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Secondary ESL Teachers’ Receptiveness towards ICT Integration

Author
Aileen Tiong Ling
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia
Melor Md. Yunus
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia

Bio-Profiles:
Aileen Tiong Ling is a secondary ESL teacher, currently pursuing her Masters in TESL in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Bangi Campus, Malaysia. Her areas of interest are ICTs and its implementation in TESL. She can be reached at aileenana7@gmail.com.

Melor Md Yunus is an Associate Professor at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Bangi Campus, Malaysia. She has researched and published in the areas of technology-enhanced Language Learning and TESL. She is the first recipient of the National Higher Education e-Learning Award for her contributions in Creativity (Blended Learning, Flipped Learning and Problem-based Learning). She can be reached at melor@ukm.edu.my.

Abstract
The integration of ICT into language learning classrooms is now an everyday occurrence especially with respect to the Malaysian demographics. With the recent implementation of the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025, ICT integration is believed to be of fundamental value as it ensures quality language education. Not only does ICT integration guarantee students’ attainment of the language learned, but it also promotes 21st...
century skills among our Gen Z students. As stated in the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) framework model, it is required of teachers to possess positive perceptions towards ICT integration to ensure the real use of ICT tools in general. The perceived usefulness of ICT among ESL teachers acted as one of the variables in determining the behaviours to be adopted, subsequently reaffirming the actual use of ICT tools in their daily lives. Therefore, this paper aimed to investigate the secondary ESL teachers’ receptiveness, specifically their perceptions towards ICT integration quantitatively. A total of 65 in-service secondary ESL teachers from the Sibu district, Sarawak were involved in this study and an adopted survey questionnaire was self-administered to the respondents in question. Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The data collected were analysed using descriptive analysis and the frequency percentages of each item were further tabulated. Based on the findings reported, majority of the teachers were aware of the many opportunities provided via ICT use; thus, showing positive perceptions towards ICT integration with respect to language learning

**Keywords:** ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers, receptiveness, ICT integration, perceptions

**Introduction**

The ever-growing technological advancements and internet connectivity has brought about the urge for teachers nationwide to integrate ICT into education so as to accommodate for the emergence of Gen Z students. In fact, ICT is now no longer perceived as a mean to an end, but rather a mean to enhance students’ learning experiences (Chan, F. M., 2002). Thus, the Ministry of Education Malaysia (MOE) sees ICT-related resources or tools as a mean that removes ‘time and space limitations’ that previously exist in conventional learning environments (Samuel, R. J. & Zaiton A., 2006). Often enough, the Malaysian education system is dictated by the pace of globalisation, thus this calls for the need to seek unconventional ways to deliver educational instructions (New Straits Time, 2012). Having said that, the English language is identified as one of the main proponents of globalisation and thus the side-to-side existence of ICT and English is undeniable at its best as the aforementioned language is not only the language of knowledge but of modernisation as well (Gill, et al., 2009).

Samuel & Zaiton (2006) agrees that interactivity advances create many virtual learning opportunities which in turn could improve English competency among Gen Z
students as ICT integration does bring about differences in students’ learning experiences and teachers’ teaching approaches (Mikre, F., 2011). As a matter of fact, the Malaysian Gen Z students are discovered to be well-informed and aware of the many factors influencing their educational practices as they see education as an important tool to improve lives (Laureate.net., 2015). Being a digitally-savvy generation, these students are now recognised as digital natives wherein technologies are viewed obsolete and inconstant (The Star Online, 2015). In contrary, teachers are perceived as digital immigrants and thus should embrace the notion of ICT integration into education so as to keep up with the pace of globalised educational practices. Both teachers and students need to equip themselves with the much-demanded 21st century skills.

The 2012 launching of the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025 highlights the immediate need for teachers to incorporate and integrate ICT into education so as to ensure quality and well-rounded learning. Indeed, eleven transformational shifts are introduced in hopes of developing proactive, progressive and competitive students. The second and seventh transformational shifts highlighted in the blueprint have necessitated the importance of ICT integration in ESL learning. Aside from the Upholding the Malay Language and Strengthening Command of English (MBMMBI) policy and 1BestariNet programme, several measures have been taken to ensure every child is proficient in Bahasa Malaysia and English as well as the leveraging of ICT to upscale quality learning across nation, subsequently cultivating high language and ICT literacy (Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia, 2012). However, a 2010 Ministry study reported that 80% of the teachers spent less than an hour using ICT on a weekly basis (Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia, 2012). It seems that the initiatives designated fail to yield the desired outcomes. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate ESL teachers’ receptiveness, specifically their perceptions towards ICT integration in Sibu, Sarawak.

**Literature Review**

**ICT Integration in Language Learning**

Teachers’ perceptions play a fundamental role in shaping and determining the dissemination of ICT-related knowledge among students. In other words, a teacher’s attitudes and views with regards to ICT in language learning is very much the deciding factor for a successful integration, thus being in line with many governmental efforts undertaken to encourage actual ICT-integrated ESL learning. As attested by Hutchison & Reinking (2011), the need to achieve authentic curricula integrations of ICT resources is evidently unrealisable
if teachers have shallow definitions or incomplete perceptions of ICT integration into education. Indeed, teachers’ perceptions towards ICT integration not only affect their level of use and tendency to use ICT tools in a learning classroom but also influence students’ uptake of said implementation too. The teaching and learning processes are in fact interrelated and so teachers’ possess the ability to impact the latter’s performances.

**Factors Contributing to ICT Integration**

There is numerous variables contributing to the actual integration of ICT in education. The theoretical framework, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) by Davis et al. (1989) correlates the perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use variables to the following attitudes towards using as well as their influence in affecting one’s behavioural intention to use ICT ones, subsequently assuring an actual system use. Meaning to say, one’s tendency to use ICT tools or ICT-related resources is very much dependent on the perceptions concerning the effectiveness of ICT integration in education. The TAM model, shown in Figure 1, highlights the existing relationships between each variables as discussed above.

![TAM Model](image)

**Teachers’ Perceptions towards ICT Integration**

Numerous studies are conducted to investigate teachers’ perceptions towards ICT integration to show how the former affect the execution of the latter in classroom contexts. An example of such study in one by Al – Zaidiyeen, Leong and Fong (2010). The quantitative findings of the study proved that most teachers possessed positive attitudes towards the use of ICT for educational purposes. In fact, it is strongly believed that teachers’ attitudes towards ICTs could determine the extent ICT resources are used in the teaching and learning processes. Buabeng-Andoh (2012) also ascertained that if teachers find ICT-related programs as neither fulfilling their own personal or professional needs, nor those of their students, then it is likely that minimal or no efforts will be shown by teachers to incorporate ICT into
In his study, majority of the responses indicated positive perceptions towards ICT integration in the teaching and learning processes. The above finding is also supported by Kosoko-Oyedeko & Tella (2010) as they argued that teachers’ own pedagogical beliefs and values play an important part in shaping technology-mediated learning opportunities.

Likewise, a study by Lau & Sim (2008) reported that the teacher respondents perceived ICT and its integration in education positively and with enthusiasm. It was concluded that teachers with positive perceptions towards ICT integration exhibited higher appreciation towards ICT in enhancing ELT (English Language Teaching), thus encouraging further integration of ICT into classroom instructions. It was also reported that teacher respondents who were more competent in using ICT perceived ICT more favourably compared to those of lower competency. Correspondingly, another study by Gulbahar & Guven (2008) showed a very strong positive correlation between teachers’ attitudes towards ICT integration in education and their perceptions towards the advantages of such integration. In short, positive attitudes will breed positive perceptions.

The study by Sahin-Kizil (2011) also posited the influence of English language teachers’ perceptions towards ICT integration in determining the extent of ICT use in the classrooms. The attributes of ICT resources play a fundamental role in shaping perceptions, thus contributing to acceptance and integration. In fact, majority of the respondents in the study credited the use of ICT in presenting real advantages over traditional methods of teaching instructions and potentially improving the teaching and learning practices (Sahin-Kizil, A., 2011). Supported by Raman & Mohamed (2013), the authors also agreed that ESL teachers’ perceptions not only define their levels of ICT use in English classes but also its indirect influence on students’ ESL learning experiences. Incorporating multimedia in ESL lessons is bound to make learning effective as it exerts motivation due to its new and exciting nature. In order to sustain successful ICT integration in educational practices, it all comes down to teachers’ perceptions of technology and its value in improving language education (Hutchison, A. C., 2009).

Similarly, Melor & Chua (2012) reported that teachers were aware of the advantages of ICT. Due to its flexible nature, ICT tools can remove time and location barriers, expanding learning opportunities for students (Melor, M. Y. & Chua, P. L., 2012). The following study by Kandasamy & Mohd Shah (2013) also emphasised that positive attitudes are a catalyst for change with regards to ICT integration in ESL education as it will breed positive perceptions. However, problems concerning ICT technicalities are not to be disregarded as such challenges faced could affect teachers’ perceptions towards ICT integration, being not
completely conducive for effective teaching practices.

**Methodology**

A descriptive research design was employed in this study. In this study, a survey was conducted by administering questionnaires to the respondents.

**Participants**

A target population of 65 in-service secondary ESL teachers was involved in the study. The respondents were identified across seven urban secondary schools located in the Sibu, Sarawak. Each respondent was then assigned with an identity number (ID) each so that data collection and analysis could be processed more systematically. The demographic information of participants such as ethnicity, gender, and teaching experiences were also taken into account in this descriptive study.

**Procedures**

Owing to the nature of this study, the stratified random sample technique was selected to sample the target population. Principals from each selected secondary schools were contacted for permission to involve respective ESL teachers in the study. The researcher then visited the selected schools to identify the number of English language teachers present, thus confirming the population sample with a statistical precision. The respondents were selected based on the subject taught in school and of course, comprised both male and female of different teaching experiences.

**Instrument**

A survey questionnaire was employed as the measurement device in this study. The survey questionnaire was adopted from Gulbahar & Guven (2008); Hutchison (2009) and administered to the respondents. The questionnaire consisted of 2 sections; namely Section 1, the respondents’ demographic information and Section 2, the respondents’ perceptions towards ICT integration. In Section 1, the socio-demographic aspects of respondents such as gender, teaching experiences and ethnicity were featured. On the other hand, the respondents were asked of their perceptions concerning ICT integration in Section 2. The 15 items were designed in a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from the value of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

**Data Collection Method**

The data collection process spanned across one month. The self-administered survey questionnaires were distributed and collected during schooling lessons. All respondents were required to complete the questionnaires respectively and return them to the researcher in
person.

**Data Analysis Method**

The data collected were analysed via SPSS. The identity numbers (IDs) were coded and their responses keyed-in in order to obtain accurate tabulations of the information gathered. A descriptive test was used in the analysis. Frequency tables and descriptive statistics were constructed to display the findings.

**Findings and Discussion**

**Respondents’ Demographic Information**

Table 1: Respondents’ Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Value (0 – 1)</th>
<th>Number (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the Table 1, it was indicated that the teaching profession in Malaysia is largely dominated by female teachers. In other words, female teachers are said to play an important role in the educational development of the country due to its higher population than its male counterpart.

Table 2: Respondents’ Teaching Experience in ESL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Experience in ESL</th>
<th>Value (0 – 1)</th>
<th>Number (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 years (&lt;)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 years (&gt;)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, the results reported that there were more experienced teachers than novice teachers teaching English as a Second Language (ESL). In fact, older teachers are often believed to use ICT less often than others. However, this contradicted the findings in Mahdi & Al-Dera (2013) as teachers’ age or teaching experiences in ESL had nothing to do with ICT integration.
Table 3: Respondents’ Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Value (0 – 3)</th>
<th>Number (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>84.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 3, the findings summarised that most ESL teachers in the Sibu district of Sarawak were of the Chinese ethnicity.

Respondents’ Perceptions towards ICT Integration

This section of the questionnaire showed the frequency percentages of the research items featured. The ‘Agree’ and ‘Strongly agree’ responses were combined to represent positive perceptions. On the other hand, the ‘Disagree’ and ‘Strongly disagree’ responses were combined to represent negative perceptions.

Table 4: Respondents’ Perceptions towards ICT Integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Neutral (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>I don’t use ICT tools as much as other resources for instructional purposes.</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>I know what to do when using ICT tools in instructional environments.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>I am aware of the opportunities that ICT tools offers.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>I am not sure if I am ICT-literate in using said tools in my classes.</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>I don’t want to use ICT tools.</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the findings above, it was discovered that majority of the respondents showed positive perception towards ICT integration. The results reported in this study was
similar to Singh & Chan (2014) as more than half of the latter respondents agreed that ICT transforms classroom learning practices, thus signifying positive perceptions among ESL teachers in general. This study also complied with the results reported in a study by Raman & Mohamed (2013) as majority of its participants were reported showing positive perceptions towards ICT integration into English language teaching. In this study, the respondents believed that technology-supported teaching makes learning more effective and that the use of instructional technologies makes it easier to prepare course materials. These two findings were supported by Kandasamy & Mohd. Shah (2013) as majority of the respondents in said study also exhibited positive attitudes towards ICT integration into ESL teaching as those respondents generally agreed that ICT changes the ways teachers teach and students learn within the classroom contexts (Mohd. Shah, P. & Kandasamy, M., 2013). In fact, both authors attested that positive attitudes optimise ICT use among teachers, as advocated by Davis et al. (1989).

81.5% of the aforementioned respondents agreed that ICT tools such as e-mail, online forum, social networks and chat rooms will make communication with students and colleagues easier. This result suggested that the teachers were aware of the potential of ICT as a communication tool, and thus proceeded to utilise its potential to the fullest for accessibility. In addition, 78.5% of the respondents wanted to use ICT tools. This indicated teachers showed a strong desire to use ICT tools if they were provided the opportunities to do so. However, this result contrasted to findings in Melor & Chua (2012) as not all respondents in the study supported the frequent use of ICT and that the use of ICT is reliant on the topics taught. Besides that, 78.4% of the respondents also agreed that ICT-supported teaching makes learning more effective. This indicated that using ICT tools makes learning processes more productive and authentic.

Melor & Chua (2012) also reinforced that ICT possesses the potential in tackling students’ interest in learning ESL in various creative and interesting ways, thus enabling more refreshing ways to language learning. This was also affirmed by Md. Shah & Empungan (2015) as ICT tools improve one’s teaching one way or another as its respondents had reported to have rationally accepted the positive changes brought by ICT use during lessons. Moreover, majority of the respondents were affirmative that they were ICT-literate when using ICT tools in respective classes. Meaning to say, most respondents possessed basic knowledge regarding ICT tools to be able to utilise them without much difficulties. This result complied with the study by Kandasamy & Mohd. Shah (2013) as it was revealed that the participants’ level of ICT knowledge were of the moderate level as they were mainly
proficient in certain applications such as word processing, spreadsheet, PowerPoint and emailing.

Conclusions

Majority of the secondary ESL teachers showed positive perceptions towards ICT integration in ESL. As a matter of fact, age or; in this case, teaching experience in ESL had nothing to do with ICT integration in education. Rather, the respondents were confident using ICT in ESL and had the desire to further incorporate ICT in education long term. Indeed, these positive perceptions will breed to positive ICT-related behaviours. Despite having indicated the positive perceptions, necessary steps should be taken to ensure that such perceptions and following behaviours persist. Several implications have been to further secure positive perceptions among ESL teachers towards ICT integration. It is suggested to revise and reconceptualise the national curriculum and syllabus so as to better accommodate ICT integration into ESL instructions. At the policy level, students’ learning processes ought to be made less exam-oriented and more ICT-supported project-based learning to encourage ICT implementation during lessons. There is also a need to create a connection between ICT, the current curriculum standards and the 21st century skills to better improve ESL learning experiences. Indeed, it is necessary for teachers to possess high adaptability towards changes as changes bring new doors of learning.

References


Title
Exploring Teacher Cognition on the Integration of Language Arts (LA) electives in the New Senior Secondary (NSS) English Language Curriculum in Hong Kong

Author
Anisa Cheung
The University of Hong Kong

Bio-Profile:
Anisa Cheung is an EdD candidate with research interests in Language Arts and English Language Studies. She obtained her Master of Education in English Language Studies, Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Education (Language Education-English) from the University of Hong Kong. She can be reached at laihang0623@gmail.com

Abstract
This study aims to explore different aspects of teacher cognition in the process of integrating Language Arts (LA) electives in the New Senior Secondary (NSS) English Language Curriculum in Hong Kong. This paper reports an interview study with 10 English teachers which explores their reactions to LA integration. The findings showed that the teachers felt constrained by different contextual features and the exams in the process of integrating LA.

Keywords: Teacher Cognition, Curriculum Innovation, Language Arts

Full affiliation address:
Flat 10H, Block 10, Park Island, Ma Wan, New Territories, Hong Kong
Introduction

LA is a curriculum innovation which aims to enhance students’ exposure to literary language (CDC & HKEAA, 2007). Different studies have demonstrated the influential role of teachers in the process of curriculum innovation (Qi, 2005, 2007; Carless, 2007; Deng & Carless, 2010; Watanabe, 1996, 2004). There has been growing interest to research the cognitive bases of teachers’ decisions (Borg, 2006). Teacher cognition is defined as “the store of belief, knowledge, assumptions, theories and attitudes” that teachers have about their work (Borg, 1999, p.19). This study aims to explore teacher cognition on the integration of LA electives in Hong Kong secondary schools.

Literature Review

Zembylas’ (2005) three levels (i.e. intrapersonal, interpersonal, and intergroup) of emotion can be conceptualized to explore different aspects of teacher cognition. The intrapersonal level of teacher cognition extends Woods’ (1998) notion of BAK (belief, assumption, knowledge) to include emotion as one of the components of teacher cognition. The interpersonal social level of teacher emotion explores the effect of the interaction arising from different contexts on teacher cognition while the sociopolitical level recognizes the historical and political influence on teacher cognition (Zembylas, 2005).

Methodology

Based on the principle of maximum variation approach of sampling, which samples individuals with different characteristics (Creswell, 2005), 10 English teachers with various academic backgrounds and years of teaching experience were invited to take part in the open-ended interviews. Table 1 shows the profile of five teachers involved in the discussion of this paper:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Academic Qualification</th>
<th>Years of teaching experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Bachelor of Social Science (Sociology)</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MA in TESOL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma in Education (Economics)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Program Details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| B | BA in English Language and Literature  
    MPhil in English (Literary Studies)  
    PGDE                                    | 8 |
| E | BA in Music  
    PGDE in English  
    MA in Music  
    MEd in English Language Studies  
    Postgraduate Diploma in Business      | 16|
| F | BA in English for Professional Communication  
    PGDE                                    | 3 |
| G | BA&BEd                                                | 6 |

Table 1: Background information of teachers participating in the interview

**Findings and discussions**

**Intrapersonal view of LA being influenced by content knowledge**

Teachers’ view on LA integration is mainly affected by their confidence on their own knowledge of LA as expressed by Teacher A, “*I think the major factor is my knowledge in LA. If I have sufficient knowledge, I can integrate much better.*” Similar views are echoed by Teacher F, “*Teachers tend to choose modules that they are more familiar with rather than LA*”. Their comments can be understood with reference to Woods’ (1996) notion of BAK in that teachers’ knowledge affects their confidence and perception on the subject matter taught.

**Interpersonal factor: The interaction with different parties on LA integration**

Most (9 out of 10) teachers in the current study were brought up with grammar translation pedagogy and were not exposed to learning literary texts in their secondary school years. Teacher G’s reflected on how her learning experience influenced her cognition and teaching practice:
“In my education, I didn’t have a lot of exposure to LA, so when I became a teacher or learnt to become a teacher, I seldom used LA as a piece of teaching materials.”

Teacher G’s case echoes Borg’s (2003) view that teachers’ extensive experience of classroom learning as students influences their cognition and practices throughout their teaching career. Teacher G’s preference for not emphasizing the integration of LA was also affected by her interaction with students, the school syllabus, and colleagues. She recalled one negative experience of integrating LA with students which discouraged her from further attempts of LA integration:

“One, we arranged a drama show to be performed in our school. When we told our students that they had to stay after school to watch a drama, they were not very happy about it. It discouraged me from doing things about LA in the future”.

This specific reaction from students is part of teachers’ experiential emotion which influences their cognition and teaching practice (Zembylas, 2005, p.104). In addition, the school syllabus, is a kind of “social, institutional setting” affecting her practice of LA integration (Borg, 2006, p.275): “The syllabus of our school affects my teaching practice of LA. If we can cut certain things in scheme of work, then it will totally change how I teach LA.” The interaction with colleagues, who were “also not very into LA, also reinforced Teacher G’s views of LA. It shows that teachers tended to reinforce their existing belief and practice when collaborating with others in the same context (Sato, 2002).

**Intergroup factors: LA integration being affected by exams**

The lack of alignment between the integration of LA electives and examination affects teachers’ extent of integrating LA. Teacher B listed “the exam format” as factors affecting her practice of integrating LA because “finally my students need to attend HKDSE. That’s why I need to help my students tackle these questions.” This echoes the influential role of examination in teachers’ pedagogical practice and implementation of curriculum innovations in Hong Kong (Evans, 1996, 1997; Chow and Mok, 2004; Lee, 2005). When LA is not seen as highly relevant to the exams, Teacher G mentioned that LA is treated as “entertainment” and “personal enjoyment” rather than a core part of the curriculum. Her view echoes the findings of other studies which also found that LA is viewed as a “welcome break” (Carless & Harfitt, 2013, p.182) and extra-curricular activities (Mok et al, 2006).
Conclusion

This study explores different aspects of teacher cognition on the integration of LA. The interview findings indicated that teacher cognition on LA integration were affected by a range of intrapersonal, interpersonal and intergroup factors. Intrapersonally, the influence of teacher knowledge on their views and confidence in integrating LA reinforces Woods’ (1996) notion of BAK. Interpersonally, the interaction with different parties in teachers’ lives led to various kinds of contextual influence on teacher cognition. At the intergroup level, the exam-oriented system led teachers to view LA as a less important part of the curriculum.

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Title
Indonesian Masters Degrees Students’ Difficulties in Pragmatic Understanding Based on Fields of Study and Gender

Authors
Arifuddin
I Made Sujana
Kamaludin

University of Mataram

Bio-Profiles:
Arifuddin is a lecturer at the English Language Department University of Mataram Indonesia. He holds a Ph.D. in English Language and Literature Education from the State University of Surabaya Indonesia. His research interest includes Pragmatics, TEFL, Psycholinguistics and Language Assessment (e-mail: arifpgn@yahoo.com).

I Made Sujana is a lecturer at the English Language Department University of Mataram Indonesia. He received his Master of Arts (M.A.) in Applied Linguistics from Macquarie University Australia. His interest includes English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Curriculum and Material Development and Language Testing (e-mail: mdenasujana@gmail.com).

Kamaludin is a lecturer at the English Language Department University of Mataram Indonesia. He received his Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Sydney University Australia. His interest includes Applied Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Educational Research, Cross-cultural Understanding, pragmatics and English for Tourism (e-mail: angswinda@hotmail.com).
Abstract

The present study aimed at determining the difference of pragmatic understanding among the masters degree students in Indonesia based on the fields of study and gender and exploring the causes of difficulties in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. The data were collected with TOEFL-like Listening Test, retrospective questionnaire and analyzed quantitatively. It shows: (1) There is a significant difference of understanding the pragmatic meaning among the masters degree students in Listening Part A TOEFL-like based on the fields of study and gender; (2) There are five primary causes of pragmatic difficulty based on gender, namely, Speech Rate Delivery, Voice, Sentence Complexity, Mishearing, Colloquials and Sound Clarity.

Keywords: Competence, pragmatic, TOEFL-like, gender, teaching materials

Introduction

One the aspects studied in Psycholinguistics is understanding pragmatic meaning. Biologically, understanding auditory pragmatic meaning is affected by gender (Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012). To avoid pragmatic failure, the hearer should have sufficient inferential ability. Evidently, almost all utterances produced in daily communications imply pragmatic meanings. Low pragmatic competence which leads to pragmatic failure affects English language (Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). In line with it, Arifuddin and Susanto (2012) state that inferring pragmatic meaning are difficult for the Indonesian learners of English which leads to pragmatic failure and low proficiency.

There have been a number of studies focusing on the realtionship between English language proficiency and pragmatic failure (Sujana, et al., 2003; Arifuddin and sujana, 2004; Saukah, 2010; ETS, 1997; ETS, 2012; ETS Researcher, 2008) and gender and pragmatic meaning of auditory utterances (Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012; Arifuddin, 2013). However, none of those studies focused on gender and pragmatic understanding of the postgraduate students from diverse disciplines in masters degree programs. This makes the present study authentic. This authentic study is urgent to study. In line with it, Thijittang and Le (2009) suggest that more research on pragmatics, including the role of gender in pragmatics, need to be conducted. In relation to Indonesian context, “Why is it urgent?” Based on the local TOEFL Score reports, the TOEFL mean scores of some postgraduate (Masters and doctors degrees) students of Indonesian universities, namely, BU of Malang,
STAINP and UPGB, according to gender are low. How about the TOEFL scores of the diverse masters degree students in West Nusa Tenggara?

Accordingly, the present study aims at exploring: (1) the difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening section Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students of the diverse masters degrees; and (2) the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening section Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students of the diverse masters degrees. As a result, the research findings of the present study are beneficial for: 1) Language Centers as a reference for the design of TOEFL training materials and training strategies which contributes to the improvement of pragmatic competence and English language proficiency and 2) The management of Self-Access Center.

Literature Review

TOEFL-like is synonymous with published TOEFL practice tests. In the Listening section of this proficiency test assesses the test-takers’ pragmatic competence (or understanding). To avoid pragmatic failure, the hearer should have sufficient inferential ability. Evidently, almost all utterances produced in daily communications imply pragmatic meanings. Low pragmatic competence which leads to pragmatic failure affects English language proficiency (Thijittang and Le, 2009; Lee, 2010; Sirikhan and Prapphal, 2011). In line with it, Arifuddin and Susanto (2012) state that inferring pragmatic meaning are difficult for the Indonesian learners of English which leads to pragmatic failure and low proficiency.

Currently, even the learners of English language show low English proficiency (Sujana, et al., 2003; Saukah, 2010). In the broader context, Saukah (2000) reports that the TOEFL mean score of the Indonesian lecturers of English is only 390.50, and Listening section is the most difficult. This finding is consistent with the one reported by ETS (1997) showing that the mean scores of Listening section, Structure and Written Expression and Reading Comprehension are 63.7, 69.7 and 69 respectively. A study conducted by Arifuddin and Sujana (2004) and Sujana, et.al. (2003) indicate that pragmatics in short conversations contributes to students’ English proficiency.

Based on some score data summaries (ETS, 2012; ETS Researcher, 2008), TOEFL scores are inseparable from gender. The mean scores and standard deviation of each section categorised according to gender are always different. This finding implies that ETS realizes that gender potentially affects TOEFL scores.
Some studies show that gender affects the understanding of the pragmatic meaning of auditory utterances (Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012). In addition, Arifuddin’s (2013) doctoral dissertation which examined the relationship between gender and implicature understanding of the short conversations in TOEFL listening involving a few English language students from different semesters confirms that finding. Thijittang and Le (2009) suggest that more research on pragmatics, including the role of gender in pragmatics, need to be conducted.

**Methodology**

The present study employed ‘Mixed-methods’. Data were collected with TOEFL-like Listening test Part A, retrospective questionnaire and semi-standard interview guide and then analysed quantitatively with Two-way Anova and qualitatively.

**Participants**

The present study employed total sampling drawn from 85 students of the four masters degree programs, namely, English language Education, Educational Administration, Public Management, and Science Education of the postgraduate program of the University of Mataram Indonesia who had just attended the TOEFL training in the ‘matriculation’ (or orientation) provided for program the freshmen.

**Instruments**

Data were collected with: a) TOEFL-like Listening test, adapted from TOEFL Practice Tests, which assesses pragmatic understanding; b) retrospective questionnaire and c) semi-standard interview guide. The test was employed to determine the students’ pragmatic understanding tested in Part A TOEFL-like based on gender. Meanwhile, the retrospective questionnaire and interview were used to collect data about the causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding. All the instruments were tried-out empirically and validated by the experts (or expert judgment).

**Procedure**

The present study was conducted as follows: 1) The researchers conducted a survey in order to identify and select the departments and participants appropriate with objectives of the present study. Of the seven masters degree programs of the University of Mataram, only four departments which introduced TOEFL during the ‘matriculation’ or orientation program for the freshmen; 2) Selection of the participants; 3) Preparing and trying-out the research instruments; 4) Testing the pragmatic competence of the students from the four departments with Listening Part A TOEFL-like; 5) To guarantee the validity and reliability of the data, the
researchers immediately distributed the questionnaire to the participants and then interviewed them; 6) Data were collected through the listening test.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed with Two-way Anova, while those gathered with questionnaire and interview were analyzed with ‘iterative qualitative Analysis of Yin (2011). The results of the analyses were displayed, described, analyzed (or interpreted) and discussed.

Findings and discussion

This section presents the research results organised according to the order of the research questions. For practicality, the data are displayed with tables and graphs. The data are used as the bases for the analysis. The findings are discussed in the subchapters of this section by relating them to relevant theories or findings of the previous studies.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asks whether there is any significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Section Part A TOEFL-like between male and female masters degree students from various departments.

Below are the hypotheses tested to answer the first research question:

1. “There is no significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of diverse masters degree programs.”
2. “There is no significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students the masters degree programs.”
3. “There is no interaction between the masters degree programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like.”

Table 1 Scores of Pragmatic Understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of Masters Degree Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Masters Degree in English Language Education</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Raw Scores</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ANW</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>HM</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>NI</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sah</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>IS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>MUK</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>LN</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
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<td>----</td>
<td>--------</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>SAL</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>UB</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree in Science Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>MHB</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>HID</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MH</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>XY</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>AH</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>HK</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>YY</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>AF</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>FA</td>
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<td>BQA</td>
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<td>BB</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>BC</td>
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<td>HER</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>SY</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>IM</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td></td>
<td>HAS</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>FS</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>18</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YX</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>8.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Masters Degree in Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>EY</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>YE</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MAF</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>MUL</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>MNR</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>NMD</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>IN</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>HS</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>ZMT</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>AL</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>HN</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>SF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>8.88</td>
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<td></td>
<td>7.5</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masters Degree in Educational Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 Summary of Means of Raw Scores of Pragmatic Understanding Tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of Masters Degree Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Study Program/Department</th>
<th>Total Means of Raw Scores</th>
<th>Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English Language Education</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Science Education</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Educational Administration</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 1 Scores of Pragmatic Understanding Tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of Masters Degree Students

Using the standard of converted scores, the converted scores and rankings of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Comprehension Part A TOEFL-like are as follows.
Table 3 Converted Scores and Ranks of Pragmatic Understanding Tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Study Program/Department</th>
<th>Converted Scores of Each Study Program Based on Gender</th>
<th>Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English Language Education (Female)</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>English Language Education (Male)</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Management (Male)</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Science Education (Female)</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Management (Female)</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Science Education (Male)</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Educational Administration (Male)</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Educational Administration (Female)</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The range of scores of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like is 330 to 390. English Language Education (Female) (390) is in the highest rank followed also by the English Language Education (Male) (370). Management (Male) and Science Education (Female) position the third rank (350). Meanwhile, Science Education (Male) and Educational Administration (Male) place the fourth (337) and the fifth (332) respectively. Finally, Management (Female) and Educational Administration (Female) place the lowest rank (330). Below is the summary of ‘Two-way’ ANOVA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>809.75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>269.9</td>
<td>28.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>367.62</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>367.62</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>75.03</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,485.2</td>
<td>481.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>9.32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Study Program/Department Variable (A):
1. df = (p-1)/pq(n-1) (4-1)/8(9)=3/72.
2. Critical Value F at level of significance 0.05 = 2.76.
3. \( F_{\text{obtained}} = 28.96 \) and \( F_{\text{table}} = 2.76 \). Thus, there is a significant difference.

4. Conclusion: There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like among the diverse departments of the masters degree program.

Gender Variable (B):
1. \( df = (q-1)/pq(n-1) = (1/8)(10-1) = 1/79 \).
2. Critical Value \( F \) at level of significance 0.05 = 4.00. Thus, there is a significant difference.
3. Conclusion: There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students of diverse masters degree programs.

AB (Interaction):
1. \( df = (p-1)(q-1)/pq(n-1) = (3)(2-1)/8(10-1) = 3/72 \).
2. Critical value \( F \) at level of significance 0.05 = 2.76.
   \( F_{\text{obtained}} = 28.96 \) and \( F_{\text{table}} = 2.76 \). Thus, there is a significant difference.
3. Conclusion: There is an interaction between the programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like.

Based on the Analysis of Variance, it indicates that:
1. There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of diverse masters degree programs.
2. There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students the masters degree programs.
3. There is an interaction between the masters degree programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like.

Females’ superiority in understanding pragmatic meaning appeared in the converted scores of Listening Part A TOEFL-like that they attained. The range of the scores of pragmatic understanding in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of the students from the various departments is 330 to 390. As described earlier, English Language Education (Female) (390) is in the highest rank followed also by the English Language Education (Male) (370). Management (Male) and Science Education (Female) position the third rank (350). Meanwhile, Science Education (Male) and Educational Administration (Male) place the fourth (337) and the fifth (332) respectively. Finally, Management (Female) and Educational Administration (Female)
Administration (Female) place the lowest rank (330). Based on the obtained converted scores, it indicates that there is a different level of pragmatic understanding among the diverse masters degree students. Besides, based on the ranks, females outperformed males in understanding pragmatic meanings in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. The research findings just mentioned are relevant with studies conducted by Yate (2010), Cocco and Ervas (2012), John et al. (2003), Farashayian and Hua (2012) and Arifuddin (2013) which indicate that females outperformed males in pragmatic understanding, in answering inferential comprehension questions of auditory proficiency tests in particular.

Above all, the masters degree students of English Language Education found it difficult to understand pragmatic meanings.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 deals with the causes of difficulty of the pragmatic understanding based on gender.

The following tables and graphs display the causes of difficulty of pragmatic understanding based on gender.

Table 4 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Science Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonym (Syn)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colloquial (Col)</td>
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<td>5.97</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
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<td>7.46</td>
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<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blended Sounds (BS)</td>
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<td>7.46</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context (Cont)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Complexity (SC)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.46</td>
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**Graph 2 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Science Education**

![Graph 2 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Science Education](image)

To the masters degree students of Educational Science, the primary causes of difficulty in understanding auditory pragmatic meanins are ‘Speech Rate Delivery’ (SRD), ‘Synonyms’ (Syn), ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’ (SC), ‘Mishearing’ (MisH), ‘Sound
Clarity’ (SCI), and ‘Noise’. The least cause (or factor) is ‘Redundancy’ (Red), even faced by female students only.

Table 5 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of English Language Education

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To masters degree students of English Language Education, the primary causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding include ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Voice’, ‘Colloquial’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Setting’ (Sett), and ‘Noise’. Two causes of difficulty do not appear, namely, ‘Pause’ and ‘Intonation’. Besides, ‘Context’ (Cont), ‘Reference’, ‘Memory’ (Memo), ‘Redundancy’, ‘Discourse Markers’ and ‘Type of Questions’ (Type) were only faced by male students.

Table 6 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Educational Administration

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Graph 4 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Educational Administration
The primary causes of difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding the Masters Degree Students of Educational Administration include ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Cultural Value’ (CV), ‘Colloquials’, ‘Mishearing’, and ‘Noise’. Surprisingly, four causes of difficulty do not appear, namely, ‘Redundancy’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Setting’, and ‘Type of Questions’. In addition, ‘Pause’ and ‘Sex’ were found to be difficult only for female students, while ‘Discourse Markers’ was difficult only for male students.

Table 7 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Management

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The primary causes of difficulty of pragmatic understanding the Masters Degree Students of Management include ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Cultural Value’, ‘Colloquials’, ‘Context’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, and ‘Noise’. Surprisingly, four causes of difficulty do not appear, namely, ‘Redundancy’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Setting’, and ‘Type of Questions’. In addition, ‘Rhetoric Markers’ was faced only by male students and ‘Pause’ and ‘Sex’ were found to be difficult only for female students, while ‘Discourse Markers’ was difficult only for female students.

Importantly, as shown in the four graphs just displayed, the majority of the totals of each type of cause of difficulty in pragmatic understanding that female students faced are higher than those faced by male students. It is due to the matter of different number of the students according to sex. The number of female students is more than that of male students. However, based on the total percentage of each cause of difficulty in understanding meaning (See Tables 1 to 7), the percentage of each cause of difficulty (or error) that female students faced is lower than the one faced by male students.

In the masters degree of Educational Administration, there are four causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding that the students did not face, namely, ‘Redundancy’,
‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Setting’, and ‘Type of Questions’. And ‘Rhetoric Markers’ was only faced by male students. Of the four masters degree programs, there are three programs or departments which place ‘Speech Rate Delivery’ in the first rank of cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. This a ‘novel’ finding. The detail of the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning is displayed in Tables 1 to 7 and Graphs 1 to 4. For practicality, below is the summary of the causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding of the students from the for departments or programs according to gender.

Table 8 Rankings of Causes of Difficulty in Pragmatic Understanding Based on Gender

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Table 9 Total Causes of Difficulty in Pragmatic Understanding Based on Gender for Each Type of Pragmatic Question

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</tbody>
</table>
Based on Table 8, the order of joint ranks of the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning of males and females is: ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquial’ and ‘Sound Clarity’. For each gender, the ranks are as follows. To males ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquial’ and ‘Sound Clarity’, while to females ‘Mishearing’, ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Colloquial’, ‘Voice’ and ‘Sentence Complexity’. In reference to the detail, it shows that there is a shared rank of causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning between males and females. It means that males dominate every cause of difficulty in pragmatic understanding. In other words, males have broader opportunities to attain lower level pragmatic understanding than females. This research finding is consistent with that of Arifuddin (2013) and Safa and Mahmoodi (2012) which indicate that females outperformed males in pragmatic understanding. Furthermore, Mishearing, ‘Speed Rate Delivery’ and ‘Sound Clarity’ have been the primary causes of pragmatic failure. And based on the total
percentage of each type of cause of difficulty of pragmatic understanding (See Tables 1 to 7),
the percentage of each type of cause of difficulty in pragmatic understanding that female
students experienced is lower than that of male students. Thus, it is urgent to train students
which focuses on overcoming such difficulties, and implicitly, males should be trained more
intensively.

Regardless of the ranks and the obtained scores, the masters degree students of
Language education also experienced pragmatic failure. Based on the data displayed in Table
1 to Table 3, the masters degree students of English Language Education achieved the highest
score, and the masters degree students of Educational Administration got the lowest mean
score. Pragmatic failure frequently makes communication problems. Some researchers have
demonstrated that acquiring the rules of appropriate language behavior can be difficult even
for fairly advanced learners and often leading them to pragmatic failure (Beebe, Takahashi
and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). It means that students from
all departments need extended pragmatic competence in order to avoid pragmatic failure.

One of the causes of pragmatic failure is that pragmatic issues receive relatively little
attention in the language classrooms (Kreutel, 2007). Besides, grammatical competence does
not facilitate them to understand pragmatic meaning due to disparities between learners’
grammatical development and pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991,
1993; Omar, 1991; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987). In line with it, Bardovi-Harlig & Doernyei
(1998) reported that even learners who exhibit high levels of grammatical competence may
exhibit a wide range of pragmatic competence when compared with native speakers in
conversations and elicited conditions. He and Yan (1986) investigated the pragmatic failure
by Chinese learners of English as a foreign language and found that the learners’ pragmatic
development was not proportional to their grammatical development. In other words,
pragmatic failure is also experienced by foreign language learners with high competence.

Those findings seems inconsistent with other research findings which show that there
is a correlation between lexico-grammatical competence and pragmatic competence
(Khamyod dan Aksornjarung, 2011; Kasper, 2000). In relation to language proficiency, low
pragmatic competence affects foreign language proficiency. This statement is reasonable
because based on some studies on foreign language learners’ pragmatic development
(Yoshimi, 2001), it proved that learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed
those who did not. In the present study, the masters degree students of English language
Education who were enriched with pragmatic-related knowledge achieved the highest
pragmatic understanding.
A study conducted by Sirikhan (2011) shows that English proficiency is a variable which has a great effect on pragmatic ability. This agrees with Taguchi (2007) who supports that language background and English proficiency have influenced L2 pragmatic processing. The findings of this study also confirm the studies of Bardovi-Harling and Dornyei (1998) in that EFL/ESL learning content, and proficiency levels, affect the ability in pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Besides, the findings of this study correspond with some previous studies (Roever, 2005) in that the high language proficient participants had better performance in pragmatics tests than the low ones. This is similar to the findings of Matsumura (2003) who reveals that the overall level of proficiency in the target language plays an important role in the acquisition of pragmatic awareness. Other studies (Hill, 1997; Roever, 2005; Yamashita, 1996) indicate that the high proficiency participants show higher pragmatic competence than those with low pragmatic competence.

A closely related study was conducted by Li (2007) which examined the relationship between the two kinds of competence of 42 Chinese English learners with different levels of proficiency (high- and low-levels) in BeiHang University. The study indicates that there is a positive relationship between linguistic proficiency and pragmatic ability. The participants with high linguistic competence have high pragmatic ability and vice versa. She argues that pragmatics can be taught, and thus it is necessary to teach students pragmalinguistics as well as sociopragmatics.

It has been widely accepted that high proficiency L2 learners are generally more competent in interpreting implied meaning than low proficiency L2 learners (Lee, 2010). As categorised as low pragmatic EFL learners, the subjects’ difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning, including speech acts/language functions recognition, is reasonable. It has been widely accepted that high proficiency L2 learners are generally more competent in interpreting implied meaning than low proficiency L2 learners.

However, it is inconsistent with Liu’s (2006) study indicating that the scores from other large-scale proficiency tests, like TOEFL and International English Language Testing System (IELTS), do not correlate with pragmatic ability. Those who have higher scores do not seem to have correspondingly high pragmatic ability. A number of studies also point out that learners of English as a foreign language, who have excellent grammatical and lexical competence of the target language, still fail to convey their messages effectively due to, for instance, the lack of social appropriateness rules and pragmatic competence (Wolfson et al, 1989). This fact could be an important input for the orientation and strategies for the improvement of English language proficiency.
Of the four masters degree programs, there are three programs or departments which place ‘Speech Rate Delivery’ in the first rank of cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. This a ‘novel’ finding. The detail of the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning is displayed in Tables 1 to 7 and Graphs 1 to 4.

Generally, pragmatic failure relates to speech rate known as ‘Speech Rate Delivery’. Liu (2009) reports that factors that affect listening comprehension of TOEFL are, for instance, tone, intonation, pronunciation, word recognition, background knowledge and speed of delivery. To foreign language learners, understanding messages or pragmatic meanings from high speed spoken language is difficult. This is relevant with Ur’s (1989:254) statement that virtually every language learner initially thinks that native speakers speak too fast. Learners will nevertheless eventually need to be able to comprehend language delivered at varying rates of speed and, at times, delivered with few pauses.

As described earlier, ‘Voice’, which involves intonation, stress, rhythm and the like, determine pragmatic understanding. If a foreign language learner is not accustomed to hearing the target language voices or sounds, it generally causes listening difficulty, especially if the utterances imply pragmatic meanings. For example, understanding the pragmatic meaning from two blended sounds is difficult. According to Black (2006:17), paralinguistic features, such as, intonation, stress, and the like determine the understanding of pragmatic meaning.

Understanding pragmatic meaning relies heavily on the understanding of sentence structure or grammar, for instance, ‘Sentence Complexity’. The finding of the present study is consistent with Arifuddin’s (2013) research finding. Another revealing point of the study was there is much stronger correlation between the lexico-grammatical and pragmatic competences of the female EFL learners than the male participants (Bulut, 2009).

The fourth rank of the causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding is ‘Mishearing’, apart of sound or voice. ‘Mishearing’ is listening difficulty which may result from unfamiliarity with the features of particular sounds. Kostin (2004:3) argues that the unfamiliarity with the phonological aspects and limited exposure to the target language may influence listeners’ ability to comprehend conversations. Besides ‘Mishearing’, ‘Sound Clarity’ and ‘Colloquials’ have been the primary causes of understanding pragmatic meaning from auditory language. Another cause of difficulty of the pragmatic understanding is limited knowledge of synonyms or expressions. The finding of the present study is relevant with
Mei-Xia’s (2005) study indicating that unfamiliarity with synonyms and lack of vocabulary lead to pragmatic failure.

In addition, pragmatic understanding also relates to context familiarity. The finding of the present study is consistent with the statements of some scholars that familiarity with or knowledge of contextual language use contributes to foreign language learners’ pragmatic understanding (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Alcon, 2005). Similarly, Crandall & Basturkmen (2004) also found that the use of language appropriate with context is one of the efforts to develop pragmatic competence.

Above all, both for males and females, there are five primary causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in TOEFL-like based on the fields of the study and gender, namely, ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquials’ and ‘Sound Clarity’. Based on the totals of the primary causes of difficulty that each gender faced, male students faced higher level of difficulty in pragmatic understanding than females. This figure also occurs in the other causes of pragmatic difficulty. This finding is relevant with the research result conducted by Cocco and Ervas (2012) which indicates that females tend show a higher level of pragmatic understanding than males. This females’ superiority, according to Yate (2010), is due to their tendency to use figurative language, such as, irony in their verbal communication which requires pragmatic understanding.

**Conclusion**

It is concluded that: 1) There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of diverse masters degrees; b) There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students the masters degrees; c) There is an interaction between the masters degree programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. Thus, understanding pragmatic meaning relies on gender and the departments of the masters degree students; 2) Both for males and females, there are five primary causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding according to their ranks, namely, ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquials’ and ‘Sound Clarity’. Based on the totals of the primary causes of difficulty that each gender faced, male students faced higher level of difficulty in pragmatic understanding than females. This figure also occurs in other causes of pragmatic difficulty. It means that males dominate every cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A
TOEFL-like, so that males need more intensive training. In addition, TOEFL should be introduced to the freshmen, particularly during the orientation program.

Since males dominate every cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like, they need more intensive training. In other words, biologically, there is a crucial role of gender in pragmatic understanding. Therefore, TOEFL training based on gender should be integrated, at least, with marticulation (or orientation) program provided for the freshmen of the diverse masters degrees programs. This is relevant with Arifuddin’s (2015) proposal that pragmatic-based instructional models of listening are prospective for boosting the language proficiency of the Indonesian learners of English.

References


Title
The Development of Remember Vocabulary by using CALL in Pratom 5 Students

Author
Athitaya Unchanthee

Abstract
The objective of this study was to find the development of remember vocabulary by using CALL in Pratom 5 students in the topic of vegetable and fruits. The samples of the study were 26 students study in Pratom Suksa 5 at ChomChonDongMuakai School. The data were statistically analyzed using descriptive statistics which included T- test, mean and standard by collected from questionnaire, pre-test and post- test. The finding shows that the students’ ability in learning vocabulary with CALL was enhanced. The results of the experiment indicated that most of students could understand the vocabularies and were interested in learning English language. While teaching, most students could participate and remembered the vocabularies easily. Some of them could understand and used vocabularies for communication. The test scores showed that students could remember and got a good point. It might say that CALL could be used as a teaching material to enhance and encourage students’ interests in teaching and learning vocabularies English. This could help teacher do an efficient teaching.

Keywords: Vocabulary remember, CALL( Computer Assisted Language Learning), Teaching Material.

Introduction
At present, English is an importance part for the student and Thai people for communicating as a second language. It is because of the effects of ASEN community. For this reason, English will become a second language for ASEAN people together with their national languages (Cnwmion,2012).
English is necessary for living by using English as an equipment for communication and understanding other people. Because of these reasons, we must have knowledge, abilities and skills in English to gain advantages on working in daily life, in formal class can make learners bored to learn English from teachers. This is due to the fact that they don’t know the meaning and they cannot remember all vocabularies. The way that they can help learners remember vocabulary is using a picture that is arranged in categories so that the learners can read and memorize each category easily. In the present time, computers become an important part in teaching English. It is called Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). By using (CALL), learners can learn English by themselves.

Levy (1997) defines CALL more succinctly and more broadly as “the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning (P.1). Therefore, this study aims to develop a CALL for teaching vocabulary. This study will focus on teaching vocabulary about vegetables and fruits for Pratom Suksa 5 because it is related to the content of fundamental English of ChomChonDongMuagkai School, Pangkhon district Sakon Nakhon province, and they need to use CALL for enhancing vocabulary learning of the students.

**Research objectives**

To find the efficiency of CALL in teaching vocabulary for Pratom Suksa 5 students in topic of vegetables and fruits.

**Literature reviews**

1. **CALL (Computer Assistant Language Learning)**

   Levy (1997:1) tell about the CALL that it use for approach language teaching and learning in which use the computer as an aid to presentation, reinforcement and assessment of material for learned.

   Davies & Higgins (1982:3) mention on the meaning of CALL that CALL is a form of a computer – based assisted learning which carries two importance feature that is bidirectional learning and individualized learning.

   Nguyen Van Han & Henriette Van Rensburg (2014:32) mention about the benefit of the use of computer in foreign language classroom that it can attraction the teaching way and student interested
Duverger, (1995) Tell that CALL make the opportunity to student because it help student using they knowledge learned in one context as a knowledge base for other context as it help learner apply, integrate and transfer knowledge while fostering critical thinking.

Haofeng Jiang (Vol.1 No 2 December 2008) this paper illustrates the advantage and dis advantages of CALL. It points out that CALL is influenced by traditional language teaching and learning approaches to some extent. It concludes that what is important in over university system is that CALL design and implementation should match the users’ need, since CALL, is not always better than traditional language learning and teaching method.

2. Vocabulary teaching

Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p3) Affirm that language learners who have large speaking vocabulary generally tend to have large listening, reading and writing vocabulary. This again includes bath receptive and productive vocabulary. Productive vocabulary involves words language learners use to express their thought and ideas in speaking and writing.

They also separate the type of vocabulary into 4 type that are 1). Listening vocabulary 2). Speaking vocabulary 3). Reading vocabulary 4). Writing vocabulary.

Nandy (1994,p.1) highlights the relationship between vocabulary and expression of speech and writing that “An extensive vocabulary, besides empowering us to give expression to a wide range of thoughts, also enables us to vary is generally acknowledged that language learners need receptive vocabulary for their listening and reading.

Conclusion

From the data collected and the point of student doing during the study found that most of students could understand the vocabularies and were interested in learning English language. While teaching, most students could participate and remembered the vocabularies easily. Some of them could understand and used vocabularies for communication. The test scores showed that students could remember and got a good point. It might say that CALL could be used as a teaching material to enhance and encourage students’ interests in teaching and learning vocabularies English. This could help teacher do an efficient teaching.
References
Title
Self and Peer Revisions in Students’ Narrative Paragraph Writing

Author
Barli Bram
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Barli Bram teaches English at Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. He completed his MEd at Boston University and earned his PhD in linguistics from Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. He has a profound interest in writing, grammar, syntax, semantics and morphology. He can be reached at barli@usd.ac.id

Abstract
This study examines the two phases, namely drafting and revision stages, in students’ narrative or story-telling paragraph writing to reveal whether or not the writing products have a better quality, particularly from the grammatical point of view. Through self-revision and peer revision, every student was required to improve her or his draft and eliminate or reduce mistakes listed in the so-called minimum requirements when drafting and revising a narrative paragraph. Data were collected from Paragraph Writing, one of the compulsory courses conducted by the English Language Education Study Programme of Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The participants were course takers of Paragraph Writing, who consisted of 23 students belonging to batch 2015 (the second semester students), who took the course Basic Writing in the first semester. The data, narrative paragraphs which had been revised through two phases, were scored and analyzed using the minimum requirements consisting of seven (grammatical) points. Results showed that students undergoing self and peer revisions improved their narrative paragraph writing.

Keywords: drafting, narrative paragraph, self-revision, peer revision, writing
Introduction

Improving narrative paragraph writing remains a challenging task for learners of the English language, including facing grammatical issues, such as finite verbs and agreement or concord. Self-revision and peer-revision, which are also called self-correction/feedback and peer correction/feedback, play a significant role in bettering a narration. McGroarty and Zhu (1997, p. 2) conclude that “Peer revision, in which students work in pairs or small groups to provide feedback on one another’s writing, has become a widely used teaching method in first (L1), second (L2), and foreign language writing instruction”. This study aims to discover whether or not students improve their narrative or story-telling paragraph writing after going through self-revision and peer revision, particularly in terms of language accuracy.

Previous studies

Various studies focusing on revision in writing have been conducted. In their research, Villamil and De Guerrero (1998, p. 491) say “The benefits of using peer feedback as an aid to revision in writing in first (L1) and second (L2) language classrooms have been amply discussed in the literature”. Nevertheless, researchers continue looking for answers because “there are still questions about the learners’ capacity to help each other in solving linguistic problems…” Regarding students’ capabilities in giving corrections, Chandrasegaran (1986) conducted “an exploratory study of the revision and self correction capabilities of a group of university students for whom English is a second langauge (sic).” In Yang’s (2010) study, which took place from 15 September 2008 till 9 January 2009, there were 95 undergraduate students who “were encouraged to construct and reconstruct their texts, which were revised by themselves and peers in and after class”. Based on their research, Kaufman and Schunn (2011, p. 388) state that “Much research has demonstrated the positive benefits of peer assessment for both the assessor and student who is receiving the assessment”.

Further, Diab’s (2010) study results showed that the students who went through “peer-editing reduced their rule-based language errors in revised drafts more than those who self-edited their essays”. Villamil and De Guerrero (1998) examined “the impact of peer revision on writers’ final drafts in two rhetorical modes, narration and persuasion, among 14 Spanish speaking ESL college students”. In their study, Villamil and De Guerrero (1998) posed two questions, namely how revisions made in peer sessions were “incorporated by writers in their final versions” and how trouble sources were revised based on “different language aspects (content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics)”. In
conclusion, “These revisions suggest a pattern of behavior conducive to self-regulation among writers” (Villamil & De Guerrero, 1998; cf Liu, 2013, p. 51).

Data

Data, consisting of 23 narrative paragraphs written by 23 students, were collected from the Paragraph Writing course. The course, which is a compulsory subject consisting of two credits, was designed to give students opportunities to practise their writing skills to produce a good paragraph. During the course, students will be introduced to the concept of a good paragraph which covers the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence. The course focuses on descriptive, narrative and argumentative paragraphs (but for the current study, the writer covers narrative paragraphs only, considering that the main concern is to encourage students to tell or narrate stories in grammatically and semantically correct English. This course is offered to semester two students of the English Language Education Study Programme of Sanata Dharma University. The grading policy is as follows: three assignments or tasks (20%), attendance and participation (10%), two progress tests (40%) and the final exam (30%). The distribution of the grades is as follows: A (80-100), B (70-79), C (60-69), D (50-59) and E (0-49). The course Paragraph Writing, consisting of a total of 16 meetings, started on 11 February 2016 and ended on 27 May 2016.

Minimum requirements

“When you write (and speak) English, you must check to make sure that you do not make any of the grammar mistakes listed. Freedom from these mistakes is the lowest possible standard which will be accepted” (By courtesy of the English Language Education Study Programme of Sanata Dharma University. These MR's are (re)adapted from a handout entitled An English Language Course for First Year Students of English at the IKIP by RL Fountain (nd)). There are seven points listed in the Minimum Requirements, namely 1. concord/agreement, 2. finite verbs, 3. tenses, 4. verb groups, 5. articles/determiners, 6. punctuation and 7. spelling. How important is grammar learning-teaching in the context of writing in English? Suthiwartnarueput and Wasanasomsithi (2012, p. 196) state that “the teaching of grammatical features like tenses and linguistic elements, including capitalization, commas and other punctuation” can assist learners to write better.

Results

Based on the analysis of the 23 narrative paragraphs, the current researcher discovered that as a whole the narrations read better and contained fewer grammatical
mistakes after the students did self-revision and peer revision, with the scores ranging from 71 up to 88 (three B’s and 20 A’s). The distribution is as follows: 71 (1 student), 72 (1), 77 (1), 80 (5), 81 (2), 82 (5), 83 (4), 86 (2) and 88 (2), and the range of the grades is as follows: A (80-100), B (70-79), C (60-69), D (50-59) and E (0-49). Below are an example of a draft and of a finalized narrative paragraph (after self and peer revisions).

Figure 1. Drafting, self-revision and peer revision

Figure 2. Finalized version
In the instruction, the students were asked to write a camera-ready narrative paragraph based on one of the 20 topics given. Each student should ensure to do self-revision and peer revision. It was an open book/resource test. Time allotment was maximum 75 minutes.

Conclusions

Paragraph Writing students who did self-revision and peer revision wrote better narrative paragraphs by eliminating or reducing mistakes listed in Minimum Requirements, such as finite verbs and determiners. The results showed that there exists “a positive relationship between grammar and writing” (Jones, Myhill & Bailey, 2013, p. 1258; cf Duc, 2016, p. 16). Students with few grammatical/linguistic mistakes can improve their narrative paragraphs and deserve better scores.

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Title
Language Learning Strategy Use and English Proficiency of Indonesian EFL College Students

Author
Burhanudin Syaifullah
State College for Islamic Studies (STAIN) Kediri, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Burhanudin Syaifullah is an English lecturer at Sekolah Tinggi Agama Islam Negeri (STAIN) Kediri, Indonesia. He completed his master degree (M.Ed) specializing in TESOL International at Monash University, Australia. His interests include English language teaching (ELT), language testing and assessment, and discourse analysis. Email: hanspct@gmail.com.

Abstract
This study aims to find out language learning strategies (LLS) among Indonesian EFL college students and its relation to English proficiency. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire designed by Oxford (1990) and a practice version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) were administered to 104 third-year English major students. The findings indicated that metacognitive strategies (M=3.46) were the most frequently used strategies, while the memory strategies (M=3.03) were the least frequently used strategies by the students. The results also revealed that language learning strategies used by the students have a weak positive correlation with their English proficiency. Among the six categories of strategies, cognitive and metacognitive strategies were found to have higher correlation with English proficiency. The results of the present study provide area for future research, such as examining relationship between the LLS and proficiency and possible interplay of learner autonomy or motivation in other cultural settings.

Address Correspondence:
STAIN Kediri
Sunan Ampel Street No. 07 Ngronggo
Kediri, East Java, Indonesia 64127
Keywords: Language learning strategy, English proficiency, EFL students

Introduction

Research topic on language learning strategy use has received an increasing attention from practitioners and researchers worldwide. This is due to the fact that language learning strategy use is considered to be one of the contributing factors to language learning and language acquisition (Chamot, 2004; Ellis, 2008), students’ motivation (Chang & Liu, 2013; Wang, 2013; Wharton, 2000), students’ learning beliefs (Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011), and students’ English proficiency (Khalil, 2005; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Park, 1997). Therefore, conducting a research on language learning strategy use and other aspects contributing to the selection of each strategy could provide useful insights for both learners and teachers or educators.

The term language learning strategy (LLS) has been highlighted by a number of researchers. Oxford (1990, p. 8) define the LLS as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. In addition, Chamot (2004, p. 14) pointed out the LLS as “the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal”. Accordingly, Franklin, Hodge, & Sasscer (1997, p. 24) stated that learning strategies are “measures that students can take to promote their own learning success”. These definitions lead to a number of studies on the LLS which has at least two main goals of learning strategies, namely to know and compare between the learning strategies used by more and less successful language learners, and to guide less successful learners to become more successful in their language study (Chamot, 2001).

Numerous studies on the relationship between the LLS and other variables have been conducted within English as a second language or foreign language context (e.g. Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Green, & Oxford, 1995; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Park, 1997). However, researches which are particularly designed to investigate the correlation between the LLS and other variables in Indonesian context seem to be under-researched. Besides, it is a response to Park’s (1997) recommendation that there is a need to conduct additional researches in relation to the LLS and English proficiency in other Asian cultural context. Therefore, the objectives of the present study are to investigate the learning strategies most or least frequently used by Indonesian EFL college students, which strategies are predictive of (significantly correlated with) English proficiency and to what extent is the six categories of language learning strategies correlated with English proficiency.
Literature Review

Language learning strategies (LLS) have been defined differently by a number of researchers. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) defined LLS as “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information” (p.1). Furthermore, Chamot (2004) considered LLS to be thoughts or actions that the learners use to achieve the goal of learning which can only be recognized through self-reporting. Cohen (1998), more simply, characterized such strategies as “processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language” (p. 3). More detailed definition of LLS was provided by Oxford (1990). She clarified LLS as particular techniques employed by learners to assist the comprehension, retention, retrieval and application of information for language learning and acquisition which enable them to control their own learning so that they could achieve their desired learning goals.

LLS has been conceptualized and classified differently by many scholars. For example, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed three classifications of LLS, namely cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies. In addition, Oxford classified strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are defined as “strategies involving mental process and directly influencing the target language, while indirect strategies are those supporting and managing language without directly involving the target language” (Oxford, 1990, p. 14). She further divided direct strategies into memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies and indirect strategies into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Her classification was then elaborated into 50 items (version for speakers of other languages learning English) in the forms of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The SILL is considered to be the most comprehensive language learning strategy assessment survey worldwide (Green & Oxford, 1995). Besides, the reliability and validity of the SILL have been extensively checked in various ways, for example, Khalil (2005) found a high reliability coefficient of the SILL (.86-.95 Cronbach’s 120 α).

A number of studies established relationship between language learning strategy use and English proficiency (Bruen, 2001; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Wharton, 2000). In this matter, learners’ English proficiency was measured through various tests, for example, Park (1997) and Nisbet, Tindal & Arroyo (2005) used TOEFL to measure learners’ proficiency. Overall, these studies indicated that more proficient language learners use more variety and more learning strategies compared to less proficient learners.
Methodology

Participants

Participants of this study were 104 students of English major in a State College for Islamic Studies in East Java, Indonesia. The ages of these students ranged from 20 to 22 years. Among 104 participants, 84 were females and 19 were males, who have studied English ranged from 9 to 12 years at the time of data collection.

Research Design

The present study utilized quantitative correlational research design in which the SILL and the practice version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) were administered to the participants.

Instruments

The SILL version 7.0 (ESL/EFL version of the test written in English) is used to assess frequency and patterns of language learning strategy use. It consists of 50 items, each accompanied by a 5-point, likert-type scale. As 1 means ‘never or almost never true of me’, and 5 means ‘always or almost always true of me’. In this matter, 3.5-5.00 is classified as high usage, 2.5-3.4 is medium usage and 1.0-2.4 is low usage (Oxford 1990). In addition, the practice version of the TOEFL PBT test was administered to measure the students’ English proficiency.

Procedures

The TOEFL PBT test and the SILL were tested and distributed by the researcher. Before distributing the questionnaire, the written consent to participate in the study was obtained from the participants. The researcher explained the instruction and direction of the questionnaire to avoid misunderstanding among the participants. Then, they were allowed to ask for clarity while fulfilling each item. The completed questionnaires were collected right after the participants completed them.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using the SPSS 20. Descriptive statistics was used to address the first research question: “What language learning strategies are the most or least frequently used by Indonesian EFL college students?” To examine the relation between the six categories of language learning strategies and English proficiency and which strategies are predictive of (significantly correlated with) English proficiency, Pearson’s product-moment correlation was used.
Results and Discussions

RQ 1. The most or the least frequently used of language learning strategies

The purpose of the first research question was to investigate the most or least frequently used of language learning strategies by Indonesian EFL college students. Generally, it was found that metacognitive strategies were considered to be the most frequently used strategies, while memory strategies were the least. The detailed is presented in table 1.

Table 1. Summary of Language Learning Strategy Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above informs that the Indonesian EFL college students used language learning strategies at a medium level. This is based on the Oxford’s classification of language learning strategies mentioning that 3.5-5.00 is classified as high usage, 2.5-3.4 is medium usage and 1.0-2.4 is low usage (Oxford 1990). As indicated in table 1, mean score of the six strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies) fell in the range of 2.5-3.4. Therefore, the strategies used by the students are classified at a medium level.

Furthermore, table 1 indicates that metacognitive strategies ($M=3.46$, $SD=0.32$) were classified as the most frequently used strategies, while memory strategies ($M=3.03$, $SD=0.36$) were the least frequently used strategies in this study. The second most strategies used by the participants were compensation strategies ($M=3.40$, $SD=0.38$), followed by social strategies ($M=3.32$, $SD=0.43$), cognitive strategies ($M=3.21$, $SD=0.26$) and affective strategies ($M=3.10$, $SD=0.42$). In short, the Indonesian EFL students tend to use more on
metacognitive strategies compare to other language learning strategies based on the SILL questionnaire distributed.

**RQ 2. Strategies which are predictive of (significantly correlated with) English proficiency**

The second question investigated the strategies which are predictive of (significantly correlated with) English proficiency. To elaborate the detailed answer of this question, the writer presents the data on Table 2.

Table 2. Pearson $r$ Correlations among the Six Strategies and TOEFL Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>TOEFL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory (1)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive (2)</td>
<td>.469**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation (3)</td>
<td>.441**</td>
<td>.522**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive (4)</td>
<td>.458**</td>
<td>.532**</td>
<td>.455**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective (5)</td>
<td>.427**</td>
<td>.502**</td>
<td>.377**</td>
<td>.518**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social (6)</td>
<td>.530**</td>
<td>.619**</td>
<td>.420**</td>
<td>.538**</td>
<td>.529**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.244*</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.206*</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

The result of Kolmogorov–Smirnov’s test of normality indicated normal distribution of all variables. Thus, Pearson $r$ correlation was used to find the correlation among variables. Table 2 indicates that there is a positive correlation among the six strategies. In this case, most strategies have a medium correlation with each other and two strategies (social and cognitive strategies) are ranked in the highest correlation compared to others.

Furthermore, Table 2 also shows that among the six strategies, two strategies were significantly correlated with English proficiency (TOEFL Score). In this case, the cognitive strategies (0.244) and metacognitive strategies (0.206) have a positive correlation with the TOEFL score (English proficiency test) even though it has weak or small correlation. The findings of this study are similar to the previous studies, for example, Oxford and Ehrman (1995) and Murray (2010) putting cognitive strategies as the most contributing factor to the students’ TOEFL Score.
RQ 3. The correlation between the six strategies and English proficiency

The last question from this study was to find out the extent to which the six categories of language learning strategies are correlated with English proficiency. The detailed findings are elaborated in Table 3.

Table 3. Correlation between the LLS and English Proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOEFL</th>
<th>STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRATEGIES</th>
<th>TOEFL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the result of relationship between total language learning strategies used by the students and their TOEFL score. It could be seen from the Table 3 that the strategies used by the students have no significant correlation with their English proficiency. This is because the Sig. (2-tailed) value in this study is 0.056 which means that it is higher than 0.05. Although it has no significant correlation, the strategies used by the students correlate with their TOEFL score. In this case, the correlation is a weak positive correlation as indicated in the table above that the correlation is 0.188.

Conclusion

The current study revealed that the use of language learning strategies has correlation to the students’ English proficiency although the correlation is low or small correlation. Among the six strategies, metacognitive strategies are considered to be the most often used strategies compared to other strategies. On the other hand, memory strategies are classified as the lowest strategies used by the students.

In terms of correlation between the LLS and the students’ TOEFL score, the results of this study revealed that LLS has a low positive correlation. Therefore, the better level of LLS used by the students, the higher TOEFL score would be. Furthermore, among the six strategies used, cognitive and metacognitive strategies tend to have significant correlation with the students’ English proficiency.
In short, considering the language learning strategy use in studying language is important due to the fact that using appropriate strategies could improve the English proficiency and therefore it is recommended to language learners.

References


Title
Supporting Learner Autonomy through Self-Assessments: The Accuracy of Students’ Self-Evaluations in Speaking Classes

Author
Daniel Warchulski
Kwansei Gakuin University, Japan

Bio-Profile:
Daniel Warchulski teaches in the School of Economics at Kwansei Gakuin University, Hyogo, Japan. He obtained a Master of Educational Studies - TESOL Specialization degree from University of Newcastle, Australia. Some of his current research interests include self-assessment, autonomy, motivation, and multiculturalism. He can be reached at: danielw@kwansei.ac.jp

Abstract
This pilot research describes a study in which autonomy was promoted through the implementation of a self-assessment/goal-setting activity at a Japanese university. Some of the potential benefits and concerns associated with self-assessments are examined. Since accuracy is often cited as the primary potential concern and impediment to using self-assessment activities, the primary objective of this study was to determine: whether students are accurate in assessing their spoken language skills when compared with instructor’s evaluation of the students. The sample consisted of freshman students enrolled in small speaking classes. The results indicate that, despite a tendency to underestimate their performance, students were relatively accurate in evaluating their performance of speaking skills when compared with the instructor’s assessment. The self-assessment/goal-setting activity was also pedagogically beneficial in a variety of ways.

Keywords: accuracy, assessment, evaluation
Introduction

The promotion and support for autonomous learning is now commonplace in the L2 classroom. A particularly effective way to encourage autonomy among learners is through using self-assessment and goal-setting activities. Self-assessment and goal-setting activities provide a practical way for instructors to promote a learner-centered classroom that enables students to monitor their progress, receive self-generated feedback, reflect on and evaluate their learning, and guide their future learning.

Despite a consensus that self-assessment activities are beneficial to learners, empirical research on the topic has varied and been somewhat contradictory. Accordingly, some potential concerns have been raised which can negate the usefulness of self-assessments and make comparisons of empirical results difficult. One of the main problems is that self-assessment has been operationalized differently among researchers and is defined, and often referred to, in a variety of ways, including self-evaluation, self-testing, self-appraisal, and self-rating (Saito, 2009). Another issue is that since self-assessments can be used for a variety of purposes, the definition and research findings are often tied to the purpose for which they are used. As such, it has been suggested that comprehensive definitions should include distinguishing between types of self-assessments based on their purpose with two main types being identified by researchers: 1.) performance-oriented self-assessments, which measure language performance or abilities at one point in time, and 2.) development-oriented self-assessments, which are primarily concerned with patterns of development over an extended period (Oscarson, 1989).

The current pilot study utilized development-oriented self-assessment activities with multiple pedagogical goals, including helping students understand specific course-related language objectives and more importantly, to provide opportunities for students to receive self-generated, personalized feedback through an ongoing process of reflection. This consisted of students reflecting on their language performance, identifying their strengths and weaknesses, and accordingly, setting language performance goals. Besides these, it was hoped that students also derived some of the other benefits associated with self-assessment activities.

To help ensure that self-assessment activities are pedagogically beneficial, Gardner and Miller (1999) suggest that they contain the following: the purpose of the assessment, a procedure for conducting and marking it, benefits to learners, a suggested marking scale, and a choice of follow-up actions related to the score achieved. Accordingly, these components were incorporated into the self-assessment/goal-setting activity.
Although the participants likely benefitted from evaluating their performance, the issue of accuracy has been identified as a key concern when implementing self-assessment activities in the language classroom. In this regard, validity and reliability can be severely affected and compromised due to other influences such as feedback from instructors or peers which, in turn, can have an impact on overall accuracy (Saito, 2009).

Given the potential issues pertaining to accuracy, the present research is a pilot study that aims to examine the accuracy of student self-assessments in the context of communicative speaking classes and to briefly speculate on and suggest some of the potential benefits derived by learners. For instance, it is likely the case that if students are relatively accurate in assessing themselves, they are more likely to set meaningful goals that reflect their actual strengths and weaknesses. Additionally, if instructors are confident in students’ abilities in accurately evaluating themselves, they can consider allowing student self-assessments to be a component of actual grades.

The primary focus of this pilot study addressed the following research question: *When compared with the instructors’ assessment of students’ language performance of speaking skills, how accurate are students in assessing their language performance of these skills?*

In this pilot research, *assessment* and *evaluation* are used interchangeably and mean either the students’ or instructor’s perception and evaluation of student performance with respect to functional language use and other language skills use.

**Literature Review**

The literature regarding student self-assessment is mixed. Most of the research suggests that implementing self-assessment activities has various pedagogical benefits. Some of the benefits identified include an increase in productivity and autonomy, the promotion of active learning, including an awareness and perception of progress, higher motivation levels, a reduction in frustration, as well as opportunities for individualization, reflection, evaluation, and support (Saito, 2009; Rivers, 2001; Gardner, 2000; Harris, 1997).

An increasing amount of research has focused on the extent to which student evaluations match those provided by instructors and standardized test scores (Oscarson, 2014). When comparing instructor assessment of students with students’ own evaluations, there is a variability in findings with some studies reporting positive results with high correlations, while others suggest that learner self-assessments can be problematic due to a lack of accuracy and reliability.
In a study of multicultural and multilingual students in England, Blue (1988) found a significant discrepancy in performance ratings between learners scores and those of their tutors. Similarly, Pierce, Swain, and Hart’s (1993) research revealed a weak correlation on the four language skills examined when comparing French students’ self-assessments with standardized test scores. Other research has also found considerable diversity in learners’ accuracy ratings and problems with reliability (Thomson, 1996; Janssen-van Dieten, 1989). However, despite issues of accuracy, these studies still maintain that self-assessments provide many benefits to learners.

Other studies have found moderate to high correlations in accuracy, concluding that self-assessments are reliable. For instance, Blanche (1990), studying a group of adult French learners found the students’ ability to estimate their speaking skills to be reliable and impressive in terms of accuracy. Likewise, Patri (2002) found relatively strong correlations between student self-assessments when compared with peer and instructor evaluations. Brown, Dewey, and Cox (2014) examined the use of self-assessments among university students studying Russian and found moderate correlations between speaking test results and self-assessments. Other studies have also reported positive findings with respect to accuracy (Lappin-Fortin and Rye, 2014; Palmer, 1989).

Accounting for the variability in empirical findings with any certainty is challenging. This, in part, is due to differences between studies in variables such as sample size, age, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, target language, language skills being tested, and whether participants are in an EFL or ESL environment (Gardner, 2000). Despite the mixed findings, some important themes emerge from the studies. For instance, the complexity of self-assessment tasks and the amount of training learners receive can significantly affect accuracy ratings. Providing training and support to learners, as well as using self-assessments that are not overly complex seems to have a positive effect on accuracy. Accordingly, instructors should provide training and support to learners when implementing self-assessments and may want to consider using self-assessments that are simple enough so as not to cognitively overload students.

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this pilot study were enrolled in small, student-centered, communicative classes with a primary focus on speaking. The classes were of mixed gender and consisted of less than 10 students from a wide range of majors with varying language
proficiencies. Classes were organized by students’ majors and language proficiencies as measured by the TOEIC test. Students were required to collaboratively engage in various speaking tasks and activities. The curriculum followed a functional-topical approach that consisted of a strong emphasis on functional language use. In most lessons, students were introduced to new functional phrases and required to use functional language during class, which was the focus of students’ self-assessments.

For self-assessment activities to be effective, it is suggested that they should be practical in terms of time and integrated into everyday classroom activities (Harris, 1997). Accordingly, the self-assessment activity was implemented in most lessons (i.e. 9 of 14 lessons) during feedback stages whereby students were asked to evaluate their performance after various speaking tasks and activities, and to choose goals based on this. The assessment was performed two times per lesson with participants providing an overall score for their language performance. This score was then compared to the instructor’s score.

**Data Analysis**

Participants were required to complete instructor-prepared self-assessment worksheets. This entailed completing a worksheet that consisted of self-assessing performance for two separate categories of language use: 1.) Functional language use, which included language to perform specific language functions, such as expressing ideas by providing and asking for opinions or supporting ideas by giving and asking for reasons and examples; and 2.) Other language skills use – which included the ability to negotiate meaning and to use various other interactive skills, such as asking follow-up questions. Respondents assessed their performance using a Likert scale consisting of numbers 1 (i.e. no/poor use of language) through 4 (i.e. frequent/excellent use of language) and scored themselves accordingly. The instructor used the same criteria and scale to evaluate students’ performance. Instructor scores of students’ performance were compared with the students’ assessment scores of their performance.

Inferential and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. The primary modes of analysis included a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and a t-test, which were performed to measure and evaluate the relationship between instructor scores and student scores. Additionally, various relevant classroom observations were made and recorded in a teaching journal.
Findings and discussion

Table 1 summarizes the results of a t-test and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for functional language use. A comparison over nine lessons of the instructor’s assessment scores ($M = 3.67, SD = .58$) with the students’ assessment scores ($M = 3.09, SD = .58$) reveals a statistically significant difference; $t (94) = 17.19$, $p \leq 0.00$. These findings indicate that although the students tended to underestimate their performance with respect to functional language use when compared with the instructor’s assessment, student performance was perceived very positively by both the students and instructor. As such, the students and instructor were accurate in their high evaluations of student performance. This is reflected in the overall high scores given by both the instructor and the students for functional language use.

Table 1: *T*-test and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for functional language use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Diff./Results)</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>17.189</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.588</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the overall relationship and assessment patterns between the instructor and students for functional language use, findings reveal that the instructor’s and students’ assessment patterns were very similar. Computations revealed a strong, positive correlation over the course of nine lessons between the manner in which the students assessed themselves and the instructor’s evaluation of student performance; $r = 0.59$, $p < 0.00$. This suggests that whenever the teacher rated the students’ performance highly, the students also perceived their performance to be good and as such, consistently assessed themselves in a similar manner when compared with the instructor’s evaluation.

With respect to other language skills use, the data revealed findings that were very similar to those for functional language use. The results of a t-test and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient are shown in Table 2. Despite significantly lower assessment scores of other language skills use by the students when compared with the instructor’s scores, both the teacher and students were accurate in evaluating performance positively.
Further, a strong, positive correlation implies that assessment patterns were similar between students and the instructor.

Table 2: *T-test and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for other language skills use.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Diff./Results)</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>18.621</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.562</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the results of this pilot research are positive in a variety of ways and suggest that, unlike some studies, students were relatively accurate in evaluating their performance with respect to spoken language use. Although accuracy and reliability may not be important to all instructors, in cases where self-assessments will potentially be used to complement grading, they can be a central concern. To help ensure that self-assessment activities are successfully implemented, the role of teachers in facilitating their students is essential. Since instructors have a unique combination of knowledge and expertise, they can assist students by providing appropriate guidance, training, and support through, for instance, awareness-raising activities and by helping learners understand the significance of self-assessment activities (Harris, 1997; Gardner, 2000).

In the present pilot study, the success of students in accurately assessing their performance is largely due to initial training and continued support and guidance provided by the instructor throughout. This, for instance, entailed consistently using clear instructional language and providing examples of how different language use corresponds to a particular score. In addition, utilizing self-assessment worksheets with a grading rubric that was not overly complex and cognitively burdensome allowed students to appropriately focus most of their resources on the self-assessment activity which, in turn, contributed to accurate self-evaluations.

Given the small class sizes, the instructor was able to effectively monitor and accurately recorded observations – a task that would be more difficult with a large class. Some pedagogical benefits derived included the promotion of active learning which involved students being engaged in a process of monitoring their performance, reflecting on it by locating their strengths and weaknesses, and deciding on appropriate follow-up actions in the
form of choosing goals. In this way, participants had opportunities to act autonomously, viewed learning in personal terms, and received a form of personalized feedback. The self-assessment activity also appeared to help students with their retention rates and in understanding course objectives, although this type of claim could be ascertained with greater certainty by administering a relevant questionnaire.

There also appeared to be an increase and sustainment of students’ motivation. While this was not formally tested, observing and assessing learners’ attention, participation, and volunteering patterns are variables that can indicate a student’s level of motivation and as such, can be used as indicators of motivated behavior (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008). In the present research, observations of student behavior suggest high levels of motivation since students were always attentive during lessons and rates of participation and volunteering were high.

Although implementing the self-assessment/goal-setting activity was generally successful and students were accurate in their self-evaluations, some potential issues remain for similar types of future research and for instructors who choose to utilize self-assessments. For instance, in the present pilot study, despite relatively accurate self-evaluations, students tended to score themselves lower than the instructor. Cultural factors may partially explain this. Using a more comprehensive assessment instrument consisting of a scale with a wider range of numerical choices available (i.e. 6 or 8 point Likert scale) is another potential solution. Instructors may also wish to use self-assessments as part of students’ overall grades. While doing so is an effective way to promote greater degrees of autonomy and to address the issue of learners underestimating their performance, there is a potential danger that students will inflate their self-assessment scores. Whenever there is a perceived advantage to assessing oneself positively, there are serious concerns about objectivity and capacity to do so honestly (Saito, 2009). Accordingly, instructors need to be cautious and any decisions to use self-assessments for grading need to be carefully balanced by considering factors such as age, maturity, and motivation of the learners, as well as the purpose and complexity of assessment instruments (Oscarson, 2014).

The findings from this pilot study deserve fuller investigation in future research. A more comprehensive research design investigating other aspects related to using self-assessment/goal-setting activities in the context of speaking classes can include items such as questionnaires about learners’ perceptions, and a deeper statistical analysis can reveal important insights about other relationships, including more information about goal-setting.
Conclusion

Due to some potential difficulties associated with implementing self-assessment and goal-setting activities, some hesitation and concern remains on the part of instructors in decisions regarding their use. Despite the positive findings in this pilot study, issues regarding accuracy can be a real challenge. As such, if instructors choose to make self-assessments a component of student grades, they can mitigate accuracy problems by taking various measures to support learners. Further, since self-assessment activities are pedagogically beneficial in a wide variety of ways, their use shouldn’t be solely premised on issues of accuracy.

Self-assessment activities are an effective way to aid learner development and provide real, meaningful opportunities for learners to act more autonomously by requiring that students take on a greater degree of responsibility for all aspects of their learning. So while this may inevitably involve adjustments to traditional classrooms, in some cases requiring students to be active learners and teachers to play a more facilitative role, to benefit learners and assist learners in becoming more autonomous, instructors and institutions should consider the potential advantages that self-assessments can provide.

References


Title
Posting Students’ Work on Facebook and Wall Magazine and its Effect on their Motivation

Author
Delsa Miranty

Bio-Profile:
Delsa Miranty is one of the teaching staff at English Education Department in a state university of Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa, Banten Provience. Listening and writing are two courses that usually taught by her. She can be reached at delsa12@yahoo.co.id

Abstract
The objective of the research was to find out whether or not posting the students’ work on Facebook and wall magazine effective for enhancing the students’ motivation and its effect on their motivation both in listening and writing classes. The samples were students from third semester of a state university in Banten Provience in the academic year 2015. The data from the quantitative method in order to see the effectiveness of these media were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. For the qualitative method, the effect on the students’ motivation by using descriptive statistics. The result of the research showed that posting students’ work on facebook and wall magazine effective for enhancing students’ motivation and gave positive effect on students’ motivation in listening and writing classes.

Keywords: Students’ works, facebook, wall magazine, EFL, listening, writing.

Introduction
This study aims to investigate the effectiveness by posting students’ work on facebook and wall magazine for enhancing students’ motivation and its effect on students’ motivation from listening and writing classes.
Current research into this research were the students from the third semester of English education department from a state university of Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa University, Banten Provience. There were 2 classes from two subjects, they were: listening consists of 33 students and writing class consist of 32 students.

**Literature Review**

1. **Listening**
   
   Guiding students through the process of listening not only provides them with the knowledge by which they can successfully complete a listening task; it also motivates them and puts them in control of their learning (Vandergrift, 2002).

2. **Writing**
   
   In the context of education, it is also worth remembering that most exams, whether they are testing foreign language abilities or other skills, often rely on the students’ writing proficiency in order to measure their knowledge, Harmer (2004:3).

3. **Motivation**
   
   Motivation made up of motivational intensity, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language, Dornyei (2001:16).

**Methodology**

In this research, related to the quantitative method, the researcher used one group pre test-post test design, one before the treatment and one after the treatment. Changes in the outcome of interest are presumed to be the result of the intervention or treatment. No control or comparison group is employed. As on of the simplest methods of testing the effectiveness of an intervention, cited from https://www.reseracherconnections.org/children/datamethods/preexperimental.jsp. The design’s pattern can be presented as follow:

\[
\begin{align*}
T1 & \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times T2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Related to analysis gain score normalization $<g>$, it was calculated for knowing its effectiveness given, by using with this formula:

\[
< g > = \frac{\text{Post Test} - \text{Pre test}}{\text{Maximum score} - \text{Pretest}} \\
\text{(Hake, 1999)}
\]
There are several criteria for gain score \( g \), they are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score ( g )</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( 0.70 \leq n \leq 1.00 )</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 0.30 \leq n &lt; 0.70 )</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 0.00 \leq n &lt; 0.30 )</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Meltzer, 2002)

For the qualitative method, the data were collected by conducting interview that consists of 4 questions. This interview cover four elements of motivation namely: Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction (ARCS). For questionnaire, Likert-like with five scale, were distributed to trace the improvement of motivation. Then, the questionnaire was analyzed used SPSS 16 for windows and Microsoft Excel 2010.

**Findings and Discussion**

**Findings**

A. Questionnaires

After distributed in Wednesday, December 2nd, 2015 and calculated the result of questionnaires. Most of them choose item agree related to the questions given.

B. Interview

The interview session was conducted December 17th, 2015. In conclusion, the medias were effective to develop students’ motivation to listen and write through posted students’ project on facebook and wall magazine.

C. Test

For the listening class, each test was consist of 20 questions: 10 questions in form of multiple choices A, B, C, or D and 10 questions in form of True or False. Then, for the writing class, the students had to make texts related to the themes given. After calculated for its gain normalization score from listening class the gain score was 0.49 and from the writing class the gain score was 0.41.
Discussion

A. Questionnaires

The first question, there were 23 students (69.69%) agree that they love doing their English projects and posted them into facebook and wallmagazine. The second question, there were 27 students (81.81%), agree that the projects that posted on facebook and wallmagazine gave them motivation to listen and write better, since they got many advantages from them. For the third question, there were 30 students (90.90%) agree that doing projects from listening and writing class, then posted on facebook and wallmagazine were difficult and got bored when they did not have motivation and listen less to the materials given.

Next, the fourth question there were 29 students (87.87%) agree that they did not have motivation, felt lazy and less curiosity when they knew that they did not have to post the projects on facebook and wallmagazine. The fifth questions, there were 32 students (96.96 %) that agree since they were felt enjoyed, felt happy and had motivation when they knew that their projects posted on facebook and wall magazine.

Question number six, there were 33 students (100 %) agree that they had motivation since they had to post the projects on facebook and wallmagazine. Question number seven, there were 32 students (96.96%) agree that they eager to listen the materials from listening class and writing class, then discussed them since they would posted them on facebook and wallmagazine. Question number eight, there were 33 students (100%) agree that learning posting the projects on facebook and wallmagazine made the students and had motivation, curriosity, challenged to complete their projects.

Question number nine, there were 31 students (93.93%) agree that after they posted their projects, they got advantages and motivation since the students had to listen and write better than before. Question number 10, there were 32 students (96.96%) agree the students got motivation to listen and write better than before and got many advantages.

B. Interview

In this interview, # S.10, she said that she got many advantages of using these media. She had motivation to focus to the materials from listening and writing. It means that these media had complete the first item in ARCS. Then, two answer the second question, from #S.17; he said that he found relevance between subjects and students’ need. In this part, it was developed students’motivation. Students #9 said that she had good confidence, especially when started to listen and write the projects then posted on
facebook and wall magazine. And for the last student, #12 she said that she had satisfaction when she got comments and suggestion from their projects that posted on facebook and wall magazine.

C. Test

After calculated for its gain normalization score from the listening class, and the score was 0.49. It means that the tests have average criteria since the criteria was 0.30 ≤n < 0.70. And from the writing class, the score was 0.41. It means that the tests has average criteria since the criteria for 0.30 ≤n < 0.70.

Table 2.Statistic from Listening Class

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Figure 1. Score from Pre Test in Listening Class

Figure 2. Score from Post Test in Listening Class
Table 3. Statistic from Writing Class

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Figure 3. Score from Pre Test in Writing Class
Figure 4. Scores from Post Test in Writing Class

Conclusion

Based on the explanation above, there was effectiveness for enhancing students’ motivation by posted students’ work on facebook and wall magazine and it can be seen from the criteria of gain score gotten. Related to these media, they were success to give positive effect on students’ motivation since the students had better motivation to complete the projects given from the lecturer.

References


Title
“Bimbel” as an Educational Trend in Indonesia

Author
Desak Gede Chandra Widayanthi
Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Nusa Dua Bali (Bali Tourism Institute)

Bio-Profiles:
Desak Gede Chandra Widayanthi works as the secretary of director of STP Nusa Dua Bali (Bali Tourism Institute) and is also assigned as the language laboratory assistant. For her passion in teaching, she also works as a teacher at Bimbingan Belajar Primagama. She can be reached at chandrawidaa@gmail.com.

Abstract
The objective of this study was to analyze the impacts brought by the trend of Bimbingan Belajar (Bimbel) as non-formal education in Indonesia. This study was a library research. As the result, it was concluded that (1) Bimbel was positively enhance students’ academic achievement, encourage learning habit, and reducing students’ anxiety before examination; (2) Bimbel brought negative impacts due to the cheating done to boost students’ examination scores, the use of conventional teaching method which lead to content based and test-based learning.

Keywords: Bimbingan Belajar, Bimbel, tutoring, non-formal education

Introduction
In Indonesia, Non-Formal Education is legally regulated through Undang-Undang Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 about National Education System. Based on this regulation, it is stated that any kinds of non-formal education should be established to develop the skills, abilities, and competencies of the participants through sustainable education programs.
Based on Bank Indonesia (2011), the early growth of Bimbel as business was begun in the 1970’s by providing services to students who needed assistance on preparing university entrance test. Thus, Bimbel was intended for the ninth grade students as their customers. However, from 1980’s it did not limit their programs only to university entrance test preparation, but also for general tutoring for students at any grades. According to Direktorat Pembinaan Kursus dan Pelatihan Indonesia (an Indonesia government organization that concern in non-formal education establishment) as stated in Tobing (2013), it is recorded that there were 13,446 tutoring agencies in Indonesia, of which 11,207 of them have had legal permission. Bank Indonesia (2011) predicted that this number may increase by 10 – 20% per year.

This rapid growth may be influenced by the high number of demand. Tobing (2013) stated that the reason behind the high demand on services provided by Bimbel is the gap between what is taught in school and what is tested in National Examination and university entrance test.

Methodology

This study is a library research, which is the data are taken from library resources, such as books, journals, documents, newspapers, and other related materials.

Discussion

Definition of Bimbingan Belajar

Lembaga Bimbingan Belajar or shortly called Bimbel (i.e. Tutoring Agency, in English) is defined as non-formal educational institution which gives helps to ones who need it to decide on something and to solve problems through providing competent tutor (or advisory teacher) (Jones, 2011 in Rahman, 2012). While Bank Indonesia (Indonesia State Bank) (2011) refers Bimbel as a business that provides effort to support students’ learning program and materials which has been given in schools thus the students may achieve the goals set for their academic purposes.

Bimbel as Non-Formal Education

As a big growing business that is being a trend nowadays in Indonesia, Bimbel brings impacts, both in positive and negative ways. As its advantages, Bimbel encourages improvement to academic achievement of the students. Several studies have been conducted relating to this issue. Miftahillah (2014), Suprapto (2012) and Sarasw complemented (2012), based on their studies concluded that Bimbel brings significant improvement on students’ academic
achievement. Suprapto (2012) on his study on twelfth grades students of SMA Negeri 4 Purwokerto (a Public high school in Purwokerto, Indonesia) found that the students’ intensive participation on tutoring enhance their score in Geography subject. While, Sarasweni (2012) found that Bimbel has significant effect on improving students’ achievement on Mathematics subject, as the result of the study which were conducted to students of fifth grade.

As an addition, Bimbel also promotes habit of learning by providing positive after-school activities. Novandhika (2014) found that Bimbel forms habit of the students to continue studying after school-hours. The routine which follows fixed schedule helps students to make more definite studying pattern.

Furthermore, Bimbel is effective in reducing students’ anxiety. Roselind (2012) found that Bimbel that provides additional teacher support outside school plays significant role on reducing students’ anxiety before examination. This finding is also supported by Hidayat and Sunyoto (2013) that found Bimbel has significant effect on reducing students’ anxiety before facing national examination.

In contrast, there are several negative impacts of Bimbel. First, there were cases that Bimbel providing leaked answer of tests. As it was reported by Indrawan in DetikNews (2016) (Indonesian online news portal), there was a report that a tutoring agency had offered leaked answer of national examination to its students. Thus, Minister of Culture and Education of Indonesia stated a warning. To confirm the news, Kompas (another trusted news portal in Indonesia) published similar news on its website.

Second, Bimbel uses conventional learning media and promotes score-oriented learning. According to Nusantari & Budiyanto (2012) students has negative perception on the learning media uses by Bimbel. Bimbel only uses conventional media such as whiteboard and marker. Bimbel also uses single conventional method which offers shortcut strategies on finishing test problems, from which can be concluded that it promotes score-oriented learning.

Third, Bimbel may replace the role of parents on educating children outside school. According to the survey conducted by Widodo in Kompas (2015), 62% from 144 parents who were involved as respondents stated that they send their children to Bimbel after their school-hours, instead of educating them at home.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that (1) Bimbel was positively enhance students’ academic achievement, encourage learning habit, and reducing students’ anxiety before examination;
(2) Bimbel brought negative impacts due to the cheating done to boost students’ examination scores, the use of conventional teaching method which lead to content based and test-based learning.

References


Title
Teaching Strategies in Writing Class: A good model in Islamic institution of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia

Author
Dewi Atikah

Bio-Profile:
Dewi Atikah was a MA TESOL studies student at University of Leeds, United Kingdom. She was graduated this year, 2016 and is working as a lecturer in one of institutions in Kendari; Islamic institution state of Kendari, Indonesia. She received bachelor’s degree in English language teaching from Halu Oleo University in Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. She is interested in the use of feedback and technology in ELT, teaching and learning strategies, learning styles and preferences. If any queries, should you reach her via email: dewi.atikah70@gmail.com.

Abstract
The researcher did present a good model of effective teaching strategies in writing class. This result was based on small-scale research in one of institutions in Indonesia. She collected the data by doing class observation and interview to evaluate the lecturer’s strategies in teaching writing as well as note down the rationales of using certain strategies. Besides, she also used online focus group to obtain the students’ perceptions about the lecturers’ ways of teaching. Her research result indicates that some teaching writing strategies have been applied to the class which makes the students be able to improve their writing skills. The rational of choosing the specific lecturer was due to his popularity among students and colleagues who consider him as good writing lecture in EFL context. In general, the teaching approach implemented was process-writing approach. Some strategies applied were the lecturer asked to share the students’ draft orally to their peers and criticize their own essay, used different strategies to provide feedback (oral and written corrective feedback), provided personal and one-to-one consultation apart from study hours in the class, and
applied variety writing methods (independent and guided writing) as well as employed many general teaching strategies to encourage students’ involvement.

**Key words:** teaching strategy, one-to-one consultation, writing

**Introduction**

Building up with the idea of English used as a foreign language and the importance of English in Indonesia, the curriculum of English as a subject in Indonesian education system is influenced as well. Since 1967, English has become a part of Indonesian education curriculum as a foreign language because of political and economic interests. The learning objectives of English were not clear enough at that time. By the time, the importance of English is increasingly apparent. English nowadays becomes compulsory subject not only in primary and secondary education but also in higher education. The importance of English in the university context is due to the learning materials which are mostly available in English, the demands of a job vacancy in the future, and a significant number of opportunities to continue postgraduate degree abroad.

About the aims of the students in this context, being able to write academically and speak seems highly demanded although listening and understanding passages are crucial skills as well. Not only because after graduation they will use English as their qualification for job application in general, but also for those who are in teacher training faculty will teach English to the students. As a result, the lecturers need to help them to reach their goals. In fact nonetheless, teaching productive skills is quite demanding and arduous. Because of the students’ different learning style, the methods or techniques used sometimes do not help. In teaching writing, for instance, the lecturers often adopt product approach and ignore the process of the writing itself. Hyland (2003) affirms that a competent writer needs to know content, system, process, genre, and context knowledge. In this respect, the lecturers are expected to provide these processes for the students to write effectively and independently in the future.

Based on the above situation, I was interested to observe a particular writing teacher/lecturer in one of universities in my region who is considered as an effective and good teacher in his professional environment. I expected to see a number of teaching strategies particularly for a writing lesson.
**Literature Review**

In this subsection, some literature related to effective teaching strategies is presented, especially for teaching writing.

**Approaches to teaching writing**

The approaches have different emphasizes or focus in the writing class. Three main approaches to writing are product, process, and genre (Badger & White, 2000). Product approach emphasizes on the result of the writing with accurate grammar and lexical items in which the teachers help the students focus on language. The process approach is focusing the learners on going through the series of the writing process to create their final work through planning, drafting, editing, and revising in a recursive way indeed. Genre approach is about helping learners to get familiar with the different kinds of text and imitate the structure of the text to start writing. Of course, it is evident and clear that the writing is a process (Sokolik, 2003). Arguably, Badger & White (2000) demonstrate that even if the students go through the writing process without familiarizing themselves with text that they will be working on, it would be a difficult process to reach their objective to be the capable writer. Then they propose an approach called process-genre approach which in practice combines both process and genre approach concepts. This approach is gaining ground even until nowadays for certain teaching contexts. Building up with the three broader approaches of writing, Hyland (2003) examine writing approach in much more detail that L2 writing teaching can focus on language structures, text functions, themes or topics, creative expression, composing process, content, genre and contexts of writing.

In relation to teaching approaches, Farr (2010) notes down some teaching tips and suggestions that can be implemented in the writing classroom. In the modeling writing method in which the teachers will create, write and think aloud the text being learned at that moment, he suggests thinking aloud regularly in order the students notice what the teachers are thinking while writing. This way also enables the teachers to spell out what strategy they use while writing. Besides, the teachers can use expressive language to introduce the students to the language utilized in the text. The next method is shared writing in which the students and teacher work together to create a piece of writing, but the teacher will write it down. In this case, although the teachers and students cooperate, the teachers are not expected to be dominant for the students. Contributing ideas is good, but the students should be given the opportunity also to generate the ideas. The teachers also need to show the students how they change what they are thinking to be the written language. There is an interactive writing method which enables the teacher and students cooperate to create and write the paragraphs.
together. Farr recommends the teacher to have two-way conversations in making sentences and paragraphs, ask students to write more and demonstrate the writing in a way that students can read and understand them all.

Another method is guided writing as also mentioned by Hyland & Richard (2003) where the students create their own writing under teachers’ close monitor and guidance. In this approach, the teachers are suggested to employ collaborative writing in a small group of students, actively assess the students’ writing and lead to the skill improvement, and investigate their thinking about what they have been through. Last but not least is the independent writing method in which the students create and write independently, and the teacher will monitor their progress. In this case, the teachers should intervene when necessary and be available when needed especially in revision and editing process.

**Teaching strategy**

A strategy is simply a way to accomplish certain tasks. It is a goal-directed and conscious process which is used of course to enhance its user’s performance on the given tasks. Coyne, Kame’enui, and Carnine (2007) illustrate that people who intend to accomplish any task will apply certain strategies to address the tasks better. Building up with this idea, I believe it is necessary to deﬁnethe concept of teaching strategy in this context. Since long time ago, the idea of teaching strategy has been considerably discussed by many experts. David (1976) points out that teaching strategy refers to a plan, method, or series of activities used to reach particular goals in the classroom. The program or method must facilitate the improvement of students’ performance on particular tasks to attend the learning goals (Sanjaya, 2006). In line with that, Kemp (1995) as cited in Sanjaya, 2006) afﬁrms that teaching strategy is a series of way employed by the teachers to make the learning process take place meaningfully for the students. In other words, the teaching strategy is a way to help the teachers to teach better to improve the students’ performance to meet the learning objectives been set out in the classroom.

In relation to the effective teaching, Oliva (cited in Siyakwaxi & Siyakwazi, 1999) contends that an outstanding effective teacher should be able to proof that he/she is capable and skillful in teaching and use his/her skills and teaching strategies as required according to students’ needs and learning objectives. Tsui (2003) introduces three things to assess the effective language teachers; how the teachers can relate their knowledge of teaching to their act of teaching, how they adjust act and knowledge of teaching to speciﬁc context; and how they can learn from their teaching experiences and be able to generate teaching theory based on their experience. I can assume that if the teachers have known that applying certain
teaching strategies can facilitate the students’ learning performance, and they employ certain strategies based on the students’ needs and learning objectives, they more likely can be effective teachers.

**Effective teaching strategies in writing class**

A vast number of studies and research about teaching strategies to improve students’ writing performance is widely available (Hyland & Richard, 2003; Cole & Feng, 2015; Webb, 2015; Seifoori, 2012; Monaghan, 2007). Seifoori (2012) reveals several features of an effective writing teacher based on his study. He mentions that an effective writing teacher should have knowledge about recent teaching strategies and approaches to writing to help their learners to be strategic writers and also use various ways to encourage and improve students’ writing skill. Besides, the teachers should have enough time to plan what they are going to teach in the classroom and let the students be involved in the different process of writing. In this respect, teachers’ planning and students’ involvement are essential in a writing class. An effective teacher should let the students go through different writing process; planning, drafting, editing, revising, publishing if possible (Graham, 2008; Dixon, Isaacson, Stein, 2007) and carefully plan how to encourage the students to do that. Some of the teachers might ask the students to complete writing process charts so that they can know the writing process (Caswell & Mahler, 2004). Others teachers might ask the learners to plan, send the draft to the teacher by e-mail, edit and revise after getting feedback, and send to the teacher again to get other comments (Seifoori, 2012). These strategies will help the learners understand writing process.

Additionally, the teachers should provide different models of writing texts so that the students can recognize different forms of writing texts. Modeling texts before asking the students to write can be done in many ways depending on the teachers who know the students’ learning situation. For example, the teachers can ask the students to read a different genre of texts with different purposes (Graham, 2008) or can explicitly teach the students during lectures. Modeling texts can inform the students about text structure that they are going to work on which of course is one of the essential components in writing (Dixon, Isaacson, Stein, 2007). The students can write more effectively by going through the writing process and also learn many different types of texts along with the structures (Graham & Harris, 1989).

Furthermore, since writing process demands a certain amount of time which is not enough in one or two meetings in the classroom, Hyland (2003) mentions about teacher and student conferencing apart from learning process inside the class. He said that the conference could be in the form of various ways but typically one-to-one meeting outside the classroom...
for several minutes every week or month depending on their agreement. The teacher alternatively can design writing workshop in the classroom where the students freely consult their works to teacher or peers. The main idea of the conference is it provides opportunity between teacher and the students to discuss or review the lesson; the students can clarify the feedback they got or merely ask for unclear explanation more details (Hyland, 2000). However, Hyland (2003) argue that conference can be less beneficial for some students who area lack of experiences of interactive skills in which they will not be able to utilize the opportunity to explore their writing problems. Goldstein & Conrad (1990) moreover point out about cultural inhibitions in which some students might feel inferior over the teacher which makes them passive and silent during the conference. Other constraints of the conference are it needs a considerable amount of time from the teacher which some teachers find it is too demanding (Hyland & Richard, 2003) and it might not facilitate the students’ expectation; some students expect their teacher to proofread their works in every conference they attend. Nonetheless, Katz (1996) reports that conference can be an opportunity to build a personal relationship between teacher and students as the basis for helping the students to write better. The teacher might know her/his students’ personal life, their weakness and strength, and so on which will likely make them closer. Her research is based on one of the writing teachers who believe in the essential role of personal contact between teacher and students which can be done during the one-to-one conference. I then assume that the students who might be less benefited from the conference because of their less interactive skills can be solved if the good relationship between teacher and students is built up. One way to do that is during the conference. Furthermore, Webb (2010) reveals that conference is, as a matter of fact, the most favorable strategy amongst others based on students’ point of view.

Another frequent strategy in writing class is sharing activity (Caswell & Mahler, 2004; Scrivener, 2011; Burton, 2009b). Scrivener (2011) points out that it is important to give the students time to look back over what they have written. Allowing them to share what they have written to others enables them to look over their works again. It is also a way to ensure whether they can successfully convey what they have written to the audience. Additionally, sharing activity might make them be reflective writers. It helps them to think what and why they write, whether their writing makes sense to others (Burton, 2009a). Besides, sharing to other peers or whole class about what they have written might enable them to practice their communication skills which might make them actively engaged in the lesson. Katz (1996) mentions that active participation in writing class should be encouraged.
Methodology

Instruments
The main aims of this project are to note down the teaching strategies in a writing class, understand the reason for using particular strategies, and decide which one the effective strategies in teaching writing based on teacher/lecturer and students’ perspective. To meet these aims, I used classroom observation and interview as the instruments for data collection.

Participants
The lecturer participated in this small scale research completed his Master of Art (MA) in TESOL and Foreign Language Teaching in University of Canberra, Australia. Since 2000 he has been actively participating in numerous conferences and workshops related to English teaching. He also has many publications in this field. I actually chose him as sample of my study because he is popular among his colleagues, his students, and other professionals in this field because of his achievement in teaching.

Findings and Discussion

Results and Data Analysis

Teaching Stages
The brief description of the writing teaching process in the sample class can be seen below:
**Teaching Strategies**

Building up from the teaching process, I will provide the brief description of strategies used in the classroom.

**Stage 1**

(Extract 1)

According to the extract from the class observation above, the lecturer seems to employ a number of teaching strategies to begin the class which I called first stage of teaching process. First, the lecturer introduces the lesson plan for the meeting which is important to do (Harmer, 2007; Katz, 1996; Seifoori (2012). Providing description of the whole class activities will cause the students to predict and even prepare what they will be doing. Second, the lecturer asks students to talk about their personal story to promote their speaking skill and confidence. Based on the interview with the lecturer, he said that he has own reason to do this strategy. He believes that learning can take place if the students feel comfortable with the class.

(Extract 2)

Based on the classroom observation, the lecturer asked the students to sing a song after they finished telling stories. When I asked the students about these two activities; singing and telling stories, their answer is: (I=interviewer/researcher and S=student)

The lecturer did the two activities to make the class is more interesting and fun. The students seem to prefer enjoyable and relaxed atmosphere. The students and lecturer seem to have the same perception about the activities which is good to build a good relationship with them.

**Stage 2**

(Extract 3)

The extract 3 indicates that the lecturer uses sharing activity to help the students to review, understand, and convey what they have written to the peers (Caswell & Mahler, 2004; Scrivener, 2011). According to the lecturer, he has three reasons to do sharing activity; the students can retain what they have written, practice their vocabulary and speaking skill, and listen to other peer’s ideas. He also repeatedly says not to be worried to combine their talks with Indonesian. I assume that is because the primary objective of this activity is to convey their ideas successfully to others. Another strategy can be drawn from above extract is the use of pair work. Using group or pair work as the extra activity in teaching writing can be good to make the students listen to other ideas (Seifoori, 2012).
The idea of monitoring in the extract 4 shows the other strategy that the lecturer used to manage the classroom. Besides, going around helping the students with their difficulty is in line with the idea of scaffolding which is crucial for the poor English proficient learners (Coyne, Kame’enui, & Carnine, 2007).

The extract 5 indicates another teaching strategy which is asking his students to criticize their writing. This activity was guided by some checklists of pro and cons essay structures. The teacher started to ask the students think and discuss their weakness in pairs and after that, he asked some students to tell their weakness in the whole class. The lecturer admits that this strategy is important because if the students want to be strategic writers, they have to be able to spot their weakness and strength. However, when I asked the students about this strategy, some of them admitted that criticizing their draft is the most difficult one in the writing process.

Based on the extract 6, the lecturer seems to use different forms of feedback in the classroom. In general, he provided positive and negative feedback. He mentioned which part he likes and which part that is needed to revise as well as the reasons. When I interviewed him, he said that it is important to let the students know the reasons of incorrect and correct parts in their writing so that they can learn. Additionally, he seemed to insert metalinguistic comment on the student’ draft. He also used direct and indirect feedback.

Based on the extract between interviewer (I) and lecturer (L) above, the important idea here is the lecturer seems to have knowledge about different kinds of feedback. He is aware of the importance of providing feedback to the students. He tried to meet the students’ expectation by trying all types of feedback he knows.

Stage 3

This stage 3 of teaching process, the lecturer (L) used the same strategy as in stage 1 in which he ended the class by asking the students to provide feedback about what they have learned or personal stories as they wish. He admitted during an interview that asking the students to speak up can increase their confidence and can make them enjoy the learning process. He believes that once the students enjoy the class, the learning process can occur effectively.
Effective Teaching Strategies in Writing Class

The following teaching strategies are what I have observed and found to be significant and kind of interesting during the sample writing class I analyzed.

1. One-to-one consultation

The lecturer that I have observed seems to realize this kind of conference can help the students more than activity in the classroom. Based on the interview, he said that the aims of consultation during his office hours are to provide extra time for students to ask anything related to the lesson or could be personal concerns, build good relationship with the students so that they feel comfortable which in turn become more confident with their writing, emphasize the concept of writing discourse like thesis statement, coherence and cohesion, provide frequent feedback on students’ essay and also know the students’ needs. The idea of being available when the students need him is in line with what Harmer (2007) affirms in his thought about role of teachers; tutor and resource. Providing extra time outside the classroom not only helps the students to learn about writing but also can create a good relationship between lecturer and students (Katz, 1996). This lecture is quite similar to what Katz (1996) mention on her research; Sara, one of the teachers she observed who emphasize the personal contact which can build a good relationship between teacher and students so that her students will enjoy learning and not feel under pressure.

2. Frequent feedback with different forms

The lecture mentioned that he prefers to provide frequent feedback on the students’ draft, rather than just give one or two feedback till the final draft submitted. He emphasizes the term ‘frequent feedback’ which means that the lecturer tries his best to provide a lot of feedback at different times even if the students have a lot of drafts for one given topic.

3. Sharing activity

As writing is a communication skill, the lecturer gave an opportunity for the students to share what they have written to see whether their peers can understand what they shared.

4. The idea of ‘Love’

Although this last strategy is not directly related to writing, I found it is kind of interesting to mention because it is a kind of new to my context. The lecturer seems to have the desire to build a good and close relationship with the students to make them comfortable. His teaching style is quite similar to Sara; one of the teachers according to Katz (1996) is a teacher who prefers personal contact to be close to her students.
Discussion

There are three research questions proposed in this extended project. The first is “does the teacher/lecturer use teaching strategies in the classroom?” The second is “are there any effective teaching strategies he used to promote students’ writing skills?” The last is “what is the reason for using certain strategies in teaching writing?”

He considerably used some teaching strategies in general and specifically for writing class. Based on the findings, the lecturer seems to have knowledge about different strategies in teaching in a writing class and know what he is doing in the classroom. He knows what kind of teaching strategies he chose to improve students’ performance better in a writing class. Some of his strategies are the use of sharing activity in which the students tell their personal stories to the whole class and tell what they have written on their draft to other peers, the use of certain structure checklists of the essay to make the students criticize their writing and aware of their weaknesses and strengths in writing, the use of different forms of feedback; written and oral feedback on the students’ draft, and personal one-to-one consultation outside the classroom in which the students have to come to his office to consult their writing products. The basic idea of his strategy is that he wants to build up a good relationship with his students. Once the students feel comfortable with their lecturer/teacher, learning can take place more effectively.

Additionally, what I found interesting and significant about teaching strategy of this sample classroom is that the lecturer used the idea of consultation, frequent feedback, and love as the basic of his strategies to teaching writing. Apparently, these strategies rarely happen in Indonesian context, especially in my hometown. Learning process often takes place only in the classroom without any consultation session outside the classroom. The fact that this lecturer provides one-to-one consultation is entirely surprising. I found this is one of effective teaching strategies to improve students’ writing performance because the students also find it is useful for their writing based on the interview result. Besides, providing feedback on students’ drafts is quite common in my context. However, providing frequent feedback on one essay is barely happened. The lecturers believe that providing assistance during the students’ writing process is important to help them perform better. Furthermore, the idea of love as the basic of his approach is also new teaching feature to me. The lecturer believes that once the teachers love their students and vice versa, they will help each other. In this case, the teachers will try their best to make the students perform better by looking certain strategies that suit the needs of the students, while the students will pay attention to the teachers’ efforts.
Conclusion

This small-scale research might not provide enough evidence about how effective the teaching strategies used in a sample of writing class. However, it provides a description of several strategies which are also favorable for the students. This research can provide more guaranteed result about the effectiveness of certain strategies if it is supported by the analysis of students’ writing. Importantly, I can say that the lecturer as the sample of this research is one of the examples of an effective teacher. He knows what he is doing in the classroom, has reasons for every strategy he used, and also shows that he has knowledge about different teaching strategies to improve students’ writing performance.

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Title

“Happiness” in Bahasa Indonesia and its Implication to Health and Community well-being

Author

Diyan Ermawan Effendi¹

National Institute of Health Research and Development, Ministry of Health of the Republic of Indonesia; Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education.

Muchammadun²

Department of Islamic Community Development, Faculty of Dakwah and Communication, Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies (IAIN Mataram).

Bio-Profiles:

Diyan Ermawan Effendi is a researcher at the National Institute of Health Research and Development (NIHRD), Ministry of Health of Indonesia. His research interests includes health literacy, and health communication seen from the applied linguistics perspectives. He has master degree in Applied Linguistics from the Australian National University. He can be reached at u5862800@anu.edu.au

Muchammadun is a lecturer at Department of Islamic Community Development, Faculty of Dakwah and Communication, Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies (IAIN Mataram). His research interests include Intercultural communication and education, Social Work Practice and Methods. He has master degree in Applied Linguistics from the Australian National University. He can be reached at u5628654@anu.edu.au.

¹ Jl. Indrapura No. 17 Surabaya, Jawa Timur, Indonesia.
² Jl. Pendidikan No. 35, Mataram, NTB, Indonesia.
Abstract

This paper examines the meaning of three Indonesian emotion words, bahagia, senang, and gembira that come from happiness discourse. “Happiness” has become an important aspect in nation’s well-being as well as the people’s health and longevity. The problem arises when these three ‘happiness’ words are used interchangeably without any clear cut in meaning. The Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) approach was applied in this study due to its universality and capacity to solve the definition circularity. The data were taken from the Leipzig University Indonesian corpora. Additionally, some definitions from Indonesian monolingual as well as English-Indonesian and Indonesian-English bilingual dictionaries were taken into consideration to illustrate the problems. As the result, this paper defines bahagia, senang, and gembira as personal emotions from the discourse of “happiness” that occurs in different duration of time. The difference occurs also in the ‘otherness’ characteristics of each emotion. The native Indonesian experience on these emotions was described in the NSM explication. Finally, the paper suggests studies on emotions and happiness to promote community well-being and health as an immerging research domain for applied linguists.

Keywords: Happiness, bahagia, senang, gembira, emotion, Natural Semantic Metalanguage, well-being, health

Introduction

Emotions become an important element in semantic and cross-cultural communication studies since the way they are expressed differs cross-culturally. One of the earliest statement in regards to the study of emotions is offered by William James in 1890. James (1890) states that the analysis of words referring to emotions will likely result in no single coherent outcome. The following is the direct extraction from William James:

“If one should seek to name each particular one of [the emotions] of which the human heart is the seat, it is plain that the limit to their number would lie in the introspective vocabulary of the seeker, each race of men having found names for some shade of feeling which other races have left undiscriminated. If we should seek to break the emotions, thus enumerated, into groups, according to their affinities, it is again plain that all sorts of groupings would be possible, according as we chose this character or that as a basis, and that all groupings would be equally real and true” (James, 1890, p. 485).
From the quotation above, it is obvious that meaning of emotions is so much depending on the cultural value of the community from which the emotions derived. According to Hochschild (2003), the members of a community share the same emotional expressions and experiences. However, interpreter from other language and culture will sometimes have no direct equivalencies for the emotions being interpreted in his own language and culture. Wierzbicka (1999) argues that people conceptualise emotions into each of their languages differently. Thus, people from different culture or speech community have to be very careful in interpreting emotion words which are not traditionally belonged to their language and culture. The relation between emotions and culture is also pointed out by Johnson-laird and Oatley. Johnson-Laird and Oatley (1989) argue that emotions are culturally variable.

Another conception of emotions that worth to pay attention to is proposed by Nico H. Frijda. Frijda (1970) states that emotion is a set of sequences. It includes a stimulating condition, a cognitive evaluation, psychological activation, a transformation of action readiness, and finalised with a physical action. This paper focuses on emotion terms of “happiness” in Bahasa Indonesia. The word “happiness” is written in a double-inverted comma to accommodate the culturally varied meaning of “happiness” across culture.

**Literature review**

*The importance of “happiness”*

According to Ye (2014), happiness study has become a ‘new science’ because of its importance to the nation’s growth. Further, she explains that “happiness” has become an interdisciplinary study. It does not exclusively belong to the discipline of philosophy, theology, and psychology. The discipline of linguistics has immerged in the study of “happiness”, especially in relation to its translation cross-culturally. The other importance of “happiness” that needs to be pointed out is its effect on people’s health and community well-being. According to Veenhoven (2008), happiness does not have a direct correlation with the cure to illness. However, he asserts the importance of happiness to prevent people from illness. In other words, happiness will not give a direct impact for ill people, but it does give an impact for healthy people to prevent them from getting ill. Moreover, Veenhoven stresses the significance of being happy with the well-being. The other study conducted by Diener and Chan (2011) suggests that the presence of positive emotions and the absence of its negative counterpart will lead to health and longevity. The importance of being happy even comparable to the choice to quit smoking (Veenhoven, 2008). Communities are made up of
humans and they have highly developed emotions. Hence, understanding one community’s concept of “happiness” is likely to contribute to the success of community development and health promotion programme. This paper is devoted to reveal Indonesian’s concept of “happiness”.

**Indonesian happiness discourses; bahagia, senang, and gembira**

*Bahagia, senang, and gembira* are three semantically related words from the domain of emotion in Bahasa Indonesia. They are typically used in the ‘happiness’ discourses. Their interrelated meaning sometimes becomes problematic since they are often used interchangeably without any clear cut in terms of meaning. Even for the native speaker of Bahasa Indonesia, defining the difference among those three words can be challenging. This problem will get worsen when people from different cultural background other than Indonesian try to seek the meaning of *bahagia, senang, and gembira* because they don’t share the same emotional experience as the Indonesian native speaker. The dictionary that is expected to illuminate the meaning seems to be unable to offer the solution. The meaning that is defined by the dictionary often traps the learner into circularity. The word *bahagia* is often defined with the word *senang*. The word *senang* is defined with the word *gembira*. Whilst, *gembira* is defined with the words *bahagia* and *senang*. As an illustration, the following is the definition of the above emotion words according to the online version of *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*, which is the official monolingual Indonesian dictionary.

Table 1. Definition of *bahagia, senang, and gembira* from the online version of *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (the dictionary of Bahasa Indonesia) (KBBI, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bahagia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Senang</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gembira</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Beside the definition from the Indonesian monolingual dictionary, the definition from the bilingual dictionary is worth to examine.
Table 2. Definition of *bahagia*, *senang*, and *gembira* from an online version of bilingual Indonesian-English dictionary (Indonesia, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bahagia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) happy. (2) lucky. (3) glad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Senang</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) appreciative. (2) happy. (3) nice. (4) glad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gembira</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) glad. (2) happy. (3) delighted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Definition of happy from English-Indonesian bilingual dictionary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Happy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) <em>bahagia</em>, (2) <em>senang</em>, (3) <em>gembira</em> (Echols &amp; Shadily, 1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) <em>bahagia</em>, (2) <em>senang</em>, (3) <em>gembira</em> (Hornby, Siswojo, &amp; Parnwell, 1984)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the given examples above, circularity obviously occurs in the definition of monolingual dictionary. While, in the bilingual Indonesian-English dictionary, ‘happy’ consistently occurs in the definition of *bahagia*, *senang*, and *gembira*. Additionally, in the English-Indonesian dictionary, *bahagia*, *senang*, and *gembira* are used interchangeably to define the English word ‘happy’. The interchangeably use of the three Indonesian words *bahagia*, *senang* and *gembira* to describe the meaning of English word ‘happy’ will lead the cultural outsiders into confusion. Even though they are from the same discourse “happiness”, *bahagia*, *senang*, and *gembira* have slightly different meaning that could be differentiated by experiencing the emotions.

Focusing on the circularity problem, according to Arnault in Wierzbicka (1996), “In defining, we employ a definition to express the idea which we want to join to the defined word; if we then wanted to define 'the definition', still other words would be needed—and so on to infinity.” Therefore, it is important to stop at some primitive words which are not defined. These primitive words are referred to as Semantic Primes by Anna Wierzbicka under her theory of Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM). Wierzbicka develops NSM as the ideal tool to overcome the definition circularity by providing a better understanding of the culture of the defined language. This cultural-related understanding could be achieved since semantics primes are primitive concepts that accepted universally (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2013). In other words, semantic primes are not restricted by the cultural boundaries. The
The universality of semantic primes enables the learners to closely experience the emotions from different culture through the NSM explication. This phenomenon is referred to as “experience-near concept” (Ye, 2014). Hence, this study adopted the NSM theory to describe the meanings of the three Indonesian emotion words named above.

Moreover, even though bahagia, senang, and gembira are interrelated in meaning, they can still be differed by examining the incompatibility that occurs when one word is substituted for the others within the same sentence. The following instance describes this incompatibility phenomenon. Whenever translation occurs, the emotion words will not be translated to retain their distinctive meaning and thus avoid confusion.

(1) setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup bahagia untuk selama-lamanya.
(2) ??setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup senang untuk selama-lamanya.
(3) ??setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup gembira untuk selama-lamanya.

The above examples show the incompatibility when senang and gembira used to substitute bahagia. The literal meaning of sentence (1) in English is ‘After marriage, the couple live bahagia ever after.’ When bahagia is replaced with senang, and gembira, as shown in the sentence (2) and (3), it results to peculiar expressions in Bahasa Indonesia.

Despite the emerging emotion studies, the Indonesian “happiness” studies are still largely lacking. The previous study in regards to emotions in Bahasa Indonesia was conducted by Widhiarso and Prawitasari (2010). However, their study was not aimed to define the meaning differences of the emotion words and thus unable to explain the meaning differences of emotions in Bahasa Indonesia. Another study was done by Murtisari (2013), Some Traditional Javanese Values in NSM: From God to Social Interaction that mainly talking about the Javanese emotions. Her study was not related to happiness, but rather on the Javanese notions related to the devotion to God.

**Methodology**

Having seen the problems and the importance of emotions and happiness above, this study adopted NSM to define the difference of meanings for the three Indonesian emotion words bahagia, senang, and gembira. The ‘near-experience concept’ is applied to provide the learner with the nearest experience to the emotions of ‘happiness’ in Indonesian culture. As stated previously, the universality of semantic primes is an idyllic solution in providing the outsider with the experience of the defined emotions. The data were taken from the Leipzig University Indonesian corpora. The examples were carefully chosen to ensure their representativeness to the native Indonesian perspectives. As Ye (2014) points out, the most
fundamental aspect in the studies of emotions and value concepts is the understanding of the local perspective.

Findings and discussion

The statistical data from the Indonesian corpora of Leipzig University

Leipzig University (LU) Indonesian corpus is compiled since 2013 and available online. In 2016 the tokens have reached 1,206,281,985. The findings are presented in the following table, which includes the Indonesian emotion words from ‘happiness’ discourse bahagia, senang, and gembira.

Table 3. Frequency data based on Indonesian corpora by Leipzig University (Corpora, 2013a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bahagia</td>
<td>73,735</td>
<td>2,175</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senang</td>
<td>6,486</td>
<td>14,524</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gembira</td>
<td>44,783</td>
<td>3,302</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above frequency data shows that bahagia is the word that most frequently used in Indonesian discourses. The second most frequent word is gembira, and senang is the less frequent.

Bahagia in Bahasa Indonesia

To illuminate the use of emotion word bahagia in Bahasa Indonesia, several examples were drawn for the corpora mentioned above. Each of the examples was provided with a free English translation.

1. Pak Hari merasa bahagia melihat putranya diwisuda.
   Mr. Hari feels bahagia to see his son graduates.

2. Ini hari bermakna bagi saya, dan saya pribadi merasa bahagia, begitu pula dengan keluarga.
   This is a meaningful day, I personally feel bahagia, and my family too.

3. Para ahli sepakat bahwa pernikahan yang bahagia bisa saling meringankan beban.
   The experts agree that bahagia marriage can alleviate each other’s burden.

Source: LU Indonesian corpora collection (Corpora, 2013b)
In the examples above, it is obvious that *bahagia* is an emotion that arises as the result of the occurrence of good events/things in the experiencer’s life. *Bahagia* is a prolonged personal emotion. *Bahagia* is also an emotion that involves caring for others. The others here are the people who have a close relationship with the experiencer, such as son, daughter, wife, husband, parents or other family members. Hence, bahagia can be explicated as follows.

**NSM explication of bahagia**

a. Someone X feels *bahagia* for some time  
   This someone (X) feels something good for some time  
   Because this someone (X) thinks like this at this time:

b. “many good things are happening to me now  
   I can do many things now as I want  
   this is something good  
   at the same time, I know that I want someone to feel this something

c. this someone is like this:  
   I know this someone  
   I know that I can be with this someone at many times  
   I feel something good when I think about this someone  
   this someone thinks something good towards me  
   I want to do good things for this someone

d. Because of this, this someone (X) feels something good for some time  
   like people can feel at many times when they think like this

The component (a) and (d) in the above explication are the NSM standard frame for emotion concepts named the prototypical cognitive scenario. Component (a) depicts that *bahagia* is a prolonged emotion that is shown in the phrase ‘for some time’. Further, component (a) attempts to seize that the notion of *bahagia* is related to personal feeling. However, *bahagia* is not a selfish notion. It encompasses also the caring for others. The experiencer will feel *bahagia* (happy) when something good happens to someone else’s life. The caring for others is explicated in component (b) and (c). Additionally, component (c) describes the relation between the experiencer and someone that he/she cares. For instance, this someone is one who has a close relation to the experiencer (i.e. son, daughter, wife, husband, etc.) and shares a prolonged life experience together such as marriage. Finally,
component (e) shows the result for the experiencer: Something very good is happening to someone, I want this good things to happen to this someone and I feel something very good because of this.

**Senang in Bahasa Indonesia**

The following examples are provided to elucidate the use of emotion word *senang* in Bahasa Indonesia.

1. *Saya senang melihat anakmu medapatkan pekerjaan.*
   
   I am *senang* to see your son/daughter gets a job.

2. *Bu Risma senang melihat warga Surabaya menikmati taman kota.*
   
   Madam Risma is *senang* to see the Surabaya people enjoy the city park.

3. *Setelah dua minggu, saya senang melaporkan bahwa kedua keluarga itu telah dipersatukan kembali.*
   
   After two weeks, I am *senang* to report the family was reunited.

Source: LU Indonesian corpora collection (Corpora, 2013c).

The examples on the use of *senang* from the LU Indonesian corpora above illustrates that *senang* is an explicit emotion in which the experiencer wants other people to notice his feeling. However, unlike *bahagia* that has a certain criterion for the people to whom the experiencer wants to share the feeling with, *senang* can be shared with anyone. The experiencer thinks that it will be good for people to know his/her feeling. Additionally, *senang* is also a prolonged emotion, although the duration is not as long as *bahagia*. Hence, *senang* can be explicated as follows.

**NSM explication of senang**

a. Someone X feels *senang* for some time at this time

   This someone (X) feels something good for some time at this time

   Because this someone (X) thinks like this at this time:

b. “something good is happening to some people now

   I want this

   I want people to know this

   I think it’s good for people to know this”

c. Because of this, this someone (X) feels something good for some time at this time

   like people can feel at many times when they think like this
The above explication contains the prototypical cognitive scenario in components (a) and (c). Unlike bahagia, senang is more explicit feeling. The explicitness is marked with the intension of the experiencer to show the feeling to others. This explicit characteristic is explicated in component (b) ‘I want people to know this’. Further, the phrase ‘I think it’s good for people to know this’ is the depiction of the experiencer’s thought. He/she thinks that by sharing this feeling will bring ‘happiness’ also to the people around him/her. The people who the experiencer wants to share the feeling with could be anyone. There is no specific relational criterion to share the feeling. Moreover, Senang is a feeling that occurs as a result of a present phenomenon ‘something good is happening to me now’. It is a temporal feeling that happens in a certain duration of time at the present moment ‘for some time at this time’. This is frequently signed by a smile on the face or a bodily gesture like coming closer to the person whom the joy is shared. Component (c) is the resulting component for the experiencer ‘feels something good’ and followed by typicality.

Gembira in Bahasa Indonesia

The final emotion word in Bahasa Indonesia that will be explicated is gembira. The below instances is devoted to describe the use of gembira.

1. Para wisudawan begitu gembira. Mereka meleparkan topinya ke udara sebagai tanda kelulusan.

   The graduates are so gembira. They throw their hats as a sign of graduation.

2. Para fans Real Madrid bernyanyi gembira merayakan gol Ronaldo.

   Real Madrid fans sing gembira celebrating Ronaldo’s goal.


   Sabari that is so gembira run as fast as lightning to the harbour to pick up his son, Zoro.

   From the examples above, it can be seen that gembira is an intense emotion. The intension of gembira is greater than the two emotions discussed earlier. The intension is indicated by the involvement physical movements as a resulting action. This is in accordance with Frijda theory in emotion above. Moreover, unlike bahagia and senang that are prolonged emotions, gembira happens in a short term in a certain time at the present moment. Gembira is also an explicit feeling in which the experiencer has the objective to show his/her feeling to others. Hence, gembira can be explicated as follows.
NSM explication of gembira

a. Someone X feels gembira at this time
   This someone (X) feels something very good at this time
   Because this someone (X) thinks like this at this time:
   b. “something very good is happening to me now
      I want to do something because of this
      I want people to know this
      I want this”
   c. Because of this, this someone (X) feels something very good at this time
      like people can feel at many times when they think like this

Component (a) and (e) are the prototypical cognitive scenario for NSM emotions concept. Gembira is the most intense emotion compared to bahagia and senang that is revealed in component (b) ‘something very good’. This intense emotion is further described in the desire to do a physical action ‘I want to do something’. Moreover, like senang, gembira involves also the willingness to let others know the experiencer’s feeling that is explicated in the phrase ‘I want people to know this’. However, gembira does not include the phrase ‘I think it is good for people to know this’ as found in the explication of senang. Additionally, gembira is a short term emotion that is indicated by the time indicator phrase ‘at that time’. In component (c) the typicality ‘like people can feel at many times when they think like this’ is preceded by the resulting phrase ‘because of this, this someone (X) felt something good at that time’.

Conclusions

The study of “happiness”, as part of emotion studies, has become an interesting field that attracts the attention of many scholars. Emotions related to happiness has a significant impact on the well-being of a state. Happiness also has a direct correlation to longevity in which happy people tend to live longer. Happiness in Bahasa Indonesia often expressed with three words, bahagia, senang, and gembira. To be able to differentiate the difference of those three words is challenging. The outsider must know the local perspectives towards those three emotions. NSM is an ideal solution to provide the outsider the closest experience on those emotions. Bahagia is a prolonged emotion that involves caring for others. The others here are those who have a close relationship to the experiencer (i.e. children, spouse, or parents). Senang is a prolonged emotion, but not as elongated as bahagia. It happens in a certain
duration at the present moment. *Senang* is an explicit emotion in which the experiencer hopes other people to know his/her feeling. There is no specific relational criterion for the people to whom the experiencer wants to share the feeling with. The experiencer believes that it will be good for the others to know his/her feeling. *Gembira* is the most intense emotion compared to the two others. It requires physical action as the result of the feeling. The experiencer also wants people to know this feeling. Besides, *gembira* has the shortest duration compared to *bahagia*, and *senang*.

Happiness as discussed previously plays an important role in maintaining people’s health and make them live longer. This phenomenon is revealed through scientific studies. One of the studies that proposes the role of happiness in health and longevity was done by Veenhoven (2008). The other study conducted by Diener and Chan (2011). Both studied come to the same conclusion on the relation of happiness and healthier community. In the future, it is expected that happiness could be used by community developers, be it health extension workers, social workers, and educators, as means to promote health and well-being. However, the effort in promoting health and well-being through “happiness” requires more interdisciplinary research that includes the research on the meaning of “happiness” cross-culturally. This is, of course, the chance for the linguistics and applied linguistics researchers to contribute more in the field other than language teaching.

References


Title

Primary School English Teachers’ Perception towards their own English Language Knowledge and Skills: Using Self-Evaluation to Identify the Level of Importance and Competence

Author

Endang Asriyanti Amin Sikki

LPMP South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Endang Asriyanti Amin Sikki is involved in language teaching education. She is now working in Institution of Educational Quality Assurance South Sulawesi. Her research interests include English for young learners. He can be reached at endangasrianti@gmail.com.

Abstract

This paper highlights the findings of a study which was undertaken at primary schools in Indonesia. The aim of the study was to explore the perception of primary school teachers of English on English language knowledge and skills. A self-evaluation questionnaire was administered to 200 teachers to obtain the data of the level of importance and the level of competence of their English language knowledge and skills. The result shows that the teachers perceived that the English language knowledge and skills are important, yet they rated themselves to have low level of English knowledge and skills. This implies that the improvement of their subject matter competencies is of priority need of the primary school teachers of English.

Keywords: self-evaluation, pedagogical competency, primary school English teachers
Introduction

Teachers must have academic qualification and competency as a learning agent and have the competency to implement the aim of national education. The competencies covered pedagogic, professional, personality and social competency.

The national standard of education is a reference of education development in the quality assurance framework. Indonesian government number 19 (2005) states that the national standard of education functions as a basic of planning, doing, and the education program in the achievement of the educational quality. One of the standards is the standard of teachers’ competency.

Teachers must have academic qualification and competency as a learning agent and have the competency to implement the aim of national education. Teacher can identify and even control their lacks, their strengths, and their needs if they evaluate themselves regularly. Their involvement in evaluating themselves will enable them to honestly evaluate the competencies. Self-evaluation enables them to increase the commitment to improve the quality of their teaching.

Literature Review

Spencer and Spencer (1993) states that a competency is an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation. Houston (1972) writes that competence ordinarily is defined as ‘adequacy for a task’ or as ‘possession of required knowledge, skills, and abilities’.

Based on the rule of the Ministry of National Education Number 16 (2007), four competencies must be owned by teacher: pedagogic, personal, social and professional competence.

Richards (2010) describes ten core dimensions of skills and expertise in language teaching. These are language proficiency, content knowledge, teaching skills, contextual knowledge, language teacher identity, learner focused teaching, specialized cognitive skills, theorizing from practice, joining a community of practice, and professionalism. In this research, language proficiency and classroom language are focused to measure teachers’ level of professional competence.
Methodology

The instruments were developed to be used in the survey to map and analyze the need and competency of the primary English teacher. The survey instrument was questionnaire for measuring teachers’ level of professional competence.

Findings and Discussion

In this research, Language proficiency covers eight sub components, they are comprehend the text accurately, provide language enrichment experiences for learners, give the vocabularies and grammatical structures by using accurate explanation, be good language model, monitor my speech and writing for accuracy, give explanation in English, introduce and explain the tasks in English, and use English in the classroom.

Table 1 shows the teachers’ rating of the importance and competence level toward the language proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>English Language Knowledge and Skill</th>
<th>Rating of Importance</th>
<th>Competence Rating of Competence</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Comprehend the texts accurately</td>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>2.940</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td>Level of competence: 3= competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Provide language-enrichment experiences for learners</td>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>2.900</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Give the vocabularies and grammatical structures by using accurate explanation</td>
<td>3.730</td>
<td>2.795</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Be good language model</td>
<td>3.585</td>
<td>2.675</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td>Level of importance: 3= important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Monitor my speech and writing for accuracy</td>
<td>3.550</td>
<td>2.670</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Give explanation in English</td>
<td>3.645</td>
<td>2.655</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.615</td>
<td>2.615</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>2.595</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduce and explain
the tasks in English
Use English in the
classroom

This self-rating shows that of the eight sub components in language proficiency, the teachers rated comprehend the text accurately and provide language enrichment experiences for learners highest in importance. Meanwhile, the teachers perceived be good language model and monitor speech and writing higher in importance than giving explanation in English and explaining the tasks in English. One of the English teachers’ roles is as a model of English. Teachers should provide young learners with good model.

The teachers perceive themselves to be incompetent in language proficiency. One of the most likely reasons is the lack of specialized training for primary school English teacher.

Using English in classroom is perceived to be important and teachers perceive themselves to be incompetent in this area. This sub component is the lowest level in the self-rating of competence. Use English in classroom is important for primary teacher of English to implement their learning program in classroom. Use English in classroom is useful for young learners because teacher can help the learners to understand, absorb and acquire the word by using instructions, commands and questions in English. Young learners will begin to speak when they are ready, and teacher can reinforce them by using English frequently in classroom.

In the component of classroom language, there are three sub components: understand the various strategies to communicate effectively and politely, maintain the use of English in the classroom, and give correct feedback in English.

The self-rating of importance and competence in the component of classroom language could be seen in table 2.
Table 2: The Self-Rating of Importance and Competence in Classroom Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>English Language Knowledge and Skill</th>
<th>Rating of Importance</th>
<th>Competence Rating of competence</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
<th>Level of</th>
<th>Level of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understand the various strategies to communicate effectively and politely</td>
<td>3.665</td>
<td>2.815</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td>Level of competence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Maintain the use of English in the classroom</td>
<td>3.545</td>
<td>2.595</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td>3=competent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Give correct feedback in English</td>
<td>3.600</td>
<td>2.580</td>
<td>Incompetent</td>
<td>Level of importance:</td>
<td>3=important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the teachers perceive themselves to be incompetent in the components of classroom language while these are considered to be most important for them.

Giving correct feedback in English is perceived to be important and teachers perceive themselves to be incompetent in this area. This sub component is the lowest level in the self-rating of competence. Giving correct feedback in English is useful to help young learners to learn and practice English.

This research result is similar with a study by the Japanese education ministry that primary school English teachers often little nervous about teaching English because they are self-conscious about their own skills and aware of their limitations. Hays (2009) found that only 20 percent of English teachers at public schools in 2010 taught their classes in English. 33 percent of the teachers said they use English about half the time and 41 percent said they use it less than half. Six percent said they hardly use any English.

The data are an indicator that the fulfillment of teachers’ English language knowledge and skill can be achieved when teachers receive professional training based on the teachers’ needs. It seems clear that teachers recognize the importance of English language knowledge and skill in learning English in primary school. However, the opportunities they have to develop their competence are limited or the training available does not support the achievement of these outcomes. This is supported by data that has been presented on page 3.
that only 21% teachers of 1415 teachers of English at primary schools in 10 clusters that have attended English training.

Conclusions

The analysis result shows that the level of professional competence of primary school English teachers is still low. All of the teachers perceive themselves are not competent in the components of professional competence such as language proficiency and classroom language. This analysis result also shows that teachers assess the components of professional competency are important.

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Title
The use of Self-Assessment for Teaching English for Young Learners

Author
Eni Prasetiyowati, Lailatus Sa’adah
Graduate Program, English Education Department
SebelasMaret University
eniprasetyo85@gmail.com, lyladadah15@gmail.com

Abstract
A brief phenomenon in teaching English assumes that score-oriented is the most important aspect of assessing the students’ achievement while other factors which are not less important such as how well the students understand the material and how their attitude or performance toward it should be also considered. Self-assessment is one of ways for assessing the students’ achievement which covered those factors. Therefore, this paper concerns on implementing self-assessment on Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL) owing to their special abilities and characteristics. The presenters discuss about the use of self-assessment for TEYL and its’ effectiveness and why it should be implemented by the EYLs’ teacher. The findings are expected to give new insight on how important of implementing self-assessment for teacher in TEYL.

Key words: Self-assessment, Teaching English, Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL)

Introduction
Lately, self-assessment has become an important part of teaching and learning foreign language. As cited by Kavaliauskien’e (2007: 152), it is an important part of alternative assessment since it is usually presented in the form of reflections on students’ performance. He defines it as the utilization of non-traditional approaches in judging students’ performance which may include self-assessment of performance in listening practice, written essay, oral presentation, or various contributions to either paper or
portfolios. The students’ reflection on their performance will be useful for them in order to be aware for self-directed learning which relates to about what they have learnt and what they want to learn in a further learning. Additionally, those reflections can be utilized by the students for knowing their progress of learning. Then, students are able to assess their ability by themselves about what their strengths and weaknesses and it can be helpful for the teacher for determining students’ mark based on the teachers view and students’ reflection. As a result self-assessment can encourage and motivate the students for learning for every level of education.

Self assessment becomes one of alternative assessment in English classes. It comes for substituting the assessment which is usually done traditionally through quizzes. According to Sukmiani (2015: 102), traditional assessment such as filling gaps and multiple choices were usually conducted in English classes of elementary school. Therefore, self-assessment is crucial thing which should be conducted for young learners as an effective for learning since it can promote learners’ self-regulatory learning. Additionally, McKay (2006) states that by the age of eleven, young learners have become sociable and started to spend time with their friend. They also have already definite view about the activity which is interesting to do. Thus, conducting self-assessment in prior age is important since it can play as an important role for achieving self-regulated learning which cannot be done in a short period.

In earlier research investigating socio-affective conducted by Oakland (1997) showed that the assessment of affective qualities becomes critical to a complete and accurate understanding of human behavior. It will help ensure information which provide reliable, valid, and complement information on other important personal qualities. Brown (2007: 274) states that socio-affective is one of type of self-assessment which comes in the form of method of examining affective factors which reflect reflects the world of feelings, values, appreciation, motivation, and attitudes factors much more difficult to understand and assess in learning.

Additionally, previous research conducted by Rimland (2013) showed that the students have a positive influence on assessing affective learning. They have a significant improvement in confidence levels of the teachers’ instruction. Since in the prior age, the young learners can sociable and determine the interesting activity in the learning process, self-assessment young learners’ socio-affective can be promoted. Moreover, Sukmiani (2015: 103) states that the investigating of self-assessment in English for young learners’ classroom is still limited. The self-assessment is also not popular yet conducted in the classroom. The
teachers seem more like to conduct formal assessment relate to traditional one such as quiz, mid test, or final test. For those conditions, this paper aims to explore the concept self-assessment of socio affective for young learners as well as how to implement it in English for young learners’ classroom.

**Literature Review**

**Teaching English for Young Learners**

The most phenomenal words about children is that they learn languages faster than adults do and be able to grasp new languages easily (Harmer, 2007; Brown, 2001). However, teaching foreign language to children is not easy as it seems. Children have a less complicated perspective about the world than adults, but this fact does not imply that teaching children is simple or straightforward (Cameron, 2001).

Children as a young language learner is define differently in term of age. Young language learners are those who are learning a foreign language whose age ranging from five to twelve (McKay, 2006; Cameron, 2001). In line with this, Philips, Burwood, and Dunford (1999) define young language learners as children of primary and early secondary school age, from five to fourteen. To be familiar with the definition of young language learners is a pivotal aspect for teacher in order to know their characteristics.

The characteristic of cognitive development between young learners and adults are present obviously (McKay, 2006). Young learners have a limited attention span, they get bored easily and simply distracted by other (McKay, 2006; Harmer, 2007). They also be able to understand what is being said to them even before they understand individual words (Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2007). In early age, young learners have already use their logical reasoning (Scott and Ytreberg, 2004). In adolescence, they are moving forward and being able to reason systematically and logic (McKay, 2006).

In addition, Scott and Ytreberg (2004) classify the characteristic of children as young learners based on age. Children ranging of five to seven are be able to talk what they are doing, tell what they have done or heard, plan activities, argue for something, and understand direct human interaction. Meanwhile, eight to ten years olds children have very decided views of the world, can tell the difference between fact and fiction, ask questions all the time, rely on the spoken word as well as the physical world to convey and understand meaning, able to make some decisions about their own learning, have definite views about what they like and don’t like doing, have a developed sense of fairness about what happens in the
classroom and begin to question the teacher’s decisions, and able to work with others and learn from others.

Young learners take information from everything around them rather than focus on specific topic that is being thought to them (Harmer, 2007). Thus makes them frequently learn indirectly rather than directly (Halliwell, 1992). By the age of eleven, young learners have become sociable (McKay, 2006), they started to spend time with their friend. They have already definite view about like and dislike and interest to do (McKay, 2006; Scott and Ytreberg, 2004).

In teaching English for young learners, it is very need to understand students’ characteristics in order to obtain a successful of teaching learning activity in the class. Furthermore, to discover its successfulness, it can be interpreted from the students’ outcome of learning. Here, assessment plays an important role as a tool to investigate the students’ progress in understanding what they have already learnt from teachers. McKay (2006) states that effective assessment gives students knowledge of their own progress, giving them feedback on what they have done well or perhaps misunderstood and from time to time providing some ‘creative tension’ to motivate them to study harder. Therefore, by obtaining the result of teachers’ assessment, students become more motivated to learn harder.

The Nature of Self-assessment

Students’ self-assessment is crucial assessment which should be implemented for English young learners since it can reflect their abilities. Jose & Azorin (1991: 93) define self-assessment as an internal or self-directed activity which is developed with several technique and materials such as progress cards and other record keeping devices, questionnaires, rating scales and check list. Additionally, Earl (2013: 211) states that self-assessment is used for formative purposes which are tied particularly for assessing of learning. She also said that self-assessment is the starting point for engaging life-long learning which is important as diverse data-driven 21st century environment.

It is widely believed that students should reflect what they have learnt as well as their abilities. This will benefit them to support their learning to get more information about the knowledge which had not been studied yet. That statement relates to Dorobat (2007: 83) who considers that self-assessment as an integral part of formative assessment which everyday classroom assessment is concerned with the learning. He also states that its aim is to produce students with the confidence and skill to reflect and evaluate independently of the teacher to become a reflective. He also says that self-assessment refers to a component of learner-
centered education or students autonomy which underpins the individualization of instruction, the development of pattern of self-directed learning and of the methodology of self-access, as well as implying some degrees of learner training.

Moreover, Earl (2013: 212) says that the practice of self-assessment can develop as a personal guide for learning, enabling, and supporting habits of reflection. It is about the students for seeing and reflecting them in order to monitor progress towards current goals, and seeking the feedback. She also argues that when self-assessment occurs in the learning process, the students are able to:

- develop insight into the purpose and progression of learning
- develop understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses
- develop insight into their own practice as learners
- judge quality outcomes and effective strategies
- take greater meaning from feedback
- be more conscious about how other’s view work, and
- be more conscious and objective about how their own work compares with others.

According to Andrade & Valtcheva (2009: 13), self-assessment has purposes for helping the students to achieve their goals. The students who set goals are able to make flexible plans to meet them, and monitor their progress tend to learn more and do better in school than students that do not do it. It can role as a core of self-regulation since it involves awareness of the goals of a task and checking one’s progress toward them. Then self-assessment is able to be as a valuable assessment since its roles are both directing the students for reflecting their abilities and their knowledge have learnt and supporting them to reach and make closer of their goals.

**Self-assessment for English for Young Learners**

How far language learners are be able to assess their own learning is one of the objective of self-assessment. Self-assessment is conducted to help learners in understanding the process of learning language and to promote independent learning (Cameron, 2001). In promoting independent learning, young learners are ready enough to be a part of it. Because by the age of five, they have already be able to talk what they are doing, tell what they have done or heard, argue for something, and tell about what they like or dislike (Scott and Ytreberg, 2004; McKay, 2006).
Despite being an independent learner, self-assessment also proposed young learners who learn to assess their own work move from being ‘other-regulated’ to being ‘self-regulated’ or autonomous learner (Cameron, 2001). In other-regulated learner, young learners are thought to be a dependable learners. Similarly, Cameron (2001) points out that the other-regulated language learner depends on the teacher to decide on activities, to control activities, and to evaluate how well the language has been learnt through the activities. Meanwhile, self-regulated or autonomous learner produces a responsible young learners who deal with their own learning from the very beginning of the teaching learning process until the end (Harmer, 2007).

According to Brown (2003), researchers agree that self-assessment offer certain benefits; direct involvement of students in their own destiny, the encouragement of autonomy, and increased motivation because of their self-involvement. Moreover, Sukmiarni (2015) states that self-assessment should be conducted among young learners in elementary school, because it develops students’ metacognitive awareness. A research in self-assessment on EFL learner is done by Beleghizadeh and Masoun (2013), they found that self-assessment improve learners’ efficacy. It is indicated that self-assessment offer several advantages for EFL learners in learning language, especially young learners.

Literally, the effect of assessment is unpredictable. The effect of assessment might give a positive or negative result to the young learners. Relate to this, Cameron (2001) states that it is commonly recognized that autonomous and self-regulated learners will be at advantage in continuing to learn and adjust throughout their lives as technology and information develop rapidly. Then, encouraging young learners to participate in self-assessment is good to be considered.

**Socio-affective Assessment**

There are 5 types of self-assessment as defined by Brown (2003:271). The first is direct assessment or assessment of a specific performance. Here, the evaluation takes place immediately after the performance and the students typically monitors him or her in oral or written production. The second is indirect assessment where the students completed the questioner at midterm followed up immediately the meeting between teachers and students for identifying weaknesses and set goals for the remainder of the term. The third is metacognitive assessment which the evaluation is not just viewing past performance or competence but also setting goals and maintaining an eye on the process of their pursuit. The forth is socio-affective assessment which requires the students through psychological lens.
Here, the students’ mental or emotional obstacle is involved to improve their motivation in order to overcome their barriers. Thus an all-important socio-affective domain is invoke. The fifth is student generated tests involved in the techniques of engaging students in the process of constructing test themselves which can be productive, intrinsically motivating, autonomy-building processes.

In this paper specifically proposed socio-affective assessment for self-assessment which test-takers must indicate preference for one statement over the one on the opposite side. Additionally, multiple intelligences are self-assessed on a scale of definite agreement (4) to definite disagreement (1) as defined by Brown (2003: 275) below:

![Self-assessment Scale](image)

Then, it can use individuals’ learning preferences which its information of value to both teacher and students for identifying preferred style.

![Learning Preferences](image)

Brown (2003: 277) also defines the activity of self-assessment by the taxonomy of self-assessment task considering a variety of tasks for each skill of English including listening tasks, speaking tasks, reading tasks, and writing tasks as follow:

1. **listening tasks**
   The students are listening TV or radio broadcast in a bilingual versions and then check their understanding by their partner. They also can listen an academic lecture and check their understanding on a quiz in order to create their opportunity for listening.

2. **Speaking Tasks**
   The students can fill out their self-checklists and questionnaires, rating their oral presentation, detecting pronunciation or grammar errors on a self-recording.
3. Reading Tasks
   The students can conduct self-assessment of reading habits. They also read passages with self-check comprehension questions following and take vocabulary quizzes.

4. Writing Tasks
   The students revise written work with a peer and proofreading.

   That socio-affective of self-assessment relates to the techniques of self-assessment which are proposed by Harris and McMillan (1994: 64) which have several techniques for Self-assessment. The techniques consist of 6 techniques several of them, rating scales and questionnaires are involved in socio-affective of self-assessment. In rating scales, the students rate their preferences of learning English in a rating scale such as 1 to 5. Then, questionnaires, especially ranking preference from the most enjoyable activity to the less enjoyable also involved in the techniques of self-assessment, and it relates to the socio-affective of self-assessment with individuals’ learning preference which indicates that the students who give check twice of the statement about activity means that the activity more enjoyable than those which are given check once.

The Design of Implementing Self-Assessment

   According to Luca and McLoughlin (2002: 2) in order to promote the development of reflective, critical and evaluative skills on self assessment, the learning environment should be designed to encourage participant to:
   - Have a clear understanding of the objective
   - Identify valid assessment criteria
   - Accurately and objectively evaluate success or failure on a given task

   Additionally, in her research, the development of project management skills which are transferable to real world context is involved when self assessment occurs in the classroom. It will encourage the students to be more responsible for their own learning, but may need assistance through scaffolding and modeling. Then, the classroom activities should be design as appropriate as possible in order to make them to be able to responsible for their own work relate to the due date for submitting the task and what they have learnt. And the design of the learning environment for self-assessment shown in figure 1 as proposed by Luca and McLoughlin (2002) which integrate a range of authentic, self-regulated and reflective activities in the learning activities.
Based on the design above, reflective activities are valuable to be involved when the teacher wants to engage self-assessment in their learning activities. The reflective activities will give students personal views of their progress were recorded. Then, it will lead them for considering their success in completing assigned task, the quality achieved, the successful of managing time, and justify their score. Moreover, in reflective report, the students are able to be asked to complete the report about how and what they have learnt, the strong and weak point of their learning, and their strategy for making self improvement. As a result, it will help the teachers in order to make decision about evaluating their students based on the self-assessment. The teachers do not need conducting formal assessment, but the teachers can perceived and assess their ability by investigating their performance of learning and response of how they learn.

**Guidelines for Self-assessment**

According to Brown (2003: 277) there are 4 steps for guiding self-assessment:

1. Tell students the purpose of the assessment
   
   It is essential for the teachers to carefully analyze the need which will be met in offering self-assessment, then extend the information to the students.

2. Define the task clearly
   
   The teachers have to make sure that the students know exactly what they are supposed to do.

3. Encourage impartial evaluation of performance or ability
   
   Since the one of greatest drawbacks to self-assessment is the threat of subjectivity, the teachers can maximize the beneficial washback of self-assessment by showing students the advantages of honest and objective opinion.

4. Ensure beneficial washback through follow up task
   
   Follow up should be accomplished through further self-assessment, journal reflection, written feedback from the teacher, conferencing with the teacher, purposeful goal setting by the student, or combination of them.
The Benefit of Self-Assessment

According to Harris & McCann (1994:63) self-assessment provides useful information about students including students’ expectation and needs, their problems and worries, their felling of their progress, their reaction toward the materials and methods being used, and what they think about the course in general. So, it can give more information for the teacher about students’ information in order to conduct further teaching learning activities. They also say that there are many benefits which are derived from self-assessment. They are:

1. Since it can take a lot of time at a premium in most classes, it must be efficient and integrated with other classroom activities.
2. It can imply the students’ knowledge about language and learning.
3. It can decrease the teachers’ doubt for giving the students mark. The tendency of students giving them a higher mark makes self-assessment an unreliable influence on assessment yet the students do the opposite one, they give mark for themselves lower than they deserve.

Additionally, Dorobat (2007: 83) states that self-assessment may involve; the motivation to undertake it, the willingness to reject inadequate performance in some internal standard established by oneself or learned, the ability to measure one’s own performance against the standards, the confidence to make these assessments, and the recognition that one’s ability to judge is limited. Therefore, owing to the benefits above, self-assessment can be developed in students’ learning by helping them to improve it and persuading them that it is a useful activity.

Research Method

In this study, the researcher used descriptive qualitative design. Moreover, interview and observation were used as its technique of collecting the data. This study was conducted among 10 elementary school students in Indonesia which enroll in grade 4, 5, and 6. The students’ ages ranged from ten to twelve. The researcher interviewed the students by face to face. After that, the researcher confirm the information obtain from the interview by conducted an observation in the class. So that the data are collected.
Findings and Discussion

The result of this research showed that the teachers of grade 4, 5, and 6 give the students assessment for checking their understanding about teaching material. There are several type of assessment which are given by the teachers and one of them is self assessment. The teachers give assessment for the students by giving questions with instruction. Then, the students do it relates to the instructions. When the students do it, they think with themselves, it involves their mental and emotional to answer the question for checking students’ understanding. The result also showed that by giving self assessment, the students are also encouraged to do it. They say that they enjoy do the rating scale and question since they can do it according to their interest. It relates to Brown (2003) who states that emotional obstacle in self-assessment is involved to improve their motivation in order to overcome their barriers. Moreover, when self-assessment involves students’ motivation, the students will enjoy the classroom activity as cited by Dorobat (2007) that self-assessment may involve the motivation which make students confidence to make these assessments.

Additionally, the students also say that they will ask if they do not know about the instructions or the question. Then, after knowing what the instruction or question mean, they will answer it based on their interest. As a result, it will let the students to explore their need and interest in learning activities in the classroom. As cited by Harris & McCann (1994) self-assessment provides useful information about students including students’ expectation and needs, their problems and worries, their felling of their progress, their reaction toward the materials and methods being used, and what they think about the course in general. Thus, the teacher will have reference about teaching learning English activity in the classroom.

Conclusion and Suggestion

Realizing the benefit of implementing self-assessment in teaching English for young learner, implementing it in the class is recommended for teacher. Young learners by the age of five have already met the criteria of implementing self-assessment. It can be seen from young learners’ characteristics that have been discussed before. Young learners have been ready enough to implement self-assessment in teaching learning process in the class. Young learners should experience self-assessment in order to make a habit of it. And one of the simple type of self-assessment that can be conducted is socio-affective. This socio-affective self-assessment can be starting point for young learner due to its closeness with the young learners’ behavior itself. Therefore, as a teacher of young learners, we should not
underestimate them relate to the implementation of self-assessment in English class especially.

Here, self-assessment promote young learner become independent learners that obviously useful for their learning development in the future. They monitor their learning progress and decide what should be done to solve their problem if there is a problem related to the teaching learning activity. Then, they definite views about the worlds around them makes the implementation of self-assessment become appropriate to be applied in young learner class.

In addition, hopefully this paper become new insight for English teacher in elementary and junior high school in implementing self-assessment in English teaching learning process. It is highly recommended to apply self-assessment with other types of it which being chosen according to its appropriateness and effectiveness to be implemented in the class. Related studies about self-assessment need to be conducted by future researchers in order to give another evidence of self-assessment.

References
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Title
Comparison of Translation Result from Google-Translator and Bing-Translator
(Error Analysis of Translation Result From Indonesian Text Into English Text)

Author
Fadilla Oktaviana
Banten Jaya University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Fadilla Oktaviana is a lecturing staff in Banten Jaya University, Indonesia. Her research interests include Education Technology and Language Learning Method. Now she is pursuing her doctorate degree in Jakarta State University, Indonesia majoring Language Education. She can be reached at nimasfadilla@gmail.com

Abstract
Translation of Google-Translator from Indonesian text into English text found that the most errors occurred in morphology, and then followed by an error in the syntax, semantics and orthography. While the translation through Bing-Translator, the most errors occurred in syntax, and then followed by an error in the morphology and semantics. For the orthography, it is not found error. Therefore, when compared to the results of the translation, Bing-Translator is a bit better than Google-Translator. As a machine translator, translated by Google-Translator and Bing-Translator have not been said to be perfect. The results of two new translation engines worth is said to be pre-translation. Because the results of translation from a machine translation of this kind still has many flaws and do not produce an accurate translation, therefore it still needs to be perfected by its users. Although, the translation result of Google-Translator and Bing-Translator can be used to understand a text globally.

Keywords: Google-translator, Bing-translator, error analysis, Indonesian text, english text

Affiliation Address: Banten Jaya University, Ciwaru Street, No 73, Warung Pojok, Serang City, Banten Province, Indonesia
Introduction

The development of information and communication technology is now very rapidly. These developments affect the patterns of human life and way of communicating. One of the notable developments in information and communication technology known as the internet. The Internet is a collection or an existing computer networks around the world. In this case the former stand-alone computers can be connected directly to the host or other computers. With its ability to connect one computer with another computer, create the internet can be used to access or transfer the data/information from one computer to the other computer online.

By using the internet everyone can search and obtain the needed information quickly without having to leave his seat. In the past a lot more communication is done in person (face to face), while the current face-to-face personal contact slowly has been replaced with the ease of communicating through the internet and cell phones. Schonherr (1998:674) mention the internet with all the goodies like a giant library, which can be accessed by anyone. But to trace the "virtual library" that effectively is not easy. People will be able to easily "get lost". One of the easiest ways to help us find information quickly is by using search engines (search engine). One of the most popular search engines is Google, which first developed by Larry Page and Sergey Brin in 1996.

In the process, Google is not just a search engine that helps internet users find a link to a web page, but also provide a machine translator. The developers of Google is clearly aware that the existing information in a web page can appear in a variety of languages. The various languages that exist in the world can be a barrier for a person to discover and understand the important information they want. Machine translation attached to Google will help translate a text or web pages from one language to another automatically, so that the reader is helped when trying to understand the content of a web page.

Och (2006) said that "because we want to provide everyone with access to all the world's information, including information in every language, one of the exciting projects at Google Research is machine translation. Machine translation attached to Google could be classified on machine translation terminology which is abbreviated to MT. MT is to computerised system responsible for the production of translations with or without human assistance. (Hutchins, 1995). Machine translation from Google is currently able to translate into more than 50 languages, one of which is from English into Indonesia. The results of machine translation need to be examined further to see mainly linguistic errors, because many people who doubt the quality. So is bing.com which provides the facilities as a machine
translation of a variety of languages. In this paper will compare the results of the English translation of the text into English by Google translator with Bing translator.

**Literature review**

*The Analysis of Linguistic Error*

Error analysis is a field of study within the umbrella of applied linguistics. This study is not a new thing for teachers of language, because the results of the application of error analysis is utilized to improve the teaching and learning of languages, both to correct the mistakes made the learners as well as teachers to help devise appropriate learning strategies.

Brown (via Sanal, 2008) defines an analysis error (error analysis) as "the fact that learners do make errors and these errors can be observed, analysed and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner led to a surge of study of learners 'errors called ' error analysis". Were thus Ruru and Ruru (via Pateda, 1989) argues that error analysis is a technique to identify, classify and interpret the systematic errors made by the well-educated who are learning a foreign language or second language by using theories and procedures based on linguistics. The error is usually determined based on the size of the currency from the perspective of native speakers. From both of these opinions can be drawn the conclusion that the systematic error analysis is a procedure based on linguistics to find and classify an error that cannot be accepted (justified) according to the rules of the target language, created by the (foreign) language learners.

Error analysis in the study of errors can be classified into 2 kinds i.e. error (error) and errors (mistakes). The fallacy associated inability to produce the utterance of speaking in unintentional; confusion is not a result of lack of language competence which belonged to the learners. The confusion no systematic nature, so when language learners realize the mistake can immediately fix it. Otherwise an error (error) is a mistake made by language learners are systematically caused due to not having a sufficient language competence. Corder (via Sanal, 2008) says:

Errors are deviances that are due to deficient competence (i.e. "knowledge" of the language, which may or may not be conscious). The U.S. are due to deficient competence the tend to be systematic and not self-correctable. Whereas "mistakes" or "lapses" that are due to performance deficiencies and arise from lack of attention, slips of memory, anxiety possibly caused by pressure of time etc. They are not systematic and readily self-identifiable and correctable.

The competency in question here is the ability of the speaker or writer to deliver the language in accordance with the rules of the language used. Because the language of the
generated form words, sentences and meaning, then it is an error that needs to be analysed include in phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. (Pateda, 1989:34).

In this study analysed the translation result of Indonesia language into English from google translator and Bing-translator. Because of the existence of the objects of study in the form of discourse, then that will be analysed include landscape orthography, morphology, syntax and semantics.

**Google-Translator dan Bing-Translator**

Google in early discovery is a tool or machine that helps internet Explorer to quickly find the information or website. This search engine is very useful given the number of web pages in cyberspace could amount to millions, while the ability of the human brain to remember the address of a web page is very limited. Google was first developed in 1996 by two students in the United States, namely Larry Page and Sergey Brin. Currently Google became the world's most popular search engine.

The Google search engine in its development provides many facilities do not merely seek a web address. Facilities that include image search, videos, books, research, scholarships and a translator called Google translator or Google-translate. This facility was first developed by Google in 2007 using a system called SYSTRAN. Google translator engine usage is very easy. Open the Page www.google.co.id, when the page is opened then there will appear the options panel "translation" as in the following image

![Translator box in google-translator](image)

Figure 1. Translator box in google-translator
Furthermore if the translator has filled and had determined the direction of the original, then the user click "translation" to obtain the desired translation results. In Figure 2 are shown samples of the translation of the text into English Indonesia language.

![Figure 2. Translation result from Indonesia into English by using google-translator](image)

So also at the Bing translation is facilitated by the page www.bing.com has a way of working which is not much different with google – translator. The following image as follows

![Figure 3. Translator Box of Bing-translator](image)
Then, in the figure 4 is displayed the example of translation result of Indonesia into English by using bing-translator.

![Figure 4. Translation Result of Indonesian text into English by using Bing-translator](image)

**Methodology**

This research is used qualitative method by using content analysis in term of linguistic analysis of translation result Indonesian text into English text by using Google translator and Bing translator. And then the result of comparison result is compared to find the better one of translator machines.

**Finding and Result**

*The Error Analysis of Translation Result by using Google-Translator*

Linguistic error analysis presented in this paper is a small study analyzing the text taken from the old online news www.detik.com on July 14, 2014. The text has been translated by a machine translator on Google.com and Bing.com. A comparison between the original text with the google-translator translation results can be seen in table 1 below

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian Text</th>
<th>The translation result (google translator)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lionel Messi Pemain Terbaik Piala Dunia 2014 Doni Wahyudi - detikSport</td>
<td>Lionel Messi Player of the 2014 World Cup Doni Wahyudi - detikSport</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Messi mengalahkan beberapa rekannya di timnas Argentina dan juga rivalnya di skuat Jerman yang masih dalam daftar kandidat peraih penghargaan Pemain Terbaik (Golden Ball). Di Jerman mereka yang sebelumnya jadi pesaing Messi adalah Thomas Mueller, Toni Kroos, Mats Hummels, dan Philipp Lahm, sementara di Argentina ada Angel Di Maria dan Javier Mascherano.

Messi dianggap menjadi sosok yang punya peran besar mengantar Argentina lolos dari fase grup dan kemudian melangkah ke final. Selain empat gol dan satu assist, raihan besarinya di turnamen ini adalah status man of the match yang dia dapat empat kali.

Malang buat Messi, status pemain terbaik turnamen gagal dia sempurnakan dengan menjadi juara dunia. Argentina kalah 0-1 atas Jerman dalam laga final di Maracana. Gol tunggal De Mannschaft dilesaikan Mario Goetze di babak kedua perpanjangan waktu.

Ini adalah kali kelima secara beruntun peraih status pemain terbaik jatuh ke tim yang bukan juara. Pemain yang sebelumnya dapat Golden Ball adalah Ronaldo, Oliver Kahn, Zinedine Zidane dan Diego Forlan.

From the result above, the translation result of English to Indonesia by the Google machine translation (google translator) analyses the word per word, the context of the sentence is often overlooked. This aspect becomes a major weakness of the translation result.
obtained through Google translator engine. Therefore, users who want to translate a text should do the refinement of the text translation. In order to be better translated by Google translator.

Table 2. Data Recapitulation of Error Analysis of Translation Result of Google Translator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translator Machine</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Google Translator</td>
<td>Orthography</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semantic</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Syntaxes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data in Table 2 see that error in the aspects of morphology, as much as 15. Some examples of mistakes in landscape morphology can be seen at the beginning of the first paragraph of the news on www.detik.com. The word "player" translates to "player". There is the adjective "best" meant, it is certainly not in keeping with the text of the source language and should be translated as "the best player", adding "the" to indicate the noun or referred to as a determiner. Other examples of errors in the morphology of the second looked at the end of the page still paragrap www.detik.com words so (being) translated as "so". When the right should "become", so google translator in addition to not seeing the context in translating well just translate the word per word only. This is certainly not in keeping with its meaning TBSa TBSu.

Semantic errors appear in the news in www.detik.com, where the engine Google Translator to translate the phrase "a big role" into a "big role". "A big role" is a figure of speech that means strategic role, so that the more appropriate word is translated into "strategic role". Similarly, the word "action" in the final paragraph to four more precisely is meant as "final", so that a more appropriate parallel is the "final game" instead of "final match. From both these examples seem that Google translator engine difficulties in translating the words that meant figuratively. So there is no appropriate between the TBSu and the resulting TBSa.

A very prominent errors are errors in syntax, because the Google machine translation is not able to produce the correct sentence appropriate grammar rule language English. There are nine sentences that are not exactly original. In the last paragraph of the news written In Germany "second they previously so competitors Messi was Thomas Mueller, Toni Kroos,
Mats Hummels, and Philipp Lahm, while in Argentina there is Angel Di Maria and Javier Mascherano;" and translates to "In Germany they were previously so competitors Messi is Thomas Mueller, Toni Kroos, Mats Hummels, and Philipp Lahm, while in Argentina there is Angel Di Maria and Javier Mascherano." The sentence contains an error in the placement of the order and the use of the word "be" inappropriate, should use "were (past tense of are) and on to the next sentence gaffe also lies in the use of be is wrong. Form a more accurate translation of the sentence is: In Germany they were previously became Messi's competitors were Thomas Mueller, Toni Kroos, Mats Hummels, and Philipp Lahm, while in Argentina there were Angel Di Maria and Javier Mascherano.

Errors in orthography are also found in the text of the translation is generated by the Google machine translation, even though the numbers are relatively very little, that is just one. Orthographic mistakes found on the word "unfortunate". In the www.detik.com page, the "poor" is not the name of a State is one of the cities in Indonesia, but machine translation Google write it anyway with the word "unfortunate" that should be translated "unfortunate or unfortunately"

On the basis of the studies that have been done, looks clearly that output from the engine Google Translator contains many errors. Hutchins (1995) says that the results of the translation machine translation still needs to be edited, because it really only provides a translation of the results that can be referred to as a translation. These results are more or less the same when a translating a text into another language for the first time. He next will edit again the translation results to get a good translation results.

The Linguistic Error Analysis of Translation Result by using Bing-Translator

The second linguistic error analysis takes from online news www.detik.com by using bing-translator. The comparison between original texts with the translated text by using Bing-translator can be seen in table 3, as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teks bahasa Indonesia</th>
<th>Teks terjemahan kedalam bahasa inggris (bing translator)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lionel Messi Pemain Terbaik Piala Dunia 2014</td>
<td>Lionel Messi is the best player of the World Cup 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doni Wahyudi - detikSport Senin, 14/07/2014 05:56 WIB</td>
<td>Doni Wahyudi-detikSport Mon, 14/07/2014 05: 56 GMT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rio de Janeiro - Lionel Messi failed to bring Argentina to win the World Cup 2014. In person he can be entertainment titles after being elected as the best player of the tournament.

Messi beat some of his colleagues in the national team in Argentina and also his rival in the Germany squad is still in the list of candidates for the award-winning footballer of the year (Golden Ball). In Germany they previously so competitors Messi is Toni Kroos, Thomas Mueller, Mats Hummels, and Philipp Lahm, while Argentina's Angel Di Maria and Javier Mascherano.

Messi is considered to be a figure who had a role of usher Argentina qualify from the group phase and then stepped into the final. In addition to the four goals and one assist, scoring big in this tournament was the man of the match status that he can be four times.

Unfortunate for Messi, the best player of the tournament status failed him fine-tune by becoming world champion. Argentina lost 0-1 over Germany in the final game at Maracana. A single goal from Mario Goetze Mannschaft De second half extra time.

This is the fifth time consecutively winning the best players fall to the status of a team that's not winning. Players can be the Golden Ball is Oliver Kahn, Ronaldo, Zinedine Zidane and Diego Forlan.

From the result above, can be analysed that the text language translation result from Indonesia into English by using bing translator. It is almost the same with google translator i.e. translate words per word, the context of the sentence is often overlooked. This aspect is also becoming a major weakness of the translation result obtained through the Bing translator engine. Thus users who want to translate a text should do the refinement of the text translation. In order to be better translated by Bing translator.
Table 4. Data recapitulation of error analysis from Bing-translator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translator Machine</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bing Translator</td>
<td>Orthography</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semantic</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Syntaxes</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data in table 4 to see that errors in the aspects of morphology, not as much as aspects of syntax, that is just as much as 5 pieces, far less than Google translator. Some examples of mistakes in landscape morphology can be seen on the second sentence in the first paragraph of the news on www.detik.com. The word "personal" is translated into "in person". In fact the meaning not much different, just less precise, then a more appropriate translation is "personally". Other examples of errors in the same morphology with the results of a google translation-translator IE looks at the end of the second paragraph still from the page www.detik.com. Said so (being) translated as "so". When the right should "become", so google translator in addition to not seeing the context in translating well just translate the word per word only.

Semantic errors appear in the news on www.detik.com, where Bing translator machine translate the phrase "a major role" to "role of usher". "A big role" is a figure of speech that means strategic role, so that the more appropriate word is translated into "strategic role". Similarly, the word "fall" on the last paragraph more precisely is meant as the "sign in/join", so that a more appropriate parallel is the "join/joined" instead of "falls". From both these examples seem that Google translator engine difficulties in translating the words that meant figuratively. So that happened between TBSu and disharmony resulting TBSa.

A very prominent mistakes are mistakes of syntax though not as much as on the google-translator, bing translator only has syntax errors as much as six sentences. This is because Bing translator machines are still not able to produce the correct sentence appropriate grammar rule language English. In the last paragraph of the news of a second written "single goal De Mannschaft from Mario Goetze in the second half extra time" and translates to "A single goal from Mario Goetze Mannschaft De second half extra time" such Sentences contain errors because it has no verb. In English, the Language the verb is the main
requirement in making a sentence. Form a more accurate translation of the sentence is: "A single goal is scored by Mario Goetze De Mannschaft in second-half extra time"

Another thing that the analysis in this paper namely orthography. In the results of google translation-translator found one orthographic errors, but the results from Bing translation-translator is not an orthographic error not found. On the basis of the studies that have been done, the output of the machine translator Bing still contain lots of errors.

**Comparison Result of Indonesia Text into English by using Google-Translator dan Bing-Translator**

Google-bing-translator and translator, both of machine translation is facilitated by the page www.google.com and www.bing.com that the original can only be done online. This facility provides very easy for many in the audience to translate the source language text (TBSu) to a target language text (TBSa) which consists of a variety of languages. From the study of two of machine translation, google-translator has a fault analysis more than bing translator. In the aspects of morphology, google translator has 15 errors, while bing-translator only 5 errors. On the syntactic aspect, google-translator has 9 errors, while bing-translator has 6 errors, on the orthography, the google-translator has 1 error, while bing-translator has no mistakes on this aspect, and the final aspect of the semantics, bing-translator has error more than 4 errors, while google-translator only 3. From the results of the analysis, it can be inferred that the Bing translation engine-translator has a better translation quality and flexible when compared to google's machine translation-translator.

**Conclusion**

Error analysis of the results of a Google translation-translator of Indonesia into the language of English found that most errors occur in landscape morphology, then followed by an error in the syntax, semantics and orthography. While the translation through bing-translator of most errors occur in syntax, then followed by an error in the morphology and semantics. As for the orthography, Bing Translator is not found error. Therefore, when compared the translation results of Bing translator is better than the results of the translation from google-translator.

However, the results of two new translation engines worth is said to be pre-translation. Because the results of translation from a machine translation of this kind still has many flaws and do not produce an accurate translation so it still needs to be perfected by its
users. Even so, the results of the translation from Google-Translator and Bing-Translator can be used to understand a text.

References


Title
Analyzing Students’ Individual Problems in Speaking at IAIN Kendari

Author
Fahmi Gunawan
Isna Humaera
Islamic State Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:
Fahmi Gunawan is a lecturer at Islamic State Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi Indonesia. His research interests comprise discourse analysis, etnolingusitics, and English language. He can be reached at fgunawanp@gmail.com

Isna Humaera is an English lecturer at Islamic State Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. Her research interests include languages skills and discourse analysis. She can be reached at humaeraumk@gmail.com

Abstract
This study aims at assessing student’s individual problems at Islamic State Institute (IAIN) of Kendari in increasing their English speaking skill. The data was obtained from 10 Islamic Education Students in 2015. The participants were selected due to their low English grade obtained from final-year examination and interview. The data was collected through interview and questionnaire. The finding showed that students’ individual problems comprises into two parts, (1) lack of knowledge factors and (2) psychological factors. These problems were caused by the following factors; (1) often laughed by their friends when speaking English, (2) lazy to memorize vocabulary, (3) lack of speaking exercise, (4) fear of making mistakes in speaking and pronouncing vocabulary and sentence, and(5) insufficient knowledge on grammatical structure of English language. Few ways were suggested to solve
the problem; (1) motivating themselves to be more confident in talking, (2) recording unfamiliar vocabularies in personal vocabulary notes, (3) practicing speaking with friends and lecturers, (4) mixing the use English language and mother language, as well as (5) using technology such as electronic dictionaries.

**Keywords:** Individual Problems, Speaking Skill

**Introduction**

Globalization has placed a paramount importance on English language speaking in academic and professional lives of students (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Adamson, 2001; Webb, 2002; Hu, 2005; Sawir, 2005). By mastering English language, they may not only communicate with others from all over the world (Tardi, 2004), access plenty of information (Mak & Coniam, 2008), but also have an opportunity to brave themselves to face various challenges in the future (Mumtaz, 2000).

However, non-English students at Faculty of Education and Teaching, Islamic State Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia have been depicted as low competent in English language (Humaera, 2015). The revelation was based on the preliminary interviews with some students in which they opined that they faced a plenty of difficulties in speaking English. As the result of their poor performance in English, some of the graduates face difficulty to obtain scholarship from fund raising and have been rejected for job application at some private schools.

There are many factors that might induce the students’ low proficiency in English. One might be attributed to lack of knowledge factor and psychological factors. Based on these phenomena, this research is done.

**Literature review**

This section provides a literature review that deemed to the relevance of the research objectives. This includes a brief overview of students’ individual problems, such as lack of knowledge factor and psychological factors in speaking English.

*Lack of Knowledge Factor*

In classroom, the students are required to speak fluently. However, lack of knowledge, such as slow vocabulary, poor in grammar and pronunciation, becomes a stumbling block. Vocabulary is one of the most important components in any language class. Without vocabulary, communication will be limited. Limited vocabulary leads the students to
use their mother tongue instead of utilizing the target language (Cook, 1996). Pronunciation refers to the way the native speak language (Scrivener, 2005). The focus of grammar is not only on syntax but also how to put the language form in meaningful interaction (Terrell, 1991; Brown, 2000; Harmer 2007).

Psychological Factor

Psychological factors incorporate anxiety (Chastain, 1976; Scovel, 1978), shyness (Brown, 2007), fear of making mistake (Gregerson, 2003), lack of confidence (de Saint Léger, 2009) as well as motivation (Nunan, 1999; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). To overcome students’ difficulties in speaking class, there are six basic strategies that could be applied as suggested by Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003), Yu (2001), and Brown (2007). (1) Speaking is daily activities, then it should be practiced regularly, (2) Trying to utilize simple language, (3) The students should be able to get rid of their shyness to speak, (4) Practice speaking either in small group or pair work rather than requiring students to speak individually in front of the whole class, (5) Speaking activities through structured and guided practice will help students to boost their confidence, (6) Sharing opinion or perception to the friends.

Methodology

This research used descriptive qualitative design to describe what are students’ problems in speaking English and how to solve them. The participants were ten students of 2015 batch of Islamic education Major. The instruments used in this study were interview guidelines sheet and questionnaire. Data was collected through recording and interview as well. The results of the study were then analyzed through Miles and Huberman (1984) theory.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

This section provides findings and discussion relating to the objective of the research. They might become short explanation through figure. The following table has four columns comprises of (1) name of the student, (2) their self problems, (3) causes of students’ self problems, (4) the strategies utilized in overcoming the problems.
Table 1:
Students’ Self Problem, Causes and Strategies to Overcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Kinds of Self Problem</th>
<th>The Causes</th>
<th>Strategies Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject 1</td>
<td>✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of making mistakes ✓ Lack of motivation</td>
<td>✓ Laughing by friends</td>
<td>✓ Practicing at home in front of mirror ✓ Having notes for new vocabularies ✓ Asking friends ✓ Having smart friend in English ✓ Using dictionary ✓ More exercises at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Subject 2</td>
<td>✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of mistakes in pronunciation ✓ Lack of confidence ✓ Less motivation</td>
<td>✓ Less vocabularies ✓ Lack of confidence</td>
<td>✓ Using social media ex: facebook, SMS in English ✓ Build internal motivation: English as a habit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Subject 3</td>
<td>✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of mistakes in pronunciation</td>
<td>✓ Less vocabularies ✓ Less ability to pronoun the words</td>
<td>✓ Daily exercises (mixing with mother tongue) ✓ Asking friends ✓ Searching in the dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Issues</td>
<td>Solutions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>✓ Fear of making mistakes grammar and Pronunciation)</td>
<td>✓ Open dictionary&lt;br&gt;✓ Asking friends for the pronunciation&lt;br&gt;✓ Independent study by reading vocabulary book or dictionary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Lack of confidence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Lack of knowledge (grammar)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Less vocabularies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Less ability to pronoun the words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>✓ Lack of knowledge (less vocabularies)</td>
<td>✓ Asking friends&lt;br&gt;✓ Having note of the vocabulary then open dictionary&lt;br&gt;✓ Memorizing the vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Fear of mistakes to converse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Lack of confidence (less of confidence)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Shyness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Lazy to memorize vocabularies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Poor in pronouncing the words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and pronunciation)</td>
<td>✓ Finding out in the book&lt;br&gt;✓ Enjoyable to study English&lt;br&gt;✓ Asking friends,&lt;br&gt;teacher or other people&lt;br&gt;✓ Exercise in front of mirror&lt;br&gt;✓ Open dictionary&lt;br&gt;✓ Memorizing words and sentences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ Lack of confidence (Environment - laughing with friends)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓ More task to be finished</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and)</td>
<td>✓ Memorizing words&lt;br&gt;✓ Feeling shy&lt;br&gt;✓ Fear to speak</td>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grammar</td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Laughing by friends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shyness</td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Less practice for daily habit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Asking friends</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of confidence</td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Using gadget</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Visiting friends for having exercise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Subject 8</td>
<td>✅ Nervous/anxious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Fear of mistakes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Less of vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Feeling anxiety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✅ Mixing</td>
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<td>✅ Reading before sleeping at night</td>
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<td>✅ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and Grammar)</td>
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<td>✅ Reading before sleeping at night</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Subject 10</td>
<td>✅ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies)</td>
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Based on aforementioned findings, it can be concluded that students’ self problems were mostly related to their knowledge and psychological factors. Lack of knowledge
includes slow vocabulary development, low proficiency in speaking, and poor in grammar. Psychological factors comprise of low self-confidence, unmotivated to speak, having anxiety and shyness to speak.

There are some reasons why students have individual problems in speaking. The problems like shyness and fear of making mistakes happened when their friends laughed at them speaking in English and they often received negative evaluations from them too. The findings are consistent with studies done by Young (1990, 1992), and Juhana (2012) that stating most students who learn English would feel shy when they speak and fear of making mistakes when they talk. In addition, the students also had limited vocabulary in English. Most of them said that they were difficult to speak because of the limited vocabularies they had. Besides, the students felt lazy to memorize words and also they had more assignments for other subjects.

The participants argued that there are some ways can be used to solve their individual problems such as studying the target language, practicing to speak the language regularly in front of people, reading English book during spare time. In addition, taking notes of new vocabulary and using electronic dictionary are helpful to enhance speaking skill. Thornbury (1991) agreed that these activities should be made compulsory to help students to improve their vocabularies independently. Furthermore, asking lecturers and motivating self to speak are other possible strategies to solve speaking problems for students. They believed that motivating to be more confident to speak is worth considering. In this sense, motivating students to speak in English, to some extent, encourages them to actively participate in speaking in the class (Pintrich, 1999; Ushioda, 2011).

Discussion

Learning English as a second language in non-native speakersperspective had occurred many times ago. In learning English, students at higher education faced many problems. One of the problems is individual problems in speaking. We may find this problem not only in Indonesian learners, but also in Saudi (Hamouda, 2012; Mahdi, 2014), Iranian (Riasati, 2012), China (Mak, 2001), and Asian learners (Exley, 2005). Hence, it can be summed up that students’ individual problems in speaking is a common phenomena that almost occurred in non-native speaker countries. Lack of knowledge factor and psychological factor are the dominant factor. Nevertheless, the strategies to overcome those problems are based on social, cultural, class athmosphere, and teachers’ ability in each country, particularly at Islamic State Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia as a base research of this article.
Conclusion

It can be concluded that students have problems to speak due to individual factors such as lack of knowledge about slow vocabularies, poor in grammar and pronunciation and psychological factors such as anxiety, shyness, fear of making mistake, lack of confidence, as well as motivation. To solve those individual problems, the students should study more the language, speak in front of people regularly, read English book, note more study, practice to speak together, take notes of new vocabulary, utilize electronic dictionary, ask lecturers and boost up the inner motivation from their selves.

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Promoting Meaningful Student Engagement in the ESL Classroom

Grace M. Corpuz and Efren O. Peralta
University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain

Grace M. Corpuz and Efren O. Peralta are assistant professors of English and are currently teaching in Bahrain Teachers College, University of Bahrain. Both have taught English language and pedagogy courses in the undergraduate and graduate levels, supervised Teaching Practice students, and conducted professional development training courses for teachers.

Abstract

Good teachers across disciplines, ESL included, have been in constant search of ways of ensuring student success in 21st century classrooms. Given the many factors that compete with students’ attention, the role of the English teacher is more crucial than ever in ensuring that student motivation is built and sustained, and active learning occurs, so student engagement results. Based on the authors’ Teaching Practice supervision of years 3 and 4 students supported by literatures on engagement, this paper presents key practices essential in improving student motivation and active learning that result in behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement. It aims to contribute to new and experienced teachers’ repertoire of effective practices in student engagement.

Key Words: Meaningful student engagement, motivation, active learning

Affiliation Address: University of Bahrain, Sakhir Campus, Kingdom of Bahrain
Introduction

Students today are far from being empty vessels waiting to be filled for they enter the classroom with all types of knowledge, information, attitudes, experiences, and even some form of expertise. With many factors competing for students’ attention, the role of the ESL teacher is more crucial than ever in ensuring that every session is relevant and meaningful, student motivation built and sustained, and active learning occurs, so student engagement results – or else risk having bored, apathetic, or even, alienated students in the class. There have been calls for classrooms to shift to being more student-centered, reflective, authentic, constructivist, and challenging (Daniels and Bizar, 2005) among other changes called for and they all boil down to classroom instruction that promotes student engagement.

Classroom instruction – how and what teachers teach—is the proximal and powerful factor in student engagement. (National Research Council, 1999). “Long been recognized as the core of effective schooling” (Marzano & Pickering, 2011), student engagement in the classroom has been defined in many ways to include either aspects of motivation or active learning. Barkley’s (2010) theoretical construct of student engagement summarizes many of the definitions.

“Student engagement is the product of motivation and active learning…It will not occur if either element is missing…It does not result from one or the other alone, but rather is generated in the space that resides in the overlap of motivation and active learning. The two elements “work together synergistically, and as they interact, they contribute incrementally to increase engagement” (pp. 6-7).

Understanding the concepts of motivation and active learning in relation to engagement provides teachers rich insights in their pedagogical choices and in their reflections on teaching and learning experiences.

“Students’ motivation determines, directs, and sustains what they do to learn” (Ambrose et al., 2010, p. 5). It is the “feeling of interest or enthusiasm that makes somebody want to do something” (Berkley, 2010, p. 33) and to persist to be successful. Expectancy and value play key roles in influencing motivation (Berkley, 2010; Ambrose, Bridges, Lovett, DiPrieto, & Norman, 2010). “Basically, teachers can increase student motivation by taking steps to increase the value of the learning to students and helping students hold optimistic and positive expectations about their ability to succeed” (Berkley, 2010, p. 14).

Active, not passive, learning is central in engagement. John Dewey once said, “Education is not an affair of ‘telling’ and being told, but an active and constructive process.” Active minds are “dynamic participants in their learning and that they are reflecting on and monitoring both
the processes and the results of their learning” (p. 12). “Engaged students examine, question, and relate new ideas to old, thereby achieving the kind of deep learning that lasts” (p. 17).

Drawing from experiences in Teaching Practice (TP) supervision backed up by literatures on student engagement, the authors cite common key practices observed from years 3 and 4 TP students in improving motivation and active learning that resulted in meaningful student engagement in cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions.

Lesson plans continue to integrate outcomes that reflect Bloom’s classic and seminal taxonomy of educational objectives which include the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. “Arguably, the most effective—and engaging—learning environments integrate domains. The activities that teachers design to help students progress cognitively will be most successful if students are engaged on an affective level, and when appropriate, a kinesthetic level” (pp. 37-38).

The key practices mentioned encourage motivation and active learning that promote meaningful engagement cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally. These practices can contribute to new and experienced teachers’ repertoire of effective practices to enhance student engagement.

**Discussion**

The following key practices promote meaningful student engagement in the ESL classroom.

*Structure relevant, appropriate, and interconnected listening, speaking, reading, or writing activities to include the pre-, main, and post- stages.* A well-structured lesson will give the teacher an overall insight into the sequence and types of activities students will be engaging themselves in. In the pre-activities, teachers check students’ readiness for the main activities by stoking their interest, harnessing their experiences and prior knowledge, activating or pre-learning vocabulary, and setting the tone for the main tasks. After being sufficiently prepared, students engage in speaking, listening, reading, and/or writing tasks, and establish direct connections of the lessons to their personal lives.

*Scaffold students’ learning and performance by communicating in clearest possible ways.* Students need to understand the overriding goals of the lessons, the purposes of different activities, and the expected outcomes to help them channel their energies towards successful learning. Teachers need to use balanced and effective pacing (Marzano & Pickering, 2011), use topics students can relate to meaningfully, use simple vocabulary and nonverbal ways to clarify points, use pictures, model the product expected, and demonstrate instructions or
information step-by-step, either manually or electronically, to help them focus and progress with their tasks.

Create fun and creative activities that integrate games, songs and rhymes, storytelling, movement, and available technology. “When classroom activities allow students to make choices relevant to their interests, direct their own learning, engage their imaginations, experiment with adult roles, and play physically, research shows that students become more motivated and interested, and they enjoy more positive school experiences” (Conklin, 2015).

Games are meaningful ways of engaging students in a language classroom. Games that emphasize challenge instead of competition help and encourage many students to sustain and enhance their motivation and provide intense and meaningful language practice. (Wright, Betteridge, and Buckby, 1984; Cross, 1995). Where inevitably woven into the game, competition, under the right conditions, can be a source of fun, excitement, and motivation (Orsntein & Levine). Thoroughly planned games are fun ways through which students get immersed in the language unconsciously.

Songs and rhymes make classes come alive. Singing or reciting, students are exposed to useful words and structures and “assume command of the prosodic features” (Cross, 1995, p. 178) of English which are stress, intonation, and rhythm.

One of the oldest tools of communicating, storytelling remains a powerful tool in engaging students into the lesson. “Stories promote lively imagination on the part of students. When students listen to a story, they create mind pictures, make inferences and predictions, and fill in the gaps” (Billard & Caldwell, 2012).

“Movement can be incorporated into class to lift energy, deepen or further understanding of content, or galvanize an entire class” (Marzano & Pickering, 2011, p. 25). Purposefully done, teachers can ensure the involvement of all students.

Technology is a tool that complements, not supplants, the teacher or existing effective methods and strategies. It can assist teachers...in “facilitating and mediating students’ language learning... and in providing interactive, meaningful, and cognitively engaging learning experiences” (American Council on the Teaching of Languages, 2012).

Allow students freedom to represent their learning. Students make appropriate choices on how to express their learning and use their multi intelligences in traditional and/or electronic modes. Students can represent their learning through their original videos, posters, role plays, presentations, songs, poems, and many other mediums. As Daniels and Bizar (2005) stated, there are other ways for students to seek, engage, construct, probe, and store knowledge and share ideas—not just jotting down words.
Create an emotionally and intellectually safe as well as inclusive classroom climate that solidifies students’ sense of belonging. “The climate we create has implications for our students…a positive climate can energize students’ learning” (Ambrose et al., p. 6). When students and teachers interact in a way that ensures safety, cooperation, respect, and fair and equitable treatment, students feel a sense of community—welcomed and stimulated—and are therefore encouraged to participate (Barkley, 2010; Riggs & Gholar, 2009; Marzano & Pikering, 2011). One simple initial step is to address students by their names (Barkley, 2010). Also, encourage different perspectives and let diversity thrive; acknowledge achievement and encourage further improvement through timely and specific feedback; and tolerate errors in the process of learning. As Thornbury (1999) stated, errors are an “aspect of language learning…and are a rich source of material for language focus and consciousness-raising” (p. 126). Additionally, use humor as it can attract students’ attention, aside from stimulating creative and flexible thinking, and facilitating learning (Glasgow & Hicks, 2009; Marzano & Pickering, 2011).

Give students rich and challenging but manageable tasks that promote mastery, create individual autonomy and support collaboration. With the drive towards mastery learning, students need opportunities to demonstrate and improve their competence and achieve success (Strong, Silver, & Robinson, 1995)—either individually or collectively. The Pygmalion effect is evident when students live up to positive, high, and supportive teacher’s expectations of success. Teachers engage students in problem solving activities or projects that necessitate the use of their individual higher-order thinking. When working together, students can form “reciprocal groups” (Cohen, 1994, as cited in Strong, Silver, & Robinson, 1995) that make all students use their language abilities to fully engage in and finish challenging tasks that stretch students’ thinking. As Zepke and Leach (2010, as cited in Stephens, 2015) emphasized, “When they reflect, question, conjecture, evaluate, and make connections, they are engaged.”

Conclusion

Promoting meaningful student engagement in the ESL classroom, teachers play a pivotal role in observing key instructional practices that ensure the development and sustenance of student motivation and active learning in different dimensions.
References


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.

**Key words:** 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)](image-url)

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.
References


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.

References


