 10

Systematic list of responses for comprehensible input.

Systematic list of responses by female		Systematic list of responses by male	
Type 8	Comprehension signal - 42 occurrences	Type 8	Comprehension signal - 30 occurrences
Type 9	Continuation move - 15 occurrences	Type 9	Continuation move - 12 occurrences
Type 6	Confirmation or acknowledgement of indicator only - 10 occurrences	Type 6	Confirmation or acknowledgement of indicator only - 11 occurrences
67 (56%) occurrences in total		53 (44%) occurrences in total	
Combined a total of 120 (100%) occurrences			

The above tabulated results reveal that females are generally better in notifying their comprehensibility with the use of minimal response or short response towards the modified output by the males. The sign showing comprehensibility in message meaning is by moving on with the conversation without pausing or hesitating during the flow of discourse. This evidence greatly supports the idea that females from the Gen Y utilize the conversation for comprehensible input.

Conclusions

Overall based on the findings presented earlier, a comparison was made between males and females' i.e. the number of turns, number of words, indicators and responses. Out of 4 features that were examined, 3 features were in favour of males, revealing that males maximise their conversation in the number of turns, number of words and greater number of responses within the negotiation routines. The remaining one feature was in favour for females which is the indicator, a signal of incomprehensibility during task discussion.

Therefore it can be concluded that in a mixed gender dyads task discussion, females were seen to utilize the conversation for a better comprehension or a greater input. They signal their lack of comprehension by elaborating or completing the triggered utterances by males. Instead of modifying the trigger as a form of seeking for confirmation or requesting explicit statements which could lead to modified output, females preferred to elaborate or complete the triggers. But this did not prevent males from providing deeper and illustrated responses. The modified responses given by males seem to offer a more explicit meaning for females to comprehend and eventually, a greater input.

In view of the above one cannot claim that high proficiency learners need not put much effort in negotiating meaning or need not negotiate meaning at all. The present study has mentioned that the learners were familiar with each other, yet there were occurrences within the negotiation routines that took almost a quarter or one third of their total number of words and turns of the study (Smith, 2003; Tam, 2009). Therefore one cannot assume that high proficiency learners from Gen Y have a smooth flawless interaction. The present study was also an extended

study of Tam, Kan and Ng (2010) featuring the gender variable, but in a single environment of face-to-face interaction.

Limitations

The tentative procedure used is purposive sampling involving a small number of participants. Therefore the results could not be generalised to a larger population.

There are also other factors which are the source of limitation in this study related to social stratifications like ethnic-group differentiation and geographical differentiation. This study does not cover all ethnic groups and does not look into their social class. So the findings could not be generalised and does not represent the whole community of Generation Y.

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APPENDIX A

Task A

Instructions

1. Please switch off your mobile phones.
2. Read the following task carefully. You are given 10 minutes to prepare for your discussion. Use the space below to write your notes. This sheet will be given back to the researcher.
3. Remember to introduce yourself before beginning the discussion.
4. You are going to have a discussion with a person that you are somehow familiar with.
5. Use English Language as far as possible as this is a learning task.

Situation

Your best friend is about to migrate to Australia. You and your friend are planning to have a farewell dinner for him/her.

Tasks

1. Suggest a place to have farewell dinner. Give reasons.
2. Discuss and decide with your partner the most suitable place for the farewell dinner.
3. Once agreed, discuss and agree on the details such as the number of people, arrangement, cost and gifts.

Suggestions	Decision	Details & cost

APPENDIX B

Task B

Instructions

1. Please switch off your mobile phones.
2. Read the following task carefully. You are given 10 minutes to prepare for your discussion. Use the space below to write your notes. This sheet will be given back to the researcher.
3. Remember to introduce yourself before beginning the discussion.
4. You are going to have a discussion with a person that you are somehow familiar with.
5. Use English Language as far as possible as this is a learning task.

Situation

Your family's friend from Europe is coming for a visit. You and your friend are asked to introduce some of Malaysian delicacies to him/her.

Tasks

1. Suggest few famous Malaysian delicacies. Give reasons.
2. Discuss and decide with your partner the Famous Malaysian delicacies.
3. Once agreed, discuss and agree on the details such as the place and price.

Suggestions	Decision	Details & cost
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