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Title

Teaching Strategies Applicable for Instilling Character Education
in EFL Writing Courses in Higher Education:
A Literature Review

Author

Hamamah

Universitas Brawijaya, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Hamamah is a Ph.D. in Education, and an English lecturer in the Language and Literature Department of the Faculty of Cultural Studies, Universitas Brawijaya, Indonesia. Her research interests include academic writing in English, writing in English for research and publication purposes, and publishing issues faced by academics from non-English speaking countries. She earned her Ph.D. from The University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia. She can be reached at hamamah@ub.ac.id and hamamah08@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper reviews the literature on strategies of teaching academic writing in order to inform English as Foreign Language (EFL) academic writing teachers in higher education on alternatives of teaching strategies in instilling character education in academic writing courses in higher education. The strategies presented here are selected based on their relevance with the need of Indonesian circumstance, however, they might also be relevant for other similar contexts. Within this decade, in terms of education, the Indonesian Government has intensely been progressing two things: the endorsement of character education in formal schooling system, and the effort of escalating the number of Indonesian international publications in order to strive for better international rankings. Academic writing course turn into a course that become the interface between the intentions to provide the training of academic writing skills to increase publications, to nurture ethical conduct in writing, and, because of government endorsement, to

encourage social responsibility. However, the strategies of implementation of character education in academic writing courses in higher education that are relevant for Indonesian context has not been much discussed in the literature. This paper tries to close this gap by offering some teaching strategies applicable for the intended purposes, which are adopted and adapted from the literature. These teaching strategies include: discussion in pairs, write and pass, and truth statements, using an ethical inventory and an ethical question stars, and case study.

Keywords: *Character Education, EFL Writing Course, Higher Education, Indonesia*

Introduction

Within this decade, as far as education is concerned, the Indonesian Government has intensely been progressing the development of two things: the first is instilling character education in national education scheme and the second is increasing the number of publication in international journal by Indonesian academia. These two aspects become crucial because of the up growing circumstances that influence Indonesia lately. First, the social problems in Indonesia that start happening since the previous decade, such as: disorientation; limitations of integrated policy tools in realizing the values of Pancasila; shifting ethical values in the life of the nation; waning awareness of the values the nation's culture; the threat of national disintegration; and the weakening of national independence (Petunjuk Teknis Pengajuan, Penyaluran, dan Pengelolaan Bantuan Pendidikan Karakter Melalui Satuan Pendidikan Non-formal, 2013). Second, currently, as a results of changing orientation in higher education attributable to globalization, there has been escalating pressure for the developing countries to compete internationally in terms of the number of their publications and university rankings (Altbach, 2004; Postiglione, 2005). Indonesia is among the countries which strive to climb up this rankings system by conducting intense efforts in advancing the number of international journal publications.

The first matter, the need to implement character education in national education scheme, motivated the Indonesian Government in endorsing character education in formal education. The younger generations are expected to be citizens who can participate actively in creating harmony within the Indonesian broader society which consists of multi ethnics, religions, and sociological factors. So as to encourage and keep

developing the sense of social responsibilities among Indonesian young generations, the Indonesian Government launched character education policies so that character education can be accommodated in formal education from elementary school to higher education. For the higher education level, the government launched Law No. 12 of 2012 to instil character education in higher education. Specifically, article 3 of Law No. 12 of 2012, states that “Higher Education is based on: a. Scientific truth; b. Reasoning; c. Honesty; d. Equality; e. Benefit; f. Virtue; g. Responsibility; h. Diversity; and i. Affordability.” Additionally, article 4, paragraph one of the law states “The functions of Higher Education are: a. to develop capacity and build character and civilization of the dignified nation in developing the intellectual life of the nation...”

The second matter, the university rankings and international publication, has forced Indonesian higher education institutions to make efforts in escalating their publication quantity and quality even though there are still a lot of issues in writing academically in English that need to be resolved. This university rankings and the pressure to increase international publication have triggered a significant change in the evaluation system for academics in general which then put pressure on the academics to publish in internationally circulated journals in English (Li & Flowerdew, 2009). Academics get pressures to publish both from the government and from the higher education institutions. Meanwhile, in Indonesia writing academically in English has been a significant challenge. There has been problems in writing academically in English that still need to be overcome, such as differences in the textual strategies in writing research articles between Indonesian authors and English-native authors (Mirahayuni, 2002), the problems with adherence to English research article writing (Adnan, 2009), and intentional and unintentional plagiarism in Indonesian context due to the unfamiliarity to the plagiarism concept (Adiningrum & Kutieleh, 2011).

Teachers’ of academic writing courses in higher education in Indonesian context need to comply with the government’s policy that is to accommodate character education in their courses. As such, the course becomes the interface between the two matters in the previous two paragraphs, i.e. to train Indonesian to write up to the standard of international publication in order to support the government effort in increasing the number of Indonesian international publications, and to instil character education in order to support the government to encourage sense responsibilities in young generation. However, apart from the law, there is less guidance in implementing character education

in higher education courses, compared to those of the elementary and high school levels. Additionally, despite the fact that there has been discussion in the literature on character education in Indonesian context (see Inderawati, 2013; Silvia, 2012; Subiantoro, 2011; Wibawa, 2013), to the best of my knowledge, the strategies of implementation of character education in academic writing class in higher education that are applicable for Indonesian context has not been much discussed yet. Thus, with the more expectation from the government, but less resources and guidance, the teachers of the writing courses in higher education face a more challenging situation. In light of that, this article aims at closing this gap by reviewing the literature on the best practices of teaching academic writing in the literature in order to inform English as Foreign Language (EFL) writing teachers in higher education in Indonesian context, or in other similar contexts, on relevant alternatives in instilling character education in academic writing courses in higher education.

Strategies in Teaching Academic Writing Applicable for Instilling Character Education in EFL Writing Courses in Higher Education in Indonesia

This section elaborates strategies for teaching EFL academic writing in higher education classes that were generated from reviewing the available literature. These strategies were selected because of their potentials of accommodating the purpose of encouraging the culture of responsibility and honesty within the writing courses in higher education in Indonesian context as an addition to the teaching of aspects of writing skills. The process of selecting the teaching strategies include, first, researching previous literatures on how the civics education and the teaching of ethical conduct in writing can be implemented in writing class in international contexts in the previous studies; and second, choosing some strategies that are applicable to be adopted or adapted in Indonesian context to instil character education in writing courses in the higher education level in Indonesian context. By doing so, I came up with some applicable teaching strategies. I intentionally focus on teaching strategies that can be implemented in small group activities.

Rationale. Before elaborating the strategies, I would like to provide the rationale of selecting small group activities. Small group activities is a good way to introduce ethical principles to the students in Indonesian context because of several reasons. First, Indonesian students, due to cultural reasons, tend to work in collective manner.

Secondly, Indonesian students are not familiar with the concept of plagiarism because generally it is not discussed explicitly in educational institutions (Adiningrum & Kutieleh, 2011; Cahyono, 2016 & 2007). The process of understanding this new concept will be more distressing if it is done in a manner that students have to struggle individually. Thirdly, as young persons who are still in the process of developing their way of thinking and behaving independently, university students need to be “taught in informed and reflective ways about controversial moral issues” (Shaaban, 2005 p.201) that are happening in Indonesian social context in a way that is not too intimidating for them. Lastly, group activities provide the chance for students to cross check and compare their understandings with other group members in less face threatening manner. The strategy of using small group assignment in instilling moral values in academic writing class can provide safe environment for the students in learning those unfamiliar concepts. After students have got experiences to convey their opinions in a safer mode, they would likely to be more comfortable and confident about speaking up their ideas individually (Pimple, 2002).

Basic considerations. Some suggestions on using small group activities are discussed here. Pimple (2002) suggests 3 consideration in using small group activities: the rule, the role, and number of group members. Concerning the rule, it is explained further that in order to use small group activities effectively, the teacher has to set the rules, such as: providing time limit, explaining the instruction carefully, and providing job description for each of group members. In terms of the role of group members, the teacher can assign the group members to be leader, note taker, and reporter. The leader is responsible for running the discussion, the note taker should document the results of the discussion, and the reporter will share the results of the discussions with the class. The suggested ideal number of group member is two up to three. Apart from Pimple’s suggestions, the teacher need also to consider the personality of the group members whether they are dominant, introvert, extrovert and make the composition of the group balance in terms of the personality of the members.

Topics and teaching strategies. In order to fulfil the purpose of nurturing social responsibilities and ethics in writing, it is advisable for the teacher to use topics related to social issues in Indonesia and ethical issues in academic writing. Then, there should be a discussion process in class before they start to write their individual ideas or understandings about the topics. This discussion process is where the small group

activities come. Strategies for small group activities presented below are adopted and adapted from (1) Pimple (2002), i.e. discussion in pairs, write and pass, and truth statements; (2) Henning (2011), i.e. using an ethical inventory and an ethical question stars, and (3) Gunnarsson, Kulesza, and Pettersson, (2014), i.e case study. The ones that are selected to be highlighted here are only the ones, out of all proposed by those authors that are applicable in Indonesian context.

1. Discussions in pairs

This activity is suitable to begin the discussion on a topic. Teacher assigns a topic (can be on social or ethical matter) and divide students into pairs and ask them to discuss about it (concerning their knowledge about the topic, the examples, etc.) and then report the results to the class. In giving this assignment, please refer to the basic considerations discussed earlier.

2. Write and pass

This is a way to encourage the students to be able to see a topic from different angles. The teacher can start by dividing the class into several groups of 2 students. Then the teacher provide one question (again can be on social or ethical matter in academic writing). The first student should answer the question, and pass the paper to the second student. Then the second student should come up with a different idea to answer the question that challenge the first answer.

3. Truth statements

For this activity, the class can be divided into groups that consist of three members. Teacher assigns a topic and each group are asked to produce three statements that they think are true about the topic. Then each group should present their ideas to the class. By doing this “students are often surprised to learn what they assume to be true is not recognized as the truth by everyone” (Pimple, 2002 p.3). This is an activity that can nurture tolerance among the students about the different opinions that they have.

4. Ethical Inventory Questions and Ethical Question Star

The ethical inventory questions are essentially a list of questions that can help students nurture set of ethical values, either social or academic ones. Below are the list of questions adopted from Henning (2011, p.37) with some adjustments:

- a) **Values related to personal ethics:** What makes for a good citizen? Student?
Kid for his/her parents?

- b) **Values related to social ethics of care:** How do people in the first question show that they care for one another?
- c) **Values related to social utilitarian ethics:** What are some actions people take to make the world a better place?
- d) **Values related to social policies/rules:** What makes for a good university? A good country?
- e) **Values related to social laws:** What rule or law that is important to you as a citizen of Indonesia?
- f) **Values related to conservation:** What do people do to care for the earth?
Water?

These questions about these six values can be developed by teacher according to their suitability with the topic discussed and their relevance to the locality. They are to be discussed in the beginning of writing process. Henning (2011) explains that to use these ethical questions as a small group assignment task, teacher can ask the students to form small groups and write answers to the six categories. In the end, the teams should share with the class a summary of their top three values. Then the discussion is continues until the class agrees to the top three values. The teacher then keep these newly arranged values and use them for the next step in the writing process. This activity can take around 30 – 50 minutes.

After the class agree to the arrangement of the priority of the values, the teacher can proceed by using ethical question star. Ethical question star can be seen in Figure 1.

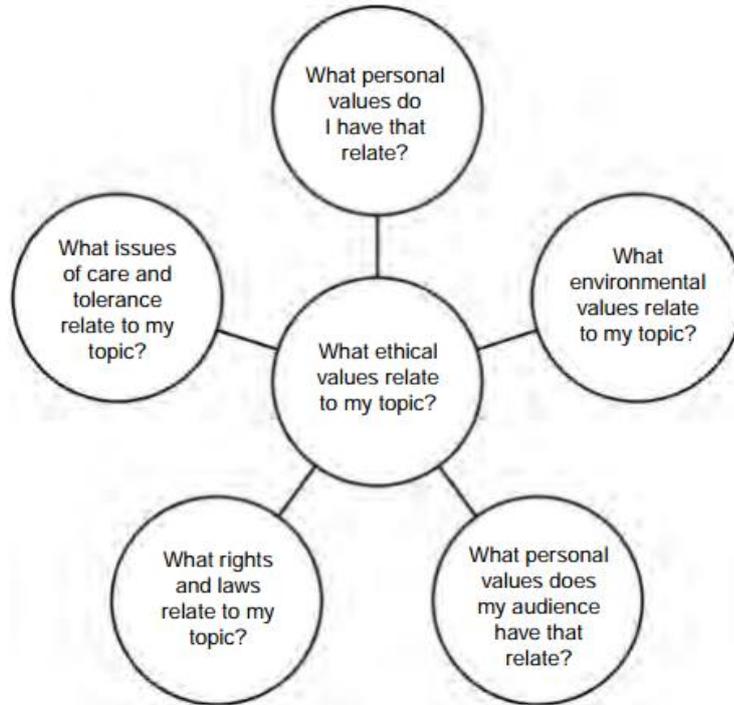


Figure 1: Ethical inventory questions, adopted from Henning (2011, p. 38)

The class can practice using ethical question star to explore a topic together. After that, students grouped into two or three students to explore their group topic using ethical question star. In this case students can work together in exploring a situation by considering moral values. When they have problems using ethical question star, they can refer back to the ethical inventory question. The teacher is suggested to go around and provide assistance to the students that can be done by asking guiding questions. After this process finish, the students can go on developing their writing based on the values they explored.

5. Case Study

Case study is another good strategy to introduce ethical principles to the students because examining a case in detail can provide the opportunity to see closely the problems as if they are happening in real life. The strategy of implementing case study in the academic writing class here is adapted from (Gunnarsson, Kulesza, & Pettersson, 2014) with some adjustments suitable for the purpose of this paper. The steps of implementing case study are:

- Teacher prepare cases that provide situations where there are either examples of a breach of ethical conduct in writing or inappropriate social behaviour.

- A case then selected to be discussed. First, students are given a chance to discuss it in small group with the help of some questions prepared by teacher to guide students' direction of the discussion. The question can include whether there is inappropriate behaviour in the case and what would the students do if they were experiencing the case.
- Then the case is discuss in class with the teacher.
- The discussion include the way to prevent and the consequences of the breach of ethical conduct in writing or inappropriate social behaviour.

After doing one of these teaching strategies as the initial step of the lessons in the writing class, the teacher can lead the students to continue developing their ideas in their writing activities as usual. The students can then develop their individual writing, do peer review activities, revise their writing, and other necessary writing activities.

Conclusion

In conclusion, with the government's endorsement of moral education and in formal schooling in higher education level and the pressure to increase publication, the writing courses in higher education level become more challenging for the teachers to conduct. Therefore supports and guidance for the teachers need to be made available. This paper, by reviewing the literature, generates some alternative teaching strategies that can help teachers introduce and discuss ethical conducts explicitly. The various strategies offered in this paper will support the teachers to continually, in classroom, highlight moral values and academic integrity in writing for publication. By doing this effort in the EFL academic writing courses, it is expected that the students can develop good and positive character and can be a more responsible person and citizen. The discussion in this paper and the strategies discussed might be applicable in other similar contexts or other courses.

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Title

Classroom Ideologies and Teaching Styles in Post-Colonial English Classrooms

Author

Hema Vanita Kesevan

Faculty of Languages and Communication, Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia

*Correspondence: Hema Vanita Kesevan, Faculty of Languages and Communication,
Sultan Idris Education University, 35900 Tanjong Malim, Perak, Malaysia. Tel: 006-
05-4506063. E-mail: hemakesevan@fbk.upsi.edu.my*

Abstract

This paper presents the findings of native and non-native teachers' classroom ideologies and teaching strategy. This study explores the teachers' ideologies to their actual implementation in classroom. It particularly focuses on the teachers' teaching styles; it investigates if the two types of teachers pursue different teaching styles as postulated in general. The findings of this study reveals that both native and non-native teachers have different classroom ideologies pertaining to teaching styles in classroom, however in actual implementation these teachers do not practice what they believe. Several factors such as the teachers' training and background influence the way they implement their classroom ideologies through questioning strategy.

Keywords: *Classroom ideologies, teaching styles, EFL classroom.*

1. Introduction

Increasingly, as globalisation and English continue to bring people of different cultures and linguistic backgrounds together through the form of English communication, it has further entrenched the distinction between so-called native and non-native speakers (Jenkins, 2005). In the field of English language education, native teachers are very often regarded as superior and the supposed 'ideal' language model over the non-native teachers. Although native teachers have not been empirically and

conclusively established as superior to the non-native teachers (Nayar, 1998), the perception that the former is a 'better' teacher continues to hold sway in many English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom settings. While there is little empirical research on the issue, the few studies that exist suggest that native and non-native teachers differ in target language competence, teaching behaviour, and approach due to differences in their linguistic competence (Arva and Medgyes, 2000). Non-native teachers are reported to favour isolated practice of linguistic elements while the native teachers are reported to prefer an integrated approach (Reves and Medgyes, 1994). Another study that investigated the teachers' teaching approaches suggested that the native teachers practice modern and communicative way of teaching in comparison to their non-Western counterparts (Barrios, 2002). In the case of countries like Malaysia, we know little about teachers' actual teaching practices in the EFL/ESL classroom contexts and how the teachers' teaching practices correlate with their teaching ideologies. Studies that have explored expatriate native and local non-native teachers' practices in Malaysian language classrooms have only focused on teachers' teaching beliefs (Farimah & Fatimah, 2013; Fathen et. al, 2013) and the sociolinguistics background of the teachers (Gibson & Swan, 2008). This study, in contrast, seeks to examine common assumptions regarding the teaching styles of native and non-native teachers and their implementation. It aims to compare the classroom teaching practices of native and non-native teachers in the Malaysian EFL teaching context. The aim is to understand whether, as suggested, they pursue different teaching styles. It is specifically concerned with exploring these teachers' actual teaching styles in their classroom lessons and the rationalizations of their practices, with a view to explore how their teaching styles promote interactivity among the EFL learners. This study investigates the teachers' teaching styles through the lens of classroom questioning.

2. Teaching Styles

Communication is an important aspect of language learning. In order to be a successful learner, English language learners need many opportunities to communicate in both academic and real-life social situations (Cazden, 2001). An effective teacher encourages learner participation in the classroom by devising interesting and real-life classroom activities that provide communication opportunities for learners (ibid, 2001).

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, for instance, is today widely used in many non-Western classroom contexts due to its proven effectiveness in enhancing language learning development as evidenced by research in various classroom contexts (Savignon, 1991). It focuses on interaction as the ultimate goal of language teaching and thus structures classroom interaction around real-life situations of communication (ibid, 1991). CLT promotes both fluency and accuracy in the language learning process, unlike other approaches that focus on grammar memorization techniques, with the aim of producing error-free sentences. In CLT, the learners' participation in the classroom is based on the student-centred learning that promotes group work tasks and discussion rather than the traditional teacher-centred teaching style that relies on the teacher as a model.

In the teacher-centred teaching style, teachers tend to have full authority over the lessons and students. They assert control over the teaching and learning materials, and the ways in which students study it, instruction also tends to be frontal: teachers do most of the talking i.e., lecturing, instructing, and demonstrating while the learners listen attentively to the teachers and follow their instructions. The transformation from conventional teaching methods to a student-centred approach has also changed the roles of the teacher and learner in the classrooms. In the student-centred style, the teachers have the primary role of facilitator. They encourage the learners to participate actively instead of just 'instructing' them, and share both decision-making and the responsibility for learning with the students; the teacher essentially just guides the learning process. The student-centred teaching style increases the learners' self-learning awareness in addition to the ordinary function of knowledge sharing. In the student-centred teaching style, the construction of knowledge is shared between the teachers and learners, and learning is achieved through the students' engagement via interactive activities (Chall, 2000) with teachers providing guidance on language learning rather than simply being the model for correct speech. Student-centred learning in ESL/EFL classrooms promotes communicative language teaching (CLT) which develops language use among the learners, primarily paying attention to improving communication skills (Spada, 2007). It is argued that the implementation of a student-centred teaching approach such as CLT will facilitate language learning and produce proficient language users who are functional in real-life communication (Baker, 2005). In the EFL setting, the native teachers are preferred because they are associated with an ability to devise an active

communication and cooperative teaching strategy that promotes student-centred learning. Meanwhile the non-native teachers are argued not to make effective use of CLT strategies in their classroom practices (Hue, 2012).

The CLT approach was introduced in Malaysian EFL classrooms many years ago and it has been recognised as an effective method in ELT. However, among the higher authorities in the Malaysian government there is the perception that local Malaysian teachers are not properly implementing this approach in their classrooms. The institutions and learners alike have the perception that the local non-native teachers focus too much on the teaching of language structure using a frontal or non-interactive teaching approach. They are said to rely on the teacher-centred teaching style that tends to exert a higher degree of authority in their classroom lessons (Raissi & Nor, 2013). In contrast, there is the widespread belief that native teachers from so-called inner circle countries are typically applying a more communicative approach, and/or implement this approach better than their non-Western counterparts. Although the CLT pedagogical approach is strongly advocated in the Malaysian EFL classroom, there is scarcely any investigation into this approach on the ground. A questionnaire survey conducted with teachers in Malaysian higher education showed that the teachers are trained to use this approach (Nordin, Wahab & Dahlan, 2013). However, to date, there has been no empirical research that addresses the teachers' understanding of this approach and its implementation in the classroom.

3. Methodology

In order to investigate the native and native teachers' actual teaching practices and ideologies, data was collected for a period of twenty-eight weeks from two groups of teachers. The first group is two local non-native teachers and the second group is two expatriate native teachers. Since this study attempted to investigate the teacher participants' classroom teaching styles and practices in detail, it uses a multiple case study approach which includes a small number of teacher participants. Three broad types of data were collected: observational data, audio-video recordings, and interview data. The interviews with the teachers aimed to obtain information on two aspects: teachers' social backgrounds and their ELT teaching styles. The observational data was collected using field jottings and it records the classroom events and other features of the setting.

The data analysis focused on three aspects; first it investigates the teachers' questioning strategies in the classroom in order to determine their teaching styles, second it examines their teaching ideologies in order to gain insights into their perspectives on various teaching styles. Third, it correlates teachers' ideologies and actual classroom practices in order to investigate how the teachers manifest ideologies in their classroom practices. To investigate these, the present study used qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The classroom recordings data was first analysed qualitatively using the CA approach to determine the types of questions used by the teachers and the responses of the students. Once the different types of questions and responses had been identified, descriptive quantitative methods, such as frequency counts and statistical tests, were used to examine the distribution of the different types of questions and responses in the teachers' classroom. The analysis of the teachers' questions and learners' responses is instrumental in differentiating between what is considered to be a teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching approach in ELT. The interview data was analysed using qualitative method. The interview data was first analysed using the language ideology concept to gain an insight into the teachers' classroom ideologies and rationalizations. Once the teachers' ideologies have been identified, it compares their ideologies in order to determine the differences of beliefs between the teachers. Finally, the analysis of the classroom interactional data and teachers' interview data were compared to examine the correlation of the teachers' ideologies and actual classroom practices.

4. Context and Participants

All the teachers teach adult foreign learners that come to learn English as a foreign language in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The teacher participants will be referred by the following pseudonyms: Ali, Collin, Sarah and Siti. The native English speakers both do not have any teaching qualifications in the area of English language teaching. Collin hails from Northern Ireland and holds a degree in fashion design while Sarah comes from Britain and has a degree in English literature. Both Collin and Sarah had taught English in a number of Asian and European countries. The second group of teachers, Ali and Siti, are non-native teachers and English is a second language for them. Both teachers are trained English teachers and hold a degree in Teaching English as other Language (TESOL). Teaching experience of all the teacher participants varied in between 2-8 years.

5. Findings

This section discusses the teachers' classroom ideologies pertaining to teaching styles and also the findings of their actual classroom teaching styles.

5.1 Teachers' Ideologies

In the teacher-centred teaching style, teachers tend to have full authority over the lessons and students. They assert control over the teaching and learning materials, and the ways in which students study it, instruction also tends to be frontal. The transformation from conventional teaching methods to a student-centred approach has also changed the roles of the teacher and learner in the classrooms. In the student-centred style, the teachers have the primary role of facilitator. They encourage the learners to participate actively instead of just 'instructing' them, and share both decision-making and the responsibility for learning with the students; the teacher essentially just guides the learning process. The student-centred teaching style increases the learners' self-learning awareness in addition to the ordinary function of knowledge sharing. In the student-centred teaching style, the construction of knowledge is shared between the teachers and learners, and learning is achieved through the students' engagement via interactive activities (Chall, 2000) with teachers providing guidance on language learning rather than simply being the model for correct speech. Student-centred learning in ESL/EFL classrooms promotes language development use among the learners, primarily paying attention to improving communication skills (Spada, 2007). It is argued that the implementation of a student-centred teaching approach will facilitate language learning and produce proficient language users who are functional in real-life communication (Baker, 2005).

All the teacher participants argued that a learner-centred teaching style is the most efficient ELT approach. However, the teachers have different reasons for their preference. Both Collin and Sarah believe that the learners share equal responsibility in the learning process. Thus, the learner-centred teaching style provides opportunities for the learners to become autonomous learners. Collin also stated that a learner-centred teaching style makes students become independent learners. He argued: "*I ensure to create opportunities for the learners to just produce and use the language....it is important for learners to be independent and take charge of their learning and the learner-centred style fits the best*". Collin and Sarah both agreed that learners like teachers have responsibility in the learning process. They argue that it is the job of the teacher to create a learning environment that gives the learner the opportunity to take

charge of that responsibility. In their view, it is the learner-centred teaching style that enables the learners to realize and take charge of their own learning. Similarly, Siti and Ali are also in favour of a learner-centred approach; however they are less concerned with promoting learner independence. Siti values it because it promotes interaction and student enjoyment in the classroom and provides the teacher with flexibility in terms of classroom activities. Ali concurs with Siti that the learner-centred approach is suitable for training students' communicative skills. Both local and native teachers acknowledge the importance of a learner-centred style. They believe that a learner-centred teaching style is more communicative and achieves the ESL classroom teaching goals. However, the teachers have different perspectives on the overall use of the teaching styles. While Collin and Sarah firmly believe in a learner-centred style as the only and best approach in the ELT process, Siti and Ali believe that other approaches such as a teacher-centred style also have their merits and can also be used along with the learner-centred teaching style. They argue that a student-centred style of teaching also means being flexible in terms of the use of different teaching approaches to accommodate to students' learning preferences.

5.2 *Teachers' Teaching Styles*

Results from the data analysis revealed that there was a lack of correlation between teachers' actual teaching styles and ideologies for both sets of teachers. Despite the teachers' enthusiasm for learner-centred teaching styles that are communicative and promote more interactivity among the learners, all the teachers were observed to rely heavily on a teacher-centred teaching style in their classroom practice. Ali mentioned that referential questions are essential in language teaching and that he preferred to use them in his lessons; however, he employed a great number of display questions. The native teachers also diverged in several aspects. For instance, Sarah displayed a preference for using referential questions; however, in actuality she used closed questions. In a similar vein, Chris stated that he preferred to use referential questions, but employed greater numbers of display questions in actual questioning strategy. The findings of this study provide much needed insights into teaching and learning ideologies and actual practices of EFL teachers in the Malaysian context. They demonstrate that existing stereotypes about the native teachers' teaching styles cannot be upheld as there were no significant differences between the teaching approaches of the two sets of teachers.

The findings indicated that, despite several years of teaching, both sets of teachers appeared to be unaware of the discrepancies between their ideologies and actual teaching practices, regardless of the teachers' training and language backgrounds. Although studies (Lockhart, 1994; Schulz, 2001) have suggested that discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices can arise due to different social, environmental factors, and unanticipated events in lessons, essentially it is crucial for teachers to ensure that their ideologies and actual practices correspond. This is because prominent conflicts of ideologies and practices may impinge on the teaching and learning process. For instance, teachers may believe that they are implementing their pedagogical beliefs effectively in practice; however in the circumstance that teacher are unaware of the contradictions between their ideologies and practices it may negatively impact on the goals of their lessons. Thus, it is essential for the teachers to ensure the consistency of their pedagogical ideologies and actual practice, in order to achieve the goals of the teaching and learning process.

6. Conclusion

The teachers' actual classroom teaching practices revealed that the monolingual and multilingual teachers appeared to use the same teaching styles. In addition, there are no significant differences between the teachers' classroom practices and this point to two important issues. First, it proves that the assumption circulating in many outer and expanding circle countries are inaccurate when it comes to the 'superiority' and greater effectiveness of one type of teacher over another. Thus, it is appropriate to state that the teachers' language background has less effect on their classroom teaching styles. Second, it shows that improvement is needed in terms of regular in-service teacher training in Malaysia in order to help both sets of teachers to overcome the gap between their ideologies and their actual practices. Both types of teachers need to be trained as to how to effectively implement the CLT approach in their classroom lessons. The institution's authorities, along with the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE), should provide courses and workshops to enhance teachers' teaching skills and their professional development. In addition, the expatriate monolingual teacher needs more training on students' socio-cultural perspectives as the findings suggested there were discrepancies between their classroom assumptions and learners' expectations.

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Title

English Relative Clauses: How Students use them

Author

Hermawati Syarif

Universitas Negeri Padang, Indonesia

hermawati_sy@yahoo.com

Abstract

The use of English relative clause is more preferable in written language. It is due to the fact that the writer wants to specify what is being talked. Since the relative clause is embedded to its matrix clause, the tendency to miss the element(s) of the sentence is seen in the students' writing. The paper discusses the use of English relative clauses by the students of English Department of UNP Padang, West Sumatera, the problems and their causes. The analysis is by drawing the clauses from their matrix elements of complex sentences. As a whole, the results revealed that almost half of the relative clauses used by students are problematic, in which missing *be* in passive form is the most, followed by fragment sentence, disagreement with their modified nouns, the inappropriate choice of pronoun, and the ignorance of clause reduction and restriction. These problems were mostly caused by students' lack awareness and learning style in grammar, the interference of cultural internalization of the Indonesian language, students' lack of competence and insufficiency of exposure that deals with construction of English relative clause.

Keywords: *matrix clause, relative clause, restrictive relative clause, non-restrictive relative clause, appositive.*

Introduction

The preference of using English relative clause in written language is likely based on the needs of specifying what being expressed. However, in many of writing

performances, mostly on the learners', the use of relative clauses is strange, or even problematic. Since relative clause is embedded to its matrix clause, the tendency to miss the element(s) of the sentence is seen in the students' writing.

After years of observation and reading students' write up assignment at the English Department of Universitas Negeri Padang, I noticed that it is exceptionally hard for them to construct a proper complex sentence. By and large, the main cause for this problem is students' lack of knowledge about grammatical structure needed to construct such sentences. While Weaver (1996) stated that grammar gives students the description of how words are combined into meaningful syntactic structure, which enables them to understand and produce the language described.

However, a study on students' expository essay which I did in 2013 showed that students' complex sentences tend to miss some important elements of the complex sentence resulting in sentences which are grammatically flawed. In worse cases, students' sentences were hard to be comprehended to the extent of being unintelligible. The study also revealed that relative clause was the most difficult grammar target for students to master shedding some lights to why student's complex sentences are riddled with problems. Surprisingly, this problem did not only afflict students at undergraduate level but also those studying at graduate level. This phenomenon is quite alarming considering their years of studying English grammar and proper academic writing. For those reasons, I did another study on students' use of English relative clauses, the problems and their causes at English Department UNP Padang, West Sumatera.

Theoretical Review

As the elements of a sentence, relative clauses may be the noun phrase substitute, which is embedded to the clause (sentence); and adjective substitute, which is embedded to noun phrase (NP). Both are also called dependent clauses since they are the part of main clause of complex sentence, Celce-Murcia et.al (1999: 20). The term relative clauses proposed by Biber (1999) is the clause, whose relative pronoun, shows the agreement with the antecedent (noun phrase it modifies) as *postmodifier*. The relative pronoun is an element used to introduce the main clause or the antecedent developed into the whole clause. In another form, their relative pronouns can determine their function as an element of clause structure (as a *subject, object, complement or adverbial*).

In another view, Quirk, et al. (1987) and Biber et.al. (1999), use the term relative clause for embedded clauses. Quirk names it adnominal clause, consisting of nominal relative clause and sentential relative clause. The difference between these two mainly lies on their function. Nominal relative clause functions as the substitute of noun phrase in the sentence, such as *Whoever did that* in the sentence *Whoever did that should admit it frankly.*, functions as subject; on the other hand, relative clause (including sentential relative clause) functions as the replacement for adjectival function, modifying noun phrase (antecedent) or main clause, and also as additional information for sentential relative clause. Relative clauses are typically introduced by a relative pronoun with anaphoric reference, such as *a car* is referred by *which* in the clauses *There is a car **which** I saw yesterday* (Collins and Hollo, 2000)

Corresponding to the purpose of this paper, the theories discussed are only on the relative clauses as the adjectival function. The term can be suited to relative clauses stated by Collin and Hollo (2000), upon which its relative pronoun is referred. Quirk (1987) classifies relative clauses based on the pronoun and gender agreement, restrictive relative clause with its pronoun function, and nonrestrictive relative clause.

In English, gender system used for person and nonperson, according to Quirk et. al. (1987: 1245) and Werner (2007), is only *wh-*. Firstly, *who* is used for person and *which* is used for nonperson and baby. For collective noun, both relative pronouns can be used (person for plural sense and nonperson for nonperson sense). Secondly, gender contrast can be neutralized by relative ‘that’ or ‘zero ()’, such as *she must be the nicest person **that**/() ever lived*. Apart from *who* and *which* functioning as relative pronoun, *that* is relative pronoun that can be used for both person and nonperson antecedent. It can be seen in sentence (1) and (2).

(1) *I hate the coat **that** my mother brought me.* (nonperson)

(2) *The dentist **that** you’re seeing just lost his license.* (person)

If there are two antecedents of the clause, relative pronoun is agreed to the nearest noun, such as: *the people and the things **which**...* and *the things and the people **who**...* The last, *which* can be used with noun person as antecedent if it is complementary relative, like *He... to be an artist, which he was not.*

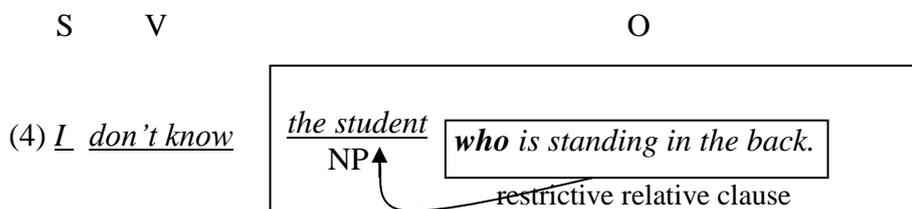
The next is restrictive relative clause which contains information that is necessary to identify the noun it modifies (Davis (1977:19). It means that when it is removed from the sentence, the meaning of the matrix clause is blurred or may be ambiguous. Berk

(1999:265) states that the main function of restrictive relative clause is to restrict the meaning of noun phrase (antecedent) that precedes, by which the listener or the reader might understand which is being referred. Since the clause limits the reference of noun phrase, it cannot be used with noun phrase which already has a clear reference. See the following examples:

(3) *Tell the students who are discussing the problems the time limit.*

In sentence (3), with restrictive clause *who are discussing the problems*, noun phrase *the students* has clearer meaning.

Restrictive relative clause can modify noun phrase in any position, and the clause is embedded into nominal structure. In other words, if it functions to modify direct object (noun phrase), it becomes the part of an object. Veit (1986) states that the meaning of the noun preceded is complemented or completed. For example, in



who is standing in the back is the part of the object *the student* of the sentence *I don't know*.

Like other clauses, restrictive relative clause also has internal structure and *wh-* word appears at the beginning of the clause regardless of its grammatical function.

In addition, restrictive relative clause can modify indefinite pronoun as in:

(5) *I don't know **anyone** who can fix this.*

(6) ***He** who dies with the most toys wins.*

Indefinite pronoun *anyone* in (5) and *He* in (6) are the referents of relative pronoun *who*.

Relative pronoun used in restrictive clause can show its function in the sentence. It has the functions of subject, object, complement and adverbial in the embedded clause (Fuchs and Bonner, 2000).

Regarding relative pronoun *whose*, Maurer (2000) has the idea that *whose* is used to modify possessive noun phrase for both person and non person, such as:

(7) *The woman **whose** daughter you met is Mrs Brown.*

(8) *The house **whose** roof was damaged has now been repaired.*

In sentence (7) and (8), *whose* is to replace *her* and *its* as the referent of *the woman* (person), and *the house* (non-person) in those two complex sentences. If the antecedent is non person, *whose* can be replaced by *which*, of that is *the roof of which*; however, *whose* is more commonly used.

Objective relative pronoun used is *that* or *zero* () to avoid the unacceptable use of *who* and *whom* (See Werner and Spaventa (2007). Therefore, the sentence *people that I visit/speak to...* is more likely to be used than *people who(m) I visit/speak to...*

Regarding non-restrictive relative clause, its function is only to give extra information to the noun (phrase) modified. In other words, without the clause, the antecedent has already been identified. It just gives additional information about the noun it modifies, and it is not necessary (Davis, 1977:342). It means that when the nonrestrictive relative clause is removed from a sentence, the meaning of noun phrase of the matrix clause has already been clear. That clause is separated from the noun phrase by a comma or commas (unless, of course, it ends a sentence and a period or question mark is required). These clauses often modify proper nouns or names of unique people, places or things. *Who*, *which*, *whom* and *whose* (but not *that*) may be used in these clauses.

Eventhough it is sometimes difficult to decide whether relative clauses are restrictive or not, they are clearly non-restrictive as first, when the noun they modify is a proper name (since a name by itself is popular enough to tell *which*) as in the sentence *Soeharto, who got more strategies in managing the government and its heterogenous communities, has passed away in peace*. Second, when the noun is preceded by this or these as in the sentence *Those interesting places, to which more tourists spend their leisure time, are located near the city*. Third, when the clause modifies a specific time or date as in the sentence *In September, when many people still think of 'Gestapu', we prepare for our conference*. Finally, the clause between the commas marks that the embedded clause is nonrestrictive, with the assumption that everyone knows the NP referred. In the sentence *Mrs. Jensen, who lives next door, is a girl scout troop leader.*, NP *Mrs. Jensen* is already identified. It is probably because there is only one *Mrs. Jensen*. in the contextual situation.

Sentential relative clause is highly related to comment clause. This clause refers to predicate or predicative in the clause, or the whole clause or sentence (See Greenbawn & Nelson, 20002).

(9) *They say he plays truant, which surprises me.* (predicate)

(10) *Things then improved, which surprised me.* (sentence)

In the sentences (9) and (10), the matrix clause antecedent is a single clause. The existence of sentential relative clause is parallel with the nonrestrictive relative clause in noun phrase in the sense that (a) the clause is separated by intonation or punctuation, (b) the clause is commonly preceded by relative pronoun *which*. It can also be relative determiner abstract noun, like *fact, case, event, situation* (Werner and Lou, 2007). Noun phrase can be a prepositional complement modifying its antecedent. See the following example:

(11) *The plane may be several hours late, in which case there's no point in our waiting.*

In relation to using relative clauses by English foreign language (EFL) learners, the problems commonly arise during the process of learning, and may also come from the influence of their first language (L1). Learners usually make mistakes in learning a new language (Brown, 2007:257). Mistakes should not be avoided in learning language since they are inseparable part of the learning process. Ignorance of rule restriction when using grammar occurs for not knowing the exceptions to the rule, that is overgeneralization. Another is applying incomplete rule, such as regrading a dependent clause as a sentence that is called fragment.(see Ziahosseiny, 1999 concerning overgeneralization).

In acquiring second or foreign language, learners are commonly influenced by their first language (L1) indirectly (Harmer (1990: 215). The way it influences in the process of acquiring the second or foreign language may be indirect, in which the learners cannot differ the patterns and rules of those languages (Troike, 2006:35). Its process is commonly called as language interference of mother tounge to the second or foreign language use.

Method

From these two classes, fourty (44) short essay writing assignments of the students are selected proportionally randomized. These essays are with various topics of their individual interest. It is aimed to guarantee that the students have background knowledge and sources they need to explore and write about the topic chosen. However, the essay written was guided to be relative clause content.

The parameters used in analyzing relative clauses from students' writings are as follows:

Table 1. Indicators of students writing on relative clauses analysed

| No | Components indicated controlled | Subcomponents |
|----|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1 | Adjectival Functions | 1. Noun modifier : a. Restrictive clauses b. Non-restrictive clauses 2. Sentential Modifier |
| 2 | Distribution of Relative Clause Types | 1. Subject Replacement: that, which, who, where, when, how, why 2. Object Replacement: that, which, whom, where, when, how, why |
| 3 | Proportion of Relative Pronoun used | that, what, which, who, whom, where, when, how, why |

These indicators are gained, firstly, by reading 44 writing assignments comprehendingly. It is going on with identifying the components of relative clauses mentioned in Table 1. The use of relative clauses in relation to matrix clauses are identified by annotating them. To know the appropriate use of relative clauses in complex sentences, the category

The data analyzed include the appropriate use of relative clauses with adjectival function (relative clauses), the distribution of relative clause used in their complex sentences. Each of this point is analyzed based on the sub-indicators provided. The analysis adapted the theory proposed by Patton (1990). In order to analyze the data, there are several steps to be followed. The steps are explained as follows.

The data of students' writing collected are coded by number. Each sentence is analysed and classified by referring to the indicators predetermined. The violations of the

relative clauses used are identified and grouped into the same classification as in the indicators. The data tabulated were organized and described for further analysis to draw later conclusion.

To know the appropriateness of the use of relative clauses, each of the clauses is analysed deeply based on the indicators determined. It is going on with categorizing them from the most to the least appropriate use with the parameter in the following table.

Table 2. The classification of the appropriateness of students' relative clauses with adjectival function

| No. | Interval of appropriateness (%) | Classification |
|-----|---------------------------------|----------------|
| | 81-100 | Very Good |
| | 66-80 | Good |
| | 56-65 | Moderate |
| | 41-55 | Poor |
| | 0-40 | Very Poor |

The last step is interpreting the meaning of data analyzed of all research questions. The results of the students writing were interpreted deeply and draw the conclusion.

Findings

The data from some students' writing revealed that the use of English relative clause by the English education department students is not really good. As a whole, the results reveals that the most problematic is missing *be* in passive, agreement with the previous modified, fragment sentence, the inappropriate choice of pronoun, and the

ignorance of clause reduction. These problems were caused by many factors that appear on student's writing.

From the three sub-components determined, namely, relative clauses with relative pronoun (relator) as the replacement of subject, replacement of object, and sentential modifier, the data of students' writing assignments show the most amount of relative clauses found in the complex sentences is 9 (in 1 writing assignment) and the least is 1 (in 5 writing assignments). In relation to adjectival function of relative clauses, there are two functions focussed, that is nominal and sentential modifiers. From the data analysis, it is found that the appropriateness of the use of relative clause mostly ranges from 56-100%). The data of adjectival function got from 41 pieces of writing show that the appropriateness of 23 short essays are spread in the level of *very good* (81-100%), *good* (66-80%), and *moderate* (56-65%), while 18 pieces are in the level of *poor* and *very poor*.

The relative clauses found in the students' writing assignments consist of restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. To determine these clauses, the contextual meanings and the forms are analysed based on the indicators of the importance of the clauses.

Basically, restrictive clauses have the order of Subject-Verb preceded by relative pronoun as relator which functions to modify the noun phrase attached to the clause within complex sentences. From 42 pieces of writing, there are 147 restrictive relative clauses raised, 111 of which are in subject replacement clauses and 36 are object replacement clause constructions. The data show that several restrictive clauses are not used appropriately. There are problems related to basic sentence patterns and choices of words. Here, the analysis is more on the sentence patterns. The following is the sample of data that can be *accepted* in written communication.

(12) *One of the country **which** is located in Sumatra is Padang.*

(13) *The traditional food **that** we can find in Singkarak is Pangek Bilih or ...*

All clauses have fulfilled the rules of relative clause that is *Relator + S + VP*. In data 4.1, *which* has two functions, as relator and automatically as the subject of the verb phrase, *is located in Sumatera*. This is subject replacement relative clause. The object replacement relative clauses in data 4.2 has relator *that* with the subject of *we*. In relation to the rules of restrictive clause used, the relative clauses within two sentences above may be accepted as the appropriate ones. Since the antecedents *the country*, and *the*

traditional food, of those relative clauses need further information in order to make sure their specific indicator, these clauses are called restrictive. So, readers do not have questions in their mind *which country, food*, you mean. No commas are used after their antecedent or before relator. However, the word *cities* will be more appropriate instead of *country* as the antecedent of the relative clause.

In other sentences of writing assignments, these are the sample of restrictive relative clauses written as the representatives.

(14) *Padang city also has many mosques **which all of are very beautiful**.*

(15) *Masilok island is a island **which in Mentawai island at West Sumatra**.*

Those data have the problems in their use. In datum 14, for instance, the use of relative pronoun does not show the appropriate rule. The preposition complement functioning as adverbial in *which all of* does not show the word order. The clause should be cured to become *many mosques **(all of) which** are very beautiful*. Furthermore, datum 4.6 has the problem of missing *verb* of relative clause. The relator *which* that also functions as the subject should be followed by its verb. Thus, the construction should be ***which is** in Mentawai island...* (having copulative *is*). It is also the problem with it antecedent, the use of article *an* in *an island*.

Concerning non-restrictive clauses, there are 36 items emerged in students' essay writing assignment. These are mostly with problems, ranging from the problems that can be ignored to serious problems. The followings are the sample of non-restrictive clauses gained from the source.

(16) *The first place that you will see in journey to Silokek is Pasir Putih, **that will make the beautiful scenery**,*

(17) This is the area for you who love hiking.

From the four non-restrictive clauses presented, in data 16, and 17, the NPs (proper nouns) *Masjid Raya Sumbar, Pasir Putih* are followed by relators *whose*, and *that*. As a matter of fact, relator *that* cannot be used in non-restrictive clauses. Pronoun *you* as the antecedent of *who love hiking* is already definite and clear to be identified. Thus, *comma* should precede relator. They can be revised as

16a to Silokek is Pasir Putih, **which** will make the beautiful scenery,

17a This is the area for you, **who** love hiking.

In complex sentences, the antecedent of the relative clause is not only the noun phrase in any position (subject, object, complement), but may also be the matrix clause or any discourse that is regarded as single noun phrase. Commonly, the use of comma after the matrix clause is an indicator of this modifier. Nevertheless, in the sample data, there still appear without commas as it emerged in a few relative clauses. The followings picture out the use of those sentential modifiers.

(18) *Indonesia has many beautiful places that makes people from the other country often come.*

(19) *We can walk over the shore which makes us happy and enjoy.*

The data above have been classified into sentential modifiers after the understandings of the essay are analysed deeply due to their lack vocabulary used. The whole understanding of matrix clause of Datum (18) is modified by the underlined relative clause. Beside the absence of comma, relator *that* should be replaced by *which*, such as .., *which makes people from the other country often come.*

The types of relative clause is indicated by the function of relator used in that clause. There are two functions of relator discussed in this study, that is as the subject replacement and object replacement. The relators used in the relative clauses of the essays are only four kinds and not varied. They appear with respectively the highest frequency to the lowest, namely *which*, *that*, *who*, and *where*. Most of them appear in the type of subject replacement. The choice does not indicate the appropriate use.

Most of relative clauses found in students essay writing are subject replacement type. There are 149 clauses written with the pattern of subject replacement type. By and large, the clauses have followed the pattern of *Rel./S + VP*. Nevertheless, some appear with various grammatical problems. The portrait of their clauses can be seen in the following sample.

(20) *From the main gate, you will see the logo "Welcome to Silokek" which was written by local society.*

(21) *This is a good place that can be visited by in your vacation.*

(22) *Jam Gadang which is located in center of Bukittinggi.*

The relators of relative clauses in complex sentences above (*which* and *that*), have two functions, namely as relators of the their antecedents as well as subjects of their clauses. In datum (20), *which* has the antecedent *Welcome to Silokek* (proper noun) that should be followed by comma before its relative pronoun.

Datum (21) is likely having appropriate use of relative clause with subject replacement type. In spite of having the matrix clause, datum (22) only consists of the noun phrase with relative clause showing subject replacement as its modifier. This should be classified as the fragment, as the problem of the grammar use.

Unlike the existence of subject replacement type of relative clause in students' essays, the object replacement type only appears in a few numbers, namely 38 clauses, and most of them are restrictive clauses. Let us see the analysis of the data gained as follows.

(23) *I have pretty hometown **that** I called Padang city.*

(24) *....., selling various type of local snacks **which** I bet you would love to try.*

(25) *Some tourists do even visit the stones, **on which** some small living trees grow, just to take pictures.*

As it is seen in four data above, all of the relative clauses are used appropriately with the pattern of *Rel + S+VP*. In data (23) and (24), *that* and *which* are used as the relators referring to the antecedent, *pretty hometown*, and *various type of local snacks*. In datum 25, *on which* is the relative pronoun as an object of preposition.

Beside the two types of relative clauses, there is also *relative adverb* which has similar pattern with the two types. It also arises the use of *which*, *where* and *on which* in the clauses. As a whole, the use of clauses can be understood by the readers. Meanwhile, a few grammatical and lexical case also appear. One can be noticed in the following.

(26) *Batam not only have beaches, it also many malls **which** we can shop there.*

The antecedent of the relator is the adverb as the complement in the matrix clause. The clause in datum (26) has *which* to refer to *many malls*. However, relator *which* should be preceded by *on (on which)* to show place, and adverb *there* that also refers to *many malls* in the clause should be omitted in order to avoid the redundant use of referent. It may be changed into

26a *.....it also has many malls **on which** we can shop.*

The lexical problem related to word choice is also found in some constructions

Discussion

The existence of relative clause in a language is not without a reason. Sarilar (2015: 175) reiterates that “language has evolved complex syntactic structures that permit speakers to identify the referent even in the most challenging situation [whereby] relative clauses exemplify such structures, serving the function of augmenting nouns with additional information presumed important for identification. With this in mind, students of English are supposed to know how to construct and use it. However, regardless of its importance, the frequency of the use of embedded clauses, especially relative clause, is noticeably low in students’ writing with only one containing nine complex sentences while the rest only sported maximum one complex sentence. Further investigation revealed that the appropriate use of relative clause in students’ writing was generally moderate. This finding clearly shows that problems in the use of relative do exist.

As a matter of fact, the condition of the students’ average ability in using relative clauses with adjectival function can be seen from two components, namely as noun modifier within restrictive and non-restrictive clauses; and sentential modifier. Seemingly, English restrictive clauses are mostly used in the short essay by the students. It can be understood that any general noun should be explained to get the specific meaning of the sentence or discourse. This idea is in line with Berk (1999:265) that the function of restrictive clause is to limit the meaning on the noun phrase modified. Nevertheless, the use is not yet what is expected. In restrictive clauses, the relative pronoun (relator) used does not refer to its antecedent, like using relator *when* referring to the place. Another case is the absence of verb in the relative clause as well as inappropriate word order. These are all related to their lack grammatical knowledge. Related to this, Lay, et. al (2003) has the same opinion, that is students in their English essay writing, got the problem with using appropriate word order in English.

Unawareness on the particular system or rule exists in English language component often appears in students’ writing assignment. This is deemed impossible since learners not only cognitively threatened by the unconscious error made repetitively but also by the type of mistakes caused by the learner’s incapability in utilizing the known language system correctly. The rule of having relative pronoun/adverb, such as (*who, whom, whose, that, which, or when and where*) before the clause may also a hard work for them. The redundant use of related pronoun with its antecedent also occurred.

Related to non-restrictive clauses, the main indicator is using comma(s) punctuation mark to show that the modifying clause is only an extra information of the antecedent. Not more sentences use this type. Neda (2012: 9) states that many students have problems or confusion in using question mark, colon or semicolon, commas, and apostrophes while writing essays. It is probably because few specified antecedents to be placed in their complex sentences of their short essays. However, the use of relative pronouns for the identified non-restrictive clauses are not even correct. The use of pronoun *that* is often used instead of *which* or *who/m*.

In using relative pronoun and adverb is lack of students' understanding in using pronouns itself. The students get problems when the use of various relative pronoun or adverb and what noun they modify. Because of that, three types of errors occur during constructing relative clauses namely: omission of relative pronoun, substitution of relative pronoun and addition of pronoun subject. Beside that, the use of quantity adjective clauses is also serious problem of the students. As Azar (2011) states there are six possible problems with adjective clauses. First, and adjective clause must be together with another complete sentence. There needs to be two subjects and two verbs. Second, the adjective clause must have a subject and a complete verb. Third, we cannot use an adjective to describe a pronoun. Fourth, do not repeat a pronoun with an adjective clause. Fifth, the adjective clause must be just after the noun it describes.

Conclusion and Suggestion

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that generally, the use of students' English relative clauses with adjectival function used in students' essay writing assignment are not satisfying. The appropriateness is in average level. More problems about the basic order of the clauses are still shown up. The concordance between the clause and its antecedent are still noticed. The use of relative pronoun *which* and *that* takes the first position. The lack lexical use of concept on the relative pronouns makes the relative clauses appear slightly odd. And the appropriate use of those relative pronouns can not be accepted as expected.

Since the problems of the students in using relative clauses are mostly of the grammatical components, in the English language learning, the syllabus designer should notify the mentioned levels of linguistic components while constructing English instructional materials, methods, and evaluation based on the stage of learners.

Nevertheless, the varieties of English existed and the changes in particular elements of the language may appear and they result misunderstanding. In this case, English instructors/teachers should also update their linguistic competence, especially on using complex sentences in any materials written.

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Title

Personal Awareness: Teaching English to Students with Difficulties

Author

Ida Ayu Mela Tustiawati

STIBA SARASWATI

melvi.tustiawati@gmail.com

About the Author

Mela Tustiawati received her degree in English Education from Mahasaraswati University in 2013. She taught English at an educational institution in Bali before continuing her study at the University of Tasmania. In 2015 she gained her master degree in education concentrating on teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL).

Abstract

This article describes issues involving teaching English to students with learning difficulties, especially a student with Asperger syndrome. It begins with general perspectives of people and other teachers towards teaching autistic students and teachers who teach these ‘types’ of students. The article explores the writer’s experience in English teaching and learning in an exclusive one to one teaching and learning set up, and the writer’s awareness of inclusive and special needs education for students with difficulties. It discusses aspects of English teaching and learning situations, in particular the understanding of teaching approaches. Using two case studies, it explains how the writer dealt with English teaching approaches, materials, delivery methods, and students’ learning problems which include lack of numerical and linguistic skills, and social communication issues. Finally, the writer’s reflections on the matter are also provided.

Keywords: *English teaching, students with learning difficulties, special needs education, teaching approaches*

Introduction

After becoming an English teacher for a student with special needs, I started to question everything that I learnt as a pre-service teacher and everything that I have to face as a teacher. The job comes with comments and remarks from others. Some are positive and some are not. Thus, I would like to revisit my encounters with special needs students through self investigation and reflection. I believe this narration provides a different perspective on English teaching in general and English teaching to student with learning difficulties in Indonesia. Furthermore, it provides an explanation that may clarify misunderstandings and misconceptions that surround education for special needs students and offers a new understanding about general and special needs teachers.

This article consists of two case studies that illustrate my encounters with two special needs students and how I have and have not managed to teach English to these types of students, as well as exploring the issues that I have to face as a general teacher. The article is designed as a self-interrogation which can be read as one of the examples of narrative enquiry.

Case Study One

After becoming a qualified teacher, I received my first teaching job as an English teacher in one of the *Bimbingan Belajar (BIMBEL)* – a tutorial institution that provides extra classes for students who have difficulty learning the school subjects. This job required me to understand student enrolment and placement procedures. Being part of this processes made me realise that the education system in Indonesia separates students based on two categories, regular and special needs students. The students who are considered to be in the same category will be put together and those who do not belong to the category will be excluded from the system. For the first time I was aware that the system does not provide any room for mixing regular and special needs students.

It was during this period that I first met a student with special needs. She was about eight years old and was a student in one of the government schools (public schools) in Bali and supposed to be in grade two elementary level. Due to her disruptive behaviour and lack of academic development she had had to repeat another year as a grade one student.

Looking back now, my first case with a special needs student was unsuccessful. There were many issues that could not be solved easily, as follows:

- Limited information about her medical condition
- Minimum data on her academic and non-academic skills
- Lack of ability to write and read
- Social behaviour issues
- Lack of support from parents
- Class management issues
- Lack of expert opinion on the issues

As a result it was hard to decide on her class level, especially when she was the only student in this situation. I tried to seek information from her parents but there was no clear answer from them. It was as if the parents did not know her real condition. From discussion with her parents I found that their main concern was for their daughter to be able to make friends and mingle with the other students. Her academic progress was not their priority. In the end she was put in the same level as grade one students.

Not long after her first class in the institution, I received many complaints from the other parents saying that the girl disturbed their children, the girl was not “normal” so they did not want their children to be put together with her, etc. When I entered the classroom, I found that the girl showed some distinctive behaviour as follows:

- She liked disturbing others using a pencil to poke them
- She liked walking around the classroom to check on what her friends were doing
- Her restless behaviour made the other students felt uncomfortable and scared of her.
- She did not want to follow the teachers’ instruction
- She did not participate in the class activities
- She could not stay focused for very long

After the third week (the third meeting for grade one) the girl did not come again. She left the institution before I could understand her situation and before I could help her as a teacher.

This meeting led to my interest in these types of students and the education system in general. I felt frustrated at myself for not being able to do anything for this particular student and for not being able to provide a good explanation to the other parents so they could grasp the whole situation and try to understand. I realised that as a teacher I did not have any understanding of these types of students.

Case Study Two

Two years after my first encounter I had another chance to meet a student with difficulties. He is diagnosed with Asperger syndrome. He went to a general elementary school and had been taught privately after graduating from the school. In this encounter, I was given as much information as possible regarding his academic and social development, his characteristics, his behaviour towards his surroundings, his routines and other resources about his condition by the parents. This situation was the trigger that made me start looking for more information about this topic.

After doing some research on Asperger syndrome, I found that there are many opinions about this issue. Some experts say that Asperger syndrome is another form of autism, others say that it is similar to autism but shows aspects that can be considered quite different from autism. A resource guide for schools provided by the British Columbia, Ministry of Education (2000) mentions some common characteristics of people with Asperger syndrome which are also described in an earlier article written by Karen Williams in 1995 as follows:

- Insistence on sameness
- Impairment in social interaction
- Restricted range of interest
- Poor concentration
- Poor motor condition
- Academic difficulties
- Emotional vulnerability

I found that my special needs student possesses similar characteristics to those mentioned above. Due to my lack of confidence, I was given time to understand their son's condition before meeting him in person. The parents were willing to have discussions with me as needed. As a result, when I finally met him I had some understanding about what to do and how to react to his actions. Although I was still feeling uncomfortable and shocked I felt more confident.

I used my first meeting to get to know my special needs student and to try to identify his abilities and what I could do to help him. My lack of experience and understanding of the situation made me miscalculate the time needed to get to know him. I thought it would be similar to what I needed to get to know my regular students. Compared with regular students the time needed for a certain activity to be completed

for special needs students is longer. Instead of one meeting for introduction and getting to know the student, I ended up with a month of trials and errors.

The following were things that I found during my first month (twelve meetings of two hours each) teaching my special needs student:

- Unwilling to study
- Tended to touch people regardless of their gender
- When using English, follows the grammatical construct for Bahasa Indonesia rather than the English grammatical construct
- Lack of understanding about how to make conversation (one way conversation only)
- Liked to move around
- Screeching and high pitch sound influenced his emotion and mood
- Good ability and understanding of electrical systems
- Inability to write properly due to some issues with the nervous system
- Had difficulty in differentiating some letters of the alphabet
- Had difficulty in counting numbers in order
- Had issues with meeting new people and being in a crowded place
- Rapid mood swings

This was only half of the situation. I realized that I could not expect the same thing from my regular and special needs students. I had to adjust my plans almost all the time in order to make the teaching and learning process work.

Unlike regular schools where teachers are provided with curriculum and syllabus to assist them in preparing their teaching and learning plans, for my special needs student, I had to conduct my own needs analysis before designing the topics and activities that might be appropriate for him. This process also required many trials and errors before finalizing the topics and possible activities that could be done.

What I felt then was frustration and despair; I might not be able to find anything, things might not work well and I didn't know what to do next. But after a couple of trials and discussions with the parents, I was able to map things that I needed to introduce to him. It was then that I thought that having a curriculum and syllabus prepared for you was a fortunate thing to have as a teacher.

Working with a student with Asperger syndrome, I need to be exact about everything. What helps me the most when I cannot handle his tantrum is by making an

agreement. There was time when he refused to move from his seat in the living room to his study area. Forcing him with words and rewards did not work, so I showed him my watch and made an agreement that after a couple of minutes he needed to move and study. Once he agrees to it, he will do it.

Compared to regular students, my special needs student has a very tolerant attitude towards things that he likes but he is not able to stay focused if things are not to his interest. Dividing materials into small pieces and conducting activities in shorter periods helps me maintaining his focus.

I also find that I have to accustom myself to his rapid change in mood. It takes time but it is important, especially when starting a new lesson. If he is in a bad mood and our lesson does not attract his attention, it will be a disaster throughout the session. As with other students prizes and acknowledgements work well for these types of students.

Issues Surrounding Education for Special Needs Students

Teaching English to a student with special needs opened a new door to my professional understanding as a teacher. At first, I thought that teaching and learning processes for students with learning difficulties and regular students would be quite different. There are indeed some distinctive features but in general things are conducted in a similar way.

As a teacher for both special needs and regular students, I am able to compare the different situations and issues surrounding these environments. It appears that what teachers, parents and public in general know about students with special needs is quite limited. There is an information gap about these issues which results in many misconceptions about students with special needs.

With my first case I could not find reliable sources and experts who could provide information about these types of students. Both the parents and I had our own assumptions about special needs students which I realized later were quite untrue.

A similar situation happened during my second encounter. The first time I told my family and colleagues about being a teacher for a special needs student I received quite shocking responses. Generally their ideas about students with special needs are that they are inferior, they will always need assistance throughout their life and are very dependent on others. It is clear that even after two years, there is still a lack of information about these types of students. People are left with their own assumptions

without any clear explanation about the issues. Without realising it we may be unfair to children who have difficulties and may hurt their feelings unknowingly.

No information is given to regular (mainstream) teachers about special needs students. Practicing teachers do not have any information about this topic which makes them quite reluctant to teach these types of students. When I say to my friends and colleagues that I teach a special needs student they do not believe me. Their ideas about the education system are that regular teachers should only teach regular students and we should leave the education of special needs students to professionals who are qualified for the job. Even though there are a number of regular teachers who want to get involved in the education of special needs students, they do not have enough information that will support them, thus they do not know where to start.

Unlike other countries that have gradually moved the education policy of special needs students from exclusive teaching and learning environments to inclusive teaching and learning systems, it is quite different in Indonesia. It is hard to find schools that admit special needs students and apply an inclusive teaching and learning system. Furthermore, separation in the education system for these types of students is supported legally by the UURI no 20 tahun 2013 – the Indonesian Law number 20 year 2013 that special education is conducted for students who have difficulties due to physical, emotional, social issues, and or having a special talent and intelligence (translated from Bahasa Indonesia). Despite the value of this system, I believe that it is one of the reasons that makes society think that separation is the best option for regular and special needs students. There is no way that students with special needs can study together with regular students. Therefore, they believe special schools and special teachers for these types of students are necessary.

Lack of teaching materials to support teaching and learning process for special needs students is also one of the issues that I face. It is hard to find books and other resources especially for teaching English. Thus, I need to continuously create and modify my own teaching and learning materials to accommodate my special needs student; even though it requires so much time and preparation.

Concluding Reflections

What have I learned after questioning myself about my encounters with special needs students?

Lack of awareness and understanding of the people and teachers towards children with difficulties influences how we treat them. As a result, there are misunderstandings and misconceptions about special needs students in society. My inability as a teacher to know and understand these types of students hindered me from helping them as a teacher. Parents' cooperation is one of the keys to educating teachers and society about students with special needs. Parents are the first source of information on the students' condition so that the teachers will be able to help them accordingly.

Prior understanding or background information about students with special needs may also need to be incorporated into the education system for pre-service teachers so that when they graduate, they will at least have general information about things that they may have to face in society. It will also give different perspectives on the development of education for students with special needs, so that not only special needs teachers can teach these types of students, but regular teachers can also take part in the process. It means that we may be able to less the burden that the special needs teachers carry.

Finally my experience working with regular and special needs students makes me realise that there is not much difference in the way we teach them. The most important thing is that we as teachers need to be able to adjust our teaching and learning procedures to accommodate our students' ways of learning.

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Title

The Student's Academic Speaking Skill Achievement in terms of Communication,
Personality and Gender

Author

Ikhfi Imaniah

iqvee.sorrow@gmail.com

*English Education Department Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang*

Nurul Fitria Kumala Dewi

*Early Childhood Education Department Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang*

nurulfitria.purbo@yahoo.com

Bio-Profiles:

Ikhfi Imaniah is a secretary of English Education Study Program and lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang, Indonesia. She is a candidate doctor of State University of Jakarta. She is interested in language skills, language acquisition, young learners, teaching methodology and technique, psycholinguistics and gender.

Nurul Fitria Kumala Dewi is a lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang. She is a psychologist. She graduated her master at psychology faculty of Gajah Mada University. She is interested in young learner's education and psychology.

Abstract

The aim of the research is to analyze the correlation of student's communication, student's personality, and gender on their academic speaking skill achievement. In relation to men and women, the most basic stereotypical expectation is simply that they will be different rather than the same. Here, the researchers observe and analyze the student's academic speaking skill in term of communication, personality and gender

whether there is significant correlation on them or not. The data that the researchers gathered in this research are questionnaires and test. The questionnaires were taken to analyze the level of student's communication and their personality. The questionnaires consist of 55 questions which relevant with men and women communication and personality. The samples that the researchers used were 46 students (26 of women and 20 of men). The student's communication skill was in high and middle level of communication. Based on the type of student's personality, there were two types of personality; extrovert and introvert (adapted from Eysenck Personality Questionnaire). The last data was taken from student's academic speaking test. Furthermore, the correlation between gender and student's communication skill was $-0,004 (<0,05)$, student's personality and their communication skill at significant level of $0,100 (>0,05)$ and student's personality and gender at significant level of $0,145 (>0,05)$, it means there was no significant correlation between student's communication, student's personality, and gender on their academic speaking skill achievement. In sum up, it can be said that student's personality and gender will not affect their communication skill.

Keywords: *Communication, Gender, and Personality.*

Literature Review

Before pointing out the differences in men and women during communication, their stages of development are critical in understanding the various forms of communication. The first perceptions of communication begin before the ability to speak. As young children observe the actions of others which help them identify who they are. Wood (2011) states that, "we are born into a gendered society that guides our understanding of gender and shapes our personal gendered identities" (p. 160). At a young age, children begin to form ideas about who they are and how they are supposed to act based on their observations. Wood discusses the idea of self-as-object, or the ability to think about, reflect upon, and respond to ourselves as well as the monitoring what takes place inside of us as we observe and regulate our attitudes and behaviors. These observations, paired with societal gender norms, shape that we become and how we perceive ourselves.

Wood (2011) explains that men and women grow in different gender speech communities and, thus, develop different communication styles. Wood stated, "a speech

community exists when people share understandings about goals of communication, strategies for enacting those goals, and ways of interpreting communication” (p. 125). In short, people communicate in different ways. It depends on a lot of things, where people are from, how and where people were brought up, the educational background, the age, and it also can depend on gender.

Even highly confident, accomplished women temper their speech, often by adding a qualifier to take the edge off an expression of power; and defer, often without being aware of it, to men. Women who are otherwise liberated and articulate can be heard uttering inanities like “Oh, really” and “How fascinating” in support of a man in mid narrative. They will nod their heads, smile a lot, assume sympathetic expressions and, most important, keep their gaze fixed unwaveringly on the speaker’s face. Moreover, according to Wood, women also “sustain conversation by inviting others to speak and by prompting them to elaborate their ideas” in a speech style known as “maintenance work” (p.129).

In contrast, Newman et al. (2008) discussed the similarities between man and women in communication. He said that “contrary to popular stereotypes, men and women were distinguishable in their references to sexuality, anger, time, their use of first-person plural, the number of words and question marks employed, and the insertion of qualifiers in the form of exclusion words (e.g., but, although)” (p.229).

Based on the discussion between men and women differences and similarities in communication, the researchers would like to discuss the academic speaking skill achievement in term of communication, personality and gender. In this case, the discussion focused on students of Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang. Here, college students as young people who will be in control to develop the nation; they should be capable of being a superior human to compete with others. So that the students should have a mentally healthy that will do his duties later.

According to Atkinson (2004), personality is a pattern of behavior and ways of thinking which determines the individual adjustment to the environment. Personality can also develop into a more internal, something relatively permanent guiding, directing, and organizing daily activities of individuals (Alwisol, 2004). In short, it can conclude that the personality regarding individual differences that distinguish one individual from another individual which is durable, not easy to change throughout life. Personality is also a pattern of behavior and ways of thinking that is typical, which determines the

individual adjustment to the environment that will be revealed through the behavior in the social environment.

Hans J. Eysenck describes a theory of personality; extrovert and introvert to suggest differences in the reactions to the environment and in social behavior. This type of personality describes the uniqueness of the individual in behavior to the stimulus as the embodiment of character; temperament, physical, and intellectual adjust to the environment. Moreover, Jung explains extrovert individuals affected by the objective world, the world outside him. The orientation was particularly drawn out, thoughts, feelings, and actions mainly determined by the environment, either social or non-social environment, a positive attitude towards people, his heart was open, sociable, and connected with others.

Introvert individuals affected by the subjective world, a world in it. The orientation focused on thoughts, feelings, and actions mainly determined by subjective factors, the adjustment to the outside world are less prolific, his soul is closed, difficult to get along, it is difficult to connect to others, and do not able to attract other attention. Kirmayer (2004) describes individuals with introvert personality will tend to have problems for themselves in the future. Consequently, if facing a problem they are reluctant to reveal to others, and eventually become a problem piles.

Methodology

The research method used was a causal relationship in path analysis, where researchers can manipulate the variables treatment and then study the effect on the criterion variable (Kadir, 2015: 241). In this case, the researchers need to control conditionally to the variables that are not relevant for the results obtained in the variable criterion is believed to be caused by the manipulated variable. The research samples were 55 students consisting of 25 female students and 20 male students.

Findings and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire said that the student's ability to communicate were in the middle level, which means a student has average ability to communicate; while the personality types were extroverts and introverts (based on a questionnaire adopted from Eysenck). Then the test results stated that the relationship between gender and communication skills of the students were at -0.004 significance value (<0.05), the

relationship between personality type and communication skills of students by 0,100 students (> 0.05), and the relationship between personality type and gender of students with a value of 0.145 (> 0.05). In other words, the results of the study did not show any significant difference between the achievement of students' speaking skills with the type of introvert and extrovert personality, student's academic speaking skill achievement with communication skills, as well as academic speaking skill achievement with gender. Results of the analysis show no differences in academic speaking skill achievement, both in terms of the type of personality, communication skills, and gender. Rejection of the hypothesis can be caused by several factors, both technical and conceptual nature. Technically, it can be evaluated from measuring the instrument, the students, and the research design. Measuring the instruments used to note the extent to which the measuring instrument can distinguish the individual personality types in the introvert and extrovert personality types. Other limitations include the implementation of incidental research data; consequently the researchers cannot control it. In short, the students do not answer the questions which reflect the situation themselves. Theoretically it can be explained that the results show no significant difference between the achievements of academic speaking skills with a personality type. This is because the personality is not the only factor in student academic speaking skills achievement. Academic speaking skills achievement if the terms of sex between male and female students show no significant difference. Probably, due to the stereotypes that exist in society to men and women who began in line with gender balance. So, in terms of the nature that man is masculine, with the characteristics of handsome, mighty, and rational, while women who rated more feminine by nature gentle, emotional, affectionate. Differences of masculinity and femininity effect on the scope of activity, type of work, consequences of work and an appreciation of the work (Kusumaningtyas 2006 in Annisah, 2007).

Communication for individual has several functions, namely:

1. The function of emotion, communication through individual can express his emotions and feelings, and meet social needs.
2. The functions of information, decision-making depends on the quality and quantity of information. Communication provides the information needed to identify individuals to recognize problems, conclude and take decisions.

3. The function of motivation, with communication individual can understand, coordinate the actions themselves, motivate and devise a strategy to achieve the goal of self.

4. The control function, as a control individual behavior.

Communication has the principal function to convey a message or information from one individual to another. Those functions are very important to build understanding among individuals as well as the function to express his emotions, meet social needs, and motivate each other.

The aspects of communication consist of four sections (Johnson, 1991). Whereas in the process of the fourth aspect of communication cannot be separated from one another. Communication aspects, namely;

1. Aspects of sending a message; is a person's ability to convey information or message both verbally and nonverbally to others.

2. Aspect received the message; include the ability to receive information or message sent others as a communicator. The examples of this aspect are the ability to hear, capture nonverbal languages, and the meaning of an information or message.

3. Aspects of asking for feedback; namely the ability to ask for feedback from those who sent information or messages. Request feedback can be done verbally is asked directly, or are nonverbal by using body language.

4. Aspects of giving feedback; is the ability to provide feedback on the message or information received. It is useful to convey that information has been received and also to equate the notion of messages sent.

Good communication can improve interpersonal relationships which should have three factors in it, namely trust (believe), supportiveness (supportive attitude), and open-mindedness (openness). Believe will determine the effectiveness of communication; it gained from the trust. First, believe will improve interpersonal communication as open channels of communication, clarifying the sending and receiving of information, as well as expanding opportunities to reach the point communicant. If you do not want to disclose how your feelings and thoughts, so people would not understand who you really are. One interpersonal perception about yourself will be disrupted. People may have the wrong interpretation about you. Without trust there will be no understanding. Without understanding the primary communication failure occurs. Second, the lack of trust in others will hinder the development of interpersonal relationships that are familiar. If you

feel your friend is not honest and open, you will give the same response. As a result, the relationship will take place in shallow and deep. Familiarity only happens, if we all are willing to express their feelings and thoughts. Clearly, without trust there will be a secondary communication failure. Supportive attitudes will reduce defensiveness in communication. As a result of interpersonal communication failure occurs. And result in the failure to create good interpersonal relationships. Openness brings great influence in the growth of effective interpersonal communication.

Conclusions

Based on the results of the study did not show any significant differences between the achievements of academic speaking skills of students with introverted or extroverted personality types, achievement of academic speaking skills with communication skills, as well as academic speaking skills achievement with gender. Results of the analysis show no differences in academic speaking skills achievement, both in terms of the type of personality, communication skills, and gender. Rejection of the hypothesis can be caused by several factors, both technical and conceptual nature. Technically, it can be evaluated from the measuring instrument, the students, and research design. Measuring instruments used to note the extent to which the measuring instrument can distinguish the individual personality types in the introvert and extrovert personality types. Other limitations include the implementation of incidental research data; consequently the researchers cannot control it. In short, the students do not answer the questions which reflect the situation themselves.

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Title

School-Based EFL Curriculum Implementation in Indonesian Primary Schools:
A Perspective of Bernstein's Pedagogic Device

Author

Iskandar, M.Ed., Ph.D

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Iskandar is a senior lecturer at English Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. He has been teaching EFL since 1994. His areas of interest include EFL curriculum policy and implementation, and materials development in ELT. He has a Ph.D from Curtin University, Australia. He can be reached at iskandar@unm.ac.id.

Abstract

Despite the emergent of the Indonesian 2013 curriculum, the 2006 curriculum which is widely known as KTSP is still implemented nationwide. This qualitative study was aimed at investigating Indonesian primary EFL teachers' understanding of and attitude towards the Indonesian National Standards of Education (NS) which comprise of Content Standards (CS), Process Standards (PS), and Graduate Competency Standards (GCS) as frameworks for constructing KTSP. The NS contains only general curriculum guidelines for all school subjects from primary to secondary schools. Teachers' understanding of and attitudes towards the NS determine the way they interpret and translate the policies of the standards into their specific school contexts. By employing ethnographic interviewing technique, the study revealed that teachers have sufficient knowledge of the underpinning principles and the features of the NS. In terms of attitudes, the study showed that most teachers adhered to the NS; yet by two distinctive reasons: interactive and coercive. Some others preferred adaptation, and yet a few of them articulated their incompatibility with the NS. Through classroom observation, practice of adaptation was evident. Bernstein's theory of pedagogic device signifies these teachers' adaptation to the NS as an act of recontextualization.

Key Words: *KTSP, teachers' understandings, teachers' attitudes, Bernstein's pedagogic device*

Introduction

Current Indonesian curriculum policy adopts the notion of partnership (Kirk & MacDonald, 2001); advocating the integration of top-down and bottom-up strategies of innovation. This new genre of curriculum policy is established through the effectuation of National Standards of Education (NS) which contain only general curriculum guidelines for school subjects from primary to secondary schools. Teachers need to have an understanding of what is intended by the NS when they construct their school-based curriculum which is known as KTSP. Teachers' attitudes is another factor that influences the success of innovation (Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996; Markee, 1993). If teachers' views are incompatible with an innovation, it is likely that they will be resistant to it (Brown, 1980; Haney, Czerniak, & Lumpe, 1996; Levitt, 2001). In terms of the NS, teachers' resistance means they may not use the NS as their guideline in constructing their KTSP. These two factors, among others, determine the way they interpret and translate the policies of the standards into their specific contexts. This study was aimed at investigating primary EFL teachers' understanding of and attitudes towards the NS as the framework for the making of their KTSP in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia.

Literature Review

Research has revealed that the way curriculum is implemented does not always reflect what curriculum designers intended (Smith & Southerland, 2007). Among the factors that make it difficult to implement curriculum innovation are teachers' understandings, their background training or educational background, lack of guidance, and the influence of textbooks. Of these factors, teachers' understandings play a significant role in the degree of implementation of innovation. Cheung and Wong (2012) in their study also found that one of factors affecting the implementation of curriculum reform in Hong Kong is the inadequate teachers' understanding of the reform (p. 39). Carless (1998) advocated that in order for teachers to successfully implement an innovation, they need to understand both the theoretical principles and the classroom application of that innovation

Teachers' attitudes may also impact on the implementation of innovation. According to Kennedy and Kennedy (1996, p. 351), the implementation of change in classrooms requires changes in both teacher and student behaviour. Teachers' attitudes play a part in this behaviour (Carless, 1998). When their attitudes are compatible with a proposed innovation, the implementation of the innovation is likely to harvest a positive result. Ultimately, teachers determine the fate of a curriculum innovation (Ball, 1994). Teachers' view about curriculum regulates their practice, and will affect how they decide the content of curriculum (Kable, 2001).

Conceptual Framework

In Indonesian context, the nature of political discourse can be exemplified by who has authority to make curriculum policy, for what intention, and under what conditions. Two sets of actors are involved in this respect, government officials/agents and individual teachers/group of teachers. Each of these sides use their power to control the curriculum implementation by selecting the contents of subjects, sequencing knowledge based on their expertise, managing the instruction, and imposing pedagogic strategy in the classroom. To illuminate the practice of such curriculum implementation, Bernstein's theoretical framework, the pedagogic device (1990, 1996, 2000), was adopted in this study.

According to Bernstein (1996), there are three sets of hierarchical rules that govern school instruction, namely distributive, recontextualizing, and evaluative (cited in Wright & Froehlich, 2012, p. 215). Distributive rules generate knowledge standards. In the context of this study, knowledge standardization is conducted by setting the NS to be used by teachers in constructing their KTSP. At this stage, the main actors are the government officials or agents. Recontextualizing rules is the derivation of the distributive rules in which knowledge standards represented by the NS is connected to its transmission through classroom interactions. Therefore, the NS is removed from its original form and turned into another form: the school-based curriculum for English subject at school. Teachers are the actors at this stage. Evaluative rules operate at two sides of actors. At government's side, the evaluative rules are employed by revising the NS and or by making additional curricular choices. At teachers' side, the evaluative rules are employed by highlighting what is or is not worthy for students to learn. Therefore, it is anticipated that teachers may not decide the content of the curriculum equally in their

pedagogic practice. In light with this kind of discourse, it is likely that ‘potential discursive gap’ (Bernstein, 1996, p.30) will take place.

Methods

This qualitative study employed ethnographic interviewing technique (Bauman & Adair, 1992), and classroom observation to collect data. Thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998) was employed to analyse teachers’ responses to the interview questions, and has been categorized into themes. Classroom observation was aimed at finding evidence of what the teachers reported they practiced in their EFL teaching. The participants of the interview study were eleven primary EFL teachers of Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. Classroom observation involved other four primary EFL teachers from the province.

Findings

The interview revealed that teachers generally acknowledged the underpinning of the NS. Some teachers described some points that they believe to be parts of the principles underpinning the NS; that the NS is enacted through an active, creative, effective, and fun teaching learning process; that the NS suggests a multi strategy approach; that the curriculum set by the schools should integrate the national and regional potencies into the contents of their teaching materials. Of the substance of the NS, the CS containing standard of competencies and basic competencies were considered to be the most important by the majority of interviewed teachers. The reason was that teachers use them to construct a syllabus and develop their lesson plans. In terms of flexibility, the majority of teachers affirmed that the NS is flexible, which enables them to construct their school curriculum based on their school’s condition and environment. The majority of them, however, found that the framework is too general. This is not surprising, since the NS consists of three separate national standards: CS, PS, and GCS. This circumstance creates confusion for teachers. The interviewed teachers claimed that the competence standard as the basis for syllabus construction is too difficult for primary school students. They also claimed that the objectives set in the GCS are too difficult to achieve.

In terms of teachers’ attitudes, some of the interviewed teachers said the NS is good enough as a guideline for the construction of their school curriculum. They noted that the NS is informative, and very satisfactory. A few teachers argued that it is a must

for them to refer to the NS, no matter how the shape of the NS is. Some other teachers accepted the NS to certain extent, particularly in relation to the standard of competencies and basic competencies. However, they said they need to adapt the NS in order to suit their students' needs, and their school's condition. They found that they have to use their creativity to modify the NS for the context of their teaching. Teachers also acknowledged that they need to lower the level of difficulty of the teaching objectives, and prepared teaching materials that are easy for their students. The majority of them affirmed that they combined the NS with their own school curriculum and advocated that it should be improved, and adapted it to be more contextual to their classroom. Still, other teachers implied that they were not in favour of the NS. They did not construct their KTSP based on the NS. They used other resources. They argued that they know their students better than others do, so they understand what kind of materials were needed.

Discussion

Using the concept of Bernstein's pedagogic device, it revealed that teachers have sufficient understanding of the distributive rules that the government has set in the NS. However, through their pedagogic discourse they have different attitudes in applying these rules into their classroom contexts. From their interaction with the NS as the distributive rules, most teachers viewed the NS as a comprehensive and informative reference; therefore they maintain their fidelity. Yet, few teachers from this fidelity group showed their adherence simply because they looked the NS as a must for teachers to refer to.

Some other teachers perceived that the NS as too wide-ranging; making it less specific. Therefore, as an act of recontextualizing, they adapt it to suit to the specific context of their classroom. This was evident in their pedagogic practice; such as lowering the level of difficulty of their teaching objectives, and applying methods appropriate with their students although these methods are not really compatible with CLT, the recommended approach in the NS for teaching EFL.

In terms of the incompatibility of some teachers with the NS, it has been anticipated that with this type of curriculum discourse, a 'potential discursive gap' (Bernstein, 1996) would likely to occur. In other words, this gap is the result of the teachers' pedagogic discourse in which they see the NS not applicable in their classroom

context, and that therefore they make their own school curriculum based on other resources.

Teachers' application of the evaluative rules was demonstrated in the three stands above. The fidelity group adopted the NS as it is as they perceived it as well-constructed. The adaptive group did modification to suit to their school context. The incompatible group did not refer their KTSP to the NS. Such different practices should become input for the government to revise the NS in order to be practical to all teachers.

Conclusion

Bernstein's (1990, 1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic device suggested that as policy implementation involves several actors at different level, there is always every possibility that the curriculum is not implemented as originally intended. Each actor has his/her own view and it influences how he / she implements it, hence the actualized curriculum. Central to this is that teachers should have capability to recontextualize the NS into their specific classroom context. Apparently, primary EFL teachers of South Sulawesi in Indonesia have adequate competence in translating the NS into their KTSP construction, yet they vary in their pedagogic practice.

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Title

A Case Study of Improving the Speaking Ability of 5-Year-Old Child using Android Application

Author

Jelita F.S Napitupulu

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

In globalization era, awareness of the importance of English has had an impact on the needs of English language teaching, including to the young learners. Teaching English at an early age is commonly found. Particularly in Indonesia, most of the organizers of the program for early childhood education (ECD) and Kindergarten (TK) organize English language learning program for the learners. Kindergarten schools based montessori, or based a curriculum which adopts an international curriculum become great demand from the public. This phenomenon proves that the community is more trusted on the notion of *the golden age*, which is early childhood is the best period to absorb various things, including the ability to speak English.

Mastery of English in early childhood cannot be equated with adult. Teaching English for children is limited on vocabulary recognitions that are often encountered in their environment. English language acquisition as a *foreign language* cannot be compared with the English language acquisition in the context of English as a *second language*. In Indonesia, English is as a foreign language, not as a second language that is used every day after the mother tongue. Thus, the environment for supporting English language acquisition in early childhood is not commonly found in Indonesia.

In the context of foreign language teaching, Krashen (1982) distinguishes between the term *acquire* and *learn*. *Acquire* is a term that refers to the process of language acquisition naturally and unconsciously, as a result of exposure the language continously. Meanwhile, *learn* is an explicit effort of someone to learn a foreign language. It means that there is awareness in the process of language acquisition. Typically, the process of *learning* is used for adults. In the context of second

language acquisition in early childhood, the *acquire* process is considered better than the *learning* process.

The improvement of foreign language knowledge in child's cognitive system can be estimated by identifying the number of vocabulary already known, and the ability to use the language in communication. Especially, when child is talking, the sounds that are produced can be a picture of his/her understanding of foreign language. That is why the identification can be done based on two things: (1) children know the meaning of words that are uttered and (2) children can pronounce vocabulary. When children pronounce vocabulary and their interlocutor understand the meaning correctly, then the process of talking as communication occurs.

The vocabulary improvement can be done in various ways through reading, listening or watching. Along with the development of information and communication, the opportunity to gain exposure of English is also increasingly widespread. By internet access, videos using English language can be obtained quickly and easily. Applications based English language learning on devices such as *Duolingo* and *English For Kid* can be downloaded and played anytime. Hence, the writer was interested in studying the use of English learning application on Android-based devices.

The writer was interested in studying a 5 year-old-child who is the writer's relative, so this research was a case study. The writer was interested in observing the development of English language proficiency of the child after he was given treatment in the form of exposure of English through *English for Kid* application that had downloaded on a device.

The *English for Kid* application was chosen because it was considered most appropriate to the needs of the subject as the user did not need to be able to read in using this application. The application consists of a collection of short animated videos containing daily conversation. The videos have duration between 1 to 30 minutes and are arranged based on a specific theme. In addition, the number of application downloads hit one million downloads, with the degree of user satisfaction 4.4/5 stars. Some testimonies from the users towards the application are also containing satisfied comments, so the writer is very sure to choose the application as a research instrument.

1.2. Research Problems:

Things that become the research problem in this research are as follows:

1. How does the influence of the use of the 'Application' to the vocabulary improvement of the child?
2. How does the influence of the use of Application to the improvement of speaking ability of the child?

1.3. The objectives

In accordance with the research problems, then the objectives of this paper is as follows:

1. Observing the vocabulary improvement of the 5-year-old child after having the treatment
2. Observing the improvement of speaking ability of the 5-year-old child after having the treatment

1.4. The scope of the Study

This research was a case study of 5-year-old child. This research focused on the vocabulary improvement of nouns and verbs, and measuring the improvement of speaking ability of the child to speak in English. Scope of analysis in this research was the analysis of the number of vocabularies acquired by the child before, during, and after getting the treatment by using android-based learning media. The writer of the research focused on vocabulary acquisition, which was verified by an oral test, because the subject of the research cannot read and write. The themes of nouns examined were *Things, Colors, Clothes, My body*. Meanwhile, the verbs examined included activities and movements of children, such as *smile, run, play*, and so on.

1.5. Previous Researches

(Hakuta, 1976) conducted a study about English acquisition to the 5-year-old girl of Japanese native speaker. Hakuta study is a longitudinal study conducted over 60 weeks, since the child aged 5.4 up to 6.4 years old. In his research, Hakuta contributed to the data on the formation of the second language grammatically morpheme that occurred in 5-year-old child.

The Research (Puspita, 2013) used the strategy of active playing to improve children's English vocabulary. This research was a classroom action research conducted on a group of kindergarten children in a foundation in Bandung. In her research, she

used *Total Physical Response* to allow children to play and learn English joyfully. The implementation of the TPR method that can be packed with activities that involve body activities allowed the teachers to use a strategy of active playing in organizing English language learning for young learners.

In her research, Puspita used some instruments which were assessment for performance, observation sheet, interviews and documentation. The process of English vocabulary learning of children through a strategy of active playing was conducted in three stages. The first stage was that the teacher introduced vocabulary target to the children based on the learning theme using the media prepared through *listen* and *repeat* activities. The next stage was playing a game that can develop cognitive, motoric, and affective of the children. The last stage, teachers assessed the English language proficiency of the children which consisted of the ability to show the appropriate pictures and mention the English vocabulary based on the teacher's instructions. In this study, she concluded that the use of active playing strategies can improve the early childhood's understanding of English vocabulary.

The studies conducted by Hakuta (1976) and Puspita (2013) became the idea for the writer who is also the researcher in this paper to learn a second language development of 5-year-old child who is the writer's relative. The study conducted by Hakuta was a long-term research, while the writer of this paper conducted a short-term research which was only for two weeks. The study conducted by Puspita (2013) used *Total Physical Response*, which involved psychomotoric motoric, and cognitive activities to a group of children. Whereas, the research conducted in this paper involved cognitive activity to the one child.

2. Theoretical Reference

1.1 Language Development in Children

Language is the transformation of ideas and ideas that exist in the human mind in the form of symbols and specific code both verbal and nonverbal. Language is a tool used by humans to deliver feelings, messages, or information. Language is also used to interact with each other. A child uses language to adapt with the environment, explain the needs and communicate about his/her desires.

Lundsteen, divides the language development into 3 stages, namely:

1) Prelinguistic Stage – At the age of 0-3 months, the sound in and comes from the throat. – At the age of 3-12 months, they most using lips and palate, for instance ma, da, ba.

2) Protolinguistic Stage – At the age of 12 months - 2 years, children have understood and show the parts of the body. They start talking few words (the vocabularies are about 200-300 words).

3) Linguistic Stage – At the age of 2-6 years or above, at this stage the children start learning the grammar, and the development of the vocabularies achieve 3000 words.

In Indonesian dictionary, ability comes from the word able which means the first capable (can, could) to do something and the second exist. The ability itself has a meaning capability; skill; strength (Depdiknas, 2005: 707). Speaking in general can be defined as a delivering the intentions (idea, thought, notion, or feeling)of one person to another by using spoken language so that this intention can be interpreted by other people (Depdikbud, 1984: 7).

Suhartono (2005: 22) defines speaking as a delivering specific intention to utter language sounds so that the sounds can be understood and heard by the people. Samuel A Kirk argues that speaking includes the ability to pronounce the sounds (Sardjono, 2005: 6). These sounds are a fusion of sounds that form words, then words into something that has the full meaning. Speaking becomes a tool that helps in the development of a formal language.

Moreover, Hurlock (1978: 176) argues that speaking is a form of language using articulation or words used to convey meaning. According to Hurlock, speaking is motoric mental ability that involves coordination of collection different muscle sound, and mental aspect of a person to associate meaning with the sound produced. While Hariyadi and Zamzani (1997: 54) argue that speaking is essentially a process of communication as it occurs a message from a source to another place. Speaking is a demanding of the needs of human life. As social beings, humans will communicate with others using language as the main tool.

Language was used to communicate with others to convey ideas, thoughts and notions. Stewart and Kenner Zimmer looked at the needs for effective communication is regarded as an essential to achieve success for every person, both individual and group activities (Suhartono, 2005: 21). From the various definitions discussed previously, the writer takes the conclusion that speaking ability is capability, ability to deliver the

thoughts, ideas, hopes, and knowledge to others in the form of words which mean that what the child wants can be understood by other people.

1.2 Characteristics of Children's Speaking Ability

Children's speaking ability is definitely different than adult's speaking ability. There are two characteristics of children speaking ability (Hurlock, 1976: 191), namely: (a) Speaking focus on himself (egocentric) and (b) speaking focus on others (socialization)

Ginsberg and Opper said that children use language in a non-communicative and communicative way (Paul Saparno, 2001: 55):

a. The use of non-communicative language

There are three ways of language usage, among other:

- (1) The child imitates what he or she just hear. The child imitates other people unconsciously.
- (2) The child is talking to himself (monolog). Sometimes, a child speaks to himself loudly without the desire to communicate to others such as when he's playing.
- (3) Monolog among friends. Sometimes, a child talks t himself a bit louder even though he is in the circle of his friends. Some children sitting together can talk to themselves without the intention to connect with his or her other friends.

b. The use of communicative language.

The child starts to interact with other people. For example, children try to explain how to play the game or sometimes they criticize another child. Children talk to each other and respond what another child has said, although the often miscommunicate it.

Bredenkamp and Copple mentioned characteristics of 5 years old children's ability are as follows (Ramli, 2005: 189 & 192-193):

1. Using vocabulary around 5.000 to 8.000 by frequently playing with words; pronouncing with little difficulty, except for certain sounds such as /r/.
2. Using a more perfect or complex sentence.
3. Take a turn in a conversation, rarely interrupt other people; listening to other people conversation if the information is new and interesting; showing the remaining of egocentrism in the conversation. For example, considering listener will understand what he or she means.
4. Sharing experience verbally; knowing words in various songs.

- e. Like to imitate other people role, showing off in front of new people or become very shy in an unexpected moment.
- f. Remembering simple pottery lines and fully express it in sentences and expressions from other people, including clues and TV advertisements.
- g. Showing off his or her skill in using conventional means of communication with pitch and tone of voice changes.

1.3 Factors Affecting English Language Learning in Children

a) Internal Factor

Internal factor means things that affect English Language learning that come from individual children. Including the age rate, learning motivation, good hearing and speaking ability and linguistic skill (talent).

b) External factor

According to Suyanto (2008: 21) factor that influences English Language Learning in early childhood, among others: 1. Family, which includes family background and mother tongue, 2. School, which include teaching material, learning media, and social interaction.

2. Research

1.1. Object of the research

The object of the research is Alice, (A) a 5-year-old girl who is the nephew of the author and she lives with the author. The author chose to observe with the hope of overseeing her development directly and continually. A is a kindergarten student level B in a private education foundation in East Jakarta. A lives in an environment that uses the Indonesian language, and she only gets English Language learning once a week for 50 minutes in the school.

1.2. Research procedure

The study was conducted for two weeks by implementing pre-test, mid-test, and post-test. The form of the conducted test was an oral test, the researcher asked A to confirm A's vocabulary particularly nouns and verbs. A number of nouns and verbs were listed in a table and was used as a reference to conduct the test. Intended nouns and verbs

were nouns and verbs that commonly appear in the video application. Especially for nouns, the author chose nouns with four themes, namely: Things, Colours, Clothes, My body. The pre-test was conducted in the first week. The researcher noted word that already known to A and words that she hasn't known.

English Language exposure using android application was done against A for 6 hours of treatment. The selected android application was English for Kid. This application consists of short animation video collection with daily conversations. The video duration is between 1 – 30 minutes and listed according to a certain theme. For example, on the “At the School” topic, there is cartoon animation video with simple daily conversations between the teacher and student, student and student, student and his or her parents with school background. This application allows the user to choose the video they want based on the topic. A was asked to play with the English for Kid application for 15-30 minutes every day.

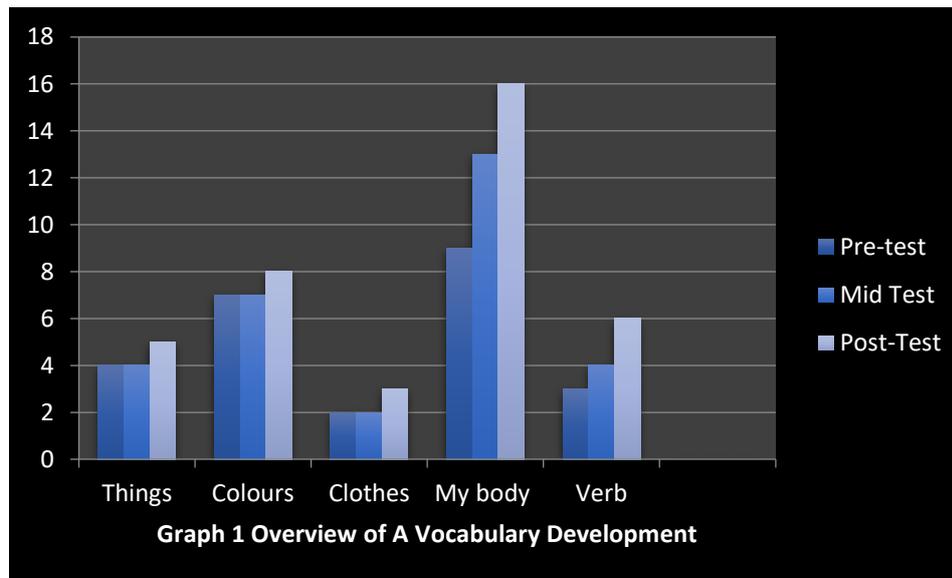
Mid-test was done after A experienced 3 hours exposure, which was at the beginning of the second week. Meanwhile, post-test was done at the end of the second week, which was after A played with English for Kid application for 6 hours. In conducting the mid-test and post-test, the author confirmed words that have been known to A by asking her, based on the listed table before the research. Words that have been known by A was checked.

3. Results

After conducting a study against A for two weeks, on the pre-test, it was found 25 English language words that have been known by A, which were 22 nouns and 3 verbs. On the mid-text, it was found 31 words, 27 nouns, and 4 verbs. It means that there were 5 nouns and one verb development. Meanwhile, on the post-test, it was found 33 words, which was 32 verbs and 6 verbs. The results of the study can be summarized and illustrated with tables and graphs below:

| Theme: | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Things | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| Colours | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| Clothes | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| My body | 9 | 13 | 16 |
| Verb | 3 | 4 | 6 |
| Total | 25 | 31 | 38 |

Table 1.1 Overview of A Vocabulary Development



4. Discussion

The conducted research illustrates the increase in the number of words known by A within two weeks period. The increase of words happened on every theme, namely Things, Colours, Clothes, My body. Table and graphs show that there was a rise of A's English Language words on the first week, which was My Body nouns and verbs. The increase of words was thumb, hair, leg, and elbow. However, A experienced difficulty in produce 'arm' word, marked with xx (result enclosed). This happens because A was difficult to differentiate word concept of 'hand' (*tangan*) and 'arms' (*lengan*). Meanwhile, on clothes theme, there was a rise as much as one word, which was pants (*celana pendek*). This is in line with Vigotsky concept that cognitive devolvement occurs when a child is able to associate his or her knowledge with everyday life.

During the android application exposure, the researcher did not do knowledge confirmation, in the hope that the confirmation was one of learning methods, meanwhile, this research was a focus on the acquire concept (unconscious language absorption). On the mid-test, there was naturally scaffolding to stimulate A in revealing her knowledge. Scaffolding here including on the 'learning' concept but suppressed by forming similar daily conversation test

To see the words usage in daily conversation, the research using the English Language with A when A was changing her clothes, eating, and when she was playing. For example:

The researcher : “*Dedek*, what are you doing?”
A : “Yes!”
The researcher : “*Maksudnya, kamu lagi apa?*”
A : “*ganti baju?*”
The researcher : “*Mau pake pants or skirt?*”
A : “Pants”
The researcher : “*O, kamu pakai rok, ya?*”
A : “*Celana!*”

In this case, it can be indicated that A already knew the meaning of pants and produce its utterance well. However, the research gave some option to A, “pants or skirt”, which was one of the scaffolding forms.

Meanwhile, after conducting pre-test, it showed that A already knew new communication expression, which didn't find on pre-test and mid-test, such as: “I don't know”, and “let's go!.” It is estimated that it was the result of exposure using the application because A pronounced it using British English accent just like in the video. English language learning at A's school is still using words, and A's teacher doesn't use English British accent. This is in line with Bredekamp and Cople that children under five years old are able to demonstrate skills in using conventional means of communication complete with pitch and tone of voice changes. In this case, A imitated characters in the video available in the android application.

5. Conclusion

This research is a qualitative method with a mix of quantitative method. Quantitative mythology was used for a simple calculation to see the rise in the number of vocabularies as a form of cognitive development after receiving the treatment. A qualitative method was used to explain the development of A's communicative ability after the treatment. This study showed an increase in the vocabulary of children who were exposed to English using the application in the device. This research requires more in-depth analysis with a longer period of the research.

The researcher suggests conducting a study that focuses on the early childhood motivation with the usage of devices as a language exposure. This is due to the discovery such as the child's motivation fluctuated during the study, as well as a disturbance in the form of interest in the game application. The researcher also suggests creating a research android device and application use as English teaching materials for boys at an early age.

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Attachment 1: Vocabulary Test

| ALICE WORD'S DEVELOPMENT | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| NOUNS | | | |
| Theme:My | Test | | |
| Body | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |
| Body | v | V | v |
| Ear | v | V | v |
| Face | v | V | xx |
| Nose | v | V | v |
| Lips | v | V | v |
| Eyes | v | V | v |
| Hand | v | V | v |
| Arms | | Xx | xx |
| Fingers | | | v |
| Tumb | v | V | v |
| Hair | | V | v |
| Head | v | V | v |
| Neck | | | |
| Legs | | V | v |
| Foot | v | V | v |
| Elbow | | V | v |
| Total | 9 | 14 | 16 |
| Theme: Clothes | | | |
| | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |
| Blouse | | | |
| Cap | | | |
| Hat | | | |
| Shirt | | | |
| Skirt | | v | v |
| Pants | | | v |
| Pantalon | | | |
| Shoes | v | v | v |
| Socks | v | v | v |
| Sweater | | | |
| Coat | | v | v |
| Total | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| Theme: Colours | | | |
| | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |

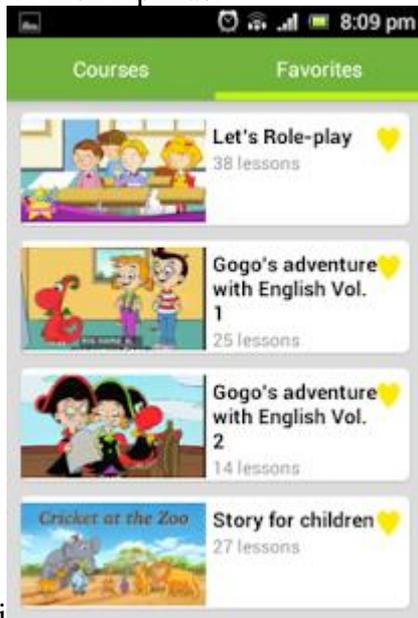
| | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| White | | | |
| Black | v | v | v |
| Red | v | v | v |
| Yellow | v | v | v |
| Pink | v | v | v |
| Blue | v | v | v |
| Green | v | v | v |
| Grey | | | |
| Orange | v | v | v |
| Purple | | | |
| Brown | | | xx |
| Total | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| | | | |
| Theme: Things | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |
| House | | | |
| Sofa | | | |
| Table | v | v | v |
| Lamp | | | xx |
| Plate | v | v | v |
| Spoon | v | xx | v |
| Refrigerator | | | |
| School | v | v | v |
| Total | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | |
| Verb | Test | | |
| | Pre-test | Mid Test | Post-Test |
| Smile | | | |
| Eat | v | v | v |
| Drink | v | v | v |
| Go | v | v | v |
| Come | | | |
| Fly | | | |
| Wash | | | |
| Belong | | | |
| Hug | | | |
| Play | | | v |
| Walk | | | |
| Run | | v | xx |
| Do | | | |
| Study | | | |
| Sing | | | xx |

| | | | |
|-------|---|---|---|
| Total | 3 | 4 | 6 |
|-------|---|---|---|

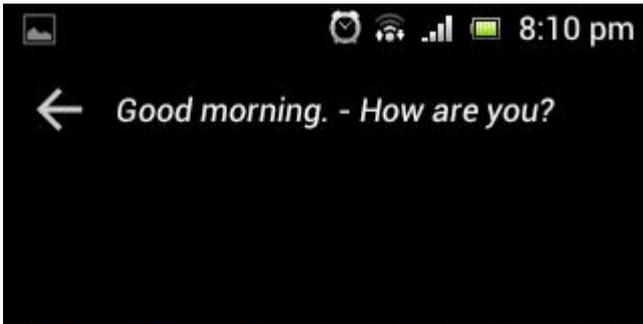
Attachment 2: Picture of App English For Kids



2.1 Ikon Aplikasi



2.1 Contoh bentuk isi aplikasi



Title

Supporting Bilingualism at Indonesia Language for Foreigner Program

Author

Juanda

Samawa University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Juanda is lecturer of Indonesian Language and Literature Education at Samawa University, Sumbawa, Indonesia. He research interests include Indonesian literature, Indonesian language policy, and Samawa language policy. He is currently completing Ph.D in Language Education Science from the Yogyakarta State University and teaches Indonesian literature and Indonesian language policy. He can be reached at juanda_unsa14@yahoo.co.id.

Abstract

In PP No. 57/2014 has four programs, namely: (1) usage of Indonesia at international forums; (2) development of Indonesia teaching program for foreigner; (3) improvement of linguistic and literary cooperation with foreign institutions; (4) development and empowerment of Indonesia learning centers; (5) other measures in accordance with the provisions of legislation. Language Center has planned “Indonesian Language for Foreigner Program” (ILFP). As organizers of ILFP, Office of International Affairs and Partnerships (OIAP) Yogyakarta State University (YSU) has developed very rapidly. OIAP held four short courses, namely: 1) ILFP for Regular; 2) ILFP for Darmasiswa; 3) ILFP for Transfer Credit; 4) ILFP for Tailor-Made.

This research is case study. The subjects are: ON and DSN (Burundi), ARR (Madagascar), AST (Myanmar), AF (Mali), SY and ASI (Thailand), and HO (Nigeria). Diversity will certainly affect the process of acquiring Indonesia language, so bilingual teaching is a rational choice. UNESCO itself supports bilingualism or multilingualism and essential component of intercultural at all levels of education. An article examines

the practice of bilingual teaching at ILFP organized by OIAP YSU, such as language ecology.

Keywords: *ILFP, bilingualism, language policy*

Introduction

ILFP was very strategies in socialization of Indonesia. It is very helpful for students or foreign worker to plan in studying and working in Indonesia (Iskandarwassid & Sunendar, 2013; Firdaus, 2013). Indeed, cultural diplomacy had ever held by various countries, such as: England, France, Finland, United States, Chinese, India, Singapore, Philippines, Japan, Mozambique, Peru, and so on.

ILFP also had role as medium of cultural diplomacy at global (PP No. 57/2014; UU No. 24/2009; UUD/1945). It had organized by any institutions abroad, language centers and boards, universities, and schools. There are more than 500 of ILFP institutions are organizing ILFP oversea.

In 2050, Indonesia language will be used as regional language of ASEAN (Maurais, 2003: 17). Recently, foreign workers are about 70.000, while international students are 10.000 (<http://m.news.viva.co.id/>). It is necessity that teaching Indonesian language is really urgent, looked from side of economic, politic, culture, education, and demographic (population). Some universities had conducted ILFP, like OIAP of YSU. It was purposes to know how bilingualism is taught. UNESCO, AEC, and ASCC was very supports bilingualism.

Literature Review

Brown (2007: 6) said that the understanding of language such as: 1) language is systematic; 2) language is a set of arbitrary symbols; 3) those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual; 4) the symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer; 5) language is used for communication; 6) language operates in a speech community or culture; 7) language is essentially human, although it can be unlimited for human; 8) language is acquired by all people at the same ways, language learning had universal characteristic. Halliday (Brown, 2007: 246) states that there are eight function of language such as: 1) instrumental; 2) regulatory; 3) representational; 4) interaction; 5) personal; 6) heuristic; 7) imagination.

As the official language, Indonesian has multifunctional, those are namely: (1) public administration; (2) education and teaching; (3) national development; (4) the development of national literature; (5) improving the quality of mass media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television); and (6) the writing of textbooks and books of science (original and translation). As the national language, Indonesian has a function, such as: (1) the symbol of national pride; (2) symbol of national identity; (3) means the unification of the various peoples of different language backgrounds and socio-cultural life into the unity of the pride of Indonesia, and intercultural and inter-regional transportation facilities (Badudu, 1985: 4-34).

In the context of a state language, Rifa'I (2014: 210) argues that the Indonesian functions, among others: (1) in the implementation of public administration; (2) in education and teaching both run by the government or by the private sector; (3) in national development; (4) in the development of national literature; (5) improving the quality of mass media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television); and (6) in the study textbooks and books of science.

Meanwhile, as the national language, Slametmuljana (1959: 8-9) explains that the Indonesian can serve as: (1) the tools to run the state administration; (2) the tools to close the various tribes into one nation; and (3) the tools to accommodate new culture of national-faceted aspects concerning science and international culture. Similarly, J. S. Badudu (1985: 34) also said that the Indonesian serves as: (1) the symbol of national pride; (2) symbol of national identity; and (3) a means of unification of the various peoples of different language backgrounds and socio-cultural life into the unity of the pride of Indonesia, and intercultural and inter-regional transportation facilities. Furthermore, Maman (2012: 4) argues that language plays a central role in the development of the intellectual, social and emotional learning and is supporting the success in studying all fields of study. In addition, language has a central role in the development of intellectual, social, and emotional of student and is supporting the success in studying all fields of study.

Methodology

This research is case studies (Daymon & Holloway, 2002: 105; Creswell, 2008: 431-529). The subject of this studies is: ON and DSN (Burundi), ARR (Madagascar),

AST (Myanmar), AF (Mali), SY and ASI (Thailand), and HO (Nigeria). Seven is men, while one is woman.

Finding and Discussion

ILFP of YSU

ILFP held by Office of International Affairs and Partnerships (OIAP) Yogyakarta State University (YSU). The Vision and mission those are: 1) to have a role active in agenda of international as facilitator, planner, and implementer; 2) to do university promotion in country or abroad; 3) to organize attendance for foreign students and academic guest who studying at YSU very well and quality.

Around on 1990s, this program called *Indonesian Language Learning for Foreigner* (ILLF). It is conducted by Department of Language and Literature. ILLF students are most from Australia. On 2012, ILFP organized by OIAP. This office ever changed from *Office of Cooperation and Protocol*, then changing became *International Office*. On January 2012, it was to be two elements such as: 1) *International Office*; 2) *Office of Cooperation, Promotion, and Protocol*. Now is international and partnership.

ILFP consists of: (1) ILFP for Regular; (2) ILFP for Darmasiswa; (3) ILFP for Credit Transfer; (4) ILFP for Tailor-Made. ILFP for Regular is 3, such as: (1) to introduces basic Indonesian language for students; (2) to understand the simple practice in daily life and give the respond; (3) to understand using structure of basic Indonesian language. The participants of this program also following some courses.

ILFP for Darmasiswa organize with postgraduate students at YSU. The aims of it those are: (1) to prepare the students for follow the guest lecture; (2) to establish student to oral and write in Indonesia. Finally, ILFP for Tailor-Made (have get cooperation with YSU). This program planned for private necessary, such as: diplomate, economist, anthropologist, lawyer, and etc.

Bilingualism in ILFP

Being culture and Indonesian language knowledge is various and become obstacle for lecturer or tutor. Some students may be live in home environments where the language of the extended family reveals an ethnic, cultural, or national background that is different from that of the community. They may get difficult when learning. This following is interview result:

Very difficult, primary university lecture. I often find the lecturer who switch code in learning process, example: using Indonesian and Java language. Beside that I had difficulty to understand the meaning and explanation of lecturer who can speak quickly. At that time, I had been submitting query and suggesting a perception (DSN).

DSN often had hard experience if the lecturer explained the material in Indonesian language quickly. Beside that the lecturers also often to combine two language codes, example: Indonesia and Java language. That thing will be more to be adding embarrassment of DSN. It make difficult and challenge for him. The same thing also kept by SY and ASI.

What has to learn during ILFP, it can be different in practicality, example: in learning process. If there is a lecturer who teaching by using mix code, speak quickly, and low in voice, I certainly have difficulty for understand what the lecturer's says (SY).

Hard enough because all of related with academic in generally using Indonesian language. The mean is, learning Indonesian language is important for supporting teaching process and make socialization with the other people (ASI).

SY still have difficult experience when the lecturers mix two language code, and also speak quickly and low voice. He had been many times to sit in. During sit in, he often found problems. Meanwhile ASI realizes that learn with Indonesian language is necessity. He cannot image the difficulties what will be deal if Indonesian language is not good. ASI said that the language is very supports in education. If do not have good communication, it brings relation with academic or non-academic.

Now, I have been to adapt myself. If the master of Indonesian language is not good of course it to be constraint (ON).

I never do anything if I cannot speak Indonesian language. According to me, having writing skill is difficult then speaking (ARR).

Companion in university lecture will use Indonesian language. For me, Indonesian language clearly is important. You will be imagining how

difficult if somebody cannot mastering it. As a learner, I must to know of language and culture anywhere. (AST).

Hard enough to understand the explanation of the lecturer who always mix two language codes, example by using two languages like: Indonesian and Java language together (AF).

I still have difficult if the lecturer speak quickly. I gave a duty for working paper, I will try for attempt and do it (Ho).

ON, ARR, AST, AF, and HO recognize very important to master of Indonesian language very well. In contrary, it will be complicate yourself, especially for academic. They often remembered by the educators for increasing their language skill.

AF also have difficult with his roommate is still hard to understand what the lecturer say and explain. In addition, the lectures explain by using two language codes. HO also is feeling hard to understand the points what the lecturer says, especially for speaking quickly.

The students international get difficult when join lecturing. There are few factors, such as: (1) lecturer often used switch code (more than two languages), especially for Indonesian and Java language; (2) he/she speak too fast; and (3) he/she also speak too slow.

From those factors, bilingualism aims to use Indonesian and English language. The students feel pleasure and good because far from family. Besides that, adults can be master more three languages (Adam, 2004: 3-4; Bialystok, 2003: 2-4). Choosing English is to make comfortable.

Conclusion

ILFP still not involve the student need in choosing material learning, model and method of teaching. Because they have social, culture, experience, and knowledge in diversity. In this case, bilingual learning (use more the one language: Indonesian and English) is really suggested. It also supported by UNESCO and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community.

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Title

A Genre Analysis of 'About the Author' Texts in English Books

Author

Kyungsook Paik

Hanyang Women's Univ., S. Korea

Bio-Profile:

Kyungsook Paik is a Professor at Department of English, Hanyang Women's Univ., S. Korea. Her research interests include ethnography of communication, genre analysis, and interface of sociolinguistics and foreign language education. She has a Ph. D. in Education from Seoul National University and currently teaches Business English. This study was supported by Hanyang Women's University Grant (2015-2-012). The first draft of this paper was presented at 2016 Tesol Indonesia International Conference at University of Mataram, Lombok, Indonesia (Aug. 11-13). She can be reached at kspaik@hywoman.ac.kr

Abstract

This is a study of 'About the Author' texts (ATAs, hereafter) in English books within the academic tradition of ESP oriented Genre Analysis. Based on a belief that ATAs duly comprise a genre with a communicative goal, this study identifies the moves and strategies employed in those texts as well as some stylistic features. The analysis of 155 ATAs from 148 contemporary books in English published by 102 different companies shows the following results; 'Establishing Credentials' (EC) and 'Giving Personal Information' (GPI) were the two most preferred moves, followed by 'Offering Contacts' (OC) and 'Promoting the Book' (PB). The rhetorical structures, disclosed in the order of frequency were EC > EC+GPI > GPI+EC, followed by other miscellaneous patterns. Regarding the strategies of

Dept. of English, Hanyang Women's
University, (04763) Seongdong-gu,
Salgoji-gil 200, Seoul, S. Korea

these 2 moves, descriptions of the author's career, works, and awards were most favored for the move of EC and the information about the author's residence, identity, and birth for the move of GPI. The distribution of the strategies turned out to be influenced by various contextual factors, including genre of the books, the generic differences being most apparent between the literary and academic books. Finally, 'listing', 'apposition', and 'adjuncts' were found to be the most distinctive characteristics of the ATAs style. Based on all these results, this study argues that the ATAs in English can be regarded as promotional genre, another example of 'language in use' with significant pedagogical implications for students seeking generic competence in English.

Keywords: *'About the Author' texts, communicative purpose, genre analysis, move, strategy, rhetorical structure*

Introduction

This is an analysis of 'About the Author' texts (ATAs, hereafter) in English books within the academic tradition of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) oriented Genre Analysis. In spite of the wide variety of the text types being investigated recently in this tradition, the literature includes hardly any study of ATAs except Kathpalia (1997) which identified ATAs as one of the constructing 'moves' of the book blurb texts, and Paik (2016) which examined the ATAs in Korean books focusing on their rhetorical structures. The results of these studies not only revealed the nature of the ATAs but also aroused our interest in these texts across cultures.

In her study, Paik (2016) argues that the ATAs in Korean duly comprise an independent genre, a recognizable communicative event with basically promotional communicative purpose shared and mutually understood by the Korean discourse community. Adopting this view, this study also analyzes the rhetorical structures along with some stylistic features specific to ATAs in English books to answer the ultimate question, 'Why is a particular text-genre written the way it is?' in the train of genre analyses triggered by J. M. Swales and V. K. Bhatia (Swales, 1981, 1985, 1990; Bhatia, 1987, 1988, 1991, 1993; Swales & Bhatia, 1983, among others).

This empirical research would be significant in that it "seeks evidence for the rhetorical preferences" of contemporary ATAs and "infers the processing strategies whereby texts are individually constructed and construed in relation with social practices", ultimately clarifying "the specific ways for the conventionalized communicative purposes to be realized"

(Bhatia, 1993, ix-x, 3) in some English speaking communities. The results of this study would also make significant baseline data for further contrastive rhetorical studies as well as useful resources for teaching English as a second/foreign language.

Research topic: ‘About the Author’ texts as a genre

An ‘About the Author’ text is a part of a book which introduces the author. It is not an obligatory part but included in most English books. ATAs in English books usually appear on the back cover or the inside of the back cover, on the back flap, or on one of the other leaves of the book preceding or following the main text. ATAs vary in their length but usually consist of one or two paragraphs, often accompanied by the author’s photo.

By offering various information about the author, ATAs satisfy the (prospective/) readers’ curiosity, ‘Who is the author?’, ‘What is s/he like?’, or ‘Is s/he well qualified to write this book?’ Not infrequently, some characteristics of the author appear to be particularly emphasized to promote the book. According to Paik (2016), the usual contents of the ATAs, which must be the results of time honored interactions between publishers and the readers, disclose the goal of this communicative event understood and shared by the appropriate speech communities. The followings are usual forms of ATAs in English books.

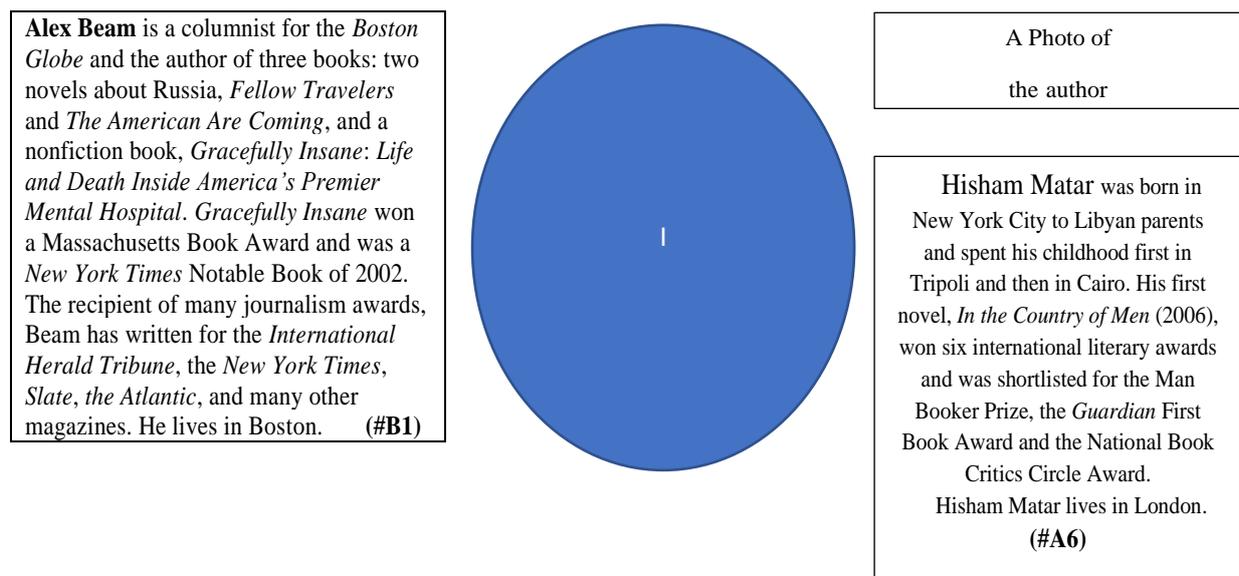


Figure 1: Examples of About the Author texts

(#B1): The ATA text in Beam, A. (2000). *A Great idea at the time*. Philadelphia: Public Affairs.

(#A6): The ATA text in Matar, H. (2012). *Anatomy of a disappearance*. London: Penguin Books.

Do ATAs comprise a genre? The word ‘genre’ is commonly used today in our daily lives to refer to certain types of arts, music, films, poems, novels, dance, and even jokes. Genre used to refer to a ‘form’ or ‘kind’ as in Aristotle’s *Poetics*, basically to classify literary works

(Flowerdew, 2010). Martin (1984) defined it as “a staged, goal oriented and purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (p. 25, as cited in Park, 2000, pp. 92-93). Similarly, in the tradition of genre analysis of ESP perspective, genre is understood as “a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs” (defined in Bhatia, 1993, p. 13, taken after Swales, 1981, 1985, 1990). Having reviewed the related literature and the classic definition of ‘communicative event’ by Hymes (1972), Paik (2016) argues that ATAs do constitute a proper genre, which are a certain type of a conventionally occurring texts with a goal. They have not only a specific ‘topic’ (the author) and a specific ‘goal’ (introduction of the author) but also a ‘physical setting’ (a book) and the same ‘channel’ (specific location in a book). They have recognizable ‘beginning’ and ‘end’, maintaining the same ‘interactants relationship’ (the author/publisher with the readers) throughout the text. This study is based on this view that an ATA text is a recognizable communicative event with communicative goal(s), making a proper genre.

Theoretical background and previous studies

Studies on the ‘About the Author’ texts

With hardly any previous studies on ATAs except Paik (2016), Kathpalia (1997) has been the single report available. Focusing on the cross-cultural differences between book blurbs of international publishers and local Singapore-based publishers, Kathpalia identified the ATAs as one of the moves constructing the book blurbs, labeling them ‘Establishing Credentials’.¹ However, suspecting that this analysis was mainly due to the geography of these texts, Paik (2016), in her study of ATAs in Korean books (ATAs, usually presented apart from the book blurbs) also pointed out that even the ATAs in English following book blurbs usually start with the name of the author in different font, size, and (sometimes) in different color along with the different spacing of the characters, which strongly suggests that the English ATAs may well constitute a separate genre².

According to Paik (2016), an ATA text is a presentation of only the ‘relevant selves’

¹ The other moves identified include ‘Headline’, ‘Justifying the Book’, ‘Appraising the Book’, ‘Endorsement’, and ‘Targeting the Market’.

² It is also mentioned that Paik had previewed ATAs in English books along with her study of Korean ATAs, mainly to find out if they all comprise an independent communicative event. Regarding the geography of the English texts, about 55% (out of 155 texts) are located on the back covers or on the back flaps following the book blurbs, while the other 45%, separately on the inside of the back covers or on other leaves preceding or following the main texts.

of the author among his/her countless aspects, which would satisfy the (prospective) readers' curiosity to know about the author's background and capability. She argues that these texts constitute a sub-genre within the range of various promotional texts. Paik also points out that the distributional patterns of the moves and the following strategies are the results of their interactions with some socio-cultural factors and cultural emphasis of the Korean speech community, which naturally arouses our academic interest in cross-cultural variation, inviting an analysis of the same texts in other speech communities with different social practices and cultural concerns.

Genre analysis

Discourse and genre analysis has been established as “an important field of study within linguistics, having implications for applied linguistics, especially in the teaching and learning of languages, mass communication, writing research, language reform and a number of other areas related to professional and academic communication” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 313). In the literature, concerns about genre have formed 3 broad traditions (Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2004); The Systemic Functional Linguistics focusing on discourse structures and registers, the New Rhetoric in which genre is understood as social action, and ESP oriented genre analyses. While the first two traditions are basically interested in one's native language regarding writing and teaching, the other approach to texts had been formed out of the concerns of teaching a foreign language. Taking communicative purposes as the key characteristics of a genre, it offers “a dynamic explanation of the way expert users of language manipulate generic conventions to achieve a variety of complex goals associated with their specialist disciplines, focusing attention on the variation in the language use by members of various disciplinary cultures” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 313). Bhatia (1997), drawing attention to the importance of ‘generic competence’ in addition to the ‘communicative competence’ in language teaching, enumerated four aspects of genre acquisition; ‘Knowledge of the code’, ‘genre knowledge’, ‘sensitivity to cognitive structuring’, and ‘genre ownership.’ This line of research has focused on the staged ‘moves’ and their processing ‘strategies’ along with some stylistic features to achieve the communicative goals of various professional genres beginning with academic writings and legal texts (Swales, 1981, 1990; Bhatia, 1982, 1983, 1993). ESP perspective have naturally diversified the texts analyzed, inviting studies (often with contrastive rhetorical concerns) of other types of writings such as academic research proposals (Myers, 1985; Johns, 1993; Henry & Roseberry, 1997; Connor & Mauranen, 1999), business related writings (Jenkins & Hinds, 1987; Connor, 1988; Zhu, 2000; Henry & Roseberry, 2001; Gao & Lee, 2012; Park & Jeon, 2014), newspaper editorials (Dantas-Whitney & Grabe, 1989), and political discourses (Bolivar, 1992) as well.

Bhatia (1993) emphasizes “a combination of socio-cultural (including ethnographic) and

psycholinguistic (including cognitive) aspects of text-construction and interpretation with linguistic insights” (p. 11) to answer the long pursued question, ‘Why are specific discourse-genres written and used by the specialist communities the way they are?’ This generic knowledge would matter for anybody “to arrive at a significant form-function correlations which can be utilized for a number of applied linguistic purposes.” (Swales, 1981, as cited in Bhatia, 1993, p. 11)

Moves and strategies

‘Moves’ and ‘strategies’ are constructing units to bring about the conventionalized regularities in the organization of the texts. Moves are identified as discriminative elements of generic structure (Bhatia, 1993) or functional units (Connor & Mauranen, 1999), which are to be used to achieve a particular goal within the text (Henry & Roseberry, 2001). They form the schematic structure and constrain the contents and style of a discourse (Swales, 1990). A move contains at least 1 proposition regardless of the length (Connor & Mauranen, 1999) but does not necessarily conform to sentential unit (see some analyses in Bhatia, 1993).

‘Strategies’ (or ‘steps’) are semantic-functional units to serve the purpose of the moves. The term strategy is used to mean how the writer or speaker choose to realize, or execute the move (Bhatia, 1993). The term step is used if a move can only be realized by a series of strategies in a particular order (Swales, 1990, also confer Henry & Roseberry, 2001).

For example, the ‘Research Space Model for Article Introduction’ (Swales, 1981) based on the analysis of 48 research article introductions of various fields is probably the first cognitive move structure identified, which was revised into the well-known CARS (‘Create a Research Space’ model, Swales, 1990) later. Similarly, Henry & Roseberry (2001) specified 11 moves as the constructing units of Letters of Job Application in English as in Figure 2.

| | |
|---|---|
| <p>Research Space Model for Article Introductions (Swales, 1981): ;</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Establishing the Research Field Summarizing Previous Research Preparing for the Present Research Introducing the Present Research ↓ ↓</p> <p>CARS Model (Swales, 1990):</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Establishing a Territory Establishing a Niche Occupying the Niche</p> | <p>Moves of Job Application Letters (Henry & Roseberry, 2001):</p> <p>Opening Referring to a Job Advertisement Offering a Candidature Stating Reasons for Applying Stating Availability Promoting the Candidate Stipulating Terms and Conditions of Employment Naming Referees Enclosing Documents Polite Ending Signing Off</p> |
|---|---|

Figure 2: Examples of move structure analysis

Genre analyses of this tradition so far have shown that a move is realized by at least (or more than) a couple of strategies. For example (as in Swales, 1981), the writer may ‘Establish the Research Field’, either by (1) asserting centrality of the topic, (2) stating current knowledge, or (3) ascribing key characteristics. These are non-discriminative options within the allowable contributions available to an author for creative or innovative genre construction (Bhatia, 1993).

Bhatia (1993) also pointed out that sales promotion letters and job application letters share basically the same moves, including the most elaborated move of ‘Introducing the Offer/Candidature’. Following research on business-related texts revealed that there are cross-linguistic/cultural differences in the goals and the rhetorical structures even with the same genre texts, or differences in the presence or length of certain moves and strategies across discourse communities (Kong, 1998; Zhu, 2000; Upton, 2002; Gao, 2012; Park & Jeon, 2014, among others).

Research methods

Data

The ATA texts in English were obtained from 148 contemporary books published by 102 different companies on both sides of the Atlantic Seas (namely in the U.K., the U.S.A, and Canada) in 1983~2015. To secure the comparability of the ATA texts, only original books were examined excluding translated or edited books. In addition, to avoid any possible peculiar style of the publishers, the researcher tried to include as many publishing companies as possible. She also selected books of various genres, ranging from literary works, miscellaneous books, essays, self-education books to academic textbooks for college and graduate students. A total of 155 ATAs were obtained this way. The length of the texts varied greatly, from 14 words to as long as 695 words. However, the majority of the ATAs included less than 100 words.

Analysis of the data

The data obtained was analyzed to identify the moves and strategies first. Then the researcher examined the distributional patterns of the moves and strategies as well as some distinctive stylistic properties of the ATAs.

Regarding identification of the moves and strategies, the researcher adopted the classification developed in Paik (2016) with the ATAs in Korean books. However, she first examined if those structural units could be applicable to English texts as well and also checked if there are any additional moves or strategies. The identification of the moves and strategies were based on the descriptions as reviewed earlier, i.e., ‘a functional unit of at least 1 proposition for a certain, or

distinctive rhetorical purpose within the text’ for a move and the ‘non-distinctive sub-units to serve the purpose of a move’ for a strategy. Nevertheless, the propositions included in modifying phrases or clauses were not counted as independent strategies or moves, even though they could make functional units otherwise.

Results and discussion

Moves and strategies

The analysis shows that the ATAs in English books are constructed of the same 4 moves as in the Korean data (Paik, 2016) and, except for a few, basically the same processing strategies. Describing the qualifications of the author, or ‘Establishing Credentials’ (EC, hereafter) turned out to be the essential move, since only 1 text out of 155 ATAs lacked this part. Other optional constructive units are ‘Giving Personal Information’ (GPI, hereafter), ‘Offering Contacts’ (OC, hereafter) and ‘Promoting the Book’ (PB, hereafter). Each move is realized with various strategies as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: An example of analysis: Some moves and strategies

(#A19): The ATA in Jackson, J. (2006). *gods in Alabama*. New York: Grand Central Publishing.

First, the move GPI includes some of the basic demographic information or stories about the author. The strategies of GPI are, thus, basically the answers to the question, ‘Who/What is the author?’ The strategies include the information about the author’s identity, birth, growth, death, present residence, and family. Nearly 2/3 of the ATAs offer these personal information. The last two strategies, ‘Residence’ and ‘Family’ in Table 1 are the newly identified units in the present English data, not reported in Paik (2016).

Table 1: Strategies of the move ‘Giving Personal Information’

JOSHILYN KACKSON is a bestselling author (**GPI: Identity**), a native of the Deep South (**GPI: Birth**), a former actor and award-winning teacher (**EC: Career**), and a mother of two (**GPI: Identity**). Her first novel, *gods in Alabama*, was the 2006 winner of the Southern Independent Book-sellers Alliance Book Award for fiction. Both *gods in Alabama* and *Between, Georgia* were selected as #1 Booksense picks (**EC: Awards**). Jackson’s previous work has appeared in *TriQuarterly* and *Calyx*, as well as the anthology *ChickLit II* (**EC: Works**). The author lives with her family outside of Atlanta, Georgia (**GPI: Residence**), and you can visit her Web site at www.joshilynjackson.com. (**OC: Offering Contacts**) (#A19)

Giving Personal Information (GPI)

| Strategies | Examples |
|--|--|
| Identity: Who/What is the author? | Michelle Obama is the First Lady of the U.S. and the mother of two daughters. (#D2) |
| Birth: Where was the author born? | Hisham Matar was born in New York City to Libyan parents (#A6) |
| Growth: Where & How did the author grow up? Any specific episodes? | Hisham Matar (was born in New York city to Libyan parents) and spent his childhood first in Tripoli and then in Cairo. (#A6) |
| Death: If the author has passed away, when, where, or how did s/he die? | Professor Fromkin passed away on January 19, 2000, at the age of 76. (# E5) |
| Residence: Where does the author live? With whom? | She lives in Bel Air, California, with her husband, movie and television producer Steve Krantz. (#A39) / She makes her home in Spring Hill, TN, with her children, her husband, her two cats, the family dog, chickens, rabbits, and fish. (#A16) |
| Family: Information about the author's family | Their son, Nathan, a recent University of Iowa graduate, has completed a year of post-grad studies in Japan. (#A8) |

The strategies for the obligatory move EC seem to be the answers to the question ‘What are the author’s qualifications like?’, ‘Is s/he qualified enough to write this book?’ as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Strategies of the move ‘Establishing Credentials’

| Establishing Credentials (EC) | |
|--|---|
| Strategies | Examples |
| Education: The author’s educational background, including schools, degrees & other learning or training | Dr. Dobson earned his PhD from the University of Southern California in the field of child development. (# C9) |
| Career: The author’s job, affiliation, activities (present & past) | Kenneth H. Rosen has had a long career as a Distinguished Member of the Technical Staff at AT&T Laboratories in Monmouth County. (# E20) / (Satish Kumar was born in India) and was a Jain Monk for nine ears. (# C4) |
| Awards: Awards and prizes that the author won or any registration or certificates obtained | In 2007 Douglas Kennedy was awarded the French decoration, the Chevalier del’Ordre des Arts et des Lettres. (#A36) / He is the recipient of numerous prestigious international awards. (#A26) |
| Works: Mostly the author’s publication & some original products or works by the author | John Krakauer is the author of <i>Eiger Dreams, Where Men Win Glory, Under the Banner of Heaven, Three Cups of Deceit, and Into the Air.</i> (# C13) Her designs and work have been published in <i>Vogue Knitting, Family</i> |

Circle Knitting, Interweave Knits and Interweave Knits: Crochet, American Home Crafts, Glamour, and Elle. (#D15)

Character: The author’s noticeable ideas, SHERRILYN KENYON started writing as soon as she realized it was a stories, characteristics, hobbies, likes way to daydream in class without her teachers knowing it. (#A16)

Interest Areas: The author’s specialization, Professor Spiceland’s primary research interests are in earnings research or interest areas management and educational research. (#E24)

The strategies of EC serve the purpose of establishing credentials of the author by highlighting the author’s career, works (publications), awards as well as their educational background and interest areas, which could, in return, increase the (potential) readers’ interest in the book. Especially, the strategy of ‘Character’ with some noticeable ideas or characteristics of the author is often very inviting.

Another move Offering Contacts (OC) includes the author’s e-mail, blog or web site. These strategies, similar to those classified into the move GPI, are about personal information. Nevertheless, they were put into a separate category as these information were taken pretty much invitational and promotional. Offering contacts means an invitation to the author’s cyber space, where a further interaction between the author and the readers can happen. The example in Table 3 “Learn more about Wood and read her other popular blog at Momover.net.” (#D23) well discloses this promotional intent. The move OC was employed in about a quarter (22.6%) of all the ATAs.

Table 3: Strategies of the move ‘Offering Contacts’

| Offering Contacts (OC) | |
|--|--|
| Strategies | Examples |
| Contacts: E-Mail / Website/ Blog | www. RHawke.com (#A3) / Readers can contact Perri O Shaughnessy at perrio@hotmail.com (#A7) / Learn more about Wood and read her other popular blog at Momover.net. (#D23) |

The last optional move Promoting the Book (PB) is realized by a very brief introduction of the book, such as “This is her first novel.” (#A29), or “*Essays in Love* is his first book.” (#C18). These constitute the strategy of ‘Introduction’. The other strategy, ‘Quotes’ refers to quotation from the main text. There was only 1 single case identified. PBs are found in only a negligible percentage of the texts (3.9%).

Rhetorical structures of the ATAs

The rhetorical structures of the ATAs are realized in various forms. The texts are formed with the optional moves GPI, OC, and PB, surrounding the obligatory move EC, as the pivotal role of which was described in the previous section. The key role of EC is confirmed again by the fact

that nearly 1/3 of all the ATAs are realized with EC alone. The top 5 patterns in Table 4 explain 80% of all the data, which could be simply formulated as (GPI) + EC + (GPI/OC).

Table 4: The rhetorical structures of the ATAs

| Rhetorical Structures | | Frequency (%) |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|---------------|
| (1) | EC | 47 (30.3%) |
| (2) | EC + GPI | 32 (20.6%) |
| (3) | GPI + EC | 21 (13.5%) |
| (4) | GPI + EC + GPI | 9 (5.8%) |
| (5) | EC + GPI + OC | 7 (5.2%) |
| (6) | Other Miscellaneous Patterns | 31 (20%) |
| Total | | 155 (100%) |

The results so far tells us that ATAs in English books are basically promotional. They not only introduce the author but also arouse (potential/) readers' interests in the book by creating confidence in the author, just as sales promotional letters or job application letters invite the (prospective/) purchasers' inquiry of the goods or the employer's interview by introducing or promoting goods or candidates in detail. The only difference would be that, while these are directly promotional by detailing their offer or candidate and their values (what they want to sell³, in other words), the ATAs are indirectly promotional by focusing more on the author's qualifications in detail or by offering contacts, rather than promoting the book directly.

Distributional patterns of the moves and strategies

The distribution or preference of the moves was found to be correlated with the genre of the books which include the ATAs. Figure 4 summarizes this result.

³ In these texts, 'Introducing (or Promoting) the Offer/Candidate' is found to be the most elaborated move. See Bhatia (1993), Henry & Roseberry (2001), Gao & Lee (2012) among others.

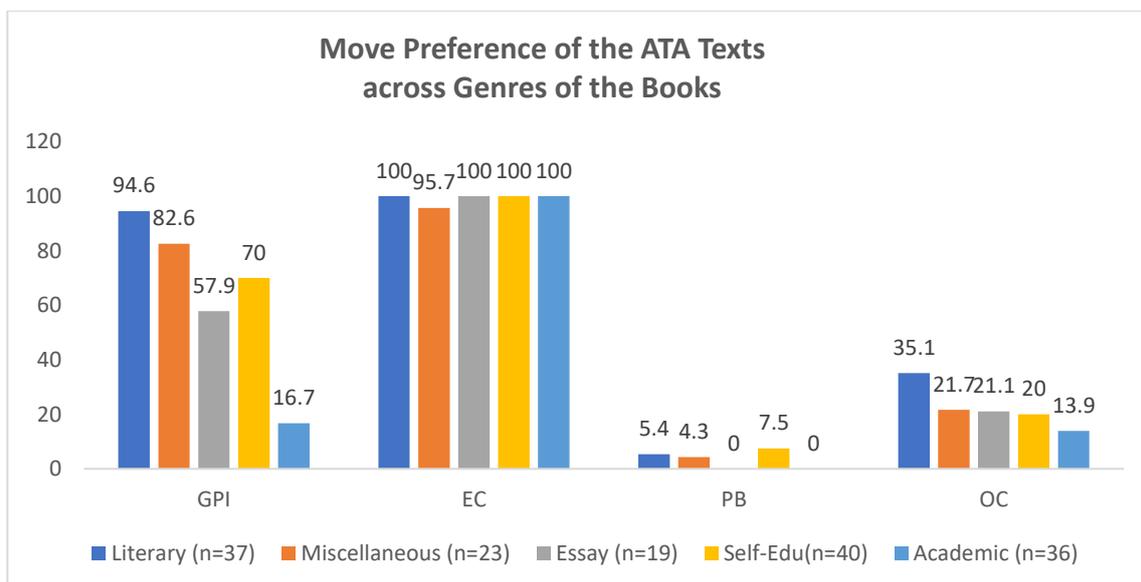


Figure 4: Move preferences of the ATAs⁴

As stated earlier, move EC is obligatory and move PB is negligible in their occurrences, meaning that these moves are not basically open to any significant variation across the text types of the books. However, we find that the preference for GPI and OC are not the same across the 5 genres of the books, i.e., the 2 moves are the most frequently found in the literary genre (novels, poems & plays) and the least frequently found in the academic text books, which means the difference in the amount of the readers' curiosity to know the authors' personal aspects. The author's personal background seem to be believed to have something to do with the contents more in literary books than in academic textbooks in which it would be all about the author's knowledge and qualification. It is no wonder that the second highest frequency is found in the miscellaneous genre including literary jottings, personal essays, and memoirs which all carry pretty much [+literary] feature.

The differences in the move preference must reflect the difference in the amount of personal information expected from different genre books. This interpretation is supported by an independent evidence, the appearance of the authors' photos. The author's look could be another personal information that could be presented if the readers want more about the author's personal state. The appearance of the photos shows basically the same pattern across genres; the highest in the literary genre and the lowest in the academic books with the other genre-books in between. Table 5 shows the result.

⁴ The percentages in the Figure 4 denotes the percentages of the books employing the appropriate move in each genre. For example, 94.6 in the graph means that 94.6% of the ATAs in the literary books include move GPI.

Table 5: The appearance of the author’s photo across genres of the books

| | | Genres of the Books | | | | | |
|--------|-----------------------|--|------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|-------------------|--|
| Photos | Literary | Miscellaneous | Essay | Self-Education | Academic | Total | |
| | (n=37) | (n=23) | (n=19) | (n=40) | (n=36) | | |
| | poems, novels & plays | literary jottings personal essays & memoirs | cultural/ social & liberal arts | clothing, home-making, cooking, design, housing & etiquettes | textbooks (collegiate & graduate) | | |
| | 23/37 (62.2%) | 9/23 (39.1%) | 8/19 (42.1%) | 19/40 (47.5%) | 8/36 (22.2%) | 67/155 (43.2%) | |

The distributional patterns of the strategies were also found to be influenced by the text types of the books. Regarding the overall frequencies of occurrence, the strategies of the move EC were preferred in the order of Career > Works > Awards=Education > Interest Area > Character. However, the preference varied significantly across genres with a couple of strategies.

Table 6: Distribution of the strategies for EC across genres of the books

| Move | Strategies | Genres of the Books | | | | | Total 155 Texts |
|------|----------------|---------------------|-------------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Literary (n=37) | Miscellaneous (n=23) | Essay (n=19) | Self-Edu (n=40) | Academic (n=36) | |
| EC | Texts with EC | 37/37 (100%) | 22/23 (95.7%) | 19/19 (100%) | 40/40 (100%) | 36/36 (100%) | 154/155 (99.4%) |
| | Education | 7/37 (18.9%) | 2/22 (9.1%) | 5/19 (26.3%) | 10/40 (25%) | 16/36 (44.4%) | 40/154 (26%) |
| | Career | 19/37 (51.4%) | 14/22 (63.6%) | 19/19 (100%) | 31/40 (77.5%) | 36/36 (100%) | 119/154 (77.3%) |
| | Character | 3/37 (8.1%) | 4/22 (18.2%) | 2/19 (10.5%) | 3/40 (7.5%) | 0/36 (0%) | 12/154 (7.8%) |
| | Awards | 12/37 (32.4%) | 3/22 (13.6%) | 4/19 (21.1%) | 9/40 (22.5%) | 14/36 (38.9%) | 42/154 (27.3%) |
| | Works | 32/37 (86.5%) | 14/22 (63.6%) | 12/19 (63.2%) | 27/40 (67.5%) | 21/36 (58.3%) | 106/154 (68.8%) |
| | Interest Areas | 0/37 (0%) | 0/22 (0%) | 1/19 (5.3%) | 3/40 (7.5%) | 15/36 (41.7%) | 9/154 (12.3%) |

First, we find very similar distributional patterns of the strategies of Education, Career and Interest Areas, i.e., the adoption rate is the highest in the academic textbooks and the lowest in the two literary genres with the other genre-books in between these rates. Especially, it is not surprising that the strategy of Interest Areas is found in 41.7%, a distinctively high percentage, of the college textbooks for which the authors’ fields of specialization are the key qualifications. In the meantime, creative writers prefer to claim their credentials more with their original works than with the educational background or career. The strategy of Works occurs the most frequently in the literary genre and the least frequently in the academic textbooks. The data shows that ‘X is the author of A, B and C...’ is the formulaic style of introducing the author’s publication as in, “RICHARD HAWKE

is the author of *Speak of the Devil* and *Cold Day in Hell*.” (#A2) or “She is the author of two previous Keren Pelletier mysteries, Agatha Award-nominated *Quieter than Sleep*, and *The Northbury Papers*, and she has just completed her fourth *Cold & Pure & Very Dead*.” (#A17). Interestingly though, the strategy of Awards, as one of the most obvious markers of one’s achievements, is hired in about the same rate in both literary and academic books, which contrasts with the previous contours. It is mainly due to the fact that research fund or grant the authors received were categorized into Awards as well.

Regarding the move GPI, the most preferred strategy is Residence, followed by Identity, Birth, Growth, Family and Death in the order of occurrence rate. This means that the (prospective/) readers’ curiosity about the author centers on his/her present residence and identity above the other information. Previously, the generic difference in the distribution of the moves has been already described along with interpretation; The adoption of move GPI marks the highest rate in the literary genre and the lowest rate in the academic books, with the other genre-books in between. As is illustrated in Table 7 below, this contour is quite similarly repeated with the strategies of Residence, Family, Birth and Growth⁵ across genres, though with some differences in the absolute percentages. Especially, the occurrence rate of Residence in the literary books are remarkably higher than that of any other strategy intra-generically and inter-generically as well.

Another noticeable strategy in GPI is the Identification, the preference of which is markedly higher in self-educational books. This could be attributed to the fact that these books are written by a much wider variety of specialists in housing, clothing, fashion, cooking, financial management, home-making and numerous other areas, which means, there naturally arise much more needs to identify the writers; Who they are or what they originally do. Whereas the identities of the writers of the literary or academic books are easily expected or pretty much obvious, i.e., usually, they are professional creative writers and professors or researchers. The other genre-books are also written by professional people such as journalists, broadcasters, reporters, politicians or even professors. However, those genre books have relatively narrower range of writers than self-educational books.

⁵ The percentage of the strategy of Death (16.7%) of the Academic genre in Table 7 is meaningless as we have only one such case throughout the whole data, thus, excluded from the present discussion.

Table 7: Distribution of the strategies for GPI across genres of the books

| Move | Strategies | The Genres of the Books | | | | | Total 155 Texts |
|------|----------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Literary (n=37) | Miscellaneous (n=23) | Essay (n=19) | Self-Edu (n=40) | Academic (n=36) | |
| GPI | Texts with DPI | 35/37 (94.6%) | 19/23 (82.6%) | 11/19 (57.9%) | 28/40 (70%) | 6/36 (16.7%) | 99/155 (63.9%) |
| | Identity | 7/35 (20%) | 6/19 (31.6%) | 1/11 (9.1%) | 17/28 (60.7%) | 2/6 (33.3%) | 33/99 (33.3%) |
| | Birth | 14/35 (40%) | 6/19 (31.6%) | 2/11 (18.2%) | 2/28 (7.1%) | 0/6 (0%) | 24/99 (24.2%) |
| | Growth | 6/35 (17.1%) | 1/19 (5.3%) | 0/11 (0%) | 3/28 (10.7%) | 0/6 (0%) | 10/99 (10.1%) |
| | Death | 0 (0%) | 0/19 (0%) | 0/11 (0%) | 0/28 (0%) | 1/6 (16.7%) | 1/99 (1.0%) |
| | Residence | 33/35 (94.3%) | 11/19 (57.9%) | 9/11 (81.8%) | 14/28 (50%) | 2/6 (33.3%) | 69/99 (69.7%) |
| | Family | 3/35 (14.3%) | 2/19 (10.5%) | 0/19 (0%) | 0/28 (0%) | 0/6 (0%) | 7/99 (7.1%) |

Stylistic features

The majority of the ATAs in English are not headed. This result can be mainly attributed to the location of the texts; More than half of the ATAs (55%) appear on the back flap separately or following the blurb texts which often stretch to the back flap from the front flap, or they appear on the back cover following the blurb text, which seem to have naturally led Kathpalia (1997) to count these ATAs as part of the whole book blurb text. Those ATAs simply start with some spacing and the author(s)' names in different size and font and sometimes in different color.

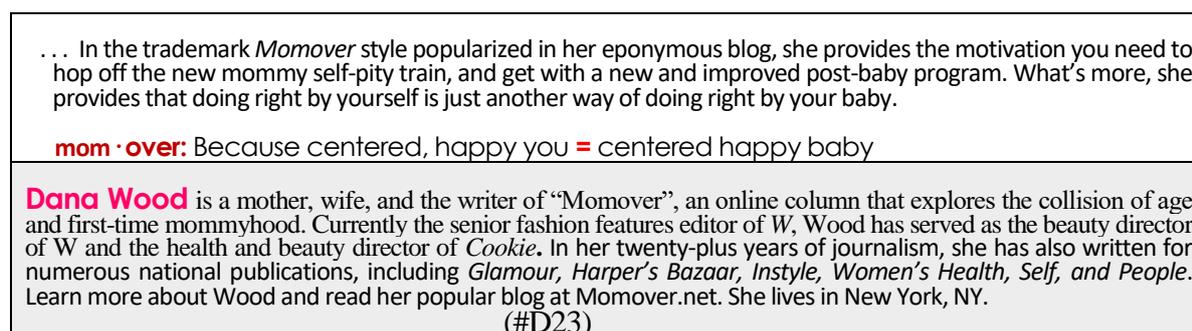


Figure 5: An example of ATA text without heading (following the blurb on the back cover)

(#D23): The ATA text in Wood, D. (2010). *mom-over*. Avon, MA: Adams Media.

Table 8 below shows the 6 styles of heading of the ATAs in English books. If a book is to head its ATA text, 'About the Author(s)' is the most preferred style among others.

Table 8: The heading styles of the ATAs

| | Heading Styles | Total (155 Texts) |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| ‘John Smith’ as the author | (1) No Heading | 104/155 (67.1%) |
| | (2) About the Author(s) | 35/155 (22.6%) |
| | (3) John Smith | 5/155 (3.2%) |
| | (4) The Author John Smith | 4/155 (2.6%) |
| | (5) Title of the Book John Smith | 5/155 (3.2%) |
| | (6) Title of the Book | 5/155 (3.2%) |

Other frequently occurring features identified in the English ATAs are listing, apposition, and various types of adjuncts. Among these, listing is the most distinctive property used in the great majority of the texts. Usually, the author(s)’ multiple identities, career, or works (or products) are enumerated, which is fairly natural when the main purpose of the ATAs is to establish the author’s credentials for which the author’s career or products are the foremost resources. Below are some examples, in which the different color, fonts or boldness of the authors’ names and different layouts are original.

- (1) LUANNE RICE is the author of twenty-two novels, most recently *The Edge of Winter*, *Sandcastles*, *Summer of Roses*, *Summer’s Child*, *Silver Bells*, and *Beach Girls*. She lives in New York City ... (#A20)
- (2) Crime reporter and best-selling author **APHRODITE JONES** has commented on the high-profile trials of O. J. Simpson, Kobe Bryant, Scott Peterson, Michael Jackson, Robert Blake, and many others... (#B14)
- (3) **LAURA INGRAHAM** is the #1 New York Times bestselling author of *Power to the people*, the most listened-to woman in political talk radio as host of her own nationally syndicated radio program, a Fox News contributor, and permanent substitute host for O’Reilly Factor. A former Supreme Court law clerk and white-color criminal defense litigator, she lives in the Washington, D.C. area with her two children.

Visit www.Lauraingraham.com (#B15)

Appositions are mostly used to identify or qualify the author, his/her works or activities, which is an efficient way of succinct description.

- (4)  vision personality **Joni Lamb** is executive producer and host of the daily
t of JONI show, ... (#C8)
- (5) Emmy Award-winning writer MERRILL MARKOE lives in Los Angeles, California, the
garden spot of America, with four dogs and a man. ... (#A12)
- (6) Michelle O'bama is the First Lady of the U.S. and the mother of two daughters. In Febr
uary 2010, she launched Let's Move!, a nationwide initiative to address our epidemic of ch
ildhood obesity by bringing healthier food into schools and communities, and encouraging
kids to be more active. *American Grown* is her first book.... (#D2)
- (7) Khaled Hosseini was born in Kabul, Afghanistan, and moved to the United States in 1980.
The Kite Runner, his first novel, is an international bestseller, published in forty countries.
His second novel, the #1 national bestseller *A Thousand Splendid Suns*, was published in 20
07... (#A35)

Using adjuncts is another way of compressing additional qualification and descripti
on. Adjuncts usually modify the subjects.

- (8) ... A frequent Mystery Writers of America Edgar nominee, he has earned an unprecedente
d fourteen Private Eye Writers of America Shamus nominations for his historical thrillers,
... (#A8)
- (9) ... A widely acknowledged expert on country music, he is former editor of the Hall of Fam
e's Journal of Country Music. He is author of ... (#C21)

These features, combined with each other as well as other syntactic devices such as r
elative clauses or participle phrases, often produce very condensed and complex sentences, w
hich is definitely to include as much information as possible in a relatively short text. The com
plex sentences as below are not infrequent.

- (10) Ken Mitchell, born in 1940 in Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan, is the author of three books of f
iction, including *The Con Man* (Talonebooks, 1979), and several plays, among them *Cha
tauqua Girl* and the award-winning *Gone the Burning Sun*. (#A41)
- (11) ... The recipient of numerous prestigious awards, amongst them the Crystal Award by the World Economic
Forum and France's Legion d'Honneur, Paulo Coelho was inducted into the Brazilian Academy of Letters
in 2002. (#C16)

- (12) **CHITRA BANERJEE DIVAKARUNI**, born in India, is an award-winning poet who teaches creative writing at Foothill College in Los Altos Hills, California, where she also serves as president of MAITRI, a helpline for South Asian women. (#A42)

Some cross-cultural variation

It has become self-evident from the moves and strategies that the ATAs in English books duly comprise a sub-genre of various promotional texts, in which the ‘relative selves’ of the authors are presented to establish credentials. The analysis of this study reveals that the ATAs in English books share the same communicative purpose with those in Korean books (Paik, 2016). To serve this goal, different moves and strategies are adopted to suit the contents of the books. Various stylistic features, usually focusing on the authors, also fulfill their functions to bring about condensed but richer descriptions in relatively short ATAs.

Usually, the characteristics of a communicative event become more distinctive or turn out to be language/culture specific only when the event is contrasted with the same event in other communities. Interestingly enough, we find some cross-cultural variation with the ATAs between the inner, native group of English speaking discourse communities (present study) and the Korean speaking community (Paik, 2016).

The first difference is found with the move PB. The overall preference of each move is strikingly the same in the two communities but PB. Table 9 shows that this move is hardly employed in the English ATAs.

Table 9: Overall occurrence of the moves in Korean and English ATAs

| Moves | ATAs in Korean | ATAs in English |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| | (n=158) (Paik, 2016) | (n=155) (present study) |
| Establishing Credentials (EC) | 157 (99.4%) | 154 (99.4%) |
| Giving Personal Info (GPI) | 97 (61.4%) | 99 (63.9%) |
| Offering Contacts (OC) | 36 (23.32%) | 35 (22.6%) |
| Promoting the Book (PB) | 33 (20.9%) | 6 (3.9%) |

The fact that the move PBs are found in the lowest rates in both languages could be attributed to the same communicative goal of the ATAs in the two communities; To establish credentials of the author, thus promoting the book ‘indirectly’. Nevertheless, much lower percentage (3.9%) of PB in English ATAs, as analyzed earlier, is ascribed to the location of the texts which often follows the book blurb texts on the back flap or on the back cover. They seem to

prefer not to promote the book right after the book blurb texts to avoid redundancy. Korean ATAs, on the other hand, the great majority of which are located on front flaps or inner leaves, separately from the promotional copies on the book jacket (Paik, 2016), are partly sharing the load of advocating the book.

The different geography of the texts also seem to have affected the heading styles in the two languages. While ‘No Heading’ style predominates over the ATAs in English, explaining 2/3 of the present data, it is the author’s name which commands 2/3 of the whole heading styles in Korean ATAs (Paik 2016). Naturally, the lighter load of PB in the ATAs in English has developed less strategies than those in Korean. Introduction and Quotes are the two single strategies in the English data while there are two more strategies in Korean texts; ‘Criticism’ and ‘Recommendation’⁶.

Disagreement in the strategies are witnessed in the move GPI and EC as well. Table 10 summarizes the presence and absence of the strategies in the two languages along with the overall preference within each move.

Table 10: The strategies of ATAs in English and Korean and their overall occurrence

| Moves | Strategies | ATAs in Korean | | ATAs in English | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | (n=158) | (n=155) | (Paik, 2016) | (present study) |
| Giving Personal Information (GPI) | Identity | (n=97) | 42 (43.3%) | (n=99) | 33 (33.3%) |
| | Birth | | 62 (63.9%) | | 24 (24.2%) |
| | Growth | | 13 (13.4%) | | 10 (10.9%) |
| | Death | | 3 (3.1%) | | 1 (1.0%) |
| | Residence | | X | | 69 (69.7%) |
| | Family | | X | | 7 (7.1%) |
| Establishing Credentials (EC) | Education | (n=157) | 109 (69.4%) | (n=154) | 40 (26%) |
| | Debut | | 28 (17.8%) | | X |
| | Career | | 151 (96.2%) | | 119 (77.3%) |
| | Awards | | 53 (33.8%) | | 42 (27.3%) |
| | Works | | 120 (76.4%) | | 106 (68.8%) |
| | Character | | 34 (21.7%) | | 12 (7.8%) |
| | Interest Areas | | 9 (5.7%) | | 19 (12.3%) |
| Promoting the Book (PB) | Introduction | (n=33) | 32 (96.9%) | (n=6) | 6 (100%) |
| | Criticism | | 4 (13.3%) | | X |
| | Recommendation | | 1 (3.3%) | | X |
| | Quotes | | 2 (6.7%) | | 1 (16.7%) |
| Offering Contacts (OC) | E-Mails / Web-sites/ Blogs etc. | (n=37) | Not counted | (n=35) | Not counted |

The first difference noticed is that move GPI in the English ATAs is realized with two more strategies, i.e., Residence and Family. Besides, Residence is the most preferred strategy in the English

⁶ ‘Criticism’ is the critical analysis or interpretation of the book. ‘Recommendation’ is any direct or indirect recommendatory statements by the publisher or a third party. See Paik (2016).

data while it is Birth in the Korean ATAs. Regarding the frequently offered information about the author's birth (when and/or where s/he was born), Paik (2016) ascribed this to Korean specific cultural concerns in one's origin and relative social standing in general. She also pointed out many other daily social practices of probing each other's age directly and indirectly by questioning others' ages, school years, military service years or all the other sorts of seniority involved in the situation. According to Paik (2016), age is counted as pretty much basic information about a person in Korea. The present study, on the other hand, shows that the author's present or recent situation, where s/he lives (/with whom), is the foremost concerns in the US, UK or Canada when they want to know about anything personal about the author. They are not concerned about the writer's age.

The difference in the two languages seem to reflect basically different ways of identifying or understanding a person; The native English-speaking people are likely to understand a person starting with his/her present situation, while Koreans tend to grasp the others starting with their origin. This interpretation is partly supported by the order of information listed in one's CV or resume in English and Korean, which is another type of 'introduction' text of a person; While Koreans enumerate relevant facts starting with those of the past, it is the other way around in English, i.e., present to past.

This interpretation is supported again by a study of another type of 'introduction' text, biography. According to Kim (2016), who analyzed the military biographies of U.S. naval officers, providing personal background such as one's origin is classified as one of the six constructing moves.⁷ This move normally includes information about the officer's birth place without birth date, which exactly parallels the strategy of Birth in the English ATAs. If the author's birth related information is given in these texts, it is usually when it includes rather a marked story (e.g., the author is born in a foreign country) or it is closely relevant with the contents of the book (e.g., the author, a native of a certain place became a photographer capturing the beauty of his native place and so on). The author's age is hardly disclosed. The only difference between the ATAs and the biographies of naval officers would be that information about one's birth place is rather optional in ATAs while it is nearly obligatory in the biographies.

Strategic differences are found in the move EC as well. The first noticeable point is the lack of the strategy of Debut in the ATAs in English. Though the overall occurrence is not very high in the Korean data either, the story of the author's debut is sometimes offered in Korean ATAs,

⁷ The six moves identified are 'Identification', 'Personal Information', 'Education and Commission', 'Military Career' (of 2 sorts; in terms of sea/operational tours & in terms of shore tours), and 'Achievements', which almost parallel the moves and strategies of the ATAs regarding the information offered.

especially when the author is a creative writer, the story is told in 2/3 (66.7%) of all the literary books (Paik, 2016). This tells us that it is one of the conventional practices worthy of attention specific to Korean literary discourse community.

The other cross-cultural difference in EC is the overall occurrence of each strategy. Table 10 shows us that we could find each strategy more often in the Korean ATAs, in general, than in the English texts except Interest Areas. Besides, we find a sharp difference in the two languages with the strategy of Education; The author’s educational background is introduced far more often in Korean ATAs. This might simply reflect relatively bigger concerns in education of Korean people, i.e., the famous (or notorious) zeal for education which is believed to be one of the essential elements of respectable and competitive person. However, considering the fact that the strategy of Education usually mentions the author’s majors and schools, we could suspect it is because one’s educational background works as a distinctive ‘social label’ in Korea. Or, this could disclose the fact that educational background still fulfils the function of ‘status property’ in Korean society (Kang, 2015) far stronger than in the English speaking communities investigated in the present research.

Interestingly enough, the majority of the cross-cultural differences discussed so far are clearly contrasted in the two ATAs of the same writer, Kyung-Sook Shin in Korean and English.

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| <p>A Photo of the Author</p> | <p>(a) ATA on the front flap</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin: 10px auto; width: fit-content;"> <p>Kyung- Sook Shin</p> </div> | <p>(b) ATA on the back flap</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; margin: 10px auto; width: fit-content;"> <p>A Photo of the Author</p> </div> |
| <p>Ø* Was born in Jeong-eup (GPI: Birth) and studied creative writing at Seoul Institute of the Arts. (EC: Education) Since Ø made her debut with her <i>Winter Fables</i> winning the Budding Writer Prize awarded by the literary journal, <i>Moonyejoongang</i>, (EC: Debut) Ø has been noticed and loved by critics and readers because of her delicate style digging into our existence and precise and touching epic drawn from the crucibles of lives. (PB: Criticism) Ø is the author of the novel collections, <i>Until it Joins the River</i>, <i>Where an Organ used to be</i>, <i>People Eating Potatoes</i>, <i>Strawberry Field</i>, <i>Sound of the Bell</i>, and also the novels, <i>Deep Sorrow</i>, <i>A Secluded Room</i>, <i>The Train Leaves at 7</i>, <i>Violet</i>, <i>Leejin</i>. Ø is also author of many short stories, including <i>Story of J</i> and essays, <i>Beautiful Shadow</i>, <i>Goodbye My Sorrow</i>. Ø also published her collected letters <i>A House with a Mountain and a House with a Well</i>. (EC: Works) Ø has been awarded with many literary prizes, among them, the Hankook Ilbo Literature Prize, Modern Literature Prize, Manhae Literature Prize, the Dong-in Literature Prize, Yi Sang Literary Prize, and O Young Literary Prize. (EC: Awards)</p> | | <p>KYUNG-SOOK SHIN is the author of numerous works of fiction and is one of South Korea’s most widely read and acclaimed novelists. (GPI: Identity) She has been honored with the Manhae Literature Prize, the Dong-in Literature Prize, and the Yi Sang Literary Prize, as well as France’s Prix de l’Inaperçu. (EC: Awards) <i>Please Look after Mom</i> is her first book to appear in English and will be published in twenty-three countries. (PB: Introduction) Currently a visiting scholar at Columbia University in New York City, she lives in Seoul. (GPI: Residence)</p> |
| <p>Shin, K. (2008). <i>Please look after mom</i>. Seoul: Changbi</p> | | <p>Shin, K. (2011). <i>Please look after mom</i>. (C-Y. Kim, Trans.) New York: Alfred A. Knopf</p> |

Figure 6: Two ATAs of Kyung-Sook Shin in Korean and English (*Ø denotes a deleted subject)

As illustrated in Figure 6⁸, text (a) is the ATA of a Korean novelist Kyung-Sook Shin (translated into English for this article) in her novel, *Please Look after Mom*. Text (b) is the English version of the same book published in New York and Toronto. Even when we take the move PB in text (b) out of consideration for comparability (as it is employed seemingly because the book is translated), the two texts well illustrate both the common core of the ATAs in English and Korean as well as some cross-cultural variation; The moves EC and GPI as their pivotal units but with some disagreement in style and strategies. First, the two texts contrast in their geography and heading styles as discussed earlier. What is notable in the Korean text is that all the sentences delete their subjects, which was identified as the strongest device of coherence to make the most distinctive stylistic feature of the Korean ATAs (see Paik, 2016). Then we find that the Korean text employs more strategies in general. The two texts also disclose the existence (or absence) and preference of the strategies; The English text lacks the strategies of Birth, Education, and Debut that the Korean text employs, while the Korean text lacks the strategy of Residence, which is the foremost concern in the English speaking communities.

Conclusion

The analyses so far have answered the question of this study, ‘Why are About the Author texts in English written and used the way they are?’; It is basically to build credentials of the author. The rhetorical structures with certain moves and strategies along with their distributional patterns have specified the ways for this conventionalized communicative purpose to be realized in some English speaking communities investigated in this study. We also come to realize that ATAs in English is the function of this communicative goal, contextual factors, and some cultural emphasis, i.e., an example of ‘language in use’.

This study is significant in that it has provided, along with Paik (2016) and Kim (2016), further empirical evidence that there are some variation at strategic level even within the similar genre texts across discourse communities. The results of this study also offer very useful implication and resources for both teachers and learners of English pursuing generic competence in the English language at formal and pragmatic level as well; The ‘knowledge of the code’, ‘genre knowledge’, ‘sensitivity to cognitive structuring’ (as mentioned in Bhatia, 1997). Most importantly, ESL/EFL students could have some significant insight into what it is like to identify or grasp a person in another

⁸ These two texts are not from the data of this study or Paik (2016) but searched for an illustration of the cross-cultural variation discussed.

culture which could be different from that of their own.

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Title

EFL Students' Awareness of
Strategic Reading Processes: Facts and Challenges

Author

Leonora Saantje Tamaela
Pattimura University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Leonora Saantje Tamaela is a lecturer of English at Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia. Her research interests are language assessment and material development. Her email address is saantje15@gmail.com.

Abstract

The objectives of this research are : (1) to find out whether there is significant difference between male and female students' awareness of strategic reading processes; (2) to find out whether there is a significant difference between social science and natural science students' awareness of strategic reading processes. The research applied metacomprehension strategy index (MSI) to assess students' reading strategy process. Survey questionnaires containing 25 multiple choice questions were distributed to a sample of 224 first grade senior high school students who participated voluntary in the study. The data were analyzed descriptively and quantitatively. The results revealed that students' awareness of strategic reading processes were not yet satisfying. This might be the cause why students' reading comprehension were low. Hopefully the findings of this study can give insight for teachers to take serious action in dealing with students low reading comprehension caused by their unawareness of strategic reading processes.

Keywords: *awareness, metacomprehension, reading strategies*

Leonora Saantje Tamaela,

English Language Department of Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University

Jl. Dr. Tamaela, Ambon, Maluku, Indonesia

Introduction

Reading comprehension is important in students' life, including those who are going to pursue their studies at higher education, since they will have a lot of readings to do. Therefore to assist students in their reading comprehension phases and to know whether comprehension is taking place it is suggested to know what is in their brain when they read and the strategies they apply in their reading such as how they plan, arrange and evaluate their own reading. This is known as metacognitive reading strategies. In line with this Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991) in Israel, Block, Bauserman and Kinnucan-Welsch (2008:6) stated that a reading event can be described as: preparing to read, constructing meaning while reading, and reviewing and reflecting on reading. Regarding this matter Gardner (1987) stated that metacognition addresses one's knowledge and use of one's own cognitive resources. Therefore to examine students' awareness of reading strategies, known as metacognitive awareness, a study was carried out to find out students reading processes before, during, and after reading a text.

Researches and practices in Indonesia have been implemented to improve EFL (English Foreign Language) students reading comprehension. Eventhough the results have shown improvement in some settings, the reading comprehension of students remains a problem nationally. One of the causes might be students metacognitive unawareness of reading processes. According to Singhal (2001) metacognitive strategies are behaviors undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning.

Therefore this study was aimed at finding out students' awareness of strategic reading processes by using Metacomprehension Strategy Index (MSI), a measurement instrument developed by Schmitt (2008).

Literature Review

Reading Strategy

As stated by Paris, Lipson, and Wixson (1994) strategic readers have the ability to apply appropriate strategies to their reading situation. They also mentioned that the terms strategy and skill are used interchangeably to describe different types of processes during reading. Furthermore, Griffith and Ruan in Israel, Block, Bauserman, Kinnucan-Welsch (2008:8) quoted Paris et.al. (1994) stating that an action becomes strategic when being selected from among alternatives to achieve an intended goal. In other words, they suggested that "an emerging skill can become a strategy when used intentionally", and that a strategy can become a skill.

Metacomprehension Strategy Index

Metacomprehension Strategy Index (MSI) is a multiple-choice questionnaire that is used to evaluate learners' awareness of strategies before, during, and after reading (Schmitt, 2008:113). Table 1 shows the strategies measured by MSI as quoted from Schmitt (2008:105)

Table 1. Strategies Measured by MSI

| | |
|--|--|
| Predicting and Verifying | Predicting the content of a text promotes active comprehension by giving readers a purpose for reading. Evaluating predictions and generating new ones as necessary enhances the constructive nature of the reading process. |
| Previewing | Previewing the text facilitates comprehension by activating background knowledge and providing information for making predictions. |
| Purpose Setting | Reading with a purpose promotes active, strategic reading. |
| Self-Questioning | Generating questions to be answered promotes active comprehension by giving readers a purpose for reading. |
| Drawing from Background Knowledge | Activating and incorporating information from background knowledge contributes to comprehension by helping readers make inferences and generate predictions. |
| Summarizing and Applying Fix-up Strategies | Summarizing the content at various points in the text serves as a form of comprehension monitoring. rereading or suspending judgment and reading on when comprehension breaks down represents strategic reading. |

Method

In this study survey questionnaires, each containing 25 multiple-choice questions, were distributed to 224 voluntarily participating respondents. They were first grade high school students comprising 82 male and 142 female students majoring in social sciences and natural sciences. The questionnaire is aimed at measuring students' awareness on six categories of strategic processes in reading as mentioned previously. In the instruction it is stated that students should think about the things that could help them understand a text better *before*, *during* and *after* they read it. In this research, emphasis is on the quantitative aspects. The writer collected quantitative survey data to identify factors of students' (un) awareness of reading strategies.

Findings and Discussion

Table 2 shows the raw data of students' awareness of strategic reading processes in Social Science and Natural Science's classes for each category. It also indicates that the average percentage of six categories is 36.87% which is very low.

Table 2. Result of Students' Awareness of Strategic Reading Processes

| | Social Science | | | | Total M & F | | Natural Science | | | | Total M & F | | Total M & F of SS & NS | | | | Grand Total | |
|---|----------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|-----------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------------|-------|
| | M | % | F | % | Ttl | % | M | % | F | % | Ttl | % | M | % | F | % | Ttl | % |
| #student | 39 | 36 | 69 | 64 | 108 | 100 | 43 | 37 | 73 | 63 | 116 | 100 | 82 | 37 | 142 | 63 | 224 | 100 |
| Predicting & Verifying | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 102 | 261.5 | 180 | 260.9 | 282.0 | 261.1 | 118 | 274.4 | 186 | 254.8 | 304.0 | 262.1 | 220 | 268.3 | 366 | 257.7 | 586 | 261.6 |
| Average | 14.6 | 37.4 | 25.7 | 37.3 | 40.3 | 37.3 | 16.9 | 39.2 | 26.6 | 36.4 | 43.4 | 37.4 | 31.4 | 38.3 | 52.3 | 36.8 | 83.7 | 37.4 |
| Previewing | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 45 | 115.4 | 88 | 127.5 | 133 | 123.1 | 62 | 144.2 | 90 | 123.3 | 152 | 131.0 | 107 | 130.5 | 178 | 125.4 | 285 | 127.2 |
| Average | 22.5 | 57.7 | 44.0 | 63.8 | 66.5 | 61.6 | 31.0 | 72.1 | 45.0 | 61.6 | 76.0 | 65.5 | 53.5 | 65.2 | 89.0 | 62.7 | 142.5 | 63.6 |
| Purpose Setting | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 46 | 117.9 | 65 | 94.2 | 111 | 102.8 | 49 | 114.0 | 77 | 105.5 | 126 | 108.6 | 95 | 115.9 | 142 | 100.0 | 237 | 105.8 |
| Average | 15.3 | 39.3 | 21.7 | 31.4 | 37.0 | 34.3 | 16.3 | 38.0 | 25.7 | 35.2 | 42.0 | 36.2 | 31.7 | 38.6 | 47.3 | 33.3 | 79.0 | 35.3 |
| Self-Questioning | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 33 | 84.6 | 55 | 79.7 | 88 | 81.5 | 38 | 88.4 | 50 | 68.5 | 88 | 75.9 | 71 | 86.6 | 105 | 73.9 | 176 | 78.6 |
| Average | 11.0 | 28.2 | 18.3 | 26.6 | 29.3 | 27.2 | 12.7 | 29.5 | 16.7 | 22.8 | 29.3 | 25.3 | 23.7 | 28.9 | 35.0 | 24.6 | 58.7 | 26.2 |
| Drawing from Background Knowledge | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 73 | 187.2 | 151 | 218.8 | 224 | 207.4 | 96 | 223.3 | 157 | 215.1 | 253 | 218.1 | 169 | 206.1 | 308 | 216.9 | 477 | 212.9 |
| Average | 12.2 | 31.2 | 25.2 | 36.5 | 37.3 | 34.6 | 16.0 | 37.2 | 26.2 | 35.8 | 42.2 | 36.4 | 28.2 | 34.3 | 51.3 | 36.2 | 79.5 | 35.5 |
| Summarizing & Applying Fix-up Strategies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 55 | 141.0 | 90 | 130.4 | 145 | 134.3 | 68 | 158.1 | 91 | 124.7 | 159 | 137.1 | 123 | 150.0 | 181 | 127.5 | 304 | 135.7 |
| Average | 13.8 | 35.3 | 22.5 | 32.6 | 36.3 | 33.6 | 17.0 | 39.5 | 22.8 | 31.2 | 39.8 | 34.3 | 30.8 | 37.5 | 45.3 | 31.9 | 76.0 | 33.9 |

The hypothesis test using two sided paired t-test, with $\alpha = 5\%$, on raw data in Table 2 showed that, each of the t_{cal} values, for the two cases laid inside the range $t_{(0.025,24)} = -2.064 < t_{cal} < t_{(0.025,24)} = 2.064$. Therefore it could be concluded that there were no difference between the process of reading strategies between male and female students as well as between the social science and the natural science students.

Conclusion

The result of the study indicates that both participants from Social Science and Natural Science were unaware of strategic reading processes. MSI is a valuable instrument for students (and teachers) to evaluate and think critically about their reading strategy processes for the improvement of reading comprehension. Teachers are expected and challenged to prepare and train students to be responsible of their own reading strategies and hence become motivated skilled readers.

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Title

Students' Perception to Asean Economic Community and their English Speaking Skill:
A Case Study of Economics Students in Economics Faculty

Author

Lesta Karolina Br Sebayang
Universitas Negeri Semarang

Bio-Profile:

Lesta Karolina Br Sebayang is an economics lecturer who is active in doing research, community services and teaching and learning. She is also a head department of Economics Development at Universitas Negeri Semarang. She is interested in reserching about economic growth, education and public policies.

Abstract

Asean Economic Community (MEA) has been implemented at the beginning of this year. Indonesians have made preparation in many sectors such as improving infrastructures, economy, education, etc. This study aims at knowing the students' perception to Asean Economic Community, knowing the students' speaking skill, and strategies used by the students for speaking. For knowing the students' perception, 90 (ninety) questioners were distributed. Then, 10 students were chosen randomly for conveying their opinions about MEA. It was conducted for knowing the students' skill and the strategies used in speaking. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively. After analyzing the data, some findings are yielded. First, not all students understand what MEA is. Second, 90.25% students realize that they should improve their skills, especially English for competing in MEA. Third, the students' speaking skills are still low. Further, their grammar are not well used, the vocabulary they have are limited, and they are not really fluent in presenting the materials in English. Finally, some strategies such as language switch, literal translation and approximation are implemented.

Keywords: *Asean Economic Community (AEC), Students' Perception, Speaking Skills*

Affiliation Address: Kampus Sekaran, Gunungpati, Semarang Indonesia, 50229

Introduction

One of supports given by the government for the less in pursuing higher education is by providing grants for them. One of the scholarship given for students is called Bidik misi program. It is a scholarship given for smart students but they are incapable to afford the tuition fee. Having said this, it means, the grantees are special students and are obliged to maintain their achievement at college. They are also expected to be able to survive in facing fierce competition in ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) era. One of the required skills in competing with international communities is mastering international language- one of them is English language. Therefore, Bidikmisi grantees are also expected to acquire this skill. This research aims to investigate the level of Bidik Misi students skill at mastering English language.

A research conducted related to English skill of Indonesian people, in average, mostly, Indonesians have low level English skill. The Index of English skill from 44 countries was reported that Indonesia was at 34 rank meanwhile Malaysia was at 9 level. All 44 countries were non-English speaking countries or English is their foreign language. Based on the report, it is crucial to acknowledge the level of English. In terms of ASEAN Economic Community, it is also important to see how students see it. Then, it is also reported by ABC Radua Australia (16 May, 2014) that Indonesia was at 5 rank after Singapore, the Phillipunes, Malaysia, and Thailand. It means that Indonesia was better from Vietnam and Myanmar in mastering English.

Literature Review

To assess speaking, Brown (2004) designs lists of oral presentations by ranking them into four levels; Excellent (3), good (2), fair (1), and poor (0). Some elements which are ranked are: the content, the aim of the presentation, the opening, the way the ideas expressed by the speaker, expression, and the given summary. While Anderson (1990) defines speaking competence as an ability to use language appropriately in certain situation and express their meaning. This competence includes someone's ability to differentiate when to use formal or informal language.

Then, Hymes (1972) adds that to achieve certain level of competence, mastering grammar is not enough. One should know how to use it appropriately. It means, not only the

grammatical mastery is required, but also the comprehension on the use of language during social interactions.

Then, when one fails in having appropriate way to communicate, it is not rarely that one will use certain strategies. Various strategies for communication are helpful tools for someone to deliver his messages by using target language. Some strategies are also used when one find it difficult to convey their ideas (Bialystok :1990) such as approximation, language switch, and literal translation.

Methodology

This research used qualitative method. First, there were five selected students who were interviewed. Then, the result of the interview were transcribed and analyzed. The analysis used Brown’s oral competence check list (2004). After that, each strategies used by the students were classified.

Findings and Discussion

| | Matter | | | | Delivery | | | |
|----|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| | 0 (Poor) | 1 (Fair) | 2 (Good) | 3 (Excellent) | 0 (Poor) | 1 (Fair) | 2 (Good) | 3 (Excellent) |
| R1 | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | |
| R2 | | ✓ | | | ✓ | | | |
| R3 | | ✓ | | | ✓ | | | |
| R4 | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | |
| R5 | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | |

Table 1 illustrates five students level of oral communication using English. They were asked three points related to what they think about ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), their preparation facing AEC, and what they need to do to improve their skill. The following table shows their competence in matter and delivery. First, related to the content they answered about AEC, they mostly know about MEA. Three students can explain with their own words what MEA is with critical errors using English language, but it is understandable. While, two out of five students have poor knowledge related to MEA. Second, related to delivery, four out of five students have poor ability in conveying their messages. They hardly can express their answers.

Table 1: Students' Oral Competence

Communication Strategies found in Students' Speaking

The next questions are, when students have difficulty in delivering their opinion in English related to AEC, what kinds of strategies they use to keep answering the questions. It is found that the students use certain strategies as follows:

- a) **Approximation.** The students tried to use English words as many as possible for making the addressee understand the information conveyed. However, the students realized that they had produced incorrect grammar
- b) **Language switch.** The students sometimes speak by using Indonesia terms for making their utterances fluent. However, the terms used did not create any confusion for knowing the meaning
- c) **Literal translation.** Word per word translation also became a strategy used by the students to make them keep on speaking by using English. Even though, sometimes some utterances are ingrammatical

Based on the analysis done, literal translation was mostly used by the student for speaking. It is 74% of total strategies and the least used is language switch. Then, the following pie chart shows the details

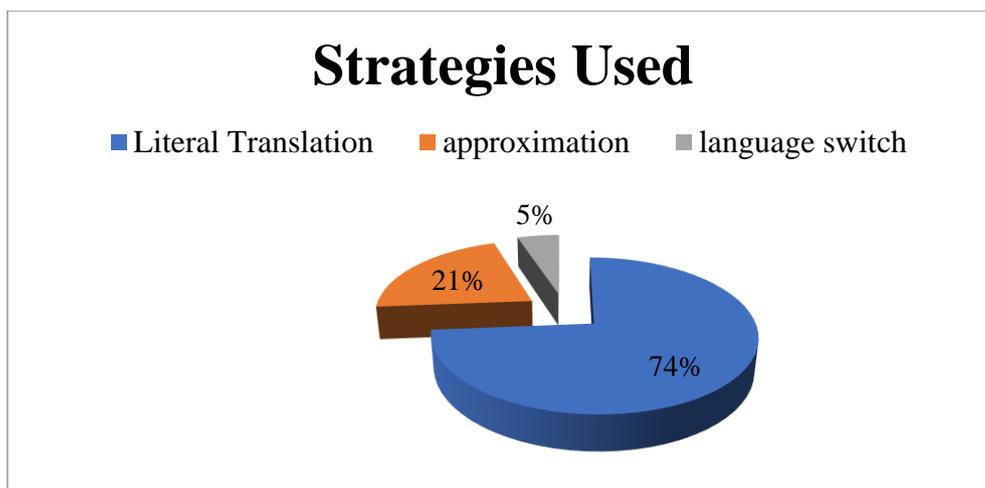


Figure 1: Students' Strategies

Conclusion

From the conducted research, conclusion can be made. First, from the students' perspective, students think that ASEAN Economic Community is beneficial for Indonesia. There need to improve their personality, creativity, work harder, being brave to compete with wider community, appreciate other cultures, having ability to adapt new environment, and mastering up-dated technology.

Then, related to English speaking skill level, students can be ranked at level 1 because they are able to communicate about familiar topics. Unfortunately, mostly, the participants hardly try to express their ideas because of limited vocabularies and grammatical knowledge. Therefore, they used certain strategies to cope with this problem. They used literal translation, approximation, and language switch.

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Title

Self Identity: A Portrait of Learners in English Teacher Training and Education Programs

Author

Luciana

Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia

Abstract

Gaining an understanding of teacher identity is a fundamental aspect to nurture learners in English teacher education programs. Such an argument is of greater importance within the context of globalization which exerts invisible force in teaching and learning. I am interested to address this issue by examining learners' perceptions of their self identity change upon their English learning using a survey-based study. The thirty question questionnaires designed in a four-point Likert scale were adapted based on six categories: a) *self confidence*, b) *additive*, c) *subtractive*, d) *productive*, e) *split*, and f) *zero change*. The study involved 1150 students teachers in seven English teacher education programs in *Java* and five *outside Java*. The internal consistency reliability coefficients of self identity categories revealed that all six categories had the same coefficient reliability (.77). In *Java*, three categories ranked the first three: *additive*, *subtractive*, and *productive* change with different positions across seven teacher education programs. *Outside Java*, *subtractive* change consistently ranked the first, dominantly followed by *productive* and *additive* change. As for the other three categories--*self confidence*, *split*, *zero change*, *Java* and *outside Java* showed a similar pattern with slightly lower mean values (11.40-14.21) than *additive*, *subtractive*, and *productive* change. The study has shed light on self identity as a construct dynamically negotiated by learners as primary agency.

Keywords: *Self identity change, teacher education programs, geographical locations*

Introduction

Learning a second language (L2) is distinct. L2 learning involves the whole being of learners since language not only serves as means of communication but also reflect norms and

culture (Gao, Cheng, & Zhao, 2005). Learners may be driven by a disposition to value, respect ways of life, and interact with the L2 community, arising the issue of identity. This issue needs attention when contextualized in the globalized world offering ample opportunities for learning. Yet the world's being shrinking village should not diminish the very essence of L2 learners crafted with their own identity. As a matter of fact, it is that identity that makes up what globalized world means.

Given this importance, I would like to research learners' self identity in the context of English teacher training and education programs (henceforth ETTEPs) in diverse geographical locations characterized by different cultures. Cochran-Smith (2005) critically reminds the critical position of teacher training and education programs:

...teacher education can be understood as social, ideological, rhetorical and political practice. Examining teacher education through social and ideological lenses means identifying the larger social structures and purposes within which it is embedded, as well as unpacking the cultural ideas, ideals, values, and beliefs to which it is attached. Analyzing teacher education through a rhetorical lens means taking account of the ways that metaphors, narratives, and literary devices are used strategically to garner support for the approaches various groups favor and also for their ways of understanding the issues in the first place. (p.3)

The research questions are twofolds: a) How do learners perceive their self identity change during and after their L2 learning and b) May the geographical locations of the ETTEPs come into play to learners' self identity. Understanding self identity amidst teacher-embryo processes within this sociocultural and sociopolitical landscape would help linguists and educators tap on learners' whole capacity. Borrowing sociologist Pierre Bourdieu's term (1991, cited in Palmer, 2005, p.754), learners can exercise their 'linguistic capital' in the field of language teaching strategically. As English teachers-to be, learners have not been brought to conceive the power of their linguistic capital in their identity. If they themselves have never had a clear picture of their self identity, how can they exercise their linguistic capital for a far distant future students?

Literature Review

Globalization and Self Identity

Globalization, as Ryan (2006) argued, exerts profound changes toward language, language teaching, learning motivation, and language functioning. At the heart of the issue is

the learners' self identity when they learn English, a language no longer confined to a particular community, the phenomenon termed 'linguascapes' (Pennycook, 2003).

Lamber (1975) identified two possible identity orientations, 'subtractive' or 'additive' (as cited in Gao et al., 2005). The former will lead learners to take in the target language and target cultural identity, replacing their native language and identity. On the other hand, Arnett (2002) explained that the latter will maintain the learners' native language and native cultural identity in addition to their own target language and target culture, resulting in a 'bicultural identity' (as cited in Ryan, 2006). This identity, as Ryan further contended, is not necessarily a binary choice, but 'contextually dependent hybrids of local and global values' (p.33). As an alternative to these two types of identities-subtractive and additive, Gao (2002) put forward 'productive bilingualism' in which the target and native language and culture positively reinforce each other, resulting in a deeper understanding and appreciation toward both languages.

Concomitant to this global identity, Kanno and Norton (2003, p. 1) mentioned imagined community--"groups of people not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination" (as cited in Ryan, 2006). By nature, this imagined community is dynamic and tied to learners. They create and re-create their identity within the imagined community which is also re-evaluated continually.

Teachers play important roles to represent this imagined community to arouse learner motivation of learning English. Norton and Kamal (2003) contend that "When learners begin a program of instruction, they may be invested in communities that extend beyond the four walls of classroom. If the language teacher does not validate these imagined communities, student may resist participation in learning" (p.303).

Gao, *et al.* (2005) conducted research on self identity involving 2,278 undergraduates at 30 universities from 29 provinces across mainland China. They designed questionnaires with 24 statements self identity measured by a five-point Likert scale. They found that the English learning exerted influence most on the identity of their perception of their own competence. 'Self esteem needs' was identified as the major drive to learn English. They also found productive bilingualism present in these contexts. Demographically they reported that English major and females participants were higher than non English major and males. In light of early age, they concluded that early learning developed more additive identity.

In sum, it can be highlighted that globalization and learner self identity are intricately related issues. They create invisible force that alters the foundations of language learning and the very perceptions of L2 learners of their identity.

Identity and Teacher Education

Developing a complete understanding of identity can be intricate due to a wide array of theoretical views encapsulating it. Yet shedding light on it in teacher development has been a concensus. Beauchamp & Thomas (2006) supported the need for an understanding of learners' identity shift when embarking on their first year of practice. Lamote and Engels (2010) further argued that when learners develop themselves to be English teachers, their profession is bound to who they are and how they carry out their professionalism. In support of the view, Bullough (1997) clearly emphasized its importance:

Teacher identity—what beginning teachers believe about teaching and learning and self-as-a-teacher—is of vital concern to teacher education; it is the basis for meaning making and decision making... Teacher education must education must begin, then, by exploring the teaching self. (p.21)

Drawing from various studies, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2011) pinpointed three key ideas underlying identity. First, it is transformational and transformative which embraces 'the primacy of agency in identity formation' shedding light on 'understanding individuals as intentional beings' (p.23). Second, Identity is socially, culturally, and politically bound (Duff & Uchida, 1997). Of this concept, two key ideas are pertinent: assigned identity, the identity imposed on one and claimed identity, the one claiming for oneself (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2002). Last, identity is developed by language and discourse (Gee, 1996; MacLure, 1993).

It is the last key idea of identity that is pertinent in this research at two levels. At a broader level, its conceptualization can be regarded associated closely to 'linguistic capital' coined by Bourdieu's term aforementioned. If learners are aware of this capital beyond their proficiency goals and future jobs per se, language can potentially empower their identity shaping. At a narrower level, identity when placed in a context of teacher reflections (Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008), learners can utilize their linguistic capital to project their prospective identity. It means that identity is seen as 'looking into' their L2 learning processes. The research specifically encourages learners in ETTEPs to reflect on their journey with English as part of their vital identity that subsequently will influence the way they shape their student identity. Of relevant conceptualization in capturing their self identity is how they perceive English as they stride purposefully to be an English teacher. In other words, identity at this study is viewed in conjunction with learners' personal dimensions of self amidst journeying their L2 learning processes. In this sense, learners' identity over time (Gee, 2000-2001) is regarded important.

Methodology

A survey-based study was adopted and the populations were conducted based on criterion sampling in two geographical locations-Java and outside Java, the former being the centre of economics and education. The two different set of geographical locations were intended to explore their potential influence on the learners' identity.

The learners of ETTEPs, aged 19-22 had to be at least in their fifth semester and had taken linguistics, pedagogical, and methodological courses so as to have a greater understanding of their learning process. They were selected from seven ETTEPs in universities in Java (five state and two private universities) and from five ETTEPs in universities outside Java (five state universities). A total of 1150 participants responded to the survey. Below is the number of participants in each province.

Table 1: *Number of Participants in each Location*

| No. | Provinces of universities | No. of participants | Provinces of universities | No. of participants |
|-----|---------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|
| | Java | | Outside Java | |
| 1 | Jakarta 1 | 100 | Jaya Pura, Papua | 100 |
| 2 | Jakarta 2 | 100 | Singaraja, Bali | 100 |
| 3 | Bandung, West Java | 84 | Pekan Baru, Riau | 100 |
| 4 | Malang, East Java | 100 | Samarinda, East Kalimantan | 81 |
| 5 | Jogyakarta, Central Java | 85 | Palembang, South Sumatra | 100 |
| 6 | Solo, Central Java | 100 | | |
| 7 | Semarang, Central Java | 100 | | |
| | Total | 669 | | 481 |

The self identity questionnaire inquiring self identity change was adapted from Gao, *et al.* (2005). It consisted of six categories which were primarily constructed based on bilingual theories (Gao, 2001; Lambert, 1974, cited in Gao, *et al.*, 2005, p. 137). The six categories comprised 30 questions as follow:

1. self confidence change (4 questions): the perception of one's own competence
2. additive change (5 questions): the perception of valuing native and target language
3. subtractive change (5 questions): the substitution of the native language and cultural identity by the target language and target cultural identity
4. productive change (4 questions): the reinforcement of one language on the other
5. split change (4 questions): the conflict that may arise due to contradictory values and beliefs between the native and target language and culture
6. zero change (5 questions): absence of self identity change.

In addition to two sets of questionnaire, a semi-structured interview was employed to extract and heighten the learners' perceptions of their self identity after they learned English. Twenty learners in each ETTEP were contacted by phone calls to conduct the interviews.

The questionnaire validation took a long process given the wide geographical spread of ETTEPs in each province. The challenge of this refinement especially laid in the multi social and cultural settings in each geographical location. The statements were carefully expressed so they could tap the self identity perceptions of change and did not lead them to make interpretations of stark differences between two sets of languages. Following the rigorous formulation, the questionnaire was carefully translated into Indonesian to warrant the understanding. I also piloted the questionnaire to 100 learners of the ETTEP in Jakarta, resulting in some modifications for additive, subtractive, and split change categories.

The data were analyzed using SPSS version 17.0 to count the internal reliability coefficients and the descriptive statistics of the mean and standard deviation figure for each category. The learners' self identity change in Java and outside Java were compared using one-tailed T-test. Finally the qualitative data from the semi-structured interview was carefully learnt and extracted to capture the emerging thoughts and recurring ideas of the issue.

Findings and Discussion

This part presents the analysis of self identity change which includes: 1) the internal consistency reliability coefficients of self identity categories, 2) the descriptive statistics of self identity categories, and 3) the comparison between self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java.

The internal consistency reliability coefficients of Self Identity change

The coefficient reliability analysis of self identity questionnaire was counted based on forty learners from each ETTEP in five universities throughout five provinces. As Table 2 displays, all categories have the same coefficient reliability (.77). Therefore, these six categories are incorporated into the main analysis.

Table 2. The reliability coefficients from six self identity categories

| No. | Self identity categories | Cronbach's alpha |
|-----|--------------------------|------------------|
| 1 | Self confidence change | .77 |
| 2 | Additive change | .77 |
| 3 | Subtractive change | .77 |
| 4 | Productive change | .77 |
| 5 | Split change | .77 |
| 6 | Zero change | .77 |

The descriptive statistics of self identity categories: ETTEPs in Java and outside Java

Self identity change of the learners in ETTEPs in Java is shown by Table 3 and 4 while that of outside Java by Table 5. As Table 3 displays, the students in ETTEP in Jakarta 1 identify *additive* change as the highest change (16.60) followed by *subtractive* and *productive* change. Different from Jakarta 1, the learners in Jakarta2, Bandung, and Malang score *subtractive* change the highest (16.28, 15.74, and 16.05 respectively) followed by *productive* and *additive* change. It seems apparent that three self identity change ranks the first three: *additive*, *subtractive*, and *productive* change. The other three self identity changes--*self confidence*, *split*, *zero change* gain slightly lower mean values (11.40-13.90).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories in Jakarta, Bandung, Malang

| No | Self identity categories | Jakarta 1 | | | Jakarta 2 | | | Bandung | | | Malang | | |
|----|--------------------------|-----------|-------|------|-----------|-------|------|---------|-------|------|--------|-------|------|
| | | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| 1. | Self conf change | 100 | 12.80 | 1.43 | 100 | 12.51 | 1.57 | 84 | 12.29 | 1.37 | 100 | 11.40 | 2.02 |
| 2. | Additive change | 100 | 16.60 | 2.39 | 100 | 14.47 | 1.72 | 84 | 15.01 | 1.56 | 100 | 14.28 | 1.71 |
| 3. | Subtractive change | 100 | 15.18 | 1.55 | 100 | 16.28 | 2.12 | 84 | 15.74 | 1.96 | 100 | 16.05 | 1.78 |
| 4. | Productive change | 100 | 14.99 | 1.65 | 100 | 15.91 | 1.59 | 84 | 15.19 | 1.42 | 100 | 15.87 | 1.65 |
| 5. | Split change | 100 | 13.90 | 1.96 | 100 | 13.90 | 1.87 | 84 | 13.75 | 1.80 | 100 | 11.40 | 2.02 |
| 6. | Zero change | 100 | 13.26 | 1.96 | 100 | 13.15 | 1.91 | 84 | 13.35 | 1.81 | 100 | 13.58 | 2.16 |

As Table 4 shows, a similar pattern of mean values applies to ETTEPS in Jogjakarta and Semarang, placing *subtractive* change the highest (15.93 and 15.90 respectively) followed by *productive* and *additive* change. Solo, on the other hand demonstrates the highest mean value in *productive* change (15.79) followed by *additive* and *subtractive* change.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories in Jogjakarta, Solo, Semarang

| No | Self identity categories | Jogjakarta | | | Solo | | | Semarang | | |
|----|--------------------------|------------|-------|------|------|-------|------|----------|-------|-------|
| | | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| 1. | Self conf change | 100 | 12.95 | 1.47 | 100 | 12.83 | 1.46 | 84 | 12.12 | 1.610 |
| 2. | Additive change | 100 | 15.41 | 1.39 | 100 | 15.22 | 1.67 | 84 | 14.41 | 1.571 |
| 3. | Subtractive change | 100 | 15.93 | 1.94 | 100 | 15.07 | 1.93 | 84 | 15.90 | 2.018 |
| 4. | Productive change | 100 | 15.87 | 1.65 | 100 | 15.79 | 1.45 | 84 | 15.76 | 1.770 |
| 5. | Split change | 100 | 13.88 | 1.72 | 100 | 13.48 | 1.52 | 84 | 12.16 | 2.039 |
| 6. | Zero change | 100 | 13.28 | 1.67 | 100 | 13.17 | 1.69 | 84 | 14.32 | 2.054 |

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of self identity change of ETTEP student outside Java. All ETTEPs in five provinces consistently generate the highest mean value in *subtractive* change with considerably the same range of values (16.31, 16.34, 16.37, 16.72, and 16.53). Except for Samarinda, the other four provinces similarly rank *productive* change the

second followed by *additive* change. The other three self identity changes-*self confidence*, *split*, *zero* change have lower mean values (11.97-14.21).

Table 5. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories outside Java

| No | Self identity categories | Papua | | | Bali | | | Riau | | | Samarinda | | | Palembang | | |
|----|--------------------------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|------|------|-------|------|-----------|-------|------|-----------|-------|------|
| | | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| 1. | Self conf chg | 100 | 12.17 | 1.78 | 100 | 12.49 | 1.63 | 84 | 12.34 | 1.44 | 100 | 12.73 | 1.64 | 100 | 12.63 | 1.53 |
| 2. | Additive chg | 100 | 14.33 | 1.94 | 100 | 14.45 | 1.60 | 84 | 14.72 | 1.34 | 100 | 15.65 | 1.54 | 100 | 15.31 | 1.54 |
| 3. | Subtract.chg | 100 | 16.31 | 2.44 | 100 | 16.34 | 2.15 | 84 | 16.37 | 1.99 | 100 | 16.72 | 2.66 | 100 | 16.53 | 2.42 |
| 4. | Productive. chg | 100 | 16.15 | 1.76 | 100 | 15.68 | 1.68 | 84 | 16.12 | 1.49 | 100 | 15.63 | 1.52 | 100 | 15.41 | 1.44 |
| 5. | Split change | 100 | 12.68 | 2.42 | 100 | 12.57 | 1.83 | 84 | 11.97 | 2.06 | 100 | 14.02 | 1.61 | 100 | 14.21 | 1.56 |
| 6. | Zero change | 100 | 13.50 | 2.47 | 100 | 13.49 | 2.02 | 84 | 13.87 | 2.18 | 100 | 13.43 | 1.76 | 100 | 13.49 | 1.80 |

The comparison between self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java.

The analysis of self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java using two-tailed T test shows that their self identity is not significantly different (p=0.44 with p<0.01) The mean values of self identity in Java is only slightly lower (85.45) than those in outside Java (86.21). They share *subtractive* change as the main self identity change followed by *productive* and *additive* change.

The interview conducted to twenty learners in each ETTEP found that they were motivated to improve their English to have a better future. As a consequence, they thought it would be beneficial to optimally absorb English to substitute Indonesian. In particular, the social media became their channels to substitute Indonesian with English. It was also found that there seemed still a strong tendency to value native speakerism in perceiving what English learning is about. In particular, this tendency was more expressed by the learners in the ETTEPs outside Java. Their fellows in Java, to a slight degree were still tempted to value native speakers but they showed more openness to their root identity. Both learners in Java and outside Java, nevertheless share the importance of their standing on their roots as their identity. Even, some in Java strongly held the idea of situating L2 learning in their own contexts while the target language and cultures should serve as enrichment.

Based on the findings, a portrait of the learners’ self identity change across the ETTEPs in Java and outside Java can be described as follows. As a process of their learning, the learners in both Java and outside Java tend to perceive their dominant self identity as subtractive as well as productive and additive change. It means that they substitute some of their native language and culture with the target language and culture. While this change should be taken into caution, it is quite relieving to find out that they still strike the balance between English

and Indonesian by positively valuing and using two sets of language appropriately based on their contexts and purposes. In so doing, their self identity change still undergoes in a balanced direction without losing their roots. These results share Gao, *et al.* (2005) who found the presence of productive and additive self identity categories.

This portrait seems to echo Ryan's (2006) context bound of local and global values of L2. Taken further, it is interesting to note that the learners' encounter with media internet as their imagined community enables them to shuttle within the categories of self identity, from substituting to utilizing and valuing both their mother tongue and target language for their contextualized purposes. The learners go through this shuttling process dynamically, thus negotiating their self identity. The process conforms to identity as Varghese et al, refer to (2011) as transformational and transformative involving the very intention of learners to exploit their agency in claiming their self identity. Their shuttling through the media to serve their goals is likely to heighten how language and discourse plays major roles in shaping learners' identity. Finally, it can be noted that with such an awareness, learners would more likely to undertake their L2 learning wholly. They can see how they keep evaluating and reinventing their identity dynamically to attain the very being individuals they wish to be identified with.

Another piece of finding which shows no significant difference between the learners' self identity change in Java and outside Java may further offer insight into the construct of self identity. Regardless of different sociocultural and educational contexts which surround the learners and certainly exert their influence of their L2 learning, self identity change seems to be dominantly characterized by learners' agency to make sense of their learning processes and purposes. Discovering this sense during their teacher-embryo process would open chances for them to capitalize their L2 beyond L2 per se. It would prepare a solid ground before embarking on their professional identity.

Conclusion

This study has examined the perceptions of self identity change of the learners in English Teacher Training and Education Programs (ETTEP) in different geographical locations in Indonesia. The study revealed that both positive (additive and productive change) and negative change (subtractive) were present as dynamic processes of negotiating their self identity. Geographical locations did not seem to exert influence on the learners' self identity shaping. As such, it can be highlighted that the construct of identity is likely to spring from dominant roles of individuals to activate their agency in negotiating and constructing their self

identity. Thus, finding out early learners' self identity change in ETTEPs as sociocultural and sociopolitical contexts to incubate learners' identity should be fully understood by teachers, linguists, and educators. Future research can explore deeper how learners' self identity change during their study may influence the way they capitalize on their linguistic capital to assign identity to their students in class when stepping into teacher professional identity.

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| PERCEPTIONS OF SELF IDENTITY CHANGE | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--------------|----------|-----------|-----------|---------------------|--|
| Please put a tick (✓) to the statements below in accordance with your perception. | | | | | | | |
| SD (Strongly disagree) | | D (Disagree) | | A (Agree) | | SA (Strongly Agree) | |
| No. | After I am learning English, | SD | D | A | SA | | |
| 1 | I feel more confident. | | | | | | |
| 2 | I feel comfortable to switch from English to Indonesian or vice versa in written and spoken communication. | | | | | | |
| 3 | I think that direct communication ('to the point') is preferable than indirect one. | | | | | | |
| 4 | I appreciate Indonesian more. | | | | | | |
| 5 | I can communicate better in Indonesian. | | | | | | |
| 6 | I start seeing stark differences between Indonesian and the target language cultures. | | | | | | |
| 7 | I feel more convinced with my progress in English learning. | | | | | | |
| 8 | I can express myself more accurately in English. | | | | | | |
| 9 | I can see uniqueness of my cultures and the target language cultures. | | | | | | |
| 10 | I feel confused if I have to switch from Indonesian to English or vice versa in oral communication. | | | | | | |
| 11 | I feel more open to other cultures and languages. | | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|
| 12 | I prefer using English with my friends but Indonesian with my teachers. | | | | |
| 13 | I have a binary point of view in all aspects of my life: Indonesian and the target language views. | | | | |
| 14 | I view English merely as a means for my education and career. | | | | |
| 15 | I uphold highly my Indonesian identity (I am not influenced by English that I am learning and using). | | | | |
| 16 | I become parts of globalization so I can compete in the work field. | | | | |
| 17 | I prefer listening to English rather than reading the Indonesian subtitles while watching movies. | | | | |
| 18 | I like using English while chatting because it is cool. | | | | |
| 19 | I appreciate writing in Indonesian compared to in English. | | | | |
| 20 | I promote my Indonesian identity in my life. | | | | |
| 21 | I still have the same views. | | | | |
| 22 | I feel strange to express ideas in English with Indonesian ways of thinking. | | | | |
| 23 | I prefer creating an English name in my email and social media accounts because they sound cool. | | | | |
| 24 | I feel capable of developing my capacity in many aspects. | | | | |
| 25 | I realize the importance of learning good Indonesian for communication. | | | | |
| 26 | I find the target language values and cultures ordinary (nothing special). | | | | |
| 27 | I am confused whether to adopt Indonesian or English patterns in communication. | | | | |
| 28 | I feel some influence on my ways of thinking and behaviour. | | | | |
| 29 | I equally appreciate Indonesian and the target language cultures. | | | | |
| 30 | I feel successful given my progress in English. | | | | |

Title

Creating Meaningful Problem-Based Learning Activities for
Beginner EFL Learners

Author

Luh Putu Artini

Ganesha University of Education, Bali, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Luh Putu Artini is a senior lecturer of Ganesha University of Education, Indonesia. Her research interests include ELT methods and strategies, TEYL, and Bilingual Education. She has a Ph.D. in English Education from Newcastle University, Australia and currently teaches ELT Methods and Reflective Teaching. She can be reached at putu.artini@undiksha.ac.id

Abstract

The objectives of this research are: to describe problem-based learning activities that can be developed for EFL beginner learners; to analyze the quality of the developed activities; and to describe how the activity affects EFL teaching and learning. The activities were designed with the reference to the syllabus and characteristics of problem-based learning (PBL). The quality of the materials was tested through Gregory agreement model of the responses by the expert judges. The impact of the implementation of PBL activities on the teaching and learning process were described based on classroom observation and interview. The results of the research showed that there were 8 topics from the syllabus that could be 'translated' into PBL tasks. The developed materials were found to have the consistency index of 0.82 which means that the quality of the developed materials was in the category of 'very good'. PBL activities were found very engaging and the students were very enthusiastic to work in groups for task fulfillment.

Keywords: *beginner EFL learners, problem-based learning activities*

Introduction

This study aims to develop problem-based learning activities that build learning autonomy for beginner learners of English as a Foreign Language in Bali, Indonesia. The material development was based on the expectations of the latest curriculum which is scientific-based and recommend the implementation of PBL approach to learning (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013). There are four main characteristics of PBL that meet the expectations of the new curriculum: constructive, self-directed, collaborative and contextual (Dolmans, et al., 2005).

PBL might be relatively new for many EFL teachers in Indonesia even though it has been popular since the 1980's (Burrows, 1996) and was reported as an effective teaching method in 1993 (Norman and Schmidt, 2000). Hung, et al., (2008) reported a list of advantages when PBL is applied in the classroom across subjects. These include the increase of problem solving skills, high order thinking and autonomous learning. When applied in EFL classes, students have good opportunities to use language communicatively through the activities of sharing ideas and making consensus in group discussion. Ross (2001) asserts that in solving a problem, a student should make strong connections between key concepts from the lesson, prior knowledge and real life that results in the attainment of academic and non-academic achievement.

PBL has all the characteristics that help learners develop their problem solving skills and guide them to become autonomous learners (Barrows, 1996). In PBL activities, teachers take the role of facilitators (Hmelo-Silver, 2004) to guide students to identify what they need to learn to solve a problem. In her latter publication, this author classified two types of problems that may be used by a teacher to create PBL tasks: decision making or trouble shooting (Hmelo-Silver, 2012).

Research Method

This study employed the research and development model proposed by Sugiyono (2011) with ten steps of procedures: identifying potential and problems, collecting data, designing product, validating design, administrating product usability, revising product, product try out, revising design, revising product and mass production. The first and second steps were conducted by administering questionnaire, interview with English teachers and school principals and classroom observation. The third step, designing product, was conducted by analyzing English syllabus for Grade 7 and identifying the potential topics to be taught using

PBL activities. The next step (product usability) was done through expert judgment, and the step of revising the product was based on the judges' feedback. Product try out was conducted to 40 students and further try out involving bigger number of subjects and schools has been planned prior to mass production of the book product.

Findings and Discussion

The first and the second steps of the research found that English teachers in junior high schools were not confident in designing PBL activities. The interview showed that all the English teachers had had the opportunity to participate in a special training on the implementation of the new curriculum. They perceived that the training was lack of practical modelling about how to plan, implement and evaluate student-centered methods, one of which was PBL. The analysis of the syllabus identified nine topics that were potentially appropriate to be supported with PBL tasks. The topics comprised of asking and giving opinions, giving compliments, making an invitation, expressing routines, expressing past experience, expressing events in progress, making a description, making short messages or notices and telling stories. PBL activities were then developed based on the identified topics, PBL characteristics and the targeted competences of the curriculum. The task blueprint is illustrated in the following example:

Table 1. Example of blueprint for developing PBL tasks

| Topics | Task | PBL Activities |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| Asking and giving opinion | Editing 2 mixed up dialogues | Publisher mixed up 2 dialogues by mistakes. Students should find the two dialogues (<i>pair work</i>) |
| | Finalizing unfinished simple drama script | A simple drama script (developed from a popular story) is left unfinished and students have to continue (<i>small group work</i>) |
| Making a description | Describing an animal from a cartoon movie | Choose an animal from a cartoon movie to be kept for pet. Give the reason why you choose it (<i>small group work</i>) |

| | | |
|--|---|---|
| | Describing partner's physical experience in 30 years from now | Imagine, draw and describe how your partner would look like in 30 years from now (<i>Pair work</i>) |
|--|---|---|

As seen above, the tasks were designed to follow the characteristics of PBL with the emphasis on student-centered learning. Contextual problems were intended to stimulate active learning. From the task of *editing two mixed up dialogues*, the learners were required to read the dialogues repeatedly and utilised their language intuition, logical and critical thinking to identify and solve the problem. To do so, they work cooperatively in the group and make decision. This activity exercises their analytical thinking and reasoning skills and at the same time strengthens the character of teamworking and taking responsibility to own learning (Maurer & Neuhold, 2012). PBL activities can make learning more natural and meaningful and additionally, learners are trained to develop their problem solving skills and use English contextually and spontaneously.

The materials were then sent to the expert judges for construct and content validation. Gregory agreement model was employed to analyse the consistency of the judgement. The data analysis found the consistency index of 0.82 which indicates that the developed PBL materials had very high validity. A three-week classroom observation was then conducted during the product try out, and it was found that the PBL activities were very engaging. All the students demonstrated positive attitudes and group effort to fulfil the tasks . These seemed to be very promising since for a long time, English classes in Indonesia, especially for beginner learners, mostly involved students with controlled activities in which students were assigned to work on an assignment and then the teacher checked if it was right or wrong. PBL activities have been found to be very important in medical classes where learners are trained to develop their reasoning and analytical problem-solving skills (Maurer & Neuhold, 2012; Savery, 2006). In this research the additional importance was foreseen as the students tried their best to decide on what language to use to express their ideas and integrate the newly acquired language fuctions with their background language.

Conclusion

PBL tasks developed in this research could be treated as a model for material development procedures. The tasks provide learners with opportunities to develop their English

through meaningful activities such as discussing, comparing and reasoning. PBL activities could also be expected to develop characters such as taking responsibility to own learning, working in team and making use of high order thinking skills in solving contextual problems.

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Bandung: Alfabeta

Title

Adapting an Indonesian Folktale to Develop an Interactive Material
for Teaching Spoken Narrative Text in an ESL Class

Author

Lulu April Farida, S.Pd., M.Pd.

Intan Permata Hapsari, S.Pd., M.Pd.,

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Lulu April Farida is an English Lecture of English for Specific Purposes at Semarang State University Indonesia. She has been teaching English for years focusing on English for sport science, ICT in language learning, English teaching instruction, and Bahasa Indonesia for foreigner. She is easy to reach in lulu.farida@mail.unnes.ac.id

Intan Permata Hapsari is a lecturer in the English Department of Faculty of Languages and Arts, Semarang State University (UNNES), Indonesia. She teaches Speaking, Writing, Grammar, and GMD (Grammar, Meaning, and Discourse). She can be reached in intan74@mail.unnes.ac.id

Abstract

This study aims at describing the ESL materials that are needed in junior high school, developing the adapted an Indonesian folktale into an interactive material for an ESL class, and examining its implementation for teaching spoken narrative text to the students of junior high school in an ESL class. This study used Research and Development (R&D) method adapted from Borg and Gall (1985) and Thiagarajan et. al. (1974). The experts and teachers examined the result of designing preliminary form of product based on its defining part of this study. According to their suggestions, an interactive material of Indonesian folktale was successfully designed as a final product. It developed seven learning parts, they are (1) dictation of vocabulary items; (2) listening section; (3) cloze listening test; (4) multiple choices; (5) content

of narrative text; (6) retelling story guidelines; (7) story retelling. After main field-testing, it showed that in ESL class teachers needed an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text which coming from Indonesian stories to build up students' nationality. It was practical and effective for teaching spoken narrative to students in technological era today. Students also learnt it as enjoy as playing a game. As a result an interactive material of Indonesian folktale is ready to use as one of narrative materials for teaching spoken narrative text to junior high school students in an ESL class

Introduction

Narrative text is one of the texts to learn folktales, fables, folklore, fairy tales, and other stories. Composing stories whether spoken or written involves a set of skills and authorial knowledge. Also, those are an essential means for students to express themselves creatively and imaginatively. Thus, interactive material for teaching spoken narrative texts using Indonesian stories should be presence in the era of rapidly changing and progressing technology.

In contrary, only few interactive materials of narratives text come from Indonesia. Some Indonesian English teachers do not consider that Information Computer and Technology (ICT) is a life skill for them and their students. Consequently, Indonesian teachers must lead students to preserve their own culture then preserve local heritage as Indonesian treasure. Therefore, Indonesian teachers should introduce Indonesian folktale by using ICT in teaching and learning process especially for teaching spoken narrative texts.

This study describes how to design, develop, and adapt an Indonesian folktale into an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative to ESL Class. In case, in the end of teaching and learning process of listening students should be able to make a presentation focus on retelling story. It is one of extensive speaking performances and designed as the assessment in teaching speaking.

Literature Review

A computer is a tool and medium that facilitates people in learning language, although the effectiveness of learning depends totally on the users (Hartoyo 2006:11). Similarly, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) can benefit from the use of computer. The use of computers in learning English as a Second Language (ESL) is necessary to improve the effectiveness and quality of TEFL in Indonesia. Although the potential of ICT for educational

use has not been fully explored yet, some schools in Indonesia still make limited use of computers. It is clear that Indonesia recently entered a new link between ICT and TEFL which has already been established. It is a positive response to develop and construct teaching materials based on ICT according to the recent curriculum in Indonesia.

According to School-Based Curriculum, spoken language focuses on interpersonal meaning and text types (Depdiknas, 2006). Interpersonal meaning deals with dialog among students whereas text type focuses on monolog. In this study, students have to comprehend the text while listening then retell it. According to Hammond et. al. (1992: 5), there is no clear dividing line between spoken and written language as that of a continuum. However, it is mostly spoken language where language interaction accompanies action.

Shin (2003:2) states the grammatical feature is not within spoken domain. Therefore, in the spoken language focuses on delivering and conveying messages which must be accepted by both speaker and interlocutor. Integrated skill of listening and speaking gives efficiency effect for both teachers and students.

Generally, listening focuses on hearing, attention, and voice. Listeners must process the messages as they come, even they are still processing what they have just heard. In addition, they must cope with the sender's choice of vocabulary, structure, and rate of delivery. Therefore, listening is the primary means of L2 acquisition for EFL students. They should first hear a new language target before speaking up. As stated in Richard (2008), learning from listening requires activating prior knowledge or knowledge schemas and updating them in some ways: through addition, negation, generalization, reduction, or abstraction. Brown (2007: 299) also agrees that the importance of listening can hardly be overestimated.

Teaching speaking is related to listening skill (Brown, 2007:322). Teaching speaking is meant to guide the students to be able to make presentation in the classroom as they got in a modelling part. Teaching listening is one of the models for teaching speaking. Harmer (1998:60) shows presentation in language learning process is the chance to expose to language whose meaning and construction the students' understand. It makes sense for them to practice it under controlled condition. As mentioned above there are six types of listening performance, six similar categories apply to the kinds of speaking performance: (1) imitative; (2); intensive; (3) responsive; (4) transactional; (5) interpersonal; (6) extensive.

In learning a narrative text, the language features are important. Derewianka (1990: 42) states that the language features of narrative texts should fulfil in the following requirements. The first is that narrative texts must focus on specific and usually individual

participants. The major participants are human, or sometimes animals with human characteristics. The second is that they use mainly action verbs (material processes), but also many verbs which refer to what the human participants said, or felt, or thought (verbal and mental processes). The third is that they use many linking words to do with the time. The fourth is that they include the dialogue into a text. In a narrative text, the readers usually see many dialogues or direct sentences among the characters. The fifth is that they use descriptive language. The descriptive language is chosen to enhance and develop the story by developing or creating images in the reader's mind. The sixth is that they use past tense grammatical structure. It happens because a narrative text tells about something occurring in past time. The last requirement is that they use first person (I, We) or the third person (She, He and They).

Narrative text has five structures, namely orientation, complication (sequence of events), resolution, and coda. The orientation is a part (a paragraph) when the narrator tells the audience who is in the story, when it is happening, where it is happening, and what is going on. The complication is the part of the story where there narrator tells about something in which a chain of sequence of events will begin. This effect will affect one or more of the characters and it includes the feelings of what they do. The events can be told in chronological order or the flashback. The resolution is the part of a narrative text where the complication is sorted out or the problem is solved. The narrator includes a coda if there is a moral value or message which can be learned from the story (Sadler and Haylar, 2004).

Since ICT has become increasingly widespread recently, media utilizing ICT is appropriate and applicable to English classroom activity, especially for junior high school students. In this case, interactive material is used as the media in this study. Today, games ought to be at the heart of TEFL in Indonesia. Kozma and Robert (2003) suggest that animated graphics, video, digitized pronunciations and hyperlinks necessitate the development of new literacy skills. Therefore, games are often arranged in the ICT tutorial program to be an interactive material which can be used in the integrated skill. Munadi (2008:152) states that interactive multimedia must deal with some criteria: (1) easy navigation; (2) cognitive content; (3) integrated to other skills; (4) artistic; (5) functional.

Methodology

As the objective of the study is to develop an interactive material for the ESL Class, the appropriate design of the study was Research and Development (R & D). The qualitative and quantitative used to analyse data collection. Research framework in this study is drawn in Figure 1.

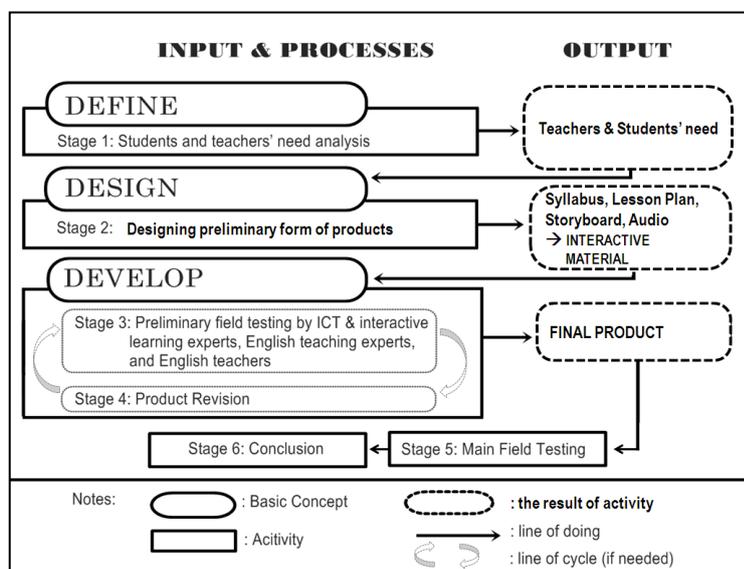


Figure 1 Research Framework

Instruments used in this study covered: (1) questioners for the ICT interactive and learning experts, English teaching experts, and English teachers to assess the adapted an Indonesian folktale to develop interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text to ESL class; (2) observation and test for examining the implementation of the interactive material used in ESL class.

Findings and Discussions

In the preliminary research, it showed some teachers and students' textbook for teaching and learning narrative text mostly focused on written English learning. The audio-visual for teaching spoken narrative text frequently focused on one single material monotonously whereas was not acceptable in the current curriculum. Therefore teachers need an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text which comes from Indonesian stories to build up students' nationality. Besides, computer becomes the first priority in students' life nowadays and drives students an interactive material to learn English.

The result of the first stage consisted of four steps. They were syllabus and lesson plan of narrative text thereafter layout and script of the Indonesian folktale. An interactive material of Indonesian folktale was the result of stage designing preliminary form of product. It covers seven sections for learning spoken narrative text. They are: (1) dictation vocabulary items; (2) listening section; (3) cloze listening test; (4) multiple choice; (5) what narrative text is; (6) retelling story guidelines; (7) story retelling. Afterward, it was used in the main field testing in schools.

The interactive material consists of texts, animations, pictures, and exercises of learning spoken narrative text which was created on motherboard platform and currently could be downloaded on android system. The interactive material of Indonesian folktale was made in a line of one direction learning strategy from section 1 up to 7. Hence, each student had to join in each level to continue the progress in learning spoken narrative text. In the end of each level, the student got a password to enter the next level (Figure 2). Therefore, if the students want to learn one activity in other times, they can directly go down to the level in which they want. The interactive material could be played by *Flash Player* or *Gom Player* program from computer or android system.

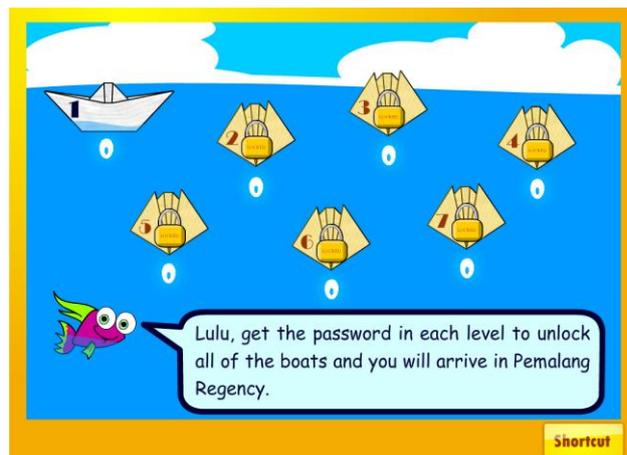


Figure 2 Layout an Interactive Material for Getting Password

The following stage was the experts and teacher's judgments. The average of the experts and teacher's judgments (Table 1) were further than adequate, therefore, it did not to be redesigned. Nonetheless, the suggestions from the experts and the teacher were used to revise the products. The validation of the interactive material was given by two ICT & interactive learning experts to assess the innovation, system instruction, and design indicator. Meanwhile the English teaching experts and an English teacher focused on curriculum,

material and exercises indicators. 16 questions were designed in every indicator as the instrument of this study.

Table 1: The Average of the Experts and Teacher’s Judgments

| INDICATORS | ICT Interactive | | English Teaching Experts | English Teacher | AVERAGE |
|--------------------|------------------|-----|--------------------------|-----------------|---------|
| | Learning Experts | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | | | |
| Curriculum | - | - | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.55 |
| Material | - | - | 3.3 | 3.5 | 3.4 |
| Exercises | - | - | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.75 |
| Innovation | 3.5 | 3.4 | - | - | 3.45 |
| System Instruction | 3.6 | 3.5 | - | - | 3.55 |
| Design | 3.6 | 3.7 | - | - | 3.65 |

The product revision stage accomplished according to their suggestions. The revision focused on grammatical errors. Those were some instructions, some exercises, some spellings, some capital letters, and some punctuation marks. Furthermore, the modelling for doing the exercises should be added.

During the main field-testing in schools, interview was done to the teachers. They mentioned that interactive material was so interesting and very easy to understand. It was easy to deliver the purpose of teaching and learning spoken narrative text. It was appropriate for the students’ difficulty level. In the observation, a number of important things which showed that the interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text was effective and practical in schools were noted that the students seriously joined the teaching and learning process. There were no students chatting, sleepy, or slept during teaching and learning process.

The students were happy to manage their own way to make any decision in taking part of the game by interactive material. Feeling independent to learn English and having confidence to retell the story in front of class showed that interactive material as a power of learning in ESL class. It also expresses that Indonesian folktale could be used as the material in learning English. In this case, students could improve and encourage theirs’ nationality.

Both teachers and students liked its audio which was originally from native English speakers. It could make the students more familiar with their accent, pronunciation, and intonation yet it was strange and hard to catch them in the first time. The students could also master well what narrative text was since its generic structure and lexicogrammatical were clearly explained related to the story. Samples of the layout can be seen in the Figure 3 and 4.

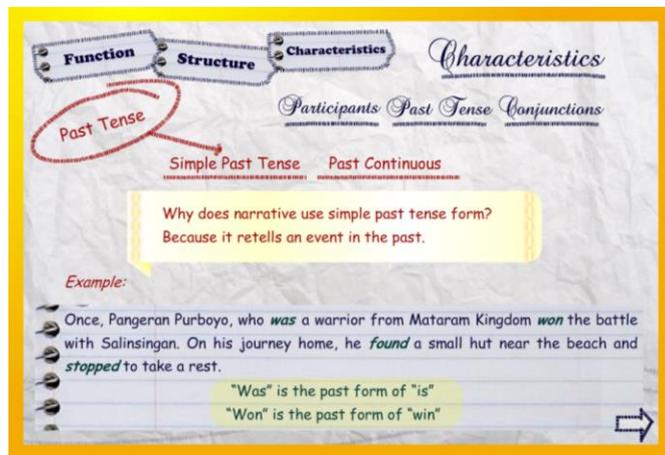


Figure 3 Layout of Lexicogrammatical of Narrative Text

All the results for those evaluations were greater than its indicators. Thus, the final product did not need to be revised. By doing interactive material, the students got score in their own account and it passed the passing grade for the integrated test of narrative text. From the sampling subjects, there were 80 % students passed the listening test and 91.15% students gained the speaking test.

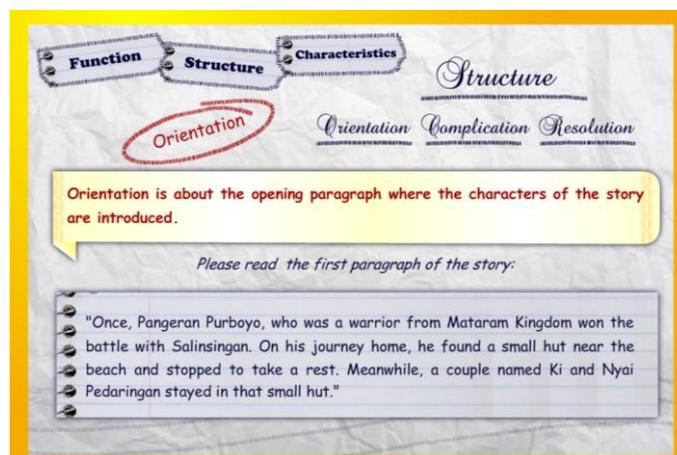


Figure 4 Layout of Generic Structure of Narrative Text

Conclusion

The six stages of adapting an Indonesian folktale that were developed into an interactive material were assessed by the experts and teachers, revised, and tried out in sampling schools. It was proved that the interactive material was practical and effective. An interactive material of Indonesian folktale can be used as one of materials for teaching spoken narrative text in Indonesian schools with sputed facilities. The teacher evaluated of an interactive material's implementation ran over good. Therefore, the implementation for the teaching spoken narrative was practical and effective.

A number of suggestions are presented in this part. It might be taken into consideration for those who will conduct a similar study as well as for the teachers who will use this product. Since the teaching and learning process using ICT is growing up recently. Those can improve the result of TEFL in Indonesia. They are as follows: (1) teachers should know how to operate the computer well because it is the main key to use the interactive material; (2) teachers may adapt other Indonesian folktales for teaching narrative text with this prototype; (3) teachers can conduct further study to develop both spoken and written materials for other text types by employing the same method; (4) teachers should make sure that the students are able to use interactive material and it will guide them to master the English material; (5) teachers should add the audio-visual or interactive material regarding the English textbook.

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Title

An Analysis of Two Different Approaches in Focusing on Form in Task Based Language Teaching

Author

Misnariah Idrus

University of Birmingham, UK

Bio-Profile:

Misnariah Idrus has a Master in Teaching English as Foreign Language from University of Birmingham, UK. Her research interests include L2 Teaching and Sociolinguistics. She can be reached at misnariahidrus@ymail.com.

Abstract

This qualitative study investigated the perception of master students who are currently studying Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) related to two different ways of providing form-focus instruction in Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), pre-task and post-task. Semi-structured interviews conducted to four participants. This research has, to some extent, provided a broader perspective on the possible benefits and drawbacks of putting the focus on form in the pre-task and post task stages of Task-Based Language Teaching. Teachers can consider these findings before choosing the most suitable application for their teaching context.

Keywords: *language form, task based language teaching, perception pre-task, post-task*

Introduction

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which proposes a teaching strategy focused on the natural use of the target language, has met some debates regarding its ability to teach language forms. Although some experts have conceded the possibility of focus-on-form (FoF) instruction in that teaching approach, debates continue as to the most appropriate place to

provide it. This research investigated MA TEFL students' perceptions of the two different ways of providing form-focused instruction in TBLT, pre task and post task. This study can provide some additional insights before deciding the choices to be applied to an actual teaching activity.

Literature review

There are many different points of view as to the stage at which FoF should be provided in the teaching cycle. Nunan (2004), Estaire and Zanon (1994), and Skehan (1998) state that it should be provided at the pre-task phase, while Willis (1996) and Willis and Willis (2007) stated that it should be provided at the post task. Nunan (2004), base their view on the impossibility of instructing learners to produce a language that they have not acquired before. For example, it is impossible to require students to use the simple past tense to express something that happened in the past when they have never learned that pattern. Willis' (1996) reason for putting the FoF at the end of the task is to ensure a naturalistic process of language production, since the students should be let experiment with their existing language proficiency, whether or not it could be understood by the recipient.

The task cycle introduced by Nunan consists of six steps: schema building (presenting the topic, setting the context of the task and introducing some vocabulary and expressions that the student will need in completing the task), controlled practice (students practice the vocabulary and the expressions taught in the former step under the teacher's supervision), authentic listening practice (involving students in intensive listening practice with authentic material), focusing on linguistic elements (students dealing with exercises in which the focus is on one or more linguistic elements), providing freer practice (students use the linguistic input obtained from the previous part in freer conditions), introducing pedagogical tasks (students undertaking group work, discussions and decision making tasks) (Nunan, 2004). On the other hand, the task cycle proposed by Jane Willis consists of the pre-task stage (an introduction to the topic and task), the task cycle (task, planning, and report), and the language focus (analysis and practice) (Willis 1996). The main difference in the way in which these scholars include a FoF is that Nunan introduces it before students deal with the task, while Willis includes it after the task is completed.

Although these scholars have provided explanations for the approaches they suggest, it is beneficial to seek the view of those who are currently concerning discussing the development and the debate of this theory in order to provide a broader perspective.

Methodology

This study employed qualitative approach to respect the uniqueness of each person's view and as able to obtain an in-depth view from the research subject (Dornyei 2007) and used semi-structured interviews to collect the data. The participants were four randomly chosen students who are currently studying Master of Arts TEFL programme. Some aspects -like their current study which discussed TBLT approach and hold two microteaching sections which employed Willis's (1996) and Nunan's (2004) teaching cycle on TBLT, and their experience on English teaching and learning- are regarded possibly ensuring the respondents' understanding on the research focus. The following two questions are answered in this study:

- 1) What do the MA TEFL students at the University of Birmingham think are the advantages and disadvantages of providing a FoF at the pre-task stage?
- 2) What do the MA TEFL students at the University of Birmingham think are the advantages and disadvantages of providing a FoF at the post-task stage?

Findings and discussion

1.1. FoF – Pre-Task

Benefits

- 1) All students have similar chances to practice the language form when working with the task.

"... if you provide the rule in the very beginning, and ... when the students see the pattern, the form, ... they may practice." (William)

William saw that there is a need to supply students with the language form at the beginning of the task in order to increase their chances of being more active during the main task phase. Undertaking practice in the main task phase can refer to producing more utterances in speaking, composing more sentences in writing, or comprehending more information in reading and listening.

- 2) Students are aware of the language form target.

"...if we focus the form at the beginning, ... student ... will be aware with language features which is they would try to use the new language knowledge when doing the task." (Catherine)

Catherine believed that, learners who know what they are to learn will pay more attention to that. Thus, they know what they should do to reach their goal. In speaking or writing activities focused on grammar, for example, students may concentrate on producing sentences that contain the targeted grammar, and make sure they have understood it and are able to reproduce it.

3) It motivates unconfident students.

"I actually started studying English with grammar book, I can say I prefer reading grammar books, reading form, memorizing vocabularies, studying the pronunciation, before I start speaking because I [have]... low confidence in speaking and sometimes worried about my grammar mistake." (Ann)

The relation between self-confidence and language learning success is still very debatable. It is still queried whether the success in doing communication enhance the self-confidence or vice versa (MacIntyre, *et al.*, 1998). Regardless that debate, it seems important to facilitate the unconfident learners with method that can facilitate them to be brave (for example) practicing speaking.

Drawbacks

Besides addressing his experience as a low-confidence language learner who prefers to learn the language form before speaking, Ann also explained his views on how focusing on form at the beginning of the task also has the potential to become a barrier preventing English learners from speaking.

"If we focus on the form at the beginning some students may be really worry to make mistakes when they have the opportunity to express their opinion on the communicative competence session, and may be if we limit the motivation to practice their spoken English..." (Ann)

The drawbacks of putting the FoF in the pre-task phase is, as Ann mentioned, that students may be hesitant to speak when they perceive this as a rule requiring them to speak accurately. From the two different views, it can be seen that putting the FoF at the pre-task stage has either a negative or positive influence on a student's willingness to speak, dependant on how the student perceives it.

1.2. FoF – Post Task

Benefits

1) Improving Understanding and Retention.

"... taught them the grammar in the very beginning, ... let the students to discover the grammar rule by themselves ... that helps them, ... engage them, in another way, ... if you give the rule [of pronunciation] ... [in the beginning], ... the student can pronounce it, ... [he/she] got it, but if they keep asking, they keep asking. You know when ... [you] make mistake, you can remember. But if you are given everything, you don't remember." (William)

William believed that instructing students to enter the main task without providing prior material or activities that FoF will challenge students to discover grammar by themselves. They will notice what they should say, but they do not know – or will only partially know – how to say it. Furthermore, when the teacher explains the language form after the main

task, the students will reflect on what they did previously. When they realise that they made mistakes, they may remember that language feature more easily.

2) Students learn the meaning of vocabulary based on the context.

"... where the focus on form is put at the end, it would help the learners to predict as well about the text, ... the students will be able to use the opportunity to predict a particular meaning of the words that they do not know, so they could predict that words in the context ..." (Roy)

There are two benefits that the learner can obtain from the suggestion mentioned by Roy. Firstly, it trains students to read a text which contains vocabulary with which they are not familiar. Hedge (2014) suggested that guessing the meaning of a word from contextual clues and background knowledge is a major strategy in helping students to build vocabulary for reading. Moreover, when learners encounter real-life reading there are no native texts that provide a list of translations for difficult words.

Secondly, students can learn vocabulary along with its contextual use. Learning vocabulary in isolation is unable to represent a linguistic reality, since the meaning of words mostly depends on context (Beheyddt 1987 cited in Hedge 2014).

Drawbacks

According to William, providing FoF in the post task stage is regarded mostly only beneficial for higher-level students.

"Because you may ask and ask, but they may not come with the right answer, they may not come with what the, you want, ... and they may not familiar with the sort of thing, and they may not responsive, ... because what can happen if you elicit the grammar rule from the students, only the strong student who may dominate the talk, and others may only keep silent, ... so one of the weakness is it only helps the strong students." (William)

Since students who tend to be very active and produce more speech in the main task are higher-level students, this means that they tend to make correspondingly more errors and receive more corrections at the post task stage. Thus, it can be argued that the FoF can better aid all levels of learners if it is provided pre-task.

2. Conclusion

It has identified respondents think that although providing the FoF in the pre-task stage possible to make students hesitant to speak, it could gives all students an equal chance to practice the language form when working on the task, improves awareness of the language form target, and motivates unconfident students. On the other hand, providing the FoF post task is believed to improve students' understanding and retention of the language form and

stimulate them to learn the meaning of vocabulary based on its context but regarded as being beneficial only for higher-level learners.

Some limitations of this study are the small number of respondents is likely to have affected the comprehensiveness of the data. Despite these limitations, this research has, to some extent, provided a broader perspective on the possible benefits and drawbacks of putting the FoF in the pre-task and post task stages of Task-Based Language Teaching.

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Title

A Case Study of a Lecturer's Politeness Strategies in an International Classroom at a West Midlands University

Author

Misnariah Idrus

Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP)

Bio-Profile:

Misnariah Idrus has a Master in Teaching English as Foreign Language from University of Birmingham, UK, sponsored by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP). Her research interests include L2 Teaching and Sociolinguistics. She can be reached at misnariahidrus@ymail.com.

Abstract

It is generally believed that teacher talk has a big role in determining the success or failure of a classroom. When teacher talks, the occurrence of 'threats' which potentially damages the self-esteem of not only the students, but also the teacher is undeniable. Thus, in talking, teacher needs to employ strategies to overcome or avoid such threats, which are called 'politeness strategies' (Brown and Levinson, 1987). This qualitative case study aimed to investigate the kinds of politeness strategies employed by a lecturer in an international class at a West Midlands university and how these were perceived by the students. This study makes a contribution to both sociolinguistics and the field of education, especially in teaching interactions.

Introduction

Some researchers have found that politeness contributes many positive aspects to the classroom environment, such as promoting a more alive atmosphere which makes the interactions more effective and friendly (Jiang, 2010), supporting the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign language (Kasper, 1997; Peng, Xie and Cai, 2014),

and increasing the learner's motivation (Goatly, 1995). These findings indicate that politeness in the classroom is important.

Research into politeness in a classroom context is still very limited, and has mainly been conducted in a second language learning context (Theodossia, 2001). This paper investigates the kind of politeness strategies applied by a lecturer during three hours of lecturing conducted in an international classroom at a West Midlands University, which only uses English as a teaching medium. It also seeks to ascertain how those politeness strategies are perceived by the students.

Literature Review

This study refers to the Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory which is based on the concept of 'face' introduced by Goffman (1955), which is defined as 'the public image that every member wants to claim for himself'. They divided face into two categories: people's need to be free (negative face) and their need to be appreciated (positive face). From that definition, face in the classroom context can refer to the students' or teacher's freedom from disturbance or interference (negative face) and their need to make a positive self-impression (positive face).

All activities or utterances which potentially threaten one's face are regarded as Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) (Brown and Levinson, 1987). 'Teacher talk' which refers to the languages used by the teacher to give feedback (Wallace, Sung and Williams, 2014), give guidance, explain an activity, and check the learner's understanding (Sinclair and Brazil, 1985) are possibly regarded as FTAs in the classroom context.

As people are mostly aware when they are potentially threatening their own or their hearer's face through some kind of FTA, he or she will modify their utterances in an appropriate way called a 'politeness strategy' (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The same research explains that, by reducing the seriousness of FTAs, the speaker may make their meaning clear (on record) or make it ambiguous (off record). When an utterance is addressed on record, it could be bald (very direct without any additional non-essential words) or redressive (trying to neutralise the potential damage caused by FTA. The effort to counteract any damage to face by applying a redressive strategy can either involve a positive politeness strategy (addressed towards acts that may damage the positive face) or a negative politeness) directed towards acts that may harm the negative face) strategy. It may seem quite strange to realise that the words termed as bald-on-record can still be categorised as a politeness strategy. Therefore, it is worth

noted that many kinds of background factors determine whether it could be categorised as polite or not (Leech, 2014).

Research Methods

This study employs qualitative case study to explore the characteristics of the politeness strategies holistically and meaningfully (Yin, 2003) in the classroom. A triangulation method was used to collect data, consisting of: observing the classroom to understand the background situation of each particular sentence, using video and voice recording to assist the researcher in transcribing the utterances and recollecting the background situation, and conducting interviews with four randomly selected students involved in that teaching activity to ascertain their views on the way in which the lecturer used a particular politeness strategy. Because the data analysis must be done by focusing on the choice and use of words and phrases, the discourse analysis technique (Thomas, 2013) was employed to analyse the lecturer's utterances.

Findings and analysis

Bald-On-Record

Mostly, this strategy was applied to keep order, or used to remind and warn. The lecturer sometimes expressed some words in a very simple way, which represents Grice's (1975) maxim of quantity: "Don't say less than is required and don't say more than is required", for example:

"Uhh, the product is here ... "

"You just come here to make it four."

These were expressed at the beginning of the class before the lesson had started, when the classroom was still very noisy as the students were finding their seats and preparing everything before studying. It seems that it was the best way to ensure that all the students listened to the lecturer's utterance by expressing the message in a very simple way, using as little vocabulary as possible.

In some utterances, the instructions were not directly addressed to an individual. However, the initial phrases that were employed, such as "I want you" did not seem to reduce the intensity of FTAs. Indeed, they seem to emphasise that the lecturer had the power to instruct the students.

"I want you to work on your table ... "

In fact, based on the data obtained from interviews, they felt that this is normal and even makes it very easy to understand the message that the lecturer wanted to convey, especially as English is not their first language.

From this, it can be seen that the use of bald-on-record can make students more aware of what the lecturer wants them to do, which of course supports them in improving the quality of their work.

Positive Politeness

The lecture was held in a different classroom than the one in which it is usually held, and it seems that the lecturer was afraid to make the students feel uncomfortable or dissatisfied with the facilities provided for studying. Thus, he said:

“Apologise for this condition, X is finding a bigger room for you.”

It shows how humble the lecturer is to deliver a direct apology on the inconveniences occurring in that classroom. This kind of activity has the potential to damage the lecturer’s own face to some degree (Brown and Levinson, 1987). However, it seems that in order to decrease the FTA, he mentioned it in a very short sentence and continued with a statement that someone was finding a solution.

On another occasion, the lecturer asked the students to share the ideas they had discussed in their group in a maximum of nine words. One student who spoke did so in many sentences. The lecturer said:

“I hope nine words, and you make it hard.”

After saying that, all the students in the class laughed. The researcher’s initial assumption was that this had threatened that student’s positive face. However, in the interview, the student stated that it did not bother him at all, especially because he understands that the lecturer has a good sense of humour. He even said that it is far better than the lecturer shooting him because he made a mistake. This shows how the use of humour to make a critique can offset an FTA on positive face.

Negative Politeness

In order to maintain the students’ freedom and not make them feel pressured into doing something, some strategies employed by the lecturer, such as the use of the modals ‘could’ and ‘can’, are shown in the script below:

“Could we move to the next table?”

“Can you make it harder?”

Rather than saying “move to the next table” or “make it harder”, the addition of modals before the main point of instruction makes the sentences less intimidating, as it sounds like the students are being given the freedom to choose whether to move or not, or to make it harder or not.

Off Record

Most of *off record* utterances contained an intention to suggest that a student should do something, for example:

“I think if you see the example, there is a substantive paragraph, about how you evaluate it.”

This means that the student should put an evaluation in their assignment, since it is a substantive part of the work.

“I like this room, it’s better shaped, isn’t it?”

The lecturer invited students to agree with his opinion that the shape of the room is better than the one they usually use. This utterance could be interpreted as an attempt to prevent the students from complaining about the condition of the classroom which might threaten to his positive face.

The data from the interviews confirmed that, although the lecturer did not communicate his message in an explicit way, the context makes it quite easy to understand most off record utterances as they are intended to be understood.

From all the interviews conducted, none of the respondents indicated a perception that their cultural background affected the way in which they perceived the politeness strategies employed by the lecturer. It seems that they had adapted the way they think based on how Western people behaving.

Conclusion

After analysing the lecturer’s utterances delivered during a three-hour lecture, it was found that he employed four kinds of politeness strategies: bald-on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record. From the interviews, it was found that, although the teacher was quite assertive in delivering instructions, overall the students felt comfortable receiving them. They also felt that the lecturer had a sense of humour and was very friendly. Furthermore, the way he gave guidance in teaching was challenging and encouraged students to think and analyse subjects more deeply.

This study makes a contribution to both sociolinguistics and the field of education, especially in teaching interactions which can help lecturers be perceived positively by the students and support the quality of teaching and the learning process.

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Title

English Students' Perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing Universitas Muslim Indonesia

Author

Muhammad Yunus, S.S.,M.Pd.

Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) Makassar Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Muhammad Yunus is a lecturer at Fakultas Sastra Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) Makassar in Indonesia. His research interest is in the area of English education and language teaching methodology. He can be contacted at yunus_sastra@yahoo.com.

Abstract

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is one of the teaching methods organizing the sequence of tasks generating the language to be used. In TBLT, teachers' ask students to carry out series of tasks which they will require and recycle some specific items of language. This research aimed to obtain the information about English Students' Perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing (ABA) Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI). This research used descriptive qualitative method. The data were collected using questionnaires and interviews. The result expected is that how the students' reacted about the implementation of Task Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing Universitas Muslim Indonesia.

Keywords: *Implementation of TBLT, English Students' Perceptions, ABA-UMI*⁹

Introduction

Task-based language teaching is not new (Willis, 2005). The arrival of task-based language teaching (TBLT) started in the early 1979s in Bangalore, Southern India, Prabhu originated a long-running project which used task-based learning in a very different context (Harmer, 1991). Willis (1994) suggest three basic stages: in the pre-task stage, the teacher investigates the topic with the class and may label useful words and phrases, assisting students to catch on the task instruction, during the task cycle stage, the students perform the task in pairs or small groups while the teacher monitor from a distance, and on the post-test, the students then design how they will inform the rest of the class what they did and how it went, they then review on the task either orally or in writing.

The concept of TBLT which entered the field of second language acquisition as a model for how to create a process-oriented syllabus and design communicative tasks to promote the use of actual language by the learners. In various interpretations, it related to the classroom practice which are compatible with the philosophy of learner-centered education (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003; Johnson, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Nunan, 2005; Shehadeh, 2005). TBLT is composed of specific components such as goal, procedure, results (Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 2001), and TBLT suggests content oriented meaningful activities rather than linguistic forms (Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 1981).

The tasks intended are the sequence of activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome (Sidek, 2012; Priyana, 2001; Samuda and Bygate, 2008). The activities proposed by some authors are everything which a learner engages in order to attain an objective, which neccessitates the use of language, which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language, which the learners have to do for non-instructional purposes outside the classroom as opportunities for language learning, and which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allow teacher to control and regulate that process was regarded as a task (Long, M. and Richards, 2006; long, 1985; Crookes, 1986; Carrol, 1993; Bachman & Palmer 1996, Krahnke, 1987; Breen, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Ellis, 2003).

For the last two years, the TBLT approach at Akademi Bahasa Asing (ABA) Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) is one of the approaches which was maximally applied on the course of reading comprehension despite the fact that it has actually been applied also to the other ones, but it is just as likely to focus on the language form not on the language

function to be learnt. This approach is still evaluated to determine whether to provide a significant contribution to language learning, especially in the course of reading comprehension or not.

Based on the above mentioned, this study considerably needs to look at the English students' perception on the implementation of the TBLT approach to the course of reading comprehension at ABA UMI. This is important to review periodically in order to be able to know the development of teaching and learning processes based on TBLT through the students' perception by considering the aspects of strengths and weaknesses, so that we can see the strengths which should be kept and the weaknesses which should be improved.

In addition, the results of this study may be a consideration for policy makers at ABA UMI to further develop this approach by conducting training on a regular basis to the teachers to improve their professionalism in managing the classroom, so that the teacher can apply it to subjects that fit in teaching and learning process. Thus, the system of classroom learning could take place; that is, the teachers with the TBLT approach owned can create a system of meaningful learning through a variety of tasks. This is the primary consideration to conduct this study; that is, to determine the English Students' Perceptions on the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Materials at ABA UMI.

Literature Review

Based on constructivist teaching theory and methodology of communicative language teaching, TBLT has evolved in response to some of the limitations of traditional language teaching approaches. The development of language teaching is shown by the presentation of procedures, practices, and implementation (Ellis, 2003; Long & Crookes, 1991). The task-based teaching has substantial implications for teaching through a process of development by encouraging communication and social interaction. With task-based instruction, students learn the target language more effectively because they perform these activities naturally; occurred in the eighties when language teaching developed various task approaches (Breen, 1987; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987).

In the nineties, the language teaching developed into a detailed practical framework for the communicative classroom. Through the focus of language, learners perform activities based on a series of tasks starting from the pre-task preparation, task performance, up to the post-task feedback (Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Although the use of tasks in language teaching is common, there are some significant challenges behind the design of syllabi and

authentic materials based on the tasks. The challenge according to Ellis (2003) lies in the different perspectives including verbal, writing, and assessment ability. In response to these challenges, many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers today distract their attention from the tasks of conceptualization to the tasks of implementation based on observations of TBLT methodology's practical usefulness in the classroom practice.

In order to formulate useful tasks for communicative classes, it is first necessary to provide a precise definition of 'task' related to its properties and parts. In various discussions and interpretations related to the definition of tasks, Nunan (1989) suggests that the tasks can be conceptualized in relation to the specific objectives of the task purpose, input data, which became the starting point of the tasks, and related procedures the students did in completion of the task. Willis (1996) provides a definition of a task as an activity in which the target language is used for communicative purposes in order to achieve an outcome. Skehan (1998) suggests the main properties of the task in four criteria: there are goals to be worked on; activity is evaluated; meaning is the main matter; and there is a connection with the real world. Candlin and Murphy (1987) assert that these tasks can be done effectively by systematic components including objectives, inputs, settings, activities, roles, and feedback. In short, the goal refers to a general purpose for that task, and input represents the verbal and non-verbal material in which the participants work for the tasks. The setting refers to the environment in which the task was done, and activities involve cases where participants will work on those tasks in a given setting. The role of the teacher and students are intimately associated with the successful execution of those tasks, and feedback regarding the task's evaluation. Framework of tasks components provide researchers of SLA in a task-based syllabus design and development of authentic material a starting point for designing task-based activities.

Methodology

In an effort to investigate the English students' perceptions on TBLT reading materials, this research investigates about the English students' perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching reading material. Based on the aspect mentioned above, the proposed research questions is how well are the English students' perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials at ABA-UMI?

In this research, the instrument used consisted of the questions designed to find out English students' perceptions on the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching reading material at ABA-UMI. Those questions were formulated in a simple questionnaire

which consists of three parts of the questions based on the response percentage of respondents. The first part of the question (question 1) contains the aspects of the sorts of tools available used to obtain information about teaching material, coursebook, teaching aids, workbook, classroom atmosphere, and lecturer's method in teaching. The second part (number 2) is related to the students which were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook in the future. The third part of the section (number 3) is associated with the coursebook and workbook the students have used. The questions are partially adapted and modified from Long's (2015) checklist to evaluate the English students' perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials.

The populations in this research were the first and the second year of English students of the English Department at ABA-UMI which consisted of seven classes, A-G. The first comprised four classes of 105 students, and the second had three classes of 245 students. Therefore, the total number of the populations were 245 students. Then, the samples randomly taken were 5 students from each of the classes A-G. Thus the total number of the samples were 35 students.

Data collection in this research, the questionnaires were distributed to the samples of 35 students in the classes in January 2016. Before the students filled out the questionnaires, the researcher first explained the purpose of the research and asked them to answer the questionnaires. Within one hour, the questionnaires had been completed by all the students to provide answers to each according to what they have experienced and were known about the implementation of TBLT reading materials in the classroom.

The data obtained were analysed by the simple percentage of students' responses. The students' responses intended in this research were as follows: (a) a positive response; that is, students' statement in the category of fun, new, and interested in the components of learning activities, and (b) a negative response; that is, students' statement in a category of not fun, not new, and not interested in the components of the learning activities.

Results and Discussion

Results

Table 1 presents the English students' perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials. To facilitate the assessment, the simple percentage of English student perception was used.

Table 1

| No | Aspects of Assessment | Percentage (%) | |
|----|---|------------------|---------------|
| | | Interest -ing | uninteresting |
| 1 | What is your opinion about | | |
| | a. Teaching Materials | 85 | 15 |
| | b. Coursebook | 90 | 10 |
| | c. Teaching aids | 90 | 10 |
| | d. Workbook | 84 | 16 |
| | e. Classroom atmosphere | 90 | 10 |
| | f. Lecturer's method in teaching | 86 | 14 |
| | Average | 87.5 | 12.5 |
| 2 | Aspects of Assessment | Percentage (%) | |
| | | interest ing | uninteresting |
| | In the future, are you interested to attend the lecture using TBLT reading coursebook | 90 | 10 |
| 3 | Aspects of Assessment | Percentage (%) | |
| | | yes | no |
| | Give your comments about the coursebook and workbook you have used. | | |
| | a. Do you agree that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read? | 85 | 15 |
| | b. Do the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English? | 90 | 10 |
| | c. Do you agree that the coursebook and workbook are interesting? | 80 | 20 |
| | Average | 85 | 15 |
| | Total Average | 87,5 | 12,5 |

The first question for the teaching materials showed 85%, for the coursebook 90%, for the teaching aids 90 %, for the workbook 84 %, for the classroom atmosphere 90 %, and for the lecturer method in teaching 86% of respondents interesting respectively. On the second question, in the future are you interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook, showed 90% of respondents interesting. The last question for item (a) 85 % of the respondents agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read, item (b) 90% agreed that the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English, and item (c) 80% agreed that the coursebook and workbook are interesting. So, the total average of the respondents who showed fun, new, and interesting is 87.5%

Discussion

First, the question 1 for item (a), 85% of the respondents perceived positively when asked about teaching material. The respondents stated that the teaching materials contain the themes

which related to the real world life of daily activities. Thus the themes made us fun. Item (b), 90% of the respondents perceived positively when asked about the coursebook. The students asserted that the coursebook could facilitate us to improve our knowledge through simple reading text materials. Besides, the coursebook provided the visual and auditory which assist us in the learning teaching process. Item (c), 90% of the respondents noted positively when questioned about the teaching aids. The students stated that the teaching aids, such as LCD, whiteboard, boardmaker, and rods made the learning teaching process easier. Item (d), 84% of the respondents explained positively when questioned about the students' workbook. The students informed that the workbook assisted to more understanding the reading text material because in the workbook was prepared a variety of exercises which could improve the reading comprehension. Item (e), 90% of respondents affirmed that the classroom atmosphere provided a relaxed condition in learning teaching process. This is because the classrooms have the quite large spaces to arrange the chairs according to the teaching activities. Item (f), 86% of the respondents stated that the lecturer's method in teaching provided the various approaches which stimulated the students to more active interaction in the classroom. In conclusion, most of the sorts of tools available used to obtain information about teaching material, coursebook, teaching aids, workbook, classroom atmosphere, and lecturer's method in teaching made the students very enjoyable and exciting.

Second, the question 2 showed that 90% of the students were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT reading materials. They perceived that this approach was suitable for various group works, provided the variety of students' interaction in learning teaching process, encouraged the students' motivation, created a collaborative learning environment, promoted the students' academic progress, was suitable for the classroom setting, and promoted the use of the target language.

Third, the question 3 for item (a) 85% of the students agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read. The respondents explained that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read because the reading material contents related to the real world lives. Item (b), 90% of the students noted that the coursebook and the workbook used the familiar English. The vocabulary used in the coursebook and the workbook is easily recognized because the vocabulary consists of the simple words. Besides, the sentences are simple and compounds. Item (c), 80% of the students stated that the coursebook and workbook are interesting. The coursebook and the workbook which make interesting are the impressive book's cover, the interesting themes, and the attractive illustration.

Conclusion and Suggestion

Conclusions

In conclusion, the overall findings of this research indicated that the students had the positive perception, especially on the teaching materials, the teaching aids, the workbook, the classroom atmosphere, and the lecturer method in teaching. Besides, the students also were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook and agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read, the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English, and the coursebook and workbook are interesting. Therefore, this approach should be maintained because the students had positive perception which make them fun and interesting in learning English.

Suggestions.

It is suggested that the policy makers at ABA UMI should develop this approach by conducting the workshop on a regular basis to the teachers to improve their professionalism in managing the classroom, so that the teachers can apply it to subjects that fit in teaching and learning process. In addition, the teaching aids and other facilities which make the teaching and learning processes conducive should be improved either in quantities or in qualities.

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Title

Improving Students' Reading Comprehension through Pedagogical Translation Strategy
(An Action Research to Students of Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram)

Author

Nawawi

FKIP Universitas Mataram, Jalan Majapahit No. 62 Mataram,

Propinsi Nusa Tenggara Barat.

nawawi1962@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study aims at finding out the most suitable Pedagogical Translation Based Teaching Actions Package for teaching reading comprehension to students of Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram. The process and the result of improving students' reading comprehension ability of English texts were the main focuses of this study. The Riel's model of action research method was used to conduct this study. The method consists of four phases, namely: study and plan, take action, collect and analyze evidence, and reflect. The data was collected through observation, test, interview, questionnaire, and diary, done before and during the research term. The gained data was analysed statistically or philosophically in order to know the process and the result of improvement caused by the application of each Pedagogical Translation Based Teaching Action Package. In terms of the process of improvement, the gained average scores were 3.1, 3.4, and 3.6 in the first, second, and third cycle, respectively. In addition, the result of improvement was shown by the students' average scores in reading comprehension in pre-test and each cycle, they were 40.2, 59.9, 70.6 and 72.9 in pre-test, cycle I, cycle II and cycle III, consecutively. This means that The pedagogical translation strategy is significantly effective to be used for teaching reading comprehension, particularly English texts.

Keywords: *pedagogical translation based teaching actions package, pedagogical translation strategy.*

Introduction

Generally, the purpose of teaching English at Indonesian universities is to support their students with English competence that will be used to develop themselves academically as well as professionally, particularly in their field of study since they are still as university students until they become alumnies. To attain such purpose, each study program manage its teaching and learning system through a curriculum that is made based on vision and mission of the led institution. Undergraduate study program of Management Faculty of Economic Universitas Mataram offers English for Specific Purposes which is valued 5 credits. The course is splitted into two subjects, they are Bahasa Inggris I with 3 credit points and Bahasa Inggris II with 2 credit points. The teaching of two subjects is stressed on reading comprehension.

Reading is a language skill which offers a large opportunity for Indonesian people who master English to develop their knowledge and skills. However, a unique view is often seen in Indonesian libraries and bookstores where the majority of their visitors usually look for books, journals, megazines, and news papers written in Indonesian rather than in English to be read, borrowed or bought. In English classes, particularly Reading Skill at the Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram, writer often found many students consulted their English-Indonesian dictionaries in the time they were doing their tasks on English text comprehension. In addition, writer also often found many students were not able to comprehend short English texts. Looking at their answers to reading comprehension questions, they tended to make errors in answering questions that require answers in higher level of thoughts of Bloom Taxonomy. From the result of an interview with some students, the inability was caused by the techniques or strategies used by teachers or lecturer who did not put Translation or Explaining in First Language Strategy into account.

Many scientists, linguists, and teachers have been aware of the importance of using translation strategy in foreign language classes. Schaffner states that translation and related excercises are beneficial in foreign language instruction for the following reasons: (1) Improve verbal agility; (2) Enlarge students' second language vocabulary; (3) Develop language style; (4) Improve understanding about how language works; (5) Combine second language structure for active use; (6) Monitor and improve understanding about second language (Beltran, 2006: 13).

In teaching English as a foreign language, the use of translation strategy can give some benefits for teachers and learners as follows:

- 1) Translation provides students with practice and needed skills to communicate accurately, meaningfully and suitably;
- 2) Through translation activities, teachers can promote interaction among learners because they may be involved in multiple negotiation about form and meaning;
- 3) Translation can help learners to interpret, negotiate, and express meaning from different perspectives according to the contexts and people with different interpretations;
- 4) The practice of translation pushes reflection to the use of language and exchange of different views and increases language awareness (Koppe, 2013: 2).

Pedagogically translation activities in second and foreign language classes can improve instruction. Rell says that translation activities which include the use of first language in second language teaching can be made communicative if applied properly (Koppe, 2013: 13). The statement is strengthened by Vermees by saying that translation does not only manipulate structure but the most important thing is communication (Vermees, 2010: 91). The use of translation in second or foreign language teaching is one of the ways to act time saved. Morahan says that many teachers find that the use of first language in teaching second or foreign language can save much time for practicing second or foreign language, because understanding has been achieved earlier (Alrefaai, 2013: 14). Next, Mahmoud shows a reason for using Translation Strategy in second or foreign language teaching and learning. It is to produce student-centered learning that is a must in effective learning (Alrefaai, 2013: 14).

According to Shiyab and Abdullateef, translation can be used in teaching language based on the following reasons: (1) as a tool to look at the similarity and difference between first language and second language; (2) as a facility to speed up the process of students' understanding (Alrefaai, 2013: 14). Still about the benefits of using translation, Machida finds that translation in English as a foreign language class can give many opportunities to the students to look at the relationship between forms and meanings (Machida, 2011: 743). From a view of second or foreign language teaching and learning trend of these days, it is said that translation is useful for teaching second or foreign language, because it pushes speculation and discussion. In addition, through translation students can develop three main qualities in using a language, they are: accuracy, clarity, and flexibility (Duff, 1992: 7). In terms of comprehending second or foreign language texts, Kern finds that second or foreign language

readers are very often to use mental translation to overcome obstacles related to comprehension such as new vocabularies and structure (Boshrabadi, 2014: 386).

Referring to various ideas and research findings on the use of Translation in English instruction, obviously, this study is aiming to find out an effective Pedagogical Translation Strategy Based Actions Package to be applied in teaching English reading comprehension for students of Management Study Program Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram.

Research Methodology

This research is conducted by following Riel's action research method model which has four phases, namely: (1) Study and plan; (2) Take action; (3) Collect and analyze evidence; and (4) Reflect (Mertler, 2009: 16). The outcome of applying the research method are three Pedagogical Translation Based Action Packages. One package was applied in every teaching and learning session in a cycle. Every application of the package was made different by the way students do exercises, whether in group, partnership, or individual.

There were two kinds of data collected then analysed in this study, they are quantitative and qualitative data. Both kinds of data represented the quality of instructional product and process, respectively. They occurred as the result of applying a package of instructional actions. The research is to be continued if the quality of the process and product do not meet the criteria of successful actions. In contrast, the research is not to be continued if the quality of the instructional process and product meets the criteria of successful actions. Logically, the better the quality of the instructional process, the better the scores that the students get in English texts comprehension. Quantitative data in the present study are scores that students got as their ability values in comprehending English texts. It consists of scores that the students got as the result of doing weekly tasks and end of cycle test on English text comprehension. Whereas, qualitative data in the present study are scores that represent the quality of process, result of interview, questionnaire's answers, and daily taken notes.

All phases of Riel's Action Research Method are unity. Researcher can start applying the method from any phase she likes. In this research, the application of the research method resulted three packages of instructional actions. Each package was reflected after applying it for certain times. The result of reflection became a base for deciding whether to continue conducting the research with other package of instructional actions or to terminate the research

by the end of the cycle. The first decision will be taken if the criteria of successful actions are not met yet. But if the criteria of successful actions are met, the second decision will be taken.

Results of Investigation and Discussion

Pre-Investigation

Interview with Research Subjects

Since the research subjects of this study was high school graduates who have just been accepted studying in Management Study Program Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram, so the researcher could not yet get information or data about process of teaching and learning English reading comprehension at the Faculty of Economics, Universitas Mataram. But information or data about research subjects' experience in learning the subject at high school was considered relevant for this study. So the researcher conducted an interview with the research subjects to collect relevant information or data.

The result of an interview with research subjects about teaching English reading comprehension at high school was that they experienced having difficulties in comprehending English texts for the teachers often used Direct Method in their teaching. They fully used English to explain and to instruct them, whereas they had only few English vocabularies and little understanding about English structure. Furthermore they told the researcher that their English teachers did not realize that their explanation in fully English was not understood by the students because they actually acted as if they understood the teacher's explanation. It was just to avoid of being accused foolish or stupid by their classmates and teacher. They actually expected their English teachers to use translation technique or strategy for teaching them English reading comprehension or to use Indonesian or at least a combination of English and Indonesian for explaining them difficult concepts.

Pre-Test

Conducting pre-test was the first main activity in this study. It aimed at knowing the research subjects' prior ability to comprehend English texts before giving them some treatments or actions through teaching and learning activities in each instructional session in the cycles during the investigation period. The teaching and learning activities were based on Pedagogical Translation Strategy Based Action Packages. The pre-test was conducted on the

first meeting with the research subjects, one week before the determined investigation period began. Following was the result of the pre-test:

Frequency Distribution of Students' Scores in the Pre-Test

| GAINED SCORES | | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
|---------------|--------|-----------|------------|
| NUMBER | LETTER | | |
| 80 - 100 | A | - | - |
| 72 - 79 | B+ | 4 | 8.89% |
| 65 - 71 | B | - | - |
| 60 - 64 | C+ | 4 | 8.89% |
| 56 - 59 | C | 1 | 2.22% |
| 50 - 55 | D+ | 1 | 2.22% |
| 46 - 49 | D | 2 | 4.44% |
| 0 - 45 | E | 33 | 73.33% |

First Cycle

Study and Plan

The First Cycle Package of Instructional Actions was made by considering the result of interview and pre-test of English reading comprehension. It consists of main and supported instructional actions. The first type was developed based on principles of Pedagogical Translation Strategy and researcher's consideration results on students from linguistics, pedagogy, and psychology view points. Whereas the second type was developed based on ethics and logic and researcher's consideration results on students from linguistics, pedagogy, and psychology view points. In the context of this research, the actions related to the second type are provided the same in their form and meaning. They are put under various phases of the teaching actions package, namely: pre-teaching activities, opening the lesson, main teaching activities or closing the lesson. So for limited space reasons, the writer does not perform the whole instructional actions.

Main instructional actions of First Cycle Package of Instructional Actions

- Get the students to brainstorm about the title of the text.
- Orally translate roughly the English text into Indonesian while identifying certain parts of the text that are considered to be students' obstacles to comprehend the text. The obstacles may relate to vocabularies, grammar, expressions, and pronunciation.
- Translate into Indonesian or explain in Indonesian the obstacles.
- Ask the students to read for comprehending the text fast and silently.
- Ask certain students to read certain parts of the text being discussed loudly.
- Ask the students to do tasks on reading comprehension in group, partnership or individual.
- Mark the students' works (answers).
- Give a homework to the students to find and read an English text on economy then to be paraphrased its paragraphs and outlined its ideas. As well as to scan and to skim information in it.

Take Action

Teaching and learning activities in first, second, third and fourth instructional meetings were done by following The First Cycle Package of Instructional Actions. The difference among them was only on the way the students do the tasks in each instructional meeting, whether in group, partnership or individuality. Following is the result of applying the first package of instructional actions in terms of process:

Average Score of Teaching and Learning Process in First Cycle

| Number | Points of Observation | Scores |
|--------|---|--------|
| 1. | Students' Activities: | |
| | a. Make notes about lecture materials | 3,3 |
| | b. Ask questions | 3 |
| | c. Express ideas | 2,9 |
| | d. Consult dictionary | 3,3 |
| 2. | Students' Attention: | |
| | a. Listen to lecturer's explanation or comments | 3,8 |
| | b. Focus on teaching materials | 3,1 |
| | c. Learning antusiasism | 3 |

| | | |
|---|---|--------------------------|
| 3. | Dicipline: a. Attendance in the class b. Bring lecture materials (students' book, dictionary) c. Follow the lecturer's instruction | 3,3 3,5 3 |
| 4. | Assignments: a. Quality of assigned works b. Do tasks based on the instruction c. Afford in doing the tasks d. Responds toward the tasks given by the lecturer | 2,6 3,1 3,6 3,1 |
| Average Score in the First Cycle | | 3,1 |

Notes: 4=very good, 3=good, 2=not good, and 1=worse

Following is the result of applying the first package of instructional actions in terms of product:

Frequency Distribution of Students' Scores in First Cycle

| Scores | | Task I | | Task II | | Task III | | Task IV | | First Cycle End Test | |
|----------|----------|--------|--------|---------|--------|----------|--------|---------|--------|----------------------|--------|
| Number | Let ters | F | % | f | % | F | % | f | % | f | % |
| 80 – 100 | A | - | - | 3 | 6.7 % | 5 | 11.3 % | 5 | 11.6 % | 2 | 4.5 % |
| 72 – 79 | B+ | 5 | 11.1 % | 4 | 8.9 % | 3 | 6.8 % | 13 | 30.2 % | 5 | 11.4 % |
| 65 – 71 | B | - | - | 6 | 13.3 % | 8 | 18.1 % | 11 | 25.5 % | 4 | 9.1 % |
| 60 – 64 | C+ | - | - | 10 | 22.2 % | 4 | 9% | 10 | 23.2 % | 12 | 27.3 % |
| 56 – 59 | C | 20 | 44.4 % | 4 | 8.9 % | - | - | - | - | 11 | 25% |
| 50 – 55 | D+ | - | - | 2 | 4.4 % | 14 | 31.8 % | 4 | 9.3 % | 5 | 11.4 % |
| 46 – 49 | D | 10 | 22.2 % | 2 | 4.4 % | - | - | - | - | 3 | 6.8 % |
| 0 - 45 | E | 10 | 22.2 % | 14 | 31.1 % | 10 | 22.7 % | - | - | 2 | 4.5 % |

Collect and Analyse Evidence

Related to this phase, researcher found many positive evidences as the result of applying First Cycle Instructional Action Package, except the lecturer translates the whole text for it was judged taking much time by the collaborator. The evidence comprises of process and product of instruction. The first cyclic average score for instructional process was 3.1. This number shows that the instructional process in first cycle was good, however it had not yet fulfilled the criteria of successful action, it is at least 3.5. In terms of product, the application of First Cycle Instructional Action Package resulted in improved ability of students to comprehend English texts, from 40.2 in pre-test to 59.9 as the first cycle average score.

Reflect

The result of evaluation to evidence that occurred as the result of applying First Cycle Instructional Action Package. The researcher and the collaborator identified the main instructional action, that is to roughly translate the whole text orally as an uneconomical instructional action for it needs much time to apply it, so it must be replaced with other action still from the Pedagogical Translation Strategy.

Second Cycle

Study and Plan

Based on the result of evaluating the evidence that occurred as a result of applying the First Cycle Instructional Action Package, either related to process or products. The main actions of Second Cycle Instructional Package are as follows:

Main instructional actions of Second Cycle Package of Instructional Actions

- Ask the students to recall the title of an English text that was discussed last week and mention some ideas found in the text.
- Get the students to brainstorm a title of English text that will be discussed in Indonesian.
- Remind the students to apply steps for pre-reading comprehension as follows:
 - Read text title;
 - Read introductory paragraph;
 - Read bold writings (if available);
 - Read first sentence in each paragraph;
 - Look at pictures (if available);
 - Read closing paragraph.

- Translate into Indonesian or explain in Indonesian some difficult concepts found in the text, such as words, expressions or grammar.
- Ask the students to read for comprehending the text fast and silently.
- Ask certain students to read certain parts of the text being discussed loudly.
- Ask the students to do tasks on comprehension in individuality, partnership, or group.
- Collect students' works to be marked at home by the lecturer.
- Give a homework to the students to find and read an English text on economy then do paraphrasing its paragraphs and outlining its ideas. As well as to scan and to skim information in it. Prior to doing such tasks, the students must translate the text into Indonesian.

Take Action

Teaching and learning activities in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth instructional meetings were done by following the Second Cycle Package of Instructional Actions. As in the first cycle, the application of the second cycle package was made different in the way the students had to do the task in each instructional meeting, whether in individuality, partnership, or group.

Average Score of Teaching and Learning Process in Second Cycle

| Number | Points of Observation | Scores |
|--------|--|---|
| 1. | <p>Students' Activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> e. Make notes about lecture materials f. Ask questions g. Express ideas h. Consult dictionary | <p>3.4</p> <p>3.1</p> <p>3.2</p> <p>4</p> |
| 2. | <p>Students' Attention:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> d. Listen to lecturer's explanation or comments e. Focus on teaching materials f. Learning antusias | <p>4</p> <p>3</p> <p>3.4</p> |
| 3. | <p>Dicipline:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> d. Attendance in the class e. Bring lecture materials (students' book, dictionary) f. Follow the lecturer's instruction | <p>4</p> |

| | | |
|---|---|----------------------|
| | | 3.5 3 |
| 4. | Assignments: e. Quality of assigned works f. Do tasks based on the instruction g. Afford in doing the tasks h. Responds toward the tasks given by the lecturer | 3 3.4 4 3.1 |
| Average Score in the First Cycle | | 3.4 |

Notes: 4=very good, 3=good, 2=not good, and 1=worse

Frequency Distribution of Students' Scores in Second Cycle

| Scores | | Task IV | | Task V | | Taks VI | | Task VII | | Second Cycle End Test | |
|----------|--------|---------|-------|--------|-------|---------|-------|----------|-------|-----------------------|-------|
| Number | Letter | f | % | f | % | F | % | f | % | f | % |
| 80 – 100 | A | - | - | 4 | 8.9% | 4 | 8.6% | 12 | 27.2% | 6 | 13% |
| 72 – 79 | B+ | 5 | 11.1% | 11 | 24.4% | 16 | 34.7% | 21 | 47.7% | 17 | 37% |
| 65 – 71 | B | 10 | 22.2% | 18 | 40% | 22 | 47.8% | 1 | 2.2% | 19 | 41.3% |
| 60 – 64 | C+ | 10 | 22.2% | 2 | 4.4% | 4 | 8.6% | 5 | 11.3% | 2 | 4.3% |
| 56 – 59 | C | 14 | 31.1% | 4 | 8.9% | - | - | 5 | 11.3% | 2 | 4.3% |
| 50 – 55 | D+ | 6 | 13.3% | 6 | 13.3% | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 46 – 49 | D | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 0 - 45 | E | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Collect and Analyse Evidence

Generally, evidents that occurred as a result of applying the Second Cycle Package of Instructional Actions, particularly the main action made the students felt unsatisfied. Because the lecturer translated into Indonesian or explained in Indonesian certain parts of the text that they were not expecting, while they were expecting other parts. The instruction of English text comprehension following the second cyclic package resulted in process and product that still

did not fulfill the criteria of successful instructional actions. Obviously, the average score for instructional process was 3.4, whereas for instructional product (ability to comprehend English texts) was 70.6.

Reflect

By evaluating evidents that occurred while and after applying the Second Cycle Package of Instructional Action, particularly the main action, researcher and collaborator had planned to modify the main action for the third cycle package. Students would identify their own difficulties about the English text then mention or note them on the whiteboard.

Third Cycle

Study and Plan

Based on the result of reflection to evidents related to process and product of instruction, the researcher by considering some inputs from collaborator and colleagues began elaborating Third Cycle Package of Instructional Actions. The main actions of the package are as follows:

Main instructional actions of Third Cycle Package of Instructional Actions

- Lecturer gets the students to brainstorm a title of English text which will be discussed in Indonesian.
- Lecturer reminds the students to apply steps for pre-reading comprehension as follows:
 - Read text title;
 - Read introductory paragraph;
 - Read bold writings (if available);
 - Read first sentence in each paragraph;
 - Look at pictures (if available);
 - Read closing paragraph.
- Lecturer asks the students to read a text fast and silently and ask them to identify parts of the text that they feel difficult.
- Lecturer asks the students to come forward one by one to write a part of text that she feels difficult on the whiteboard.
- Lecturer reads every written part aloud and the students repeat.
- Lecturer translates into Indonesian or explains in Indonesian every written part.
- Get the students to do tasks on reading comprehension in individuality, partnership, or group.
- Lecturer collects students' work to be marked at home and returned back in next instructional meeting.

- Give a homework to the students to translate an English text on economy into Indonesian then to summarize it both in English and Indonesian.

Take Action

As in the first and second cycles, in the third cycle, the lecturer followed the Third Cycle Package of Instructional Action for his instruction in ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelveth instructional meetings. In terms of process and product, the result of applying the package was as follows:

Average Score of Teaching and Learning Process in Third Cycle

| NO | HAL YANG DIAMATI | SKOR |
|----|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. | Keaktifan Mahasiswa: a. Mencatat materi perkuliahan b. Bertanya c. Mengajukan ide d. Mencari makna dalam kamus | 3.5 3 3 3.2 |
| 2. | Perhatian Mahasiswa: a. Menyimak penjelasan atau komentar dosen b. Fokus pada materi c. Antusiasme belajar | 4 4 4 |
| 3. | Kedisiplinan: a. Kehadiran di kelas b. Membawa materi perkuliahan (buku ajar, kamus) c. Mengikuti instruksi dosen | 3.7 4 4 |
| 4. | Penugasan/Resitasi: a. Mutu hasil pekerjaan yang ditugaskan b. Mengerjakan tugas sesuai dengan perintah c. Usaha dalam mengerjakan tugas d. Respon terhadap tugas yang diberikan dosen | 3 4 |

| | | |
|----------------------------------|--|------------|
| | | 3.7 |
| | | 4 |
| SKOR RATA-RATA SIKLUS III | | 3.6 |

Keterangan: 4=sangat baik, 3=baik, 2=tidak baik, dan 1=sangat tidak baik

Frequency Distribution of Students' Scores in Third Cycle

| Nilai | | Tugas IX | | Tugas X | | Tugas XI | | Tugas XII | | TAS Ketiga | |
|----------|------|----------|-------|---------|-------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| Angka | Hr f | f | % | f | % | f | % | F | % | f | % |
| 80 – 100 | A | 6 | 13.3% | 2 | 4.6% | 4 | 9.5% | 15 | 34.8% | 14 | 30.4% |
| 72 – 79 | B+ | 20 | 44.4% | 17 | 39.5% | 13 | 30.9% | 9 | 20.9% | 10 | 21.7% |
| 65 – 71 | B | 19 | 42.2% | 8 | 18.6% | 8 | 19.0% | 11 | 25.5% | 19 | 41.3% |
| 60 - 64 | C+ | - | - | 10 | 23.2% | 14 | 33.3% | 5 | 11.6% | 2 | 4.3% |
| 56 – 59 | C | - | - | 6 | 13.9% | 3 | 7.1% | 3 | 6.9% | 1 | 2.1% |
| 50 – 55 | D+ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 46 – 49 | D | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 0 - 45 | E | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |

Collect and Analyse Evidence

Evidences that occurred as a result of applying Instructional Actions Package of Third Cycle were more constructive than the result of applying first and second cycle packages. They relate to process and products, such as students' participation in a discussion and students' scores after doing a reading comprehension test. In terms of instructional process, the result of applying the third cycle package made brought it was scored better by the collaborator and researcher. The same was true with the products, in which the students' scores had fulfilled the criterias of successful instructional actions. The cyclic average score for instructional process was 3.6. This number is one point higher than the determined criteria and the students' average score for English reading comprehension was 72.9. This number shows nine points higher than the target determined.

Reflect

Evaluating the result of applying the Third Cycle Package of Instructional Actions from process and product view points, we can say that the quality of the instruction in third cycle

was suitable with the students' condition. The process and products resulted from the application of the third instructional package were judged the best among the three tried out packages. The cyclic average scores for process aspect were 3.1, 3.4, and 3.6 at first, second, and third cycles, respectively. All scores showed good quality of instructional process, but only the third score fulfilled the criteria of successful action, it was minimally 3.5. Representing the product of applying the three cyclic packages of instructional actions, there were three average scores gained by the students, they were 59.9, 70.6, and 72.9 for first, second, and third cycle, respectively. Only scores in the third cycle had fulfilled the criteria of successful instructional actions. So, in terms of process and product, the third cycle package of instructional actions was considered effective to be applied for teaching English reading comprehension to students of Management Study Program Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram.

Conclusion

In accordance with the result of investigation and its discussion, it is concluded that the quality of process and products of instruction through Pedagogical Translation Strategy Based Instructional Actions Packages had improved significantly from cycle to cycle. Among the three packages applied, for the time being the third package resulted the best process and product for the scores gained in both aspects had fulfilled the criteria of successful instructional actions, they were minimally 3.5 and 72 for process and product, respectively. So it was worthy to end up this study by the third cycle.

Recommendation

By referring to the conclusion, researcher suggests the following:

1. English lecturers in Management Study Program Faculty of Economics Universitas Mataram take the three packages of instructional actions into account, especially the Third Cycle Package of instructional Actions as an alternative tool for teaching English reading comprehension by using Pedagogical Translation Strategy.
2. English lecturers in the study programs other than English education and literature should conduct an action research on Pedagogical Translation Strategy, so that they can prove themselves whether it is effective or not for their students. Besides trying to be accustomed to thinking academically (not to agree directly with one's statement without proving it).

3. Try to read articles on the use of translation for teaching English, particularly English reading comprehension. The technique or strategy have been proved effective in other countries where English is used as a second or foreign language.
4. Think and invent instructional actions related to Pedagogical Translation Strategy. So that you can bring them to your action research.

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Title

Application of Pair Work Technique in Teaching Speaking to the Second Semester Student of English Department of STKIP YPUP Makassar

Author

Nicodemus Bisse

Cendrawasih University Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Nicodemus Bisse is a lecture at English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Cendrawasih University — Papua Indonesia. Currently he is a Ph.D. student at State University of Makassar. He obtained his M.Ed. from State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research interest is in the area of Language Learning and Acquisition of Foreign Language in Education. He can be contacted at nikobais@yahoo.co.id

Abstract

The objectives of this research are to find out (1) the students' achievement on English speaking of the second semester students of English department STKIP YPUP taught by pair work technique, (2) the students' achievement on English for speaking of the second semester students of English Department taught by using traditional method, (3) whether there is significance difference of the achievement on English speaking between the students taught by using pair work technique and taught traditional method by traditional method.

The research employed experimental method. The sample consisted of 50 students of English department STKIP YPUP Makassar 2001/2002 academic year. This research uses randomized controlled group and pre-test and post-test design. The students were divided into two groups randomly. Twenty-five students were put in the experimental group and another twenty five students were put into control group. The instrument was multiple-choice items, administered to both groups. The data obtained were analyzed with mean score and t -test formula.

The result of the research showed that the achievement on English for speaking of the second semester students of English department STKIP YPUP Makassar taught by using pair work technique are at very good (80 percent) and good (20 percent) levels of classification or in very good and good classification. The achievement on English speaking of the second semester students of English department STKIP YPUP Makassar taught by using traditional method are at fairly (28 percent), fair (22 percent), and poor (40 percent) levels of classification or it can be said that it is in fair level classification, and there was significant difference of the achievement on English speaking of the second semester students of English department STKIP YPUP Makassar between the students who were taught by using pair work technique and those who were who were taught by using traditional method. The pair work technique could improve the students achievement significantly better than the traditional one.

Pair Work as a Part of Communication Activities

In recent years methodologists of many persuasions have emphasized the limitation of traditional approaches to teaching conversation. Where respective imitation, drills, and memorization of dialogue formed the primary focus of classroom activities, any how, such activities fail to address conversation as a process. They fail to teach learners how to imitate, develop, and terminate conversational encounters, how to use appropriate language; or how to negotiate and interact conversationally. Alternative classroom arrangement and activities are required which give learns the opportunity to practice conversational process in pair model in the classroom and hence to acquire conversational competence through doing conversation work (Long and Richards, 1987)

Pair Work in Speaking Activity

In pair work, the teacher puts the student in pair or partner. Every student works with his or her partner and all the pairs at the same time. This is sometimes called simultaneous pair work. And public or open pair task is that pair of the students in turns speaking in front of the class. Doff (1988) stated that pair work in learning language, is not a teaching method but it is a way of organizing the class. It can be used for many different kinds of activities, and it is naturally more suitable for some activities than others.

The advantages of the pair work in speaking activities are as follows:

1. More language practise, pair work gives the students more choices to speak English.

2. Students are more involved and concentrate on the task rather than the discussion conducted the whole class where it will probably be dominated by a few students and other will interest.
3. Students feels secure, loss, anxiety when they are working or practising speaking individually when they are show in front of the class pair work may help the students who never say anything in whole class activities
4. Students help each other; pair work encourages students to share the idea, and knowledge.

Brown (1994) stated that pair work is a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self initiated language. It is important to note that pair work is simply group work in groups of two. Pair work is more appropriate than group work for task that are short, linguistically simple, and guide controlled in terms of the structure of the task. The appropriate activities of pair work in speaking mauled-

1. Practising dialogues with partner.
2. Simple question and answering exercises.
3. Performing certain meaningful substitution drill.
4. Quick brainstorming activity.
5. Checking writter work with each other.
6. Preparing for merging with a large group.

Harmer (1991) a decision has to be taken about how the students are put in pairs. The teacher has to divide wether the teacher puts the students in the same levels such put the strong students with the weak one or the teacher varies the combination of pairs form class or group to group. But the teacher can put the students by using random approach to putting students in pairs while others deliberately mix students who do not mecssarily sit together.

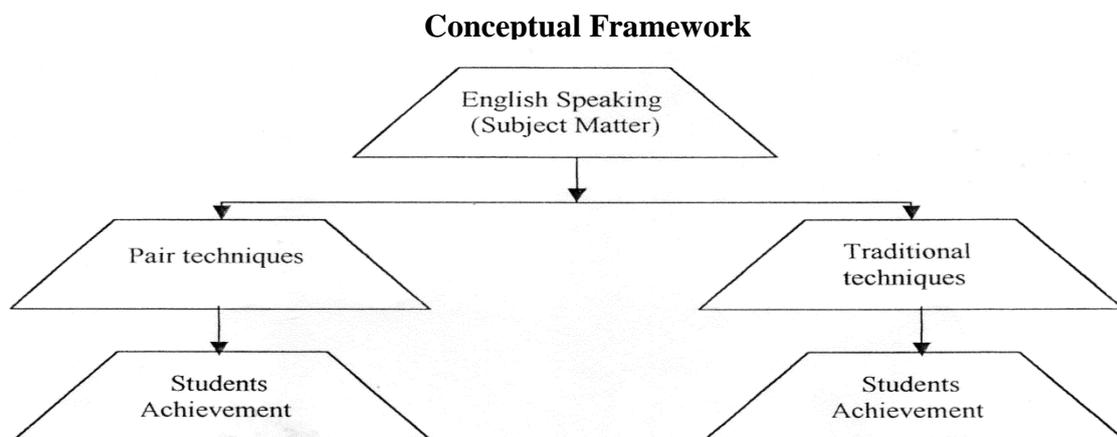


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

Pair technique is one of technique of teaching speaking by giving an opportunity to the students to speak English in partner. The conceptual framework understanding this study to compare the students' achievement who taught by using pair technique and traditional one. It shown in figure 1.

Research Method

In this research, the researcher uses the experimental design which consists of the treatment group and control group. Using experimental design, the researcher will observe the students achievement after the treatment.

Research Design

Kerlinger (in Weirisma 1991) identified that two basic purposes of the research design, are: provide answer to research question and to control variance.

The design of the research consists of two groups (experimental group and control group) which form randomly. Both experimental and control gorup was given pre-test and post-test. The pre-test was administrated to find out the students achievement before the treatment while the post-test is to find out the achievement of the students after the treatment (pair work technique in speaking). The research design can be seen as follows

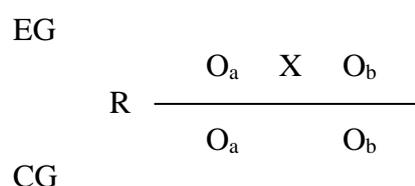


Figure 2. Research design Symbols

RA = Random Assigament

Oa = Pre test

Ob = Post test

X = Treatment (pair work and traditional technigue)

EG = Experimental group

CG = Control Group

Variable of the Research

This research has one dependent variable and one independent variable. The dependent variable is as the central variable of the research or the presumed effect in which the independent variable act. That is the students' achievement on English speaking. While independent variable is the selected and systematically manipulated variable or as presumed causes. The independent variable of the research is the application of pair work.

Operational Definition

The variable of the research are described in the following definition'.

1. Pair work technique is the technique in presenting the materials for the students in teaching of speaking, where the students put to work in partner in order to practice the dialogue. One student will put as students A and the other one will be as student B. The decision has to be taken about how the students are put in pairs and the teacher has to decide whether the teacher puts the students in the same level such put the strong students one or the teacher varies the combination of pairs from class to class or group to group. But the teacher can also put the students by using random approach to put students in pairs while others deliberately mix students who do not necessarily sit together.
2. Achievement is defined as the grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic communication in English. The variable indicators are the accurate and appropriate linguistic form. Accurate linguistic forms refer to the grammatical correctness of the expression in terms of discourse and social context.
3. Traditional Lecturing technique means the technique usually used to teach the English language in general, in this technique, the teacher or educator uses many times to explain the theory and of course the students only get a little opportunity to express their idea. The students only receive the teachers' instruction. The educator is more active than students, and sometimes the students are more passive to the process of study.

Population and Sample

The population of this research was the second semester students of English Education Department Strata 1, registered in 2014/2015 academic year. This research employees a consensus system or total sampling. That is taking all of second semester students of English

education department, strata I which consist of 50 students, The respondent was divided into two groups. Experimental group and control group. The students of class A were treated as experimental group and the student of class B will be as control group. The reason of choosing the second semester students as a sample of population because they had free time during the conduct of this research.

Instrument of the Research

In collecting data needed the researcher administrated speaking test to identify the students performance before and after the treatment. The objective test which will be employed at the beginning of the teaching as pre-test and at the end of the teaching period as post test. The test was focused on English speaking material.

Procedures of Collecting the Data

1. Procedures of the treatment

The first step to be done was grouping the students, and then they were given test as pre-test. Then each group was thought separately for eight sessions. At the end of the session, they were given achievement test as post-test.

a. The experimental group

In this case, the research did some treatments to the students of experimental group. The treatments presented to them are going to be explained as follows:

1. Firstly, the researcher distributed a test for speaking skill, such as the materials for dialogue, conversation, and materials for interview.
2. Secondly, he tested the students by calling them in a pair to speak the topic for conversation, to interview them and or tested them in a pair for the dialogue.
3. After getting their base ability of speaking English, he taught the students by applying the pair work technique which focussed on the dialogue materials, conversation materials, and interview materials for eight meetings.
4. After applying the pair work technique for learning speaking skill, the researcher gave them a post-test to know the students' achievement of it.
5. Lastly, he collected the result of post-test to be calculated into t-test formula.

b. The control group

The control group was also given test at the beginning of the teaching process. They were taught as the way that usually used conventionally. And at the end of the teaching process they were given achievement test as the post-test.

2. Procedure of collecting data

Collecting the data on the students' achievement in speaking English matter will be conducted twice. That was before and after the treatment. The data collected before the treatment was applied as the previous score (pre-test) to compare the students' achievement after the treatment. Data collected after the treatment will be taken at the end of the teaching activities in terms of finding out the students' progress. The test given was written and oral test based on the materials of speaking English. The test will be analyzed quantitatively by using T-Test.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed qualitatively by employing statistical calculation to test the writer's hypothesis. The procedures were performed as follows:

1. Scoring the students test result.
2. Tabulating the score of the students test result.
3. Classifying the students' scores.
4. Calculating, the mean score of the students test.

$$X = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

Figure 3. The formula of mean score

Simbols:

X : Mean score

ΣX : The sum of all score

N : The total number of subjects.

Table 1. The mean score are classified into levels of classification

| Score | Meaning |
|-----------|----------------------------|
| 9,6-90 | is classified as excellent |
| 8,6 - 9,5 | is classified as very good |
| 7,6-8,5 | is classified as good |

Finding out the significant difference between the pretest and post test by calculating the value of the t-test.

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{SS_1 + SS_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \right] \left[\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right]}}$$

Figure 4. The formula of T - Test

Symbols:

- X_1 = mean score of the experimental group
- X_2 = mean score of the control group
- SS_1 = sum of the square of the experimental group
- SS_2 = sum of the square of the control group
- N_1 = number of subjects in the control group
- N_2 = number of subjects in the control group
- ΣX_1^2 = sum of all the sum squares of experimental
- ΣX_2^2 = sum of all the sum squares of control group
- $(\Sigma X_1)^2$ = square of the sum scores of experimental group
- $(\Sigma X_2)^2$ = square of the sum scores of control group

Findings and Discussion

This chapter presents the findings and the discussion of the research. The findings consist of the data obtained through the achievement test in order to see the students' achievement and ability after being taught the materials of speaking skill through pair technique and individual technique. The discussion in this thesis deals with the description and interpretation of the findings.

The Findings

The findings reported in this chapter were related to the analysis of the data collected and the application of the methods described in the previous chapter. The findings were organized into two parts by referring to the research questions in chapter one, namely: (1) the findings of the students' achievement on English speaking skill taught by using traditional

teaching and pair technique. The data of these findings were analyzed into mean score formula, and the result were classified from very poor until excellent category, (2) the findings of the different achievement of the two groups of students taught the materials of speaking skill by using were analyzed by using the independent t-test formula.

In relation to the research sample that there are 50 students listed in the attendance list, those students were divided at random into two groups, 25 students were prepared for experimental group and 25 students were prepared for control group. Based on the idea of randomized control group pre-test-post-test design that those groups of the research must be in the same condition such as number of students, materials, time, place, etc.

From the experience of teaching materials for English speaking skill to those both groups, the researcher could analyze and tabulate about the students' ability to choose the accuracy of grammatical, sociolinguistics, discourse, and strategic communication in English speaking skill. The result of experimental and control groups' scores in English speaking skill can be seen in the data analysis of pre-test and post-test of mean score and standard deviation (see appendix 24-25).

1. The students' achievement of speaking skill taught by using pair technique

a. The rate percentage of the students' score

The rate percentage of the students' score in the following table in speaking skill taught by using pair technique shows that it was classified into very good achievement category. The result of post-test indicates that out of 25 students, 20 (80 percent) students obtained score 3.1 – 3.5, and 5 (20 percent) students obtained score 2.6 – 3.0, besides the pre-test resulted 16 (64 percent) students for fair achievement category and 9 (36 percent) students were in poor achievement category.

Based on the explanation of the data means that the teaching of speaking skill of English by using pair techniques is getting success because the result of posttest shows that none of the students in experimental group obtained score in the very poor achievement category up to fairly good category such as in pre-test resulted (1.1 – 2.0 score) shown in the following table. To know clearly about the data of the students' rate percentage can be checked in appendix 22 and 23.

Table 2. The rate percentage of the students' score in speaking skill taught by using pair technique.

| No. | Achievement category | Scores | Pre-test | | Post-test | |
|-----|----------------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | | | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | Excellent | 3.6 - 4.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. | Very good | 3.1 - 3.5 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 80 |
| 3. | Good | 2.6 - 3.0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 20 |
| 4. | Fairly good | 2.1 - 2.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5. | Fair | 1.6 - 2.0 | 16 | 64 | 0 | 0 |
| 6. | Poor | 1.1 - 1.5 | 9 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| 7. | Very poor | 0.0 - 1.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | Total | | 25 | 100 | 25 | 100 |

b. The mean score and standard deviation

The mean score of the students in speaking skill taught by using peer review technique increased in a high level and could be classified into very good classification, since the standard deviation post-test was 2.75. This data is taken from appendix 24.

Table 3. The mean score and standard deviation of the students in speaking skill taught by using pair technique

| No. | Test | Mean Score | Standard Deviation |
|-----|-----------|------------|--------------------|
| 1. | Pre-test | 1.58 | 0.5856 |
| 2. | Post-test | 3.2 | 2.75 |

The data of table above approves that the teaching of speaking skill by using pair technique can improve the students' ability and their achievement, where the mean score value of post-test is greater than the mean score value of pre-test ($3.2 > 1.58$) and the standard deviation value of post-test is higher than the standard deviation value of pre-test ($2.75 > 0.5856$). this data is then from appendix 24.

c. The total score raw data of experimental group

The total score raw data of the students for experimental group in pre-test is different from post-test. The average of number for each indicators which is scored get improvement highly, such as the total score raw data of pre-test for grammar is 95,

sociolinguistics is 104, discourse is 101, strategic communication is 93 and the total score is 394 while the grade of the students for those indicates in pre-test is 39.4

The total score row data of the students in post-test improved significantly if it is compared with the pre-test total score, where the total score of grammar is 200, sociolinguistic is 205, discourse is 197, strategic communication is 198, and the total score of those indicators is 800, while the average of grade is 80.0 (see table 4).

| No. | Tested Indicators | Score of pre-test | Score of post-test |
|-------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. | Grammar | 95 | 200 |
| 2. | Sociolinguistics | 104 | 205 |
| 3. | Discourse | 101 | 197 |
| 4. | Strategic Communication | 93 | 198 |
| Total | | 394 | 800 |
| Grade | | 39.4 | 80.0 |

After being given treatment W the students, the score of indicators improved significantly where the score of grammar in pre-test is similar than the students' score in post-test ($95 < 200$), sociolinguistics score in pre-test is similar than in post-test ($104 < 205$), discourse score of students in pre-test experimental group is similar than in post-test ($101 < 197$), and the score of students for strategic is similar than their scores post-test ($93 < 198$), and ofcourse, the communication s sirm (93 total score raw data of post-test and grade are greater than the students' total score raw data and their grade in pre-test. (Total score row data of post-test = $800 >$ pre-test = 394 , and the students' grade in post-test = $80.00 >$ grade in pre-test = 39.4). The explanation of data above can be consulted with appendix 22 and 2').

2. The students' achievement of speaking skill taught by using traditional method.

a. The rate percentage of the students' score

The achievement of the students in speaking skill taught by using traditional method can be seen in the table as follows:

Table 5 The rate percentage of the students' score in speaking skill taught by using traditional method

| No. | Achievement category | Scores | Pre-test | | Post-test | |
|-------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | | | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | Excellent | 3.6 – 4.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. | Very good | 3.1-3.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. | Good | 2.6-3.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. | Fairly good | 2.1-2.5 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 28 |
| 5. | Fair | 1.6-2.0 | 15 | 60 | 18 | 72 |
| 6. | Poor | 1.1-1.5 | 10 | 40 | 0 | 0 |
| 7. | Very poor | 0.0-1.0 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | | | 25 | 100 | 25 | 100 |

The data above shows that the achievement of the students in speaking skill taught by using traditional method was far from the required target because most of the students' scores were classified into fair students (27 percent of post-test result) and only seven students (28 percent) could improve the in achievement in fairly good category. Out of 25 students in control group, none of them could achieve good until excellent achievement category. Although none of them got poor achievement category in pre-test such as the result of the students' score in pre-test, but this improvement cannot bring the students achievement higher and more significantly expected. This data approves that the teaching of speaking skill through traditional method could not give the students' improvement to understand well the materials of speaking (see Appendix 21).

b. The mean score and standard deviation

The mean score gained by the students in control group taught by using traditional method can be seen in a table as follows:

Table 6. The mean score and standard deviation of the students in speaking skill taught by using traditional method.

| No. | Test | Mean Score | Standard Deviation |
|-----|-----------|------------|--------------------|
| 1. | Pre-test | 1.556 | 0.4016 |
| 2. | Post-test | 1.96 | 2.05 |

The result of mean score for the students taught speaking skill by using traditional method in a table above indicates that it was not in a high level and it

Conclusion

Based on the research findings and discussion in the previous chapter, the conclusions are presented as follows:

1. The findings of this research through tabulated data taught by using traditional technique shows that the mean score of the students in control group for pre-test is 1.556 and the post-test is 1.96. The achievement of the students in control group shows that out of 25 students, 15 (60 percent) students got score 1.6 – 2.0 as the fair achievement category, and 10 (40 percent) students got score 1.1 – 1.5 as the poor achievement category for pre-test. Which the result of post-test in control group shows that out of 25 students, 7 (28 percent) students got score 2.1 – 2.5 as the fairly good achievement category and 18 (72 percent) students got score 1.6 – 2.0 as the fair achievement category.
2. The speaking achievement of the students in experimental group shows that, out of 25 students, 16 (64 percent) students got score 1.6 – 2.0 classified in fair achievement category and 9 (36 percent) students got score 1.1 – 1.5 classified in poor achievement category for pre-test. After giving treatment to the students in experimental group, 20 (80 percent) students got score 3.1 – 3.5 classified very good category and 5 (20 percent) students got score 2.6 – 3.0 classified good category for pre-test. The students' mean score in experimental group improved significantly, where the mean score of pre-test is 1.58 and post-test is 3.2. These value shows that the mean score of pre-test is similar with post-test ($1.58 < 3.2$).

The comparison of the students' total score for control group and experimental group show that the value of students' score in experimental group is higher than control group, where $800 > 490$ (see table 7). While the t-test value of the students' achievement taught by using pair technique shows that the observed value of pre-test is smaller than the t-table value ($1.2 < 2.021$), and after giving the treatment to the students, the observed value of post-test is greater than the t-table value ($44.286 > 2.021$). This means the students in experimental group taught by using pair technique have better ability in speaking skill than those who were taught by using traditional method.

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Title

Utility of Self Access Materials in Second Language Learning for Autonomous Learners

Author

Nicodemus Bisse¹

Cendrawasih University Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Nicodemus Bisse is a lecture at English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Cendrawasih University – Papua Indonesia. Currently he is a Ph.D. student at State University of Makassar. He obtained his M.Ed. from State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research interest is in the area of Language Learning and Acquisition of Foreign Language in Education. He can be contacted at nikobais@yahoo.co.id

Abstract

This Paper Explores (1) The Issue and problem of using self access material that the learner can be done (2) potential models and process in language Learning (3) the areas of autonomy in assessment development, application, decision – making to independent action. The terms “Autonomy” and “Self Direction” are being used more frequently in educational to discussion. This article identifies and examines the factors which contribute to these, including the minority rights movement, shifts in educational philosophy, reactions for or against behaviorism, linguistic pragmatism, access to education increase the commercialization educational material for teaching greater availability of current technologies. A number of objection to “Autonomy” (It could not work with children or adult at low educational attainment not for difficult language, or in examination led Syllabus) have largely overcome, research into a wide range of educational topics, such as learning styles and strategies, resources centre and counselor and learner training has directly contributed to present practice

¹ English Teaching Program, Education Department Of Languages And Arts, Faculty Of Teaching Training And Education Of Cendrawasih University Jl. Sentani Abepura, Jayapura Papua, Indonesia 99351

much remains to be explored. However, particularly cultural influenced on language learning. Learner autonomy has long been defines as the ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holic, 1981) in Other words, learners must be independent from others instruction and directing in order to develop autonomy (Benson, 1996).

Teachers hold positive attitudes towards the promotion of learner's autonomy in language as the facilitators, counselor, and variable resources (Dujng and Sheepo, 2014). Learner Autonomy as a subject for research and as an educational goal, has gamed a lot of traction in recent years.

Autonomy is now a common theme at conferences and in professional journals and is well on the radar of the average language teacher.

The Idea that learners need to be able to take control over their own learning to be successful not just in class, but to learn independently without a teacher outside the class, has become widely accepted in mainstream language teaching (Benson, 2001). Breen's process syllabus (1987) and Nunan is (1988) Learner centered approach are examples of this. More recent approaches to learning and teaching, such as task based language teaching include elements that can support the development of autonomous learning skills (Errey & Scholart, 2005) in general, there is now a broader awareness at importance of developing language and autonomous learning skills in addition to the language competencies. The development of learner autonomy is sometimes carried out through 'Leaner training" or dedicated strategy instruction often through self-access centers (Gardner of Miller, 2014). Most likely autonomous learners are those who explicitly accept responsibility for their own learning (e.q. little, 1991) the autonomous shows initiative in the learning process and share in monitoring.

Progress and evaluating the extent to which learning is achieved (Schurk, 2005). There is a need to make students aware of the hidden potential within each and to find ways in which this can be explored when students become more autonomous and involved in their own learning, take an active part in making decisions. This may result in students feel a sense of ownership and commitment to the process this learning night be more meaning full, resulting in better classroom performance. There fore, teacher can help students in cover and develop the skills which will allow them to manage their own learning and survive outside the sheltered environment of the classroom, when the teacher is no longer there for support.

Research done in the area of second language acquisition suggest how this night be achieved work in language learning in the last half of the twentieth century, has brought is closer to understanding the complex nature of this process. Research in area such is multiple

intelligences (Gardner, 2010), individual learning styles and learning strategies (Rus, 1978, Cohen, 1988, Molley & Chamid, 1990), motivation (Dormyei, 2001) and cognition (Schmidt, 1990, Crass, Svetie & Lemelin, 2003) have given us insight into the ways in which different factors influence learners and the way they learn. Added to this is the move toward learner-centered rather than teacher-centered classroom (Nunan, 1999), giving students opportunity to become active participants in the learning process, making decisions with regard to learning objectives and materials to be used, helping decide the evaluation process, and this moving toward becoming independent and autonomous learners.

My intention is to provide an overview of issues concerning learner autonomy and other related areas which have an influence on self-access language learning (SALL). We begin by examining the debate surrounding autonomy and identifying the major influences which have contributed in this debate. This debate will not be discussed after this chapter because it is not central to the purpose of the problem. It is, however, an important starting point for talking about SALL. The remainder of the chapter focuses specifically on SALL by identifying:

- its characteristics
- the beliefs and attitudes which affect the acceptance of SALL
- The change in roles which is required of both learners and teachers.
- The challenges of promoting speaking in SALL
- The kinds of learning environment in which SALL can take place
- Possible areas of resistance to SALL.

Finally we discuss issues related to the costs of establishing and mounting SALL

Keywords : *Utility, Self Access Materials, Autonomous Learners*

Introduction

Autonomy and Self Access.

What is self access and why is important a self access centered (SAC) provided learner with the opportunity to work on and develop their English according to their own needs learning style and learning preference evidence suggest we learn better if we are in control of learning process and the SAC allow for individual choice and greater autonomy. Self-access can send into many types of autonomous learning in this figure, we see that self access stretches across all different types of autonomous.

Minimum Learner
independent

Self Access

Maximum learner
independent

| Class work | Homework | Teacher led autonomy | Teach yourself | Full autonomy | Materials Dimension |
|------------------------|----------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| ┌───┐ Teacher Directed | | ─── | └───┘ | Self Directed ─── | |

Learner Training

In Order to raise the learner awareness of the purpose of self access, it is essential to provide learner training or an ongoing basic and especial before learners begin to use the center. The aim to do the training to provide them with learning strategies so that the center is seen, as more than just random place to do homework but also as a site for developing autonomy and independence.

Autonomy and second language learning

What does this “Autonomy” and “Independence” imply and how can it be achieved whole (1981) defines autonomy as the ability to take charge of one’s learning while little (1991) sees it as the learners psychological attachment and decision making of the tasks and development. Brean & Mann,1997) add that autonomous learners must want to learn and develop the met cognitive capacity that allows them to handle change, negative feedback from the learning environment efficiently. This entails assessing wants, needs and interest and choosing the best way to abstain these. This can best be attained in an environment in witch teachers help students to discover and use effective learning strategies.

However, this about-face in paradigm, from teacher dependence to students is sometimes difficult for students who have been immersed in an educational system which has been predominately controlled by the teacher, who must now give up control, and help students become independent, self sufficient, individuals. Autonomous learning however, does not mean that the teacher’s input and support is not needed (little, 1991) on the contrary the teacher role changes, becoming expert, or holder of knowledge who transfers information to students. It is precisely thought classroom interactive that teacher can help students become concerns of and learn to be independent, Dam (2000) speaks of autonomy in term of creating an atmosphere conducive to learning witching, the confines of the educational system where learner are given the possibility to be consciously involved in the own learning. Nunan (1997) mention achieving

degrees of autonomy which range from making student aware of the learning goals and materials, to making links between the content of classroom learning and outside world.

Autonomous Learners can be characterized as:

Willing and have the capacity to control or supervise learning:

- Knowing their own learning style and strategies
- Motivated to learn
- Good guesser
- Choosing materials, method and tasks
- Exercising choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen task
- Selection the criteria for evaluation
- Taking an active approach to the task
- Making and rejecting hypothesis
- Paying attention to both form and content
- Willing to take risk (Adapted from Dam, 1990 Wenden, 1998)

Making Student aware of these strategies as well as incorporating the use in activities done throughout the term, is perhaps the first step toward learner autonomy this might be achieved through learner training or learner development (Sinclair, 1996), where students learn about the factors which affect their learning discover the strategy needed to become more effective learners, and in so doing take on more responsibility for the process (Ellis Sinclair, 1989).

However, knowing about strategies is not enough, for students should know when, why, and how) these should be used in order to select the most needs. The route to students autonomy can therefore be initiated in the classroom by incorporating Numan's (1997) degrees of autonomy with consciousness of strategy use (Oxford;1990,2002).

Self-Access Language Learning (SALL)

Self-Access Language Learning is Based on the theory that foreign language learners learn better off they have a say in how they learn, for example, in choosing from among different resources that are available during independent study (Klassen, Detaramani, Lui, Patri, Wu, 1998) SALL is therefore also based on the learner-centered approach, which support learning based in students active rather than passive participation (Gibbs, 1996), on student (rather than teacher) responsibility for learning and on autonomous learning.

SALL follow this concept, which focuses on student responsibility and active participation for his/her own learning (Carter,1999) it is closely related to a learner-centered approach and self-directed learning.

SALL is most often conducted in a self-contained learning environment or self-access centered. These provide independent study programs, which come in the form readily accessible materials, some sort of support or guidance, either through answer keys or counseling, and are supported by new technologies (Dickinson, 1987). In this environment, students

Result and discussion

What this contribution show then is the diversity in autonomy research, its relationship to language acquisition, its role in course design, its support for the learning process and the importance of selection, its role in course design, its support for the learning process and the importance of selecting materials that promote autonomy bath a strange and a weakness. We need more studies such as those preciously mentioned and moor situated research at sometime, this also mean that autonomy is an important piece in understand teachers and researchers work and reserves father exploration paper also highlight the importance of the teacher or course designer. Autonomy is ultimately about learner's ability to take control over then own learning, the quality of the input, syllabus, support and materials provided by the teacher are council. We hope this makes a valuable contribution to an understanding and appreciation of the autonomous learning.

In addition to the differences in degrees of autonomy suggested by Nunan, there may also be fluctuations in the degree of learner autonomy over time and from one skill area to another. For example a learner may attain a high degree of autonomy in listening but could remain teacher dependent in learning about writing. Levels of autonomy may vary even within single language skills, for example in reading.



Figure 1.1 Interaction between the learner and the self-access assessment.

Figure 1.1 shows an example of the development of learner’s levels of autonomy in three aspects of reading. First, the learner’s autonomy in analysis needs has developed rapidly, it should also be noticed that the development went through two stages where each time a plateau was reached and then passed. Second the learner’s willingness to select materials has developed more slowly. However, there is a sudden increase in autonomy in materials selection which occurs shortly after passing the second plateau of autonomy in needs analysis. Third, the learner’s willingness to accept responsibility for assessment of reading has hardly.

Table 1.1

| Element | Function |
|----------------------|--|
| Individualization | To acknowledge individual differences in : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning styles • Learning strategies • Time and place of learning • Quantity of time spent learning • Learning level • Commitment of learning |
| Needs/Wants analysis | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to identify learning goals • To facilitate the creation of study plans |

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| Learner reflection | To consider : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language ability • Progress in language learning • Suitability of SALL for self • Goal setting |
| Counseling | To Provide <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advice on language ability • Advice on learning methods • Negotiation of study plans |
| Staff training | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To Enhance understanding of SALL • To increase effectiveness of service |
| Assessment | Kinds of assessment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self – assessment • Peer – assessment • External – assessment Purposes of assessment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self – monitoring • Certification • Evaluation of SALL |
| Evaluation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To Support individualization • To improve learning opportunities |

Issues in establishing self-access

Self-access is very flexible. It can be used on large scale or a small scale. It can be conducted in a classroom, in a dedicated self-access centre or elsewhere. It can be incorporated into a language course or it can be used by learners who are not taking courses. It can function at all learning levels. It allows of different levels of independence among learners encompassing both teacher directed groups of learners and virtually autonomous learners. It allows individualization but also support groups. It is not culture specific. It is not age specific. In effect, self-access learning can benefit all language learners. However, for many learners it is a new concept with which they are unfamiliar. Learners' attitudes to SALL are based on their own incomplete knowledge of self-access and may be conditioned by outside influence.

Influences on self-access learners

Some learners may be predisposed to self access learning while others may not. Reley (1988) suggest that this applies not only to individuals but also to identifiable groups of learners Danes, Americas, Moroccans and Vietnamese each reacted differently from the other with respect to a self-access project. The Danes completed the project satisfactorily and had no problems in accepting their “New” roles the Americans, although stating that they were in favors of the project, had difficulty in organizing there selves and comprehending in purpose of the task. The Moroccans accepted the theory behind completing a project but were unable to complete the task in practice. The Vietnamese said nothing and did nothing (Relay 1988 : 14).

Learners attitude towards self-access may be affected by four main influences. These are: their teachers, their educational institution, their peers, and society. Teachers are an important influence because it is they who are most likely to first introduce learners to self-access. Teachers who do this because of their own commitment to self-access learning are likely to have an enthusiastic attitude and are likely to communication that enthusiastic to the learners. The attitude of teachers who introduce self-access learners simply because of Institutional policy are likely to be more variable. In a study of learners and teachers attitudes to self-access language learning Gardner and Miller (1997) found that learners were, in general, more positive about the benefits of self-access than their teachers.

Institutional attitudes to self-access can be an important influence in the way self-access in introduced, or whether is introduced at all. In highly structured institutions, the introduction of self-access needs to become a policy issue. In cases where finding is required for self-access resources, the instructional influence even more important.

Peer pressure is recognized widely as an important influence on learners. Where groups of learners have success fully used self to want to try it. In situation where self-access is a totally new concept it may be difficult to encourage learners to move a way from the traditional.

Approaches with which they are familiar learners need to be exposed not only to self-access learning but also to information about how it is different and why.

Society can also be an important influence on the up-take of self-access learning. Parental pressure, culture and power hierarchies can all potential influence the introduction or inhibition of new approaches to learning. Kennedy (1988) Suggest that there are multiple levels of influence in bringing about change. He suggest a knock on effect where wider ranging system influence those below them, which in turn influence the next level and so an down from

cultural system at the highest level through political, administrative, educational and institutional level to the classroom. The introduction of self-access learning may occur at one or more levels of this hierarchy. Gremmo and Riley (1995) have also identified socio cultural factors as well as institutional, learner and staff characteristics as important influences on the establishment of self-access. They suggest that these influences are powerful that self-access can only be planned locally and that there is no universal model (Gremmo and Relay: 156) for setting it up.

Changing Roles

The Introduction of self-access language learning required change in the roles of learners, teachers and the institution. Learners need to become more aware of their central role in the decision making process (See figure 1.2) they have to learn to take in increasing amount of responsibility for their learning.

They have to learn about the importance of reflection on their learning and how it can help them to redefine their goals to make them constantly relevant to their needs and wants. The changing role of learners requires an increase in learner training which should be incorporated into self-access materials, activities, counseling and classroom work rather than becoming a standalone set of instructional activities.

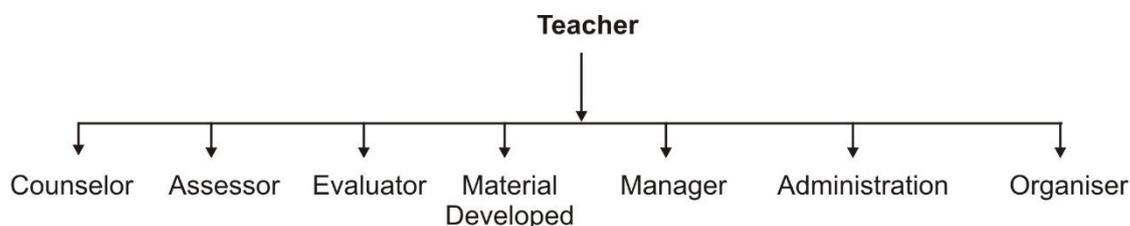
The roles of teachers change dramatically as their learner's engage in self-access learning. Teachers need to relinquish some of their control over lessons, even allowing them to make mistakes. Teachers need to learn new skills to take on their new roles (figure 1.2) some of the "new" roles for teachers in SALL may look familiar. Teachers may already be administrators and organizers of learning.

However, these roles have to be redefined when the new roles of learners (figure 1.3) are also taken into account. In order to adapt to their new roles successfully teachers need training.

As Learners and teachers change their roles so too much the institution. It needs to move from a directive stance to one of being a provider of learning opportunities. These opportunities may be used by different learners in different ways and the choices about how to use them must lie with the learners and not with the institution.

Speaking as Part of SALL

We have singled out speaking as special issue in the establishment of SALL because it can create special difficulties and because it is the cause of some misconceptions among staff and students. Many teachers, students and administrators have a view of self-access which



linkers it to

Figure 1.2 Changing Roles of Staff in SALL

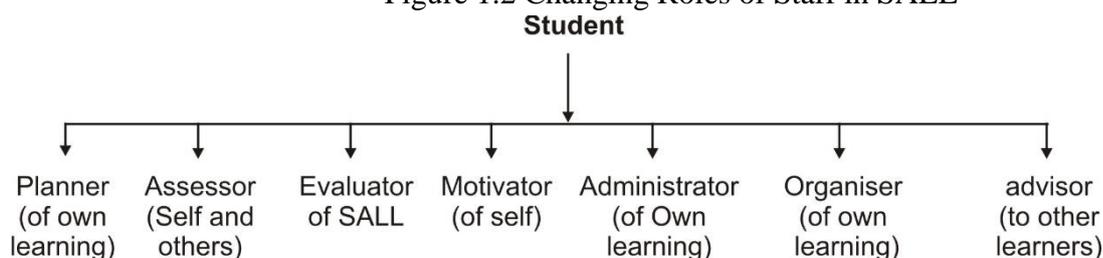


Figure 1.3 Changing Roles of learners in SALL

Quiet study of library work with learners studying individually and (most importantly) quietly. However, self-access is an opportunity for learners to learn and practice the kind of language they need and want, in many cases this involves speaking and this should be encouraged not stifled. There are, however, two major problems related to self-access speaking first, it is noisy and, second, it can be difficult to provide opportunities for speaking as part of self-access.

The issue of noise is one which needs to be addressed when planning SALL because of its implications for the risk of the institution. Speaking makes noise and when lots of learners speak a lot of noise is made. If SALL is being implemented in the classroom, the noise may disrupt students and teachers in nearby classrooms. If SALL materials are stored in a library, the noise level created may be inappropriate for a library atmosphere. Even where a dedicated SAC is available, noise may interfere with other users of the SAC and the SAC itself may be too closely situated to other quiet areas of the institution.

This, creating noise is a problem, however, not allowing noise is a bigger problem. Self-access learners who are prevented from working on oral skills may lose interest in self-access learning. In addition

Table 1.3 Some Suggestions for speaking activities SALL

| Activity | Methods |
|--|---|
| <p>Sound e.g :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single vowel / Consonant sound • Minimal pairs • Sentences containing difficult sound | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provided published materials like 'ship of sheep' (Baker 1981) • Create a list of problem sound specific to the learners (with tape recordings) • Assess as individual or peer assessment |
| <p>Vocabulary</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide a list and tape for vocabulary groups (e.g. shopping terminology, medical terminology) • Provide a multimedia talking dictionary with record option • Provide printed dictionaries with pronunciation symbols (e.g international phonetic alphabet) • Select words from a movie in pairs and peer-assess each other • Use workshop dealing with specific vocabulary (Video tape these for use later by other students). |
| <p>Phrases</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide tapes with tapes cripts and self record options • Provide multimedia materials with records options • Use workshop dealing with specific kinds of language (e.g useful phrases for everyday conversations) |
| <p>Teaching</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask more advanced students to teach some vocabulary to less advanced once; preparing to teach something is great way of learning about it • Ask students to prepare self access speaking materials for other students (for a fuller discussion). |

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Discussion Groups | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Run regular discussion groups. Make the topics serious but within reach of the learners language skills. A facilitator should be present at lets for the firs few meetings others wise learners find it too daunting to get started • As discussion groups nature teachers/counselors should withdraw. |
| Conversation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set up conversation exchanges between learners of different languages • Set up pair / group discussion (provide starting materials) • Invite native or near native speakers to join SALL sessions • Provide people for a casual conversation in a SAC (e.g teachers or student helpers) |
| Interviewing | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Invite outsiders in to be interviewed • Send learners out looking for people to interview • Learners can interview each others. • Learners can interview com sellers. |
| Presenting | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners can make presentation to teach other • When learners are ready they can present to an invited audience (Videotape for other learners to watch) |
| Debating | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set up debating competition (provide practice materials for use beforehand) • Encourage competition between different groups of learners (e.g different classes) • Invite learners from other instructions to compete • Invite, outsiders to attend the finals of a debate add authenticity • Ask a native speaker to be the judge |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Poetry readings | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Invite learners to prepare to read poems to an audience • In preparation ask learners to discuss the content of the poems. |
| Plays | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involve learners in performing a play • Provide preparatory materials to help learners understand the play and the language in it • Invite an audience to the play • Stage an academy awards sessions after the play |

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:CUP

Title

The Problem of Switching the Status of English from Foreign to Second Language in
Indonesia

Author

Novi Rahayu Restuningrum
YARSI University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Novi Rahayu Restuningrum is currently a lecturer at YARSI University, Jakarta. Her research interests include second language acquisition and the relationship between language and culture. She is a Monash graduate whose PhD thesis is entitled *Raising Children Bilingually in Australia: A Case Study*, which she completed in 2015.

Abstract

The objective of this study is to explore the concerns involved in the switching of the status of English language in Indonesia from foreign to second language, including culture, education system, and the issue of nationalism. In the society where some people are moving towards English as a second language, there is 'foreseen' change, which raises concerns to some people.

Keywords: *English, status, second language, foreign language*

Introduction

There has been more attention towards English as lingua franca to be better mastered for the purpose of global communication. Making English a second language is considered to provide better skill for the speaker. The sound-promising idea of making English a second language has been adapted in several schools by implementing the use of two languages (Indonesian and English). Among parents, the idea of enabling their children to have a good command of English is interpreted as sending their children to schools that use English as the media of instruction.

Indonesia is a “multiethnic and multilingual society” (Montolalu & Suryadinata, 2007, p.39). To Indonesians, ethnic languages are common to become the mother tongue and Indonesian language becomes the secondly-acquired language. Exceptionally, in some big cities, the mother tongue is Indonesian, and English becomes a second language. Extensive use of English is indicated by more children speaking the language at schools and in their family with their parents and siblings. Confirming this, Lauder (2008) describes that members of the Indonesian elites code-mix English and Indonesian in the effort of foregrounding a modern identity.

Literature review

First language is used in this article to mean interchangeably with the term mother tongue - “the language best known which is assumed to be the first learnt” (Beardsmore, 1981, p.35) and is also called as the language that a person identifies with (Romaine,1995). Second language, commonly speaking, is the language that is secondly learned, while Ellis described it as “any language other than the first language” (1994, p.11). Foreign language means a language that is used in a country other than the speaker’s country of residence and is usually learnt only in schools, colleges, and universities (Byram, 2008); it is “primarily learnt only in the classroom” (Ellis, 1994, p. 12).

Discussion

English language in Indonesia

English in Indonesia functions as a means of international communication, medium to access knowledge and technology to succeed in the global marketplace (Lauder, 2008). English is used after Indonesian and the vernaculars or the ethnic languages. Until today, English is a foreign language in Indonesia. The language has been taught to children since they are in the secondary school level, although the standard has not been high (Montolalu & Suryadinata, 2007). As a foreign language, English has limited use and is studied only through a structured learning process. Thus, it is common in Indonesia that English is not acquired.

Contrastingly, in other contexts, English has broader use, which is specified by some Indonesians who code-mix and schools that implement the use of two languages– as mentioned previously. The increased use of English in these contexts is obvious and indicates that Indonesians seem to have considered English as a second language, although the switch cannot be claimed until today.

Making English as second language in Indonesia: What is involved?

The following three areas are used to review what are involved in the shifting of the language status. First, the cultural aspect pointed out an important idea that there will be significant cultural change, as there is influence towards the cultural values along with the increasing use of English. All this might lead to a ‘culture shock’, whose level depends on how much people are attached to the culture brought by the language (see Restuningrum, 2015). To some people, undergoing change in cultural values due to the changing nature of the use of English is natural and acceptable, but to some others, it means early extinction of the heritage cultural values, which is unacceptable.

It is understood that there will be a degree of heritage language or first language loss because of the increasing use of English in many aspects of life. The dominant use of English in schools will also contribute to the loss of the heritage language ability (see Lee, 2013). The potential loss of the first language also happens in a situation where children have acquired both first language and second language completely (Restuningrum, 2015). In a condition where English is completely acquired while Indonesian had been acquired earlier and people think that “there is nothing left to learn” (Caldas, 2006: 145), they stop learning the first language while they consistently use English.

Second, adjustments will be needed in the educational areas, where education institutions will make massive change in the curriculum for teaching and learning activities to meet the purposes. This will include the improvement of teachers’ competency. Teacher training will be compulsory although it takes time.

The third aspect relates to English language variety. English variety is connected to the history of English language use in the colonial era (Lauder, 2008), which makes Indonesians be considered to have none of the varieties. This is due to Indonesian history was more closely related to Dutch colonization instead of British or other English-speaking countries. However, although variety does not need to be determined immediately, Lauder (2008) considered that the choice of variety is important for the purposes of pedagogy.

Changes: are we ready?

The use of heritage language is usually associated with the language’s cultural aspects (Restuningrum, 2015). This locates heritage language as the carrier of heritage (native) culture, and confirms the cultural change and the emergence of the “cultural hybrid” as a culture that stands in between two cultures (Hoogvelt, 1977 in Greeholtz & Kim, 2009) along with the combination in the use of heritage language and English. Regarding this, people’s readiness is

not merely about competency, but also about creating better environment for learning culture(s).

Another concern is the issue of nationalism, which in Indonesia is significant. Alwasilah (1997, in Lauder, 2009) depicted the concerns related to the increasing use of English. There is “fear that too much influence from English, in particular culturally, could exert an undesirable influence on Indonesian life and language” (p. 13), despite the need to benefit from using the language for national development, - a phenomenon called “language schizophrenia” (Kartono, 1976, p. 124 in Lauder, 2009, p. 14). Similarly, the 19th and 20th-century Western Europe and North America where only elite learnt foreign languages portrayed the issue of “potential threat to national identity because it introduced learners to different beliefs and values” (Byram, 2008: 5), which makes the issue a substantial concern among the society with extensive use of foreign language. Anticipating this, it is important to develop an attitude of acceptance towards change.

Closing

The challenge of switching the status of English from foreign language to a second language lies on the way Indonesians perceive change in culture, pedagogy, and perspectives of nationalism. It is the people of Indonesia themselves who decide whether they are ready for the change, although there have been extensive use of English and a change of culture in some other contexts or environment.

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Title

Analysis of Demonstration Method through Students' Motivation to Learn English
SMA Negeri 1 Serang Baru-Kab. Bekasi

Author

Novita Puspahaty

Universitas Islam "45"

Bekasi/novita@englit45bekasi.org

Bio-Profile:

Novita Puspahaty is a lecturer of Universitas Islam "45" Bekasi. She was born on November 11th 1985 in Bekasi, Indonesia. She completed her undergraduate degree in Sutan Ageng Tirtayasa University on 2008 and took her master degree at Padjadjaran University on 2010.

Abstract

Demonstration method is the simplest method compared to other methods of learning. This method is a performance about the occurrence of an event or object to the appearance of behavior exemplified to be known and understood by learners are real or a replica. The purpose of this study were: 1) To determine if demonstration method is effective in improving students' motivation to learn English. 2) To find out the effectiveness of demonstration method in improving students' motivation to learn English. The method used in this research is descriptive method in which the author describes the effectiveness of the demonstration as it is. So this research is the disclosure of the facts. The authors used observations and interviews to obtain the required data in this study. The result showed that: 1) Demonstration method is effective in improve students' motivation to learn the English language, this can be proved by the results of the interviews, 100% students say that the demonstration method make them more enthusiastic in teaching and learning process. 2) The effectiveness of the demonstration method in improving students' motivation in learning english is very high. Because English is a lesson that require practices and examples of actual situations in everyday life, from observation and

interviews have been conducted, the method of demonstration is able to boost students' motivation to learn English.

Keywords: *Demonstration Method, Motivation and Learning*

Introduction

Everything human do certainly have motivation, whether it is important, unimportant, dangerous or risky. According to Sartain in Purwanto (2007: 61) motivation is a complex statement within an organism that directs behavior toward a goal or incentive. Purpose is what determines / constrains the behavior of the organism. If what we emphasize is the object / fact organism interested in, then the term we use is stimulants.

Purwanto (2007: 73) motivation's goal is waken up someone's desire and willingness to do something to obtain results or achieve certain goals. For a teacher, motivation's goal is to excite or stimulate the students to improve their academic achievement in order to reach educational goals as expected and set by the school curriculum.

As mentioned above, motivation needed in every respect; so does learning English. Since English is not the mother tongue of Indonesian, we need stronger motivation to master it. Therefore, teachers are required to use certain methods to be able to attract and motivate students to learn English. One of them is demonstration method.

Demonstration method is the simplest method compared to other methods of learning. This method is a preformance about the occurrence of an event or object to the appearance of behavior exemplified to be known and understood by learners are real or a replica. This method is first used by primordial man when they were adding woods to enlarge the flame of the campfire, while their children watch and imitate (Sagala, 2004: 210). Demonstration methods have been choosen because this is the first method that is used by humans. So the authors wanted to know the effectiveness of this method on students' motivation to learn English

Research Methods and Data Collection Techniques

The method used in this research is descriptive method in which the author describes the effectiveness of the demonstration as it is. Data collection techniques that I use include:

1. Observation

The observations were made in class XI IPA at SMAN 1 Serang Baru for seven weeks. Because the class XI students still use the KTSP curriculum, then the English lessons were

gained as much as four hours of lessons divided into two sessions each week. Observations made on the date: April 23th and April 24th 2014, April 30th and May 7th 2014, May 8th and 14th 2014, 21st-22^{sd} May, and May 28th and June 4th 2014 with the total number of observations as much as ten times.

At the time of observation conducted, researchers are observing students' attitudes during teaching learning process. Either students seemed enthusiastic about the material presented by the teacher or just the opposite, students feel bored. In addition, researchers also observed that the teaching methods used by teachers, which method seems most effective to increase motivation of students learning English.

2. Interview

Interviews were conducted by asking the source, the source is a class XI IPA at SMAN 1 Serang Baru. Respondents were selected randomly by considering the place of origin of students and family backgrounds. Respondents were selected for interview are as many as eight students.

Data analysis technique

After getting the data from observations and interviews, data were analyzed in order to see is demonstration method effective as learning models. First of all the data is reduced, after which the information is compiled, and then concluded.

Results and Discussion

In this study, the authors conducted observations of 10 (ten) times. The observations made on the date: April 23th and April 24th 2014, April 30th and May 7th 2014, May 8th and 14th 2014, 21st-22^{sd} May, and May 28th and June 4th 2014. From ten times observations, the authors found that the teaching method used by English teacher who teach in class XI IPA varied, start from the use of grammar translation method (GTM), presentation practice and production method (PPP), to methods of demonstration.

The use of various methods of teaching English are intended to avoid the boredom in learning English. Thus, students are expected to more easily understand the material being taught. Based on observations of the author, on the class XI IPA observed, the students tend to be eager to follow English lessons. Because teachers are not only focused on the methods of teaching alone.

According to the observations, the students seemed enthusiastic when the learning process takes place, and teachers use the demonstration method in teaching, especially on

materials related to speaking and writing skills of students. Students with a passion to follow every process of learning delivered by their teachers. When the teacher use demonstration method in delivering materials related to speaking and writing skills, students seem far more enthusiastic. It was not partly due to language lessons, including English which requires a lot of practice, so that students can immediately use what they know. Thus, it can be concluded that based on the observation, demonstration methods proven to improve students' motivation to learn English.

In addition to the observations, the authors also interviewed an English teacher grade XI as well as some students of XI IPA who considered as representative of the overall grade XI. Interviews were conducted on an English teacher stating the reason as mentioned above, the teacher uses a variety of methods of teaching English. Among the reasons given by the teacher is that he wants to minimize the saturation level of the students. Because most of the students have had the idea that English is a difficult subject.

From the interviews conducted on a number of students who come from different areas, most of the students have studied English since grade II in the elementary school. However, students' ability, especially in speaking in English is not good enough, because most students (75%) consider English is a difficult subject. This assumption makes the students' motivation in learning English is very low. Only 12.5% of students who consider English learning interesting and fun. And as much as 12.5% of students said it was difficult but challenging.

| No. | Comes from | Sex | | Have been learn English for | Their opinion about English |
|-----|-------------|------|--------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | Male | Female | | |
| 1 | Bekasi | √ | | 11 years | Difficult |
| 2 | Palembang | √ | | 9 years | Interesting and fun |
| 3 | Jawa Tengah | | √ | 10 years | Difficult but challenging |
| 4 | Jakarta | | √ | 11 years | Difficult |
| 5 | Solo | | √ | 8 years | Difficult |
| 6 | Jakarta | | √ | 8 years | Difficult |
| 7 | Jakarta | | √ | 7 years | Difficult |
| 8 | Kudus | | √ | 8 years | Difficult |

Table 1: How long have been the students learn English

The idea that English is a difficult lesson need to be changed. Because the view that English is difficult makes the students passive. This is because unconsciously students have instilled in their minds that they will not be able to speak English or even just understand what is presented by the teacher. Therefore choosing the right teaching method is the key to change the paradigm.

As mentioned by Vroom in Purwanto (2007: 72), motivation refers to a process that influence individual choices against various forms of activities desired. Thus, increasing students' motivation to learn English has become a very important thing. Due to increasing students' motivation, students' English skills will also increase simultaneously.

The use of demonstration methods proven to improve students' motivation to learn English. It is based on interviews of 100% of students said that the demonstration method make them more enthusiastic in learning English. Students also expect teachers use more demonstration methods when teaching and applying reward and punishment in the classroom. So the motivation of students more motivated in learning English.

| No. | Expected method | Method used in the class | Influence through students' motivation |
|-----|--|--|--|
| 1 | More practice | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 2 | More practice and interaction between teacher and students | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 3 | More practice | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 4 | More practice | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 5 | More practice | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 6 | More practice | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
| 7 | More practice and the teacher should give reward and punishment for the students | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| 8 | More practice, learn form native speaker, and the teacher should give reward and punishment for the students | Varied, including demonstration method | Increase students' skills and motivation |
|---|--|--|--|

Table 2 The influence of demonstration method through students' motivation

By increasing students' motivation to learn the English language, students' English proficiency expected increase too. Most students found their English skills has increased after the teacher using the demonstration method in the classroom. Students are able to use some expression in English has been taught the teacher using the demonstration method.

Nevertheless, as an effort to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the subjects of English, the authors also ask about the teaching method expected by the students. The result, as much as 100% of students expect more practice in English subject. Students also expect the implementation of reward for students who follow the procedures and do the tasks that have been assigned by the teacher and punishment for students who do not follow the procedures or do the tasks assigned by the teacher.

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Title

Gender Differences in Self-Determination Motivation to Learn English

Author

Nuri Emmiyati

Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Nuri Emmiyati is a lecturer at Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar and Post Graduate Program of State University of Makassar. She got her Doctor degree in English Education from State University of Makassar. Currently she teaches Discourse Analysis and Research Methodology of Language. She can be reached at emie_66@yahoo.com

Abstract

The focus of the study was to investigate the students' self-determination motivation in learning English on the basis of gender. This was a descriptive quantitative research. The participants of the study were 839 students consisted of 369 male students and 470 female students. The questionnaire of self-determination motivation in learning English was applied in collecting the data. The results of data analysis revealed that the students' difference on the basis of gender, in general, the male students were significantly higher in amotivation than the female students. In extrinsic type of self-determination motivation, the male students were not significantly different with the female students. The female students were significantly higher than the male students in intrinsic motivation.

Address Correspondence:
Faculty of Adab and Humanities
Alauddin State Islamic University of
Makassar
Jl. H.M Yasin Limpo 36 Gowa
South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Key words: *Gender Differences, Self-Determination Motivation, English Learning*

Introduction

This study aims to investigate the gender differences of the students' self-determination motivation to learn English. Motivation becomes one of the key factors that can influence the success of the learners. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities, cannot accomplish long-term goals. High motivation may strengthen one's character since character refers to a chain of attitude, behavior, motivation, and skill (Dornyei, 1998, 2000; Musfiroh, 2011).

Gardner (1985) argues that motivation to learn second language concerns the four aspects of human behavior, namely attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language, motivational intensity, and the goal of learning the language. A truly motivated student has a mental engine that subsumes will, effort, and how the students enjoy the task and that a mixture of all three is necessary to establish the meaning of motivation in a second or foreign language. Ellis (2003) expresses that the strength of motivation serves as a powerful predictor of L2 achievement, but may be itself by the result of previous learning experiences.

According to Ellis (2003) the differences of language learner in language learning are gender differences, age differences, cognitive differences, personality differences, learning motivation and learning strategy differences, etc. Then, gender becomes the essential issues in second language learning concerning the individual differences.

Literature review

Self-Determination Motivation Theory

One of the theories of motivation is Self-Determination Theory, proposed by Deci and Ryan. It focuses on the extent to which individuals can exert control over their environment. This theory categorizes motivation into *intrinsic* motivation, *extrinsic* motivation, and *amotivation*. It can be shown along a continuum depending on the degree of self-determination (Deci, Connell, and Ryan: 1989; Ryan and Deci, 2000; Pae, 2008; Woodrow, 2010). It is applied to language learning (Noels, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation refers to reason for L2 learning in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction in which the activity of learning is undertaken because of the spontaneous satisfaction that is associated with it. Three types of intrinsic motivation have been suggested, namely intrinsic knowledge, intrinsic accomplishment, and intrinsic stimulation. *Extrinsic* motivation refers to reasons that are instrumental to some consequence apart from inherent interest in the activity (Noel, 2001). It reflects a willingness to engage with tasks to achieve

specific outcome (Woodrow, 2010). The four types of extrinsic motivation are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation. People will be more self-determined in performing a particular behavior to the extent they have the opportunity to experience autonomy, competence, and relatedness. These are the fundamental needs that individuals seek to satisfy (Dörnyei, 2001). The third is *amotivation*. It refers to lack of motivation resulting from realizing that there is no point.

Methodology

The participants of this study were 839 students, 369 male students and 470 female students, from six Junior High Schools in Makassar that became the selected schools to implement curriculum 2013 for Junior High Schools in Indonesia. The instrument of this study was the questionnaire consisted of 21 items and adopted from previous motivation studies based on Self Determination Theory (Dörnyei, 1998; Noels, 2001). The data were analyzed through Microsoft Office Excel 2007 and SPSS Version 20.

Findings and Discussion

The study revealed that the male students (mean: 4.1802) possessed higher *amotivation*, experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity of learning English, than the female students (mean: 3.6862) in which the calculated significant difference was 0.000. It is higher than $\alpha = 0.05$. The male students (mean: 8.2249) possessed also higher *extrinsic* motivation than the female students (mean: 8.1330). However, the difference was not significant. Only in external regulation as one of the subtypes of external self-determination motivation, the male students were significantly higher than the females. Interestingly, although the male students possessed higher *extrinsic* motivation, in identified regulation, the female students possessed higher than the male students. In *intrinsic* motivation the female students (mean: 8.3747) possessed the higher one than the males (mean: 8.1564) at calculated significant difference 0.013 in which higher than $\alpha = 0.05$. It happened to all subtypes of intrinsic motivation.

When intrinsic motivation is high, then, it is considered that the students are autonomous or self-determined in pursuing to do something. It is similar to the finding of the study which was conducted by Gonzales (2011). He found that females are more motivationally oriented than males in communication and affiliation and self-efficacy of foreign language learning. Then, Yung Feng, Jun Fan, & Zhen Yang (2013) revealed that female students'

learning motivation is higher than male students in terms of their motivation to learn English. Al-Khasawneh & Al-Omari (2015) revealed that the students are highly instrumental motivated towards learning English in which female students possess higher level of motivation than male students with no statistically significant difference. Saidi & Al-Mahrooqi (2012) found that females are higher in motivation in English language learning than males as found by Yeung, Lau, and Nie (2011).

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study investigated that female students of junior secondary schools in Makassar Indonesia were more self-determined in pursuing to learn English comparing with the male students.

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Title

The Importance of Teaching Strategic Competence for Indonesian Learner

Author

Perwi Darmajanti

Shipbuilding Polytechnic Institute Surabaya

Bio-Profile:

The author is **Perwi Darmajanti**, SS.MPd. She has been teaching English in Surabaya Shipbuilding State Polytechnic since 1996. Some of her papers had been presented in ECKLL International Seminar in 2013 and 2014 held by Universitas Dr. Soetomo Surabaya, Asian Literacy Conference 2013, TEFLIN (2013,2014, and 2015), etc. She can be reached at perwi.ppns@gmail.com.

Abstract

The need of excellent communicative skills in foreign language is urgent in the contemporary age of high professional requirements. Even now, communicative competence has become an essential skill in this 21th century, and English has been a central language for global communication. Students need to use English fluently to fit with international communication. Therefore, mastery of speaking skill becomes the top priority of the language learners' target, but problems in mastering oral language competency still persist in until today. It seems that developing oral language skills has been neglected in EFL/ESL courses which is shown by many students who could not orally communicate with others in English although they had learnt it for years. Considering English as foreign language in Indonesia, many Indonesian students feel less interested in learning the language. It influences much to the choice of learning style and lack of learning achievement. Developing learner's strategic competence is regarded important to improve speaking skills for communication as there are lacks of learner's linguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence to communicate. This paper is to support Canale and Swain (1980) statement that strategic competence may be called

into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence.

1. Introduction

The need of excellent communicative skills in foreign language is urgent. Even now, communicative competence has become an essential skill in this 21st century, and English has been a central language for global communication. It leads to put successful learning of communicative English language skills, especially speaking skills, to be an important goal of language teaching. It can generally be understood that the objective of teaching and learning English is to enable the students to be able to communicate and interact with other people in the global society. Even most students feel that being able to communicate orally is ultimate in a foreign language learning (Graham, 2007; Poolsawad, Kanjanawasee, Wudthayagorn, 2015).

Although many learners put priority on oral skill of language, but it has hardly been less prioritized in EFL/ESL courses (Jabeen, 2014). Perhaps, it is not intended to be left behind, but some facts prove that speaking skills are less developed. Complaints on lack of speaking skill of students and graduates happen in many places in the world. Luo (2006) described that most Chinese students could not orally communicate with others in English although they had learnt English at least for six years. In Lithuania the problems in learning good speaking skills and low English proficiency of schools' graduate happens every year (Kaminskiene & Kavaliauskiene, 2014). The condition in Indonesia is almost the same that a great number of learners face a lot of difficulties in mastering speaking skill although they are motivated enough to increase their speaking proficiency. (Hurayah, 2015). Furthermore, there is a shift of criteria of learning success which previously accuracy of language produced were the prominent to success of learning English, but now fluency and communicative effectiveness becomes the objectives. This signifies the teaching of ESL/EFL speaking which encourages the idea of communicative competence in language teaching (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006). Nevertheless, English is still regarded essential for educational and professional communication.

Students' low English proficiency becomes the major problem in developing communicative competence. This can be analyzed by reviewing from multidisciplinary perspective of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Savignon, 2006). CLT is based on concept of communicative competence itself (Hymes, 1971; Canale & Swain, 1980) which is an extension of Chomsky's (1965) concepts of linguistic competence and performance. Richards (2006) stated that CLT can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of

language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom. Based on the current theories, language learning is viewed as resulting from processes such as interaction between the learner and users of the language, collaborative creation of meaning, creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language, negotiation of meaning as the learner and his or her interlocutor arrive at understanding, learning through attending to the feedback learners get when they use the language, paying attention to the language one hears (the input) and trying to incorporate new forms into one's developing communicative competence, and trying out and experimenting with different ways of saying things. Furthermore, Richards (2006: 14) describes one of the goals of CLT is to develop fluency in language use. Fluency which becomes the objective of Indonesian EFL learner (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006) is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence.

2. Proposing the strategic competence teaching to increase student's speaking skills:

Linguistic or grammatical competence alone is not enough to be able to use language in a given cultural social set up. This is proven by the fact that a normal child's acquisition of knowledge of sentences is not only grammatical but also appropriate (Berns, 1990). This is supported by Hymes (1971) who had explained communicative competence for more than four decades ago. He stated that communicative competence was the ability to use language or interpreted language correctly in the process of interaction with the social environment such as the use of language in the proper regulation of social practices. Later it is developed more by Canale and Swain (1980) who mention that communicative competence involves linguistic competence (knowledge of linguistic forms), sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in contexts), discourse competence (coherence and cohesion), and strategic competence (knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies).

Focusing on strategic competence, Canale and Swain (1980) explained the concept as the ability to express oneself in the face of difficulties or limited language knowledge. It is defined as 'verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence'. It is regarded a promising breakthrough in solving the problem of fluency in speaking foreign language. The notion of strategic competence is then amended by Swain

(1984) by including communication strategies that may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for communication breakdowns. This is similar with definition from Yule and Tarone about strategic competence which is described as an ability to select an effective means of performing a communication act that enables the listener or reader to identify the intended referent. The definition is limited to the notion of compensatory strategy (Brown, 2007) which provides the way a speaker manipulates language in order to meet communicative goals. The strategies which are employed vary considerably within each individual and they are most often conscious and goal driven (Chamot, 2005).

From the point of view of strategic competence, problems in achieving communicative goal which are caused by insufficient some aspects of communicative competence can be solved by applying a plan to communicate strategically because the communicativeness problems are due to lack of ability to utilize communication strategy which may influence the fluency or conversational skills (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991). Designing and applying a plan to solve communication problem is a part of communicative competence. This is a part of cognitive aspect of communicative competence (Brown, 2007). This potential is regarded a promising breakthrough in solving the problem of fluency in speaking foreign language. It is proven in Huang's (2010) research which the findings imply that overall, the students' linguistic competence was insufficient, leading them to seek alternative ways to convey meaning. While struggling to cope with communication problems, they paid less attention to the problem of accuracy. However, it is worth noting that most of them did not abandon their attempts to communicate, indicating a strong intention to achieve communication goals and an impetus that favors their future progress.

Related to second language learning, communication strategies are beneficial means which skilled second language learners employ to attain a degree of communicative effectiveness beyond their current linguistic knowledge (Thornbury, 2005). The strategies are assumed to compensate for unexpected communication impasses. They are influential in learner's second language development of fluency which fluency development depends on learner's level of language knowledge and his or her ability to use a variety of communication strategies (Nakatani, 2006). But Paribakht (1985) found that strategic competence in L1 is transferable to L2 learning situations, and thus adult learners often enter the L2 learning situation with a fairly developed strategic competence.

The interaction among human using language is also influenced by some related cultural assumptions. Communication which happened in the interaction is affected by several

cultural assumptions about the purpose of particular interaction and expected outcomes of encounters also (Shumin, 1997). Therefore, knowledge of culture and communication strategies learning will support the development of oral communication skill because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions (Shumin, 2002;2004).

This elaboration may be the clue to find out underlying reason why a foreign language learner faces problems to communicate in the second language which is culturally different from his first language. Therefore, EFL learners need to acquire the competence to incorporate cultural knowledge into language use which makes them to be able to choose appropriate language in different sociocultural contexts in developing communicative competence. (Bachman, 1990; Hymes, 1972; Kasper, 1997). Bachman (1990) provided explanation about how language is more than a tool for communication; it also represents social and cultural background. Therefore, learning the linguistic aspect of a target language cannot successfully engage learners into real-life communication in the target culture. Engagement into real-life communication in the target language can be achieved by learning not only linguistic aspect of the language but also the social and cultural background.

3. Benefits of teaching strategic competence.

There are many research reports and article discussing how strategic competence is influential in increasing communicative competence, especially oral communication. There are three articles which become references of the issue of teaching strategic competence in this paper. They are ones which are written by Dörnyei and Thurrell, Alibakhshi and Padiz, and Nakatani.

Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991) stand as parts of the pioneers in developing strategic competence. They have tried to draw attention to *strategic competence*, and to provide practical ideas on how to include its training in language classes. They provided discussion which was centred around the idea that strategic competence is a crucial component of communicative competence, largely determining the learner's fluency and conversational skills using communication strategy which is used in getting the meaning across when speaking (Paribakht, 1986). The practical ideas involve strategy training. They give explanation and examples of the implementation that some of the exercises may seem strange at first sight: teachers might wonder about encouraging learners to use (what's more: over-use!) fillers, or to go off the point and evade answers. After all, these are language behaviours normally not encouraged in one's

mother tongue. The answer is that the activities and the phenomena they practice provide the learner with a sense of security in the language by allowing him/her room to manoeuvre in times of difficulty. Besides developing confidence, strategy training also facilitates spontaneous improvisation skills and linguistic creativity. Finally, not only do such exercises improve the learners' performance skills, but students enjoy them very much - so they can also be used as ice-breakers, warmers or games.

The second reference is written by Alibakhshi & Padiz (2011) who mention that teaching communicative strategies (CSs) has any significant impact on second language learners' speaking or not has also controversial among language teachers. They had conducted a study that aimed at investigating the effect of explicit teaching of some of the communicative strategies on language performance of Iranian language learners of English. This study has both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically speaking, this study will reveal the effect of teaching communicative strategies on language performance of language learners in general and Iranian foreign language learners in particular. Among all communicative strategies investigated in this study are avoidance, approximation, restructuring, language switch, word coinage, appeal for assistance, circumlocution, self-repetition, self-repair. It is argued that even the most hardworking teachers spending lot of time on task cannot guarantee learners' achievement in communication. The steps taken are good, but they are not adequate to get language learners out of challenging communicative situations. Similarly, this study is theoretically significant because it examines the effect of communicative strategies instruction on language performance of language learners. The findings of this study would be helpful for language learning theorists in that they would be familiar with the role of communicative strategies in learning English as a foreign language and they would be able to develop new theoretical ideas for favorable performance. Based on the findings of the study, several recommendations for teaching English as a foreign language can be made. First, the present study demonstrates that including CS in SL materials especially textbooks and also devoting vigorous exercises to these strategies, teaching and practicing them in a special time of the classroom and most importantly equipping SL/FL learners with these CSs, can pave the ground for fruitful results. Undoubtedly, using these CSs by learners let them get out of difficult communicative situations. Second, just hardworking on the part of language teachers without the inclusion of some of constructive strategies cannot solve the problem of disinclination of language learners in communicative events and those who are in charge of language instruction should keep in mind that one of the most important factor whose presence is fully essential in

language teaching and learning is the instruction of communicative strategies and involving learners in practicing and using these strategies in their language production.

The prominent researcher, Nakatani (2012), also provided supporting evidence to benefit from the teaching of strategic competence. He mentioned that the instruction based on CSs seemed to facilitate target language development during the simulated tasks. The participants became used to using CSs to overcome their target language deficiencies and cooperate with interlocutors during communicative lessons. They could reduce anxiety in speaking English for maintaining their discourse in many ways after the CS training. The participants significantly increased their total use of achievement strategies. For instance, they increased the use of strategies for keeping the conversation flowing and maintaining their interaction through negotiation. In particular, they learned to modify their utterances actively when they received negotiation signals from the interlocutor. They made use of these opportunities to try out new forms and modify other forms, thereby adjusting their utterances to achieve mutual comprehension. The participants also significantly increased their total strategy use for coping with speaking problems. They were aware of using strategies for controlling affective factors. They used strategies for keeping the conversation flowing. They recognized their use of negotiation for speaking strategies to achieve mutual understanding. Accuracy-oriented strategies were intentionally used to improve their interlanguage. The findings of this study suggest that EFL learners should consciously use their interlanguage system to control their performance and to maintain interaction. To achieve these goals, learners should have experience authentic task training through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use. Accordingly, in order to offer opportunities to students to acquire independent learning skills, they need practices to make plans, monitor, and evaluate their interaction for future target language learning contexts. As there was no control group, the findings of this study should be taken as suggestive rather than definitive. It is also important to examine whether the advantage of training lasts for a long time, and whether the CSs that they learned are accessible for their future target language study beyond the classroom.

4. The need to implement strategic competence teaching for Indonesian learners

Considering the condition of Indonesian teaching and learning EFL which is characterized by specific cultural values, attitude and practices, the teaching of strategic competence is urgent to be implemented. Like most Asian learners, Indonesian students are generally passive learners (Richmond, 2007). Their motivation is influenced much by the

teacher and classroom climate (Ghenghesh, 2010 and Kikuchi, 2009), therefore the knowledge and skills of strategic need to be transferred from teachers to learners. Communicative language teaching which requires active participation of learners may become an exhausting activity for teacher because the learners need to be generated almost at every time.

In Indonesia teacher-centered learning is still widely practiced which students expected to be passive recipient of knowledge and memory-based learning are still being practiced. Students have less opportunity to practice analyzing critically which makes them unable to apply their knowledge in the real contexts. It will become weakening causes in developing communicative competence. Therefore the teacher is required to develop a teaching and learning activities to accommodate language learning objectives as well as increasing motivation and developing critical thinking. The learning should be designed to increase students' participation which will replace teacher-centered learning to student-centered learning. Students may take several advantages after following the session.

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Title

First Language Acquisition of Eighteen-Month Twins

Author

Ida Nuraida

idanuraida1903@gmail.com

Banten Jaya University

Abstract

This paper explores the twins' language development influenced by the environment as language is basically a result of learning from the environment. A child learns a language as well as other things through “mimicry” or “mirroring”. This study is based on qualitative research by observing a twins’ language development as it is recorded in a diary. The study shows that the eighteen-month twins, Fadel and Fadil, can simultaneously acquire two languages namely Indonesian and English. They can produce one-word or two-word sentences, but not for three words. English acquisition can be more developed depending on the English mastery of the parents and the surroundings. Fadel and Fadhil have been able to respond in English vocabulary based on the context of activities done either through pictures or real objects.

Keywords: Children Language Development, Language Acquisition,

A. Introduction

Language and speech differ in meaning. Language includes all forms of communication, whether expressed in oral form, writing, sign language, body language, facial expression, pantomime or art. While speaking is an oral language which is the most effective

form of communication, and most important and most widely used (Mulyani Sumantri, 2005: 2-29).

As a tool of human communication, language becomes effective when a person needs to communicate with others. Language is acquired when a baby starts learning to communicate. In language development, we have six stages wherein the first three are, a. prelinguistic stage – a point when babies create nonsensical sounds through babbling or cooing, b. holophrase – the stage where a child creates one-word sentences and supplements it with non-verbal cues, c. two-word sentence – a stage when a child can already produce a combination of a noun and a verb and is already intelligible to most people. As the age increases, the child language development also increases and parents should pay more attention to their children during this developmental stage.

Language acquisition, according to Clark & Clark, 1977; Tanenhaus, 1989 in the book *An Introduction to Psycholinguistics*, (Gleason, et.al:1998:32) is a branch of studies in psycholinguistics comprising of comprehension, speech production, and language acquisition. Language development associated with a cognitive development, which means the intellectual factor, is very influential in the development of language skills. The baby cleverness level is undeveloped and still very simple. The more growth and developed the baby, the more the language begins to evolve from a modest rate to the complex language.

Language development is influenced by the environment as the language is basically a result of learning from the environment. Child (the baby) learns language by “imitating” and "repeating" what they hear and it is a natural way the baby learns his first language. Whereas, children aged six can already start learning the more complex part of language in a more formal manner through academic studies. Therefore, language development means the increasing ability of mastering language as the tool of communication, either in oral, written, sign or gesture languages. The ability to master the language is defined as someone attempts to understand and to be understood by other people.

Children's language development is divided into two main periods, namely: Pre-linguistic period (0-1 year) and linguistic period (1-5 years). The author describes language development especially for the early pre-linguistic period (1 – 2.5 years) for the twins.

Everyone has ever witnessed the prominent ability of children in communicating. When babies chatter, coo and cry, they send a message and would want to receive a message as well. When they are one-year old, they try to mimic the words and utter the sounds heard around them. It was about then that they utter their first "words". At approximately 18 months the words multiply and begin to appear in two or three word "sentences", commonly known as "telegraphic" utterances (Brown, 2000: 45).

Some monumental works in psycholinguistic development are based on a small number of children who are observed intensively for several months or years. In 1960 at Harvard University, Roger Brown led a project that study the language of three children called Adam, Eva, and Sarah (Brown, 1973: 122). The researchers recorded a month-long children's activity at their home and brought the tape to the lab for transcription. Transcription was studied in a weekly seminar that led to many early studies developing a children's grammatical language system. Efforts to understand the languages of Adam, Eva, and Sarah begin with an understanding of how children acquire basic sentence structures in English, such as negative and question sentences, and how they acquire English morphology grammar and the possible role of adult models and feedback in the process language development.

A similar study was an intensive observation of a small number of English-speaking children who constituted the largest part of many children's language acquisition studies during the 1960s (Braine, 1963; Bloom, 1970; Miller 6c Ervin, 1964).

The similar study is an intensive observation of the small number of children spoke English which is the biggest part of many child language acquisition researches during the 1960s (Braine, 1963; Bloom, 1970; 6c Ervin Miller, 1964).

B. Methods

Although other studies using more subjects and have characteristics of children's language study, the intensive observation of a small number of children continues to be a major research paradigm in the field for several reasons:

First, it is often necessary to study the linguistic abilities of children intensively from time to time so as to get representative samples capabilities. We cannot ask children to produce their latest version with the affirmative sentence or questioning, "Ask me a question" as an

example. This makes it difficult to develop a study that would examine the typical questions asked to 2-year children.

Second, the early attempt of children language differs from the adults both in structure and pronunciation. Careful treatment should be taken by the researchers to understand and sure about what the kids would say, and how he said it.

The current context, the context before, the process of speaking adults in the neighborhood, and factors such as pronunciation and gestures, all of which may be highly relevant to understanding children's behavior. Such concerns are not easily encoded when children were being observed. Thus, the study of language development of children can be seen as relatively intensive research, which has led many researchers to limit their observations to the number of children quite a lot.

In the mid-1980s, small and deep notes of the language of early childhood have been prepared. Some of them proved to be helpful in answering some of the questions investigators are initially inconceivable. The Child Language Data System (CHILDES) is developed to enable the language researchers to examine and unify their records as language (MacWhinney & Snow, 1985).

Thus, Brown transcript is now available for children's language community, and continues to provide data for current research questions (Pinker, 1991). CHILDES collecting data in many languages and at the level of the normal development of children. Computerized Data Bank allows researchers to test their hypothesis in a variety of research and provides increased precision, standardization, and automation of analysis of various data simultaneously developed to describe the sample. A more detailed guide to CHILDES database and computer program designed to analyze the computerized records can be found in MacWhinney (1995: 1). Language materials can be understood through a linguistic as proposed by Yudibrata, et al. (1998: 2) that linguistics is a science that examines language, usually produce theories of language; not the case with humans, at a certain age group who seek to acquire language. Groups of people at a certain age with all his behavior including the processes that occur in humans when learning a language cannot be understood by linguists, but can only be understood by other sciences related to psychology. On this basis, the new disciplines emerged called psycholinguistics or also called the psychology of language.

According to Foos (in Herman J. Waluyo, 2006:1), psycholinguistics is the science that examines what a person obtained, if they carry out the process of language acquisition; how they acquire language (producing language and speech); how they use language in a given process of understanding the language (comprehension and memory). Psycholinguistics is closely linked to cognitive psychology, the psychology that talks about understanding and thinking.

Psycholinguistics from Foos' view explains that it relates to: (1) the process of language acquisition, (2) the process of language production, and (3) the process of understanding and memory. The process of language production also discusses the process of the human brain. In this case, we are dealing with neurolinguistics process of language acquisition, and also faced the development of children's language. In the process of language understanding, we are faced with the process of considering the language, and both the process of how one understands the language. Developmental psycholinguistics is a psychological study of language acquisition in children and adults, either the acquisition of the first language (mother tongue) or a second language. Language has evolved since the children aged 4-5 months. At this stage it will be discussed problems experienced by children in learning two languages simultaneously or how a child obtains a first language. Do adult's people who learn a second language experience the same process of the first language as a child learning and language? What type of teaching techniques to apply to reduce the interference between the two languages of the students?

In addition, developmental psycholinguistics is a sub-discipline related to the process of language acquisition, either the first language acquisition (L1) or the second language acquisition (L2). This sub-discipline examines the acquisition process of phonological, semantic, and syntactic, gradually and integrated.

Child Development Psycholinguistics is a study of psycholinguistics discussing the child development in acquiring a language. As an educator, Erik H. Erikson (1993: 133) argues that human development is the synthesis of developmental tasks and social duties. His theory was later published as his first book entitled *Childhood and Society*. He explained also that the development of affective is the basis for human development. Erikson 1993: 247-266) coined the theory of effective development consisting of eight stages, namely: *Trust vs Mistrust* or a trust basis (0-1 years), *Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt* or autonomy (1-3 years), *Initiative vs.*

Guilt or initiative (3-5 years), *Industry vs. inferiority* or productivity (6-11 years), *identity vs. Role Confusion* or identity (12-17 years), *Intimacy vs. Isolation* or familiarity (19-25 years), *Generality vs Self Absorption* or the following generation (25-45 years), and *Integrity vs. Despair* or integrity (45 and over) (Mulyani Sumantri, 2005: 1.10). and this paper will discuss the stage of *Trust and Mistrust* or belief (0-1 years).

Children's Language Development

Early Lingual Period (1 to 2.5 years)

In this period, the child began to recite his first, though not yet complete, word. For example: *atit* (it hurts), *AGI* (again), *ITUT* (participate), *atoh* (fall). At this time several combinations of letters are still too difficult to pronounce, such too few letters that still difficult pronounced as *r*, *s*, *k*, *j*, and *t*. the increasing proficiency in this period is very fast and can be divided into two periods, namely:

1. One-word sentence period

According to the rules of grammar, one-word sentence is not a sentence as it only consists of one word. But, the researchers of child language development thought that the first words spoken by a child has more than just a "word" because it is an expression of a complex idea, which will be expressed in complete sentences by adults. In addition, the word is a concrete unity.

For example: the utterance "mama" can mean: Mama participate! Mama do not! mama help me! It belongs to mama, mama drink! and so on.

In general, the first word is used to comment on the objects or events in their environment. It can be in orders, notices, denials, questions and others. The interpret of the first word depends on the context of "time" the word is uttered. Therefore, to understand what the child mean with the words we have to see or observe what the child is doing at that time. Intonation is also very helpful to facilitate the interpretation of whether the child asks, informs, or orders. There are hypotheses in connection with the presumption that the first word is a sentence, as follow:

- Mc. Neil et al. (1970: 55) argued that children have the sentences in his mind, but the limitations of memory (memory) and attention (attention) can only produce one word.

- Ingram (1971: 98) said children have relatively quite a lot of ideas that can be linked into a sentence but cannot put it in the form of a sentence because it does not have sufficient linguistic abilities.

There are still many other hypotheses, but these two hypotheses cannot be tested with satisfactory results so this issue is still a questionable. This is because the problem is difficult, that we are trying to read the minds of children, so that the child has only a very minimal manual. Perhaps studies will come to provide a more satisfactory answer about how the relationship between a child's ideas and language, and how the process changes the words into sentences or long sentences.

2. The period of two word sentences.

In this period, the increasing vocabulary obtained from the environment, the development of cognitive and other functions in children, then, develops a sentence consisting of two words.

In general, two-word phrase first appeared when a child begins to understand a "theme" and try to express it (remember the theme of action, and others). This happened at about the age of 18 months, where the child determines that the combination of these two words have a certain relationship and has different meanings.

In combining words, children follow the sequence of words contained in the language of adults. Speech in two-word sentences are far more productive than one-word sentence. This is of course in accordance with the development of the child's overall abilities.

3. Period of "more than two words" sentences

According to Brown (1973: 89) three-word sentence construction is actually a result of a merger or expansion of construction of the two-word sentence previously combined. By the age of 2 years old children in average are able to construct a sentence of four words namely by way of expansion, although the two-word sentence still dominates the speech corpus.

If the period of two-word sentence in morphology have not seen a real progress, then the period of sentence of more than two words have shown the ability of children in the field of morphology. Therefore, at this stage, the abilities and skills of children increases in constructing sentences.

C. Results and Discussion

The author examines male twins aged 18 months in TK Khalifah, Serang, Banten. The first named Fadel and the second named Fadhil. In general, language development of Fadhil and Fadel develops quite well, because they can master bilinguals, Indonesian language as mother tongue (L1) and English (L2). They even tend to be better than the kids their age. The twins have been able to communicate with his parents, grandmother, and baby sitter who often care for them. But sometimes the twins' parents and the people around them do not understand the utterance the twins produce. This is caused by the child's ability to speak is still not perfect and complete.

When the twelve-month-old twins have been taught to say the word "*mah*" for the mother, "*yangti*" for the grandparent, "*Well*" for her baby sitter, and "*anti*" for her aunt's name.

At 14 months, the children have been introduced to the English vocabulary. Such as: *bird, car, book, hand, cat, dog, eat*, and so on, along with the objects/pictures and activities that aired on television or the real object. When the mother, grandmother, or aunt pointed at a bird perched on a tree, then quickly Fadel will say *bird!* Fadel and Fadhil also began to be taught to mention the word *eat* while feed. Then, when the mother feed the *nasi tim* every mealtime, the twins said, *eat, eat ...* This means that children are able to respond to an everyday activity their mother did. At 15 months, the child is able to combine verbal language with his body language.

For example, when taken for a walk to the mall and then saw the car being marketed, then immediately pointed their fingers on the car by saying *car, car*. When his mother was chewing food, Fadel and Fadhil will raise his hands and say: "*eat ma* (mother eating). When *yangtinya* (grandmother) was reading a book, they get the book on the table while saying in a tone of wonder: "*book? book?*" I replied with "*no! no!*" which means it should not take the book because the writer worry about the book will be broken. However, the writer replaced with another book.

Child Languages Form in Early Lingual Period

The development of language skills of children at an early lingual period can be divided into three periods, as follow:

a. One-Word Sentence Period

Based on research conducted on the children, the writer found one-word sentences produced by the children. Those are: "*da*" (already), "*dii*" (DVD), "*au*" (want), "*co*" (meatballs), "*tut*" (fear), "*piss*" (pee), "*tit*" (sick), "*cu*" (milk), "*men*" (candy), and so forth.

The statement from the first word spoken by the children is simply to leave a comment or response to something seen or asked about it. For example, when the child saw *ondel-ondel* with the masks worn by a giant people, then the children just say, "*tut*" (fear), which means Fadel and Fadhil are feared. When asked, "Have Fadel/Fadhil eaten a meal?", they will answer "*dah*" means they have already eaten a meal. To know the children intent, the mother needs to see things/objects around children intended to prevent them to cry and cry. It will disappoint them when if their intent is not accomplished. This creates unfavorable psychological effect.

b. Period Sentences Two Words

There are many two-word sentences found on every Fadel and Fadhil utterance. Typically, the sentences uttered only two words to people familiar with people they met daily or the closest people such as a mother, *Yangti/grandmother*, *anti/aunt*, and *budanya*. Fadel and Fadhil use two-word sentences by mentioning agent + action as in "*dik piss*" (I want to pee), "*Ati book*" (*Yangti* was reading a book). For action + object, Fadel often says "*cry dik*" (brother crying) and others. As for the object + location, Fadhil often says "*ka ni*" (here brother), "*bird uh*" (a bird on it), and so forth. Two-word sentences are used when they will give a statement, question or answer questions from other people. Such the two-word sentences that Fadhil say often as "*kep ka*" meaning brother brother Fadel is handsome. Another expression is often uttered "*shh awat*" which means plain voice, "*oh ... dog*" (fear of dogs), "*dii teng*" (requested to be played a DVD), and so forth. In the English language, they've been able to say *kiss bye*, with his palms put on the lips when her parents want to go to work or go home or when a guests go home and said goodbye. They also say the compound words (adjective + noun), which has taught by his parents, such as complimentary words "*good boy* or *good girl*".

c. Period of More Than Two Words Sentence.

Three-word sentences are rarely spoken by Fadel and Fadhil except by imitating adult's utterance one by one. For example if the children saw his mother grooming, then caregivers say "*mamah*" and they imitated by "*mma... ma*", "*lagi* (again)" by "*llagii ..*", "*dandan* (make

up)" by "dangdaan" (mamah is making up). In this way, the child is expected to learn to produce at least one phrase or sentence for the next day.

D. Conclusion And Recommendation

Based on observations by the author, it can be drawn some conclusions as follows.

1. Children aged 18 months (Fadel and Fadhil) acquire bilingual at once; namely Indonesian (L1) and English (L2). L2 acquisition could be more developed depending on their parents' mastery of English and the surrounding environment. Fadel and Fadhil has been able to respond in English vocabulary in each activity/image/real object they shown.
2. In one-word sentence, some words that can be spoken are "da" (already), "dii" (DVD), "au" (want), "co" (meatballs), "tut" (fear), "piss" (pee), "tit"(ill), "cu" (milk), "men" (candy), and so forth.
3. In the two-word sentence, they uttered a few sentences such as, "dik piss" (I want to pee), "Ati book" (Yangti was reading a book). In English language, they can say complementary sentence and so forth.
4. In more than two-word sentence, they cannot produce it at once, except by imitating the adult one by one word stages.

The children need to be taught early not only monolingual but also bilingual or even multilingual. Parents or caregivers of children as much as possible try to understand the children' intent speech by viewing or connecting it with the events surrounding that is being faced by children.

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