

The Asian EFL Journal
November 2018
Volume 20, Issue 11



Senior Editor:
Paul Robertson



Published by English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal
A Division of TESOL Asia Group
Part of SITE Ltd. Australia

<http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>

©Asian EFL Journal 2018

This book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of the Asian EFL Journal Press.

No unauthorized photocopying

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the Asian EFL Journal.

editor@asian-efl-journal.com
Publisher: Dr. Paul Robertson
Chief Editor: Dr. Paul Robertson
Associate Production Editor: Ramon Medriano Jr.
Assistant Copy Editor: Eva Guzman

ISSN 1738-1460

Table of Contents

1. Ratna Rintaningrum	06-15
<i>Investigating Reasons Why Listening in English is Difficult: Voice from Foreign Language Learners</i>	
2. Ribahan	16-28
<i>Students' Perceptions of the Characteristics of Effective English Teachers at Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies, Lombok</i>	
3. Salasiah A	29-40
<i>Using Mind Visualizer as Digital Brainstorming in Teaching Writing: A Study at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare</i>	
4. Santri E. P. Djahimo	41-51
<i>Applying Consciousness Raising Tasks in Teaching Grammar to EFL Students in Indonesia</i>	
5. Shalvin Singh	52-60
<i>Using Self-Assessment Tasks in Foreign Language Classrooms</i>	
6. Siti Aisyah	61-76
<i>Implementation of CLT and Its Minimum Results</i>	
7. Sri Utami	77-82
<i>Developing Lifelong Learners by Implementing Group Investigation Technique at Higher Education</i>	
8. Suswati Hendriani	83-96
<i>Grammar Teaching Method Preferred by Indonesian Students</i>	

9. Alfi Hidayatu Miqawati	97-103
<i>Acquisition of Second Language Grammar through Extensive Reading with Incidental and Intentional Learning Instruction</i>	
10. Muhammad Ahkam Arifin	107-120
<i>The Teaching Methodology and Assessment of Character Education in Indonesian English Curriculum: Teacher`s Perceptions</i>	
11. Sya`baningrum Prihartini	121-126
<i>Direct Focused Feedback: Do Learners Notice it? Is it Effective?</i>	
12. Syafrizal Tabi`i Rahman / Udi Samanhuji	127-131
<i>Designing an EFL Speaking Class with a View to Critical Thinking Development</i>	
13. Syarah Aisha / Nazliza Ramadhani	132-136
<i>Improving Students` Reading Comprehension Achievement through Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review Technique</i>	
14. Toyiybah / A.Effendi Kadarisman	137-143
<i>Religion-Related Expressions in Research Report acknowledgements by Indonesian EFL Learners</i>	
15. Yulini Rinantanti / Lalu Suhirman	144-161
<i>Mapping of the Competence of SHS Students in English Subject in Sarmi and Mamberamo Raya Regencies Papua, Indonesia</i>	
16. Dararat Khampusaen	162-173
<i>The Common European Framework of Reference for English Language in Practice: Challenges for Thai Elementary School Teachers</i>	

17. Edi	174-198
<i>Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence Model for English Students in Indonesia University Context</i>	
18. Elitaria Bestri Agustina Siregar	199-204
<i>The Influence of Social Factors on Children's Achievement of Acquiring Second Language</i>	
19. Khadijah Maming	205-223
<i>Helping the EFL Learners in Reading Class: Learning by Interacting with Social Media-Related Topics through Pre-Question Way</i>	
20. Khairunnisa Hatta	224-230
<i>The Effects of Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in Engaging and Empowering Writing Skill</i>	
21. Mega Wulandari, M.Hum.	231-242
<i>Students' Attitudes on the Implementation of Storybird Web 2.0 Tool in Creating a Narrative Story</i>	
22. Siti Hajar Larekeng	243-249
<i>Spices Learning Model in Maximizing the Students' Writing Skill</i>	
23. Mardiana	250-260
<i>The Effects of Cooperative Learning Techniques and Sociological Learning Styles on Academic Writing Ability</i>	
24. Djuwairiah Ahmad	261-271
<i>Exploring Policymakers' and English Teachers' Perceptions and Interpretations in Makassar towards Curriculum 2013 (A Mixed-Design Study)</i>	
25. Ika Yanti Ziska	272-287
<i>Students' Need on English Language</i>	

Title

Investigating Reasons Why Listening in English is Difficult: Voice from Foreign
Language Learners

Author

Ratna Rintaningrum

rintaningrum@yahoo.com.au

Institut Teknologi Sepuluh Nopember (ITS), Surabaya

Jl. Arief Rahman Hakim, Keputih, Sukolilo, Surabaya

Abstract

Listening is not as easy as people think, particularly when the English language has status as a foreign language that is different from a second language as well as first language. For many reasons, foreign language learners find it difficult to listen to English. Although some language learners find it easy to comprehend listening, there are still more learners who have got difficulties in listening than others who do not. There must be some factors that hinder listeners to do it well. Although listening is categorized as a receptive skill, it is an active process. Listeners have to focus on what they are hearing since this involves many mental processes. If a question is asked 'how many people in a foreign language setting are able to listen very well?'. For the first sight, the answer is not many. However, when a lot of trainings are conducted, the answer will be different. This study documents some reasons why students have got difficulties in listening in English in order that some assistance to help the learners of English can be provided in strategic ways.

Key-Words: *listening, difficult, foreign language*

Introduction

English serves different status in different countries. Kachru (1992) in his book *The Other Tongue: English across Culture* and Kachru (2005) in his book *Asian Englishes Beyond the Canon* discussed countries in which the English language had developed extensively and stated within which group or circle those countries belonged. English may serve as the first language, the second language, or as a foreign language. There are five countries speak English as their first language, namely, the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Some countries such as Singapore, Philippines, Hong Kong, and India appoint English as the second language. People in those countries are able to speak English through their colonials. Some ex-British colonials occupied those countries. Other countries, such as Thailand, Japan, Korea, and Indonesia learn English as a foreign language. English is learned and taught at schools and universities in those countries.

The trend of globalization has spread and developed English around the world and this provided unlimited access to many fields such as intercultural understanding as well as entertainment, in addition to science, ICT, and economic (British Council, 2013). The trend and the dynamic force in global age have affected English as a Second Language (ESL) or as a Foreign Language (EFL) spread worldwide. There has been a great demand in English instruction that results in competent English users both in Western and Asian countries. As English is becoming ‘a global language’ (Crystal, 1997, p. 3), a number of people from various continents are able to speak English nowadays. As the most popular used language in the world, in various forms, English is estimated spoken by 400 million people as a mother tongue and an additional 2 billion as a second and/or foreign language (Demont-Heinrich, 2007). By the year 2040, this number is estimated to increase up to 3 billion functional users of English, or about 40 per cent of the world’s projected population at that time (Graddol, 2006).

In English language teaching, it is necessary to identify language performance. The human race has fashioned two forms of productive performance, oral and written, and two forms of receptive performance, aural (or auditory) and reading. Language is distinguished into two types, namely, spoken language and written language. Listening and Speaking are identified as spoken language, while Reading and Writing are identified as written language. Many people in the world want to speak English fluently

without considering that they have to master other skills of English as well. As a result, much of language-teaching energy is devoted to instruction in mastering English conversation with neglecting the importance to incorporate of numerous other forms of spoken language into a language course, especially in teaching listening comprehension. This may be one of many reasons why people find it difficult to listen in English. Although the ability of speaking in English is important, globalization requires people to master English and all its aspects, reading, writing, speaking, including listening. Some people find it easy to listen in English, while others do not. Following a presentation entitles 'How easy do you find it to learn English' (Rintaningrum, 2016), it is necessary to investigate the reasons why listening is difficult. Some sources documented some reasons why listening is difficult. They are listed as follows:

1. *Clustering (a group of similar things; putting words into groups; brainstorming, mapping).*
2. *Redundancy (rephrasings, repetitions, elaborations, and little insertions of 'I mean' and 'you know')*
3. *Reduced forms: spoken language has many reduced forms and sentence fragments (Gd day, mate, I'll, I've, 20 five cents: stress on five)*
4. *Performance variables (in spoken language, hesitations, false start, pauses, and corrections are common).*

But, uh....I also.....to go with this of course if you're playing well....if you're playing well then you get uptight about your game. You get keyed up and it's to concentrate. You know you're playing well and you know...in with a chance then it's easier, much easier to...to you know get in there and....and start to...you don't have to think about it. I mean it's gotta be automatic.

5. *Colloquial language (idiom, slang, reduced form, and shared cultural knowledge= dine in or take away).*
6. *Rate of delivery (fast)*
7. *Stress, rhythm, and intonation (The PREsident is INTERested in eLIMinating the eMBargo).*

8. *Interaction (Students need to understand that good listeners (in conversation) are good responders. They know how to negotiate meaning (to give feedback, to ask for clarification, to maintain a topic) so that the process of comprehending can be complete rather than be aborted by insufficient interaction.*

Listening, in most general terms, is simply described as the act of hearing. While such definition merely alludes to listening as a neurological event, listening involves many invisible mental processes of understanding speech in a second or foreign language (Rost, 2002). No single definition exists that captures the complexity of these mental processes and thus what constitutes listening comprehension. Nevertheless, several aspects have emerged from evolving body of research over the last few decades that have contributed to better understanding of the nature listening comprehension. These aspects include (Rost, 2002):

1. **Receptive** (*receiving what the speaker actually says*):
 - *Getting the speaker's idea, decoding the speaker's message, receiving the transfer of images, impressions, thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, emotions from the speaker.*
2. **Constructive**
 - *Catching what is in a speaker's mind, finding out what is relevant for you, noticing what is not said.*
3. **Collaborative**
 - *Responding to what the speaker has said, acting interested while the speaker is talking, signalling to the speaker which ideas are clear and acceptable to you.*
4. **Transformative**
 - *Involvement with a speaker without judgment, empathizing with the speaker's motivation for speaking, the process for altering the cognitive environment of both the speaker and listener.*

Listening is a vital primary stage of language acquisition. If students do not listen or learn to listen well, then the latter stages of the complex pattern of language acquisition within a productive framework (in other words, Speaking and Writing) in the communicative classroom will be difficult. This study documents a number of

perspectives on why listening in English is difficult for foreign language learners. Listening in this study means when students have listening practice, for example listening to the dialogue, monolog, or long conversation. Moreover, students find it difficult when they have listening test with similar types of the listening practice above.

Research Question

The research question to ask is:

1. How difficult do you find it to listen in English?

The Purpose of The Study

The purpose of the study can be stated as follows:

1. Investigating how the learners of English find it difficult to learn to listen in English as a foreign language.

Method

Survey

Surveys were used to obtain information from students who learn English at TPB class 20 in academic year 2016. The number of students surveyed at the University was forty. The participants were given questionnaire about their perspectives and views on the processes of teaching and learning English as a foreign language, in particular, when they are learning to listen in English. In undertaking the surveys, questions were employed as a guide, and each of the participants was given approximately from 30 to 45 minutes to discuss and answer these questions. Since this is open-ended questions, the participants are free to express their ideas and comments as well as feedback.

Results and Discussion

This section discusses the participants' points of view concerning how easy they find it to learn to listen in English. The results of the interview are recorded in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Reasons Why Listening is Difficult

Theoretical Categories	Indicators	Frequency
Status of the language	English is not our language	35
	I don't speak English	30
	English is not the first or the second language, but a foreign language	5
Knowledge of language	I don't understand some vocabularies	25
	I am lack of vocabulary	30
	I don't understand the grammar and structure spoken	25
Familiarity	I am not familiar with spoken language	38
	The sound I am hearing is just passing	38
	I don't understand what the speakers are saying	30
	I find it difficult with the accent	25
	I don't get what the speakers are saying	35
Lack of practice	I practice listening exercises rarely	38
	I don't watch movies in English frequently	20
	I don't feel confident when I have listening test	28
Speed of the speaker	The speakers talks very fast	25
Speaker	The speakers do not speak clearly	27
Listening strategies	I am confused when I have listening test	35
	I forget with what the speakers are saying	37
	I do not know what to do and how to listen well	37
Anxiety	I feel worry before having a test	35
	I am afraid if the test is difficult	27
	I am afraid if I can't do the test	30
	I worry if the results are not good	26
	I am afraid if I am not able to answer	30
Translation	I have to translate what I am hearing	38
Nature of the Test	I have to listen and write at the same time	5
Lack of concentration	I am lack of focus during a test	7
Facilities	The sound system is not good	19

A number of reasons contribute to why listening in English is difficult. Although some people find it easy to listen in English, many people still find it difficult to listen in English. Table 1.1 records a number of reasons why listening is difficult for some people. The reasons are (1) the status of the language; (2) knowledge of language; (3) familiarity; (4) lack of practice; (5) speed of the speaker; (6) speaker himself; (7) listening strategies; (8) anxiety; (9) translation; (10) the nature of test ; (11) lack of concentration; and (12) facilities.

Table 1.1 shows that 38 respondents commented that they find it difficult to listen in English due to the way they accept the incoming information. The study is conducted in the setting where English is learned as a foreign language. The respondents commented

that they have to translate the information they receive before deciding the correct answer. This may relate to the status of the language spoken in that setting.

Moreover, the reason why listening in English is difficult is because the respondents lack practice listening in English. As a result, the participants are not familiar with what the speakers are talking. It becomes worse when the knowledge of language that the respondents have is limited. One of the reasons why respondents are not able to answer the questions in listening is due to the lack of the respondents' knowledge in grammar, and vocabulary.

Psychological factor, namely, anxiety also influences the ability of participants to respond in listening correctly. The indicators that students feel anxious are when feeling worry before having a test, feeling afraid if the test is difficult, feeling afraid if they cannot do the test, and feeling worry if the results are not good.

The result of the survey shows that 37 students need listening strategies to help them improve their listening skill. It is recorded in Table 1.1 that participants are confused when they have listening test, they are not able to remember the dialog, and they do not know what to do and how to listen in English well.

Another reason why the respondents find it difficult in listening in English is because they have to listen and write the answer at the same time. The nature of the test requires test takers or foreign language learners to conduct two tasks at the same time. Listening test is different from reading or grammar and structure tests. The listeners' responsibility is not only listening to the speakers, but they have to be able to decide the correct answer at the same time when they are listening, otherwise they will miss the session. This perspective is very interesting since this can be a new perspective in literature. This indicates that types of test require different approaches to do it. Lack of practice also contributes to the reason why listening is difficult.

Good facilities help the learners of English listen properly. This shows that if the facilities are not good, the listeners find it difficult to listen well. Facilities influence the process of learning in English, in particular, listening (Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul Mart, 2014).

Recommendation

The reasons why listening in English is difficult are found. Therefore, some recommendation can be made in order that the learners of English are able to improve their listening skill.

1. Students need to invest more time to practice listening in English. It is because time investment has an influence on English achievement. Time investment means how much time students spend in learning to listen in English. The more students practice their listening skill, the more students are familiar with English. If students are familiar with what they hear, the way and the speed how the speakers speak in English can be followed. Moreover, students need to spend more time to improve their grammar and vocabulary. The more the grammar and vocabulary improve, the higher the score students will get.
2. More opportunity to learn (Carroll, 1962; 1963; 1975; 1989) English need to be provided. Students need to practice listening many times in order to improve their listening skill. Students should be provided with different types of input like practicing listening in a variety of context such as lecturing, radio news, videos, films, music, TV plays, announcements, everyday conversation and dialogues, some monologs, and interviews . The more the students practice, the more the students feel confident. Feeling confident in learning English, in particular, listening helps students to reduce their stress when they get listening class or a test.
3. Anxiety is a psychological factor that has an effect on achievement. With more opportunity to learn, with more time spending on learning English, it is expected that some psychological factors that have negative effects on English achievement can be reduced.
4. Teaching and learning listening strategies is necessary. Listening strategies can be taught separately from the process of learning or integrating teaching listening strategies in the process of learning. Strategy investment has a positive influence on English achievement.
5. It is not enough to master the aspects of language in an English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT). Mastering types of test is also important since this can help the learners of English to have a good preparation in a test.

References

- Azmi, B. M., Celik, B., Yidliz, N., & Tugrul, M. C. (2014). Listening Comprehension Difficulties Encountered by Students in Second language Learning Class. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 4(4), 1-6.
- British Council (2013). The English Effect.
- Carroll, J. B. (1962). The prediction of success in intensive of foreign language training. In R. Glaser (Ed.), *Training and research in education* (pp. 87-136). Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Carroll, J. B. (1963). A model of school learning. *Teachers College Record*, 64(8), 723-733.
- Carroll, J. B. (1965). The contribution of psychological theory and educational research to the teaching of foreign languages. *The Modern Language Journal*, 49(5), 273-281.
- Carroll, J. B. (1975). *The Teaching of French as a Foreign Language in Eight Countries: International Studies in Evaluation*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell.
- Carroll, J.B. (1989). The Carroll Model: A 25-Year Retrospective and Prospective View. *Educational Researcher*, 18(26), 1-6.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Demont-Heinrich, C. (2008). American triumphalism and the "Offensive" defensiveness of the French: French as a Foil for English in U.S. Prestige Press Coverage of the global Hegemony of English. *Journal of Communication Inquiry*, 32(271), 271-291.
- Gilakjani, A.P. & Sabouri, N. B. (2016). Learners' Listening Comprehension Difficulties in English Language Learning: A Literature Review. *English Language Teaching*, 9 (6), 2016, 123-133.
- Graddol, D. (2006). "English next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a foreign language'." Retrieved June, 20, 2009, from <http://www.britishcouncil.org/files/documents/learning-research-english-next.pdf>.

- Kachru, B. B. (1992). The other tongue: English across culture. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *Teaching World Englishes*. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Kachru, B. B. (2005). Asian Englishes. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *Asian Englishes beyond the canon*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Rintaningrum, R. (2016). I find it to learn English When:..... Lecturers' Perspectives. International Proceeding Conference, JISE. Jambi University.

Title

Students' Perceptions of the Characteristics of
Effective English Teachers at Mataram State
Institute of Islamic Studies, Lombok

Author

Ribahan

Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies, Lombok-Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Ribahan, is an English teacher at Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies, Lombok-Indonesia. His research interests include classroom instruction and curriculum development. He received a master's degree in English Education from Malang State University-Indonesia. He can be contacted via e-mail at Ribhansyah@yahoo.co.id

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the students' perceptions of the characteristics of effective English teachers and the characteristics considered a first priority among the existing ones. This study was of descriptive in nature, namely a survey. A questionnaire was distributed to the students of Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies. The results indicate that accuracy of pronunciation (70%), asking oral question at the beginning of each session (69%), and using appropriate teaching techniques (68%) were three most important characteristics of effective English teachers at Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies, Lombok.

Keywords: *perception, characteristic, effective teachers, English teaching*

Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Mataram Jalan Pendidikan No. 35 Mataram, NTB - Indonesia
--

Introduction

Basically, the main duties of a teacher are to plan, prepare, and deliver lessons to all students in the class. Richard (2002) states that teachers highly contribute to creating a good learning environment, planning a variety of learning activities, and delivering effective teaching materials. In line with this, the teachers need to be professional in order to be able to improve their teaching quality and achieve optimum results. Thus, the teachers should have lot of competencies, skills, and knowledge to support their profession.

As educators, the English teachers are expected to actively promote their skill and professionalism, in this case, they have to develop their English knowledge and skill on and on, both spoken and written. This is important since the improvement of the quality of the English teachers has direct and positive impact on the improvement of the quality of students and the teaching and learning process. In short, the English teachers should attempt to meet the criteria of an effective English teacher in order to be able to perform their duties well in implementing the teaching and learning to the students.

There is a close relationship between the effectiveness of a teacher and the quality of his/her teaching and learning activities. An effective teacher is a supporting factor which seems very important in the effort to improve the quality of teaching and learning process. The teacher with poor performance can reduce the quality of teaching and learning dramatically. In this context, improving the quality of foreign language teaching without improving the quality of the teacher seems impossible to realize and this effort requires an effective English teacher.

Literature Review

Definition of Perception

According to <http://dictionary.cambridge.org>, perception is a belief or opinion, often held by many people and based on how things seem. Meanwhile, Leavitt in Sobur (2003, p. 445) explains perception in the narrow and broad sense. In the narrow sense, perception is a view; the way how a person views something, and in the broad sense, perception is a an understanding; the way how a person understands something. In addition, Rakhmat (2007, p. 51) describes that perception is the observation of objects, events, or relations which can be obtained by concluding information and interpreting

the message. Thus, perception is the ability to see, understand, and interpret a stimulus in order to be something meaningful and interpretable.

General Views on Effective teachers

According to Thompson (2008), effective teachers have good teaching skills and positive personality traits. As teaching quality becomes an important factor to enhance the effectiveness of learning, it would be necessary to know what the students perceive as the characteristics of effective teachers. In addition, Neil (1991) states that effective teachers should have a basic knowledge of his profession and knowledge of the subject matter. Successful teachers possess a lot of teaching strategies and techniques which reflect his knowledge of the subject matter. Henson & Eller (1999) suggests that an effective teacher would always think to look for a better way of teaching. Furthermore, Slavin (2009) states that one of the determinants of how to become an effective teacher is the teacher's belief to make changes. He adds that What makes a teacher effective not only dealing with the knowledge of the subject matter, but also it has to do with the knowledge of teaching skills.

Characteristics of Effective EFL Teachers

According to Nunan (2009), to be effective, language teachers need both procedural and declarative knowledge equally. Procedural knowledge covers the ability to do something or to know how to do things such as being able to perform an English conversation, know how to plan lessons and know to handle pair work. On the other hand, declarative knowledge encompasses all the things the teachers know and they can teach, for example the rules of grammar. Meanwhile, Brown and Rodgers (2002) states that being an effective teacher in English teaching and learning requires combination of mechanical and mental components. The mechanical component involves the skills demanded for the presentation of the content in the most convenient ways for the students, while the mental component includes the system of the teacher's belief about teaching and learning and the teacher's personality. Furthermore, Thomson (2008) suggests that effective language teachers build a good relationship with their students, showing patience, and respecting the students. In line with this, Footer *et al.* (2000) states that having personal relationship with the students is very important and essential for the

teachers in order to be closer to the students and showing interests to their emotions. Furthermore, Borg (2006) identifies some essential characteristics of effective teachers, namely knowing and mastering the target language, the ability to identify, describe clarify, and arousing interest and motivation of the students, fairness on the students by showing a feeling of like and availability of time for the students. Patel and Jain (2008: 145) suggests that an English teacher must have a number of criteria, some of which are (a) knowing various methods of English language teaching, (b) having methodical ability and systematic skills, (c) having the ability to pronounce correctly in English, and (d) having the ability to speak English with right stress and intonation.

Methodology

Research Design

This study was of descriptive in the form of survey. Commonly, the purpose of a survey is to gather information about conditions, attitudes, and events at a time (Nunan, 1992, p. 140). The survey seeks to investigate opinion, perception, psychological and sociological construct.

Participants of the Study

The participants of this study were the first and second year students of Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies in the Academic Year 2014/2015. The number of participants in this study was 130 students, 58 females and 72 males.

Research Instruments

In this study, the instrument used to collect the data was a questionnaire adopted from Salahshour and Hajizadeh (2012). The items in this questionnaire were divided into eight categories related to the characteristics of effective English teachers, namely *personal qualities, command in English, teaching methodology, evaluation method, amount of teacher's emphasis on different skills, mastery over teaching, teacher student-relations, and class management*. Each category was assessed by the students in the four scales, namely *not important at all, somehow important, important, and very important*.

Data Collection

The data were collected by asking the students to give an answer or assessment to each item on the questionnaire using one of the four scales that has been mentined After the questionnaires were filled by the students, the researcher made calculation based on the percentage of each item.

Data Analysis

The data collected from questionnaire were analyzed descriptively. In this case, the percentage is the average score of each item in the questionnaire. The average percentage of the student's answer on the questionnaire became the answer to the students' perceptions of the characteristics of effective English teachers.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1 Personal Qualities

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Teacher's gender	61%	18%	12%	9%	0%
2	Teacher's age	14%	36%	9%	41%	0%
3	Good appearance	12%	14%	30%	45%	21%
4	Being self-confidence	8%	9%	25%	57%	0%
5	Being enthusiastic and lively	10%	12%	29%	48%	0%
6	Being creative and spontaneous	7%	15%	35%	43%	0%
7	Having a loud and clear voice	0%	13%	33%	54%	14%
8	Being punctual (in terms of starting the class and returning the student's paper	0%	11%	28%	61%	56%

9	Having patience with students	5%	9%	28%	58%	0%
10	Having interest in his/her job and feeling responsibility for teaching	2%	8%	37%	52%	51%

Table 1 shows that more than half of the respondents (61%) perceived teacher's gender to be *not important at all*. The table also reveals that being punctual (in terms of starting the class and returning the student's paper) was the most frequently selected item in which 61% of the respondents identified it as *very important*. Having patience with students (58%), being self-confidence (57%), having a loud and clear voice (54%), having interest in his/her job and feeling responsibility for teaching (52%) were also believed to be *very important* in which more than half of the respondents chose these items. Beside that, the table indicates that starting the class and returning the student's paper (56%) and having interest in his/her job and feeling responsibility for teaching (51%) were *marked as a first priority* by the respondents.

Table 2 Command in English

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Accuracy of teacher vocabulary	0%	15%	25%	61%	63%
2	Accuracy of teacher structure	0%	20%	28%	52%	50%
3	Accuracy of pronunciation	0%	8%	22%	70%	68%
4	Accuracy of intonation	9%	32%	42%	17%	0%
5	Fluency in the foreign language	0%	6%	27%	67%	56%

As indicated in table 2, the majority of the respondents believed that accuracy of pronunciation was *very important* (70%) and it was *marked as a first priority* by the respondents (68%). More than half of the respondents also perceived that fluency in the

foreign language (67%) and accuracy of teacher vocabulary (61%) were *very important*. What interesting here is that accuracy of pronunciation, accuracy of teacher vocabulary, and fluency in the foreign language were *marked as a first priority* by more than half of the respondents.

Table 3 Teaching Methodology

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Using appropriate teaching techniques	0%	12%	21%	68%	62%
2	Using pantomime, pictures, and acting to clarify points	15%	18%	44%	22%	0%
3	Providing detailed explanation while reading or listening (e.g. checking all the new vocabularies)	8%	15%	29%	47%	52%
4	Using the students' native language when necessary	22%	14%	31%	34%	0%
5	Going beyond textbook when teaching	15%	25%	43%	17%	0%
6	Providing cultural information about the target language's culture	57%	9%	21%	13%	0%
7	Providing explicit error correction	5%	14%	52%	28%	0%
8	Giving regular homework tasks	4%	21%	31%	45%	55%
9	Use of pair work	28%	26%	32%	15%	0%
10	Use of group work	8%	20%	15%	57%	22%
11	Using suitable amount of teacher talk	5%	33%	35%	27%	0%
12	Encouraging students to use the English language all the time in class	2%	12%	35%	52%	72%

From table 3, the data reveals that among the twelve items, using appropriate teaching techniques was the one chosen as *very important* by respondents (68%) and it was *marked as a first priority* by the respondents (62%). In addition, more than half of the respondents believed that the use of group work (57%) and encourage students to use English all the time in class (52%) were *very important*, and even the second item was mosly *marked as a first priority* by the respondents (72%). It was also interesting that 57% of the respondents perceived providing cultural information about the target language's culture to be *not important at all*. The data also indicates that providing explicit error correction was the item to be mostly chosen by the respondents (52%), followed by other two items, namely using pantomime, pictures, and acting to clarify points (44%) and going beyond textbook when teaching (43%). Another interesting point is that giving regular homework tasks (55%) and providing detailed explanation while reading or listening (52%) were *marked as a first priority* by the respondents in addition to using appropriate teaching techniques.

Table 4 Evaluation Method

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Giving quizzes frequently	20%	36%	17%	27%	35%
2	Asking oral questions at the beginning of each session	0%	9%	22%	69%	61%

In table 4, it is clear that asking oral questions at the beginning of each session was the most frequently selected item by the respondents in which they considered this item *very important* (69%). Interestingly, more than half of the respondents (61%) marked asking oral questions at the beginning of each session *as a first priority*.

Table 5 Amount of Teacher's Emphasis on Different Skills

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Emphasizing grammar	8%	12%	23%	57%	48%
2	Emphasizing speaking	0%	8%	27%	65%	64%
3	Emphasizing vocabulary	4%	22%	25%	48%	55%
4	Emphasizing listening	13%	17%	28%	42%	0%

As shown by table 5 that among the four skills emphasized by the teacher in learning process, speaking was the one to be considered *very important* (65%) by the respondents as well as marked *as a first priority* (64%). The table also indicates that many respondents (57%) perceived grammar to be *very important*, while vocabulary and listening, although they were considered *very important*, their percentage was lower. In relation to the items *marked as a first priority*, vocabulary was the second item chosen to be the most selected by the respondents (55%). Another important fact from the table is that listening was the only skill considered *not as a first priority*.

Table 6 Mastery over Teaching

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Capability to communicate ideas, knowledge, intended teaching items	3%	10%	19%	68%	52%
2	Knowledge of the subject matter	8%	11%	23%	58%	55%
3	Preparation and lesson planning	0%	16%	40%	44%	0%
4	Capability to answer students questions	4%	31%	44%	21%	0%

5	Use of efficient and adequate method of elicitation while teaching	7%	20%	22%	51%	58%
6	Ability to guide students to independent learning	0%	15%	60%	25%	0%
7	Knowledge of students' specialist courses	28%	45%	13%	13%	0%
8	Ability to identify the students learning styles	11%	25%	37%	27%	0%

Table 6 shows that the mostly chosen items by the respondents were the capability to communicate ideas knowledge intended teaching items (68%), the knowledge of the subject matter (58%), and the capability to answer students questions (51%). The item to be mostly marked by the respondents *as a first priority* was the use of efficient and adequate method of elicitation while teaching (58%). The interesting point here is that there were the same percentage (13%) between the choice of *important* and *very important* on the item the knowledge of students' specialist courses.

Table 7 Teacher-Student Relation

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Having respect for students	7%	9%	20%	64%	57%
2	Being kind and friendly with students	6%	18%	32%	44%	50%
3	Encouraging participation	9%	49%	18%	24%	0%
4	Creating motivation	5%	42%	37%	15%	0%
5	Helping to create self-confidence in students	5%	9%	33%	53%	25%
6	Attracting and maintaining student's attention	13%	26%	52%	8%	0%
7	Individual help to students	4%	7%	33%	56%	45%

8	Knowledge of students' mother tongue	52%	10%	16%	22%	0%
9	Providing appropriate feedback to students	5%	28%	43%	23%	0%
10	Having contact with the students' parent	41%	17%	28%	14%	0%
11	Asking for students' feedback (About the class and teaching method)	5%	32%	26%	37%	0%
12	Being available outside of class	0%	8%	44%	48%	21%

Table 7 reveals that more than half of the respondents considered having respect for students *very important* (64%). Even, this item was also marked *as a first priority* by the respondents (57%). The table above also shows that although helping to create self-confidence in students (53%) and individual help to students (56%) were believed to be *very important* by the respondents, they did not obtain high percentage when they were *marked as a first priority*. Another interesting point is that although being kind and friendly with students has lower percentage than having respect for students, both were *marked as first priority* by the respondents (50%). The respondents also perceived that knowledge of students' mother tongue was *not important at all* by the respondents (52%). Lastly, attracting and maintaining student's attention was the item considered *important* by the respondents (52%) and obtained highest percentage among the others.

Table 8 Class Management (%)

No	Characteristics of effective English teachers	Not important at all	Somehow important	Important	Very important	Marked as first priority
1	Use of White board efficiently (Using colorful markers and writing well)	0%	8%	43%	48%	0%
2	Using class time wisely	0%	12%	22%	67%	32%
3	Maintaining order in class/ Class control	0%	8%	28%	64%	0%

4	Following the material specified and guidelines provided by the institute	4%	24%	35%	38%	20%
5	Movement around the class	5%	12%	23%	59%	0%

The data in table 8 shows that more than half of the respondents considered using class time wisely (67%) and maintaining order in class/class control (64%) *very important*. Movement around the class was also believed to be *very important* by the respondents (59%), but it was not *marked as a first priority*. In addition, 40% of the respondents believed that use of white board efficiently (using colorful markers and writing well) was *important*. Another interesting point is that following the material specified and guidelines provided by the institute was believed to be *not important at all* by the respondents (4%).

Conclusion

Based on the result of the study, the most important characteristics of effective English teachers at Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies according to the students' perceptions are accuracy of pronunciation (70%), asking oral questions at the beginning of each session (69%), using appropriate teaching techniques (68%) capability to communicate ideas, knowledge, and intended teaching items (68%), fluency in the foreign language (67), using class time wisely (67%), emphasizing speaking (65%), having respect for students (64%), maintaining order in class/ class control (64%), and being punctual in terms of starting the class and returning the student's paper (61%). Meanwhile, the items marked as a first priority among several characteristics of effective English teachers at Mataram State Institute of Islamic Studies according to the students' perception are personal qualities (being punctual in terms of starting the class and returning the student's paper), command in English (the accuracy of pronunciation), teaching methodology (encouraging the students to use English language at all the time in class), evaluation method (asking oral questions at the beginning of each lesson), amount of teacher's emphasis on different skills (emphasizing speaking), mastery over

teaching (capability to answer students questions), teacher-student relations (having respect for students), and class management (using class time wisely).

References

- Brown, J., & Rodgers, T. (2002). *Doing Second Language Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Borg, S. (2006). *The Distinctive Characteristics of Foreign Language Teachers*. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(1), 3–31.
- Footer, C., Vermette, P., Wisniewski, S., Agnello, A., & Pegano, C. (2000). *The Characteristics of Bad High School Teachers Reveal Avoidable Behaviors for New Teachers*. *Education*, 121, 122-128.
- Henson, K.T. & Eller, B.E. (1999). *Educational Psychology for Effective Teaching* Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Neil, S. (1991). *Classroom Nonverbal Communication*. London: Routledge.
- Nunan, David, (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press
- Nunan, David, (1999). *So You Think That Language Teaching Is a Profession*, Part 1. *TESOL Matters*, 9 (4), 3.
- Patel, M.F and Jain, Praven, M. (2008). *English Language Teaching (Methods, Tools & Techniques)*. Jaipur: Sunrise Publishers & Distributors.
- Richards, Jack. C (2002). *30 Years of TEFL/TESL: A Personal Reflection*. *RELC Journal*, 33 (2), 1-35.
- Rakhmat, Jalaluddin. (2007). *Psikologi Komunikasi*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Sobur, Alex, (2003). *Psikologi Umum*. Bandung: Pustaka Setia.
- Slavin, R.E. (2009). *Educational Psychology: Theory and Practices*. New Jersey: Pearson.
- Salahshour, N., & Hajizadeh, N. (2012). *Characteristics of Effective EFL Instructors: Language Learners' Perceptions*. *Procedia-Social Behavioural Sciences*, 70, 163–173.
- Thompson, S. (2008). *Defining A Good Teacher Simply! Modern EnglishTeacher*, 17 (1), 5-14.<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/perception>

Title

Using Mind Visualizer as Digital Brainstorming in Teaching Writing: A Study at
Muhammadiyah University of Parepare

Author

Salasiah A
Muhammadiyah University of Parepare

Bio-Profile:

Salasiah is a lecturer of English at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare, Indonesia. She received her bachelor Degree at IKIP Ujungpandang, in 1999, master degree in TESOL International from Monash University, Australia in 2004 and, now she is enrolled as a doctorate student at Makasaar State University. Her research interests include TEFL, teaching media, and teacher identity. She can be contacted at evisalasiah@gmail.com

Abstract

Using ICT in learning has been popular in this digital world as a part of developing learning quality. Recently, many learning media use technology in class such as Edmodo, education game, moodle, several learning websites, mindvisualizer, graphic organizer, etc. In this study, mindvisualizer as a form of e-mindmapping is used as a digital brainstorming for writing. Generally, mindvisualizer is used for presentation such for businessman, yet, in this study it is modified to be used for writing class. Mindvisualizer is a kind of e-mindmapping software that can be downloaded online. The software eases the user to form mindmapping concept in developing idea. In this research, mindvisualizer is used as a digital brainstorming instead of using manual brainstorming to write. The application can ease the language learner to make writing concept as the program completed with some menus in it.

Address for correspondence

Muhammadiyah University of Parepare
Jl. Jend. Ahmad Yani Km 6 Parepare
Sulawesi-Selatan, Indonesia , 91113

The research aimed to describe the effectiveness of mindvisualizer as digital brainstorming in writing class for English Education department students. It applied descriptive quantitative design. The subject of the research was 30 students of English Education Department who enrolled in 2nd semester, 2015/2016 academic year and taken randomly. The data was collected using questionnaire and analyzed quantitatively. The result of the study showed that mindvisualizer was effective to be used as digital brainstorming instead of manual brainstorming in writing.

Keywords: *brainstorming, computer application, effectiveness,, mindvisualizer, writing*

Introduction

Using media in teaching is very popular now for teacher and students as the increasing technology gives big contribution on it. These teaching media can be prepared by the teacher himself or taken from other source such as via internet. Teachers who have not had any experiences in teaching media can make this teaching media as a good idea for planning a lesson and as a teaching aid in teaching session.

In teaching English as a foreign language, teaching aid is definitely needed to ease the learners mastering English. Having teaching aid could alleviate the burden of learning that apparently exists in teaching learning process. Problems of learning that may occur such as boredom, laziness, passive, uninteresting class and many others. In order to minimize these learning problems, teaching media could be one alternative way to be considered. Kind of teaching aid can be seen in some forms such as (a) printed material, e.g. book, students' assignment sheet, teacher's book; (b) non printed material like cassette or audio media, video and material from computer; (c) printed and non printed material such as self access material and lesson based internet. In addition, material that not for teaching purpose can be used for teaching as well such as television program, magazine, newspaper, etc.

The role of materials as one of teaching aids in language teaching is still in vital position as stated by Cunningsworth (1995:7) below:

- a. Materials can be used as a source for presentation whether for oral or written
- b. A source of activity for learner and as a communicative interaction

- c. A reference for learner in learning grammar, vocabulary, spelling and many others
- d. A source for improving idea in class action
- e. As a course outline in preparing the teaching concept
- f. A motivator for new teacher in enriching their reference

The teacher should be responsible in making good teaching material as it should be in line with the need and interest of the students. Nunan (1991:209) stated that teaching materials are consistent with the needs and interest of the learner they are intended to serve, as well as being in harmony with institutional ideologies on the nature of language.

The regular material in teaching can trigger the boredom and uninterested mood to learn. If boredom has existed in the teaching and learning process, one of the successful keys in learning has been missed. This opinion is stated by Ur (1996:23) that boredom is not only an unpleasant feeling in itself; it also leads to learner inattention, low motivation and ultimately less learning. To avoid it, the varied material is needed. The variety of material also can make the learners interested in it and can support their spirit to learn for example in class of writing.

Writing is one of language skills that need more practice to obtain compared to other skills like reading, speaking, and listening. It needs more courage and self-confidence as well as time to put the learner into being a successful writer of English. Some learners need a very long time period to be able to make an English writing. It requires more effort to gain the ability of writing especially for the non-English native speaker such as in Indonesia and some Asian countries. Therefore the teacher of English is supposed to be more creative in making and giving teaching material to students to support them for being able to write in English well.

Regarding teaching English particularly in skill of writing at university level, it still faces many problems. The students' writing ability is still far from the target as found on general observation toward English department students in my area. They lack support in exploring their language ability particularly in writing English. They just explore their English ability when it is required like in doing main assignment for writing class. Moreover, commonly students show the low interest in joining some English programs like debate, English speech, storytelling, English quiz, etc that can support their English learning and keep maintain their old mindset in learning. As a result of their

stable effort and mind set, slow progress in mastering English definitely occur. Another reason' is the monotonous material and media of writing in teaching setting. The old traditional way of teaching like explaining, discussing and doing assignment on printed books still dominate the model of teaching learning process and support the use of monotonous teaching material and media.

In order to break this old teaching setting, one alternative solution for this problem in writing is by applying interesting material that fulfills students' curiosity and intellectuality. Nowadays, creating interesting materials can be supported by ICT application. Using ICT in class as well as maximizing multimedia technology practice can be a good option for teacher to break the ice. In this study, implementing mindvisualizer, an e-mindmapping tool as one of Information Communication Technology stuff is expected to be a good and helpful option for learning writing. The main focus of this study was the lack of variety on writing teaching material. Therefore this study would like to know whether the application of mindvisualizer as one alternative teaching material can improve writing ability or not and to know its effectiveness in teaching writing.

Literature Review

ICT in learning

The technology usage in teaching English especially in writing is quite widely popular now in teaching learning process. Several studies on ICT use for learning have been done by some scholars and they proved that empowering technology use for learning can give significant change on their learning result. The use of technology in learning can be in form of web based or non-web based material. In fact, most teachers have used laptop/computer for teaching aid whether for making lesson plan, teaching media or teaching aid in learning process. The use of ICT is also supplied completely by the availability of internet access everywhere. As a result, there are many educational websites available online and easy to be accessed by everyone who need it.

Kaspar in Conacher (2004: 9) emphasized the use of technology (ICT) in language-learning process may impact a lot in language classroom as the students not only expand their linguistic and sociocultural knowledge but also get ICT skill via target language. Also the use of ICT on teacher's side helps the teachers a lot in varying their

teaching materials as well as their teaching media. The use of ICT in teaching learning process has been examined by Cahyani (2013) who focused her study on teacher's attitude and technology use in Indonesian EFL classroom. She found out the use of technology in learning process is inseparable with the success of teaching and learning activities. She showed that the existence of technology in learning is requirement for making language instruction attractive and succeeding the teaching learning process.

In addition, ICT usage has spread positive atmosphere in education world. The availability of technology has been widely accessed for helping teachers in varying their teaching whether deals on material, methods, strategy, techniques, media or teaching tools. Also, some online forums for teaching development are available and free to be accessed namely Teacher Voice (TVE), English Teacher Association, etc.

Mindvisualizer

One kind of ICT web material is MindVisualizer (MV). Mindvisualizer is software available in internet and generally use to ease the user for having a presentation. Normally people use this software to deal on business stuff by using its presentation features. Mindvisualizer is a sort of e-mindmapping; a tool that eases the user for creating mind maps. The features available in this tool make the user able to present ideas, assignment and issues in such simple and interesting way.

In addition, this tool can be used to create concept map for learning activity such as in writing or speaking activity. Having concept map before doing something is suggested to make us still on the main line of our plan. Also having a concept map can be one of effective methods in learning according to the theory of De Porter (2005:175-176). Besides, mindvisualizer is very easy to make and use even for beginner. It includes easy, accessible sidebars that you can drag and drop objects, use context menus, and visual elements, restructure your maps easily; reduce redundant inputs and so on.

Mindvisualizer can be made simply as you can create central topic connected to subtopics with hierarchical relationships or creating floating ideas to represent multiple starting points. Also you can put special colors on item and frame styles to denote different meaning. Each topic branch is automatically colored. You can insert icons to your topics to symbolize particular idea and attach text notes for additional information as well as hyperlinks to your topics in which these hyperlinks can be related to any kind

of source. In addition you can put in attachments embedded to the visual map file and spell checker is available.

Mindvisualizer has similar concept to mind mapping but different in application. It is a kind of computer software that easy to be accessed in technology world while mind mapping is still a traditional method in developing creative idea of the learner by using learner's imagination.

Mindvisualizer for writing

Mindvisualizer as one of computer software can be used for improving the learning of writing. There are some advantages of mindvisualizer in learning:

1. Ease the making of mind map by mapping information into smaller and detail pattern through activating creative imagination of the user/
2. Learner can focus on main topic and develop it into subtopics by using the pattern of mindvisualizer.
3. Learner can emphasize the subtopics by making highlights on colors and frame styles.
4. Eases the learner puts and stresses the subtopics by adding icons.

In applying mindvisualizer in class of writing, the teacher can show the model of mindvisualizer and how to use it in learning. As an illustration, the teacher gives mindvisualizer software or asks the learners to download it in internet, then provide writing topic and develop the main topic given. The next step is making brainstorming using mindvisualizer as many as they can to enrich the idea for writing. Thus, they can start making their first writing draft by taking the idea from their mindvisualizer format. Some learning topics that can be chosen are family, biography, habit, environment, tradition food or customs and many others.

Another effective way in applying mindvisualizer in class of writing is by providing students with the software along with some assignments to do. These assignments should help the students to explore their writing ideas. After exploring the assignments by using mindvisualizer, they would present it in pair or in front of their friends. The main focus on the activity is their ability to express their idea in writing by using this media.

In class of writing, mindvisualizer is applied by making it for some topics and the students make a kind of presentation deals on the topics chosen. This activity can

make them more active to speak as they should explain the material they put in their mindvisualizer map.

Methodology

The research applied descriptive quantitative method. The study aims to describe the effectiveness of mindvisualizer application in class of writing. The research instrument in this study is observation and questionnaire. The observation was done to see the students' activity during the research process and for the study; non participant observation was chosen to be used while questionnaire applied to check the sample's response toward the application of mindvisualizer in class of writing. The sample of the study was English Department students of Muhammadiyah University of Parepare at the second semester 2015/2016 academic year. The research was done for 4 meetings and at the end of fourth meeting, the questionnaire was distributed to check the response of the research subject toward the application of mindvisualizer in class of writing. The questionnaires' main points are as follows:

1. Students' knowledge on mindvisualizer
2. Mindvisualizer application
3. Benefits of mindvisualizer in class of writing
4. Weakness of mindvisualizer.

Findings and discussion

This study focuses on the effectiveness of mindvisualizer application in learning writing which is divided into four main items in the statement of the questionnaire. The questionnaires main items focus on students' knowledge on mindvisualizer, mindvisualizer application, benefits of mindvisualizer in class of writing, and the weakness of mindvisualizer. The questionnaire was distributed at the last meeting of the research.

Based on the findings through questionnaire, it was found that the students' knowledge on mindvisualizer at the first time introducing it as still very limited. There was 80, 43 % respondents agreed on the statement that mindvisualizer (MV) was a new thing for them. There were only 4, 34% disagreed on the statement. Also, mindvisualizer was new thing and never been applied yet for learning process as 47, 82% students have

the same opinion on it, while 41, 29% students had different opinion. Dealing on mindvisualizer application, 70, 08% agreed on the statement that MV can be used for learning development. They also supported the use of MV in class of writing (100%) and none disagreed on the statement.

On the questionnaire statement about students' knowledge, it can be said the students' knowledge about mindvisualizer is still very limited. The reason of it based on free interview is they got less information about learning software which in fact can be explored freely in internet and they are not get used to English learning media application. Conversely, these teacher have facilitated themselves with technology aids such as notebook, I-pad, smartphone, and others modern gadget that supposed ease them to assist their teaching.

The statement about the benefit of mindvisualizer consists of five items. At the first item, 93,52% respondents deal on the statement that mindvisualizer is very beneficial for writing class and none rejected it. This software was also valuable in class of writing as it ease the user to organize their ideas (95,64%). Besides, this media make the user free to expand ideas (56,94%) and make their writing material more interesting by split the subtopics and stress them by coloring or frame it (95,64%). Another advantage is mindvisualizer can be made quickly and easily in learning writing than traditional way (95,64%). Hoegh (2015) in voice of user of mindvisualizer said that this software tool is a friendly user tools as it has many branches and sub-branches that can be formed effortless without giving any hard thought.

In applying mindvisualizer in class of writing, this media can be categorized easy and effective. This tool is ease the students to create mindmaps . They can visually represent their ideas, tasks and other issues formed and linked around a main idea. Mindvisualizer covers easy and accessible side bars. The students can create their mindmaps in a very quick time and interesting as they can drag and drop objects, put visual elements, some inputs and many others. The tool eases the students to create mindmaps as mindmapping is one effective method in learning as stated by De Porter, et.al (2005:175-176).

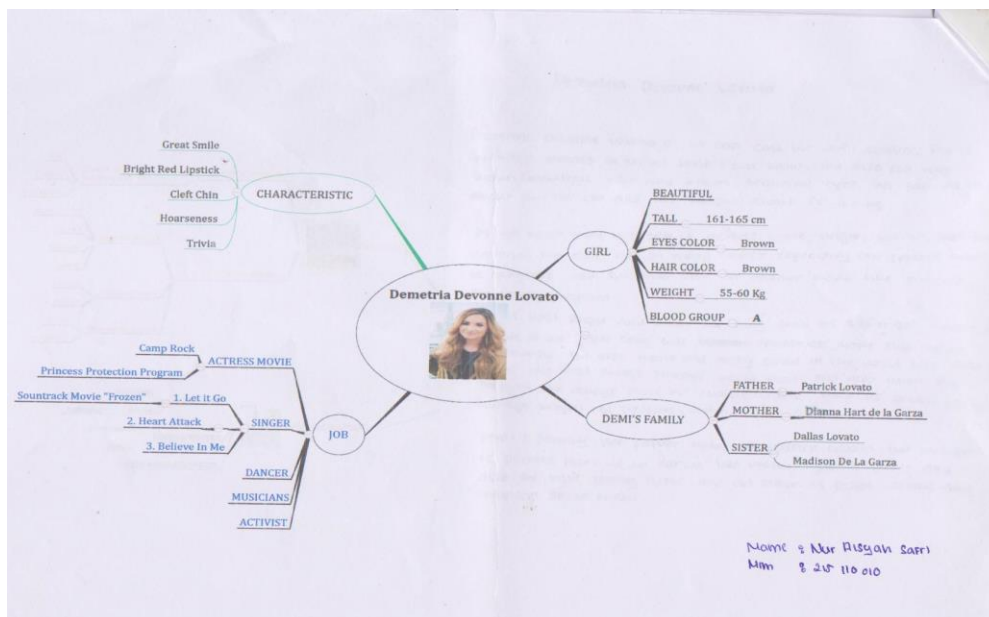
In relation to the effectiveness of mindvisualizer, 83% students agreed with the statement that mindvisualizer is easy to be learnt and applied in class of writing and only 2,17% disagreed on it. Moreover, this e-mindmapping enables the learner to write and

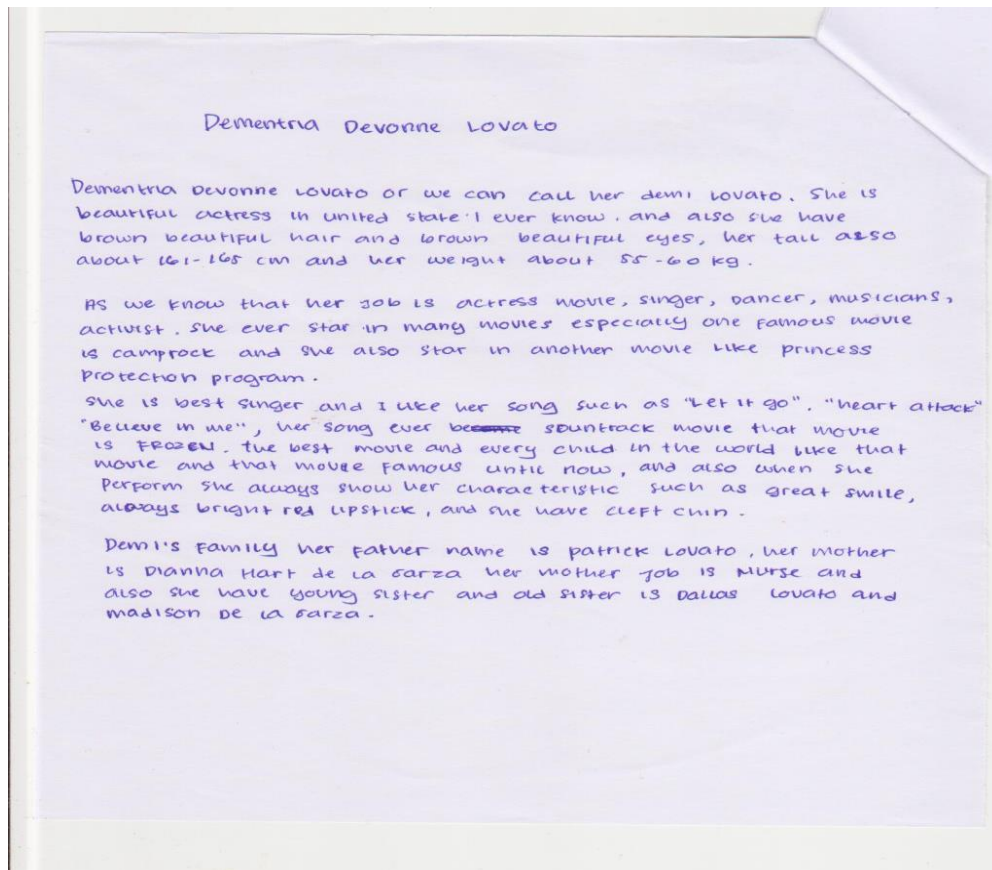
expand the ideas in writing (89, 12%). In addition, 67,38% students has the same opinion that MV is useful for learning writing since easy to access and make them more active to speak (73,90%).

Furthermore, mindvisualizer can focus the learner to speak (91,29%) and be more confident to speak English as the material well prepared (80,43%). This software can be time saving in designing writing material as 82,60% of the research sample voted on it and also they agreed saying that their writing material get more interesting by using MV 991,29%), although few students get doubt about it (6, 52%).

Mindvisualizer facilitates many benefits for learning. The data taken from questionnaire, observation and free interview with research sample agreed that mindvisualizer ease them to mind map their ideas if they want to speak. They also had the same opinion that the tool is simple to use as they can create central topic connected to subtopics with hierarchical relationships and activate the user imaginative creation. Based on some students' assignments on mindvisualizer, it can be seen students' creative talent in designing their assignments which are very attractive, artistic and full of ideas. Moreover, the learner can concentrate more on one topic and develop the topics by using the existing format in this tool. Besides the subtopics made can be create more interesting by coloring them or framing or adding icons.

Below is one of the student's work using digital brainstorming for writing





In applying this e-mind mapping for class of writing, some problems emerge based on observation sheet and open ended questionnaire. These problems are the program has limited active time application, only 3 months for the free download and as the result the data can only be saved for certain time and hard to be edited if the active time ended. Other problem is some laptops/notebooks are not compatible with this software so some students make their mindvisualizer format in their friend's notebook. Despite its weakness, all research samples agreed that mindvisualizer software is very useful and effective in learning writing.

Despite its benefits, there was few difficulties in using mindvisualizer in class of writing. Based on students' informal interview and observation, this tool has problem to be downloaded since there is limited usage for free download. It is just for about two months and if it exceeds the time limit, the data cannot be saved. Another problem is the tool can only be downloaded for certain kind of laptop/notebook. This problem is unclear yet whether the user knowledge to download it still limited or from the computer program.

Conclusion and suggestion

In this paper, I have discussed the effect of ICT in teaching learning process especially the use of mindvisualizer; an e-mindmapping in class of writing. It is shown that the existence of ICT in learning make the education world more colorful and meaningful as well as assist the teachers a lot in running the learning process more interesting. It is found out that mindvisualizer (MV) is very beneficial in learning a language including learning English as it eases the learner to map their ideas. The availability of branches which can be added into sub branches in this mapping software put the user into less effort to think hard of ideas. This tool can be used to expand ideas freely as the format has been exist in the accessible bars. As an alternative option, writing material taken from mindvisualizer design can be an interesting tool for learners since they can design their own and add visual application to subtopics. The tool is also effective to use since it is easy and quick to design compare to manual mind map. Regardless the easiness to use in learning writing, there is a problem emerges in applying this software due to time limitation in using it that affect the temporary file storage. If you download the free trial of the software, it will be end within 21 days and hard to save as well. Therefore, it will be very safe if you buy the software. Also this application is just compatible for some kinds of notebook/computer based on the students' experience in applying the tool during the research.

Regarding the findings, it can be suggested that mindvisualizer application can be applied in English learning especially in class of writing as it eases the user to speak in line and detail as well as attractive for the audiences. In addition this software is recommended to be developed in all aspect of learning English as it is easy to make and effective to use and for the further research, this study can be developed for other skill of English.

References

Cahyani, Hilda & Cahyono, Bambang Y . Teachers' attitude and Technology Use in Indonesian EFL Classrooms. Online. taken from www.teflin.org, accessed on May, 2014

- Chambers, Angela, Conacher, Joan E & Littlemore, Jeanette. (2004). *ICT and Language Learning, Integrating Pedagogy and Practice*. Birmingham. The University of Birmingham
- Conacher, Jean E., Taalas, Peppy & Vogel, Thomas. (2004). New Language Learning and Teaching Environments: How does ICT fit in?. In Conacher, Jean E. et al (Eds). *ICT and Language Learning, Integrating Pedagogy and Practice*. Birmingham. The University of Birmingham
- Concept of Writing. Online. Taken from <http://area.dge.mec.pt/gramatica/whatwritingis.htm4>. Accessed on Nov 24, 2013
- Concept of Mindvisualizer. Taken from <http://mind-visualizer-deutsche-version.software.informer.com/3.8/>. Accessed on Nov 24, 2013.
- Cunningsworth, A. (1997). *Choosing your coursebook*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- DePotter, Bobbi & Mike Hernacky. (2006). *Quantum Learning*. Jakarta. Kaifa.
- Djumingin, Sulastriningsih. (2010). *Penilaian Pembelajaran Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia, Teori dan Penerapannya*. Makassar: Badan Penerbit UNM
- Ellis, Mark and Johnson, Christine. (1994). *Teaching Business English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Gay, L.R. (1981). *Educational Research. Competencies for Analysis and Application*. Second Edition. Columbus. Ohio Charles E. Merrill Publishing
- Hough, Alice. (2015). Voice of User. online. Taken from <http://innovationgear.com/mind-mapping-software/>. Accessed on June 5, 2015
- Nunan, David. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology. A textbook for teachers*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Richards, Jack & Theodore S. Rodgers. (2008). *Approaches and method in language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Slameto. (2006). *Evaluasi Pendidikan*. Jakarta. PT Bumi Angkasa.
- Ur, Penny. (1996). *A course in language teaching, practice and theory*. Sydney: the press syndicate of the University of Cambridge
- What is mindvisualizer. Taken from <http://www.innovationgear.com/mind-mapping-blog/>, Accessed on Nov 24, 2013.

Title

Applying Consciousness Raising Tasks in Teaching Grammar to EFL Students in
Indonesia

Author

Santri E. P. Djahimo

Nusa Cendana University, Kupang-NTT, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Santri E. P. Djahimo is an English lecturer of Universitas Nusa Cendana (UNDANA) Kupang, NTT Indonesia, as well as a junior researcher majoring in the Teaching of English Skills and Educational Innovation (teaching EFL) in Rural Areas. She can be contacted at sunthree_dj@yahoo.com

Abstract

This is a qualitative study aims at investigating the possibility for applying Consciousness Raising Tasks in teaching grammar (Conditional Sentences, Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense) to EFL students in Indonesia. The subject of this research is thirty (30) students of English Department, Nusa Cendana University in Kupang – East Nusa Tenggara Indonesia. The main purpose of this study is to examine whether or not Consciousness-Raising Task is better to be applied in teaching and learning grammar (*Conditional Sentences, Simple Present Tense, and Simple Past Tense*) than that of the traditional method (PPP) by assessing from the students' perceptions through interview and observation as well as their understanding and performance in doing tasks related to those three topics through pretest and posttest. The result shows that all students feel happy and enjoy learning Conditional Sentences, Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense through Consciousness Raising Tasks with the main reason that it is easier to understand. This is supported by their performance in working on the posttest which is better than it is in the pretest (although the results of their work are not analyzed statistically, it can be seen from the average of their raw scores and the ways

they solve their problems). This study only has limited aims and has been conducted for a short period of time, that is why, there are some aspects dealing with the long term issues are not observable.

Keywords: *Consciousness Raising Task, Grammar, EFL Students*

1. Introduction

Innovation is always needed in educational field. People who concern in this area; experts, researchers, teachers, lecturers and those who are interested in this issue always try to make effort in bridging every gap exists in education in order to improve the quality of education itself. Talking about education is closely related to the teaching and learning process in the classroom. It is believed that the better the process, the greater the quality of the output. Many various factors contribute to the process, such as teachers, students, sources, teaching strategies, teaching methods, teaching strategies, teaching models, et cetera. This study will look at the last factor previously mentioned, that is, teaching model, in this case, grammar teaching model.

A teaching model of grammar is introduced in this study to enable the learners to learn grammar inductively and to be able to use English tenses accurately. It is called *Consciousness Raising Task (CRT)*. *Consciousness Raising Task* is not totally a new model of activities to be applied in EFL class. However, this model is considered new in EFL classes in East Nusa Tenggara Province of Indonesia. The teaching method has mostly been used by EFL teachers and/or lecturers is *Presentation – Practice – Production (PPP)*, in which teachers present the rules by explaining the lessons, followed by assigning the students to do the practice of whatever has been explained and ended up by having the students' production. This is a traditional way of teaching which is still applied until now.

Why is CR model of grammar teaching considered good to be used in EFL classes in Indonesia? The main reason is because most of Indonesian students find English grammar _ as one of language components to learn _ difficult to understand. This is not only experienced by students of lower level (junior and senior high schools) but also by those who are sitting in university level. The students cannot easily understand all the grammatical rules, particularly, English tenses because teachers and/or

lecturers do not try to find a better way to make the students aware of what they are learning. *Presentation – Practice – Production* is a conventional method that has always been used by teachers in teaching English grammar without any varieties. This makes students hard to understand all grammatical aspects presented to them because they almost never get involved directly in the teaching and learning process. They might be able to do the exercises assigned to them without really understanding what they are doing.

This fact leads me to an idea of applying *Consciousness Raising Tasks* as a teaching model of grammar to the students of a public university in East Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. It is assumed that a model of grammar teaching through Consciousness Raising Tasks needs to be introduced to involve students in identifying and understanding the aspects of grammar being taught to them.

2. Literature Review

Consciousness Raising Task or *Consciousness Raising Activity* is commonly known as an approach in language teaching. It is also particularly recognized as a grammar teaching model or grammar teaching method. Whatever the technical term is, the aim is similar. Based on its name, consciousness means awareness, so CRT has basically been designed to create and improve the learners' awareness of the language they are learning (Svalberg 2009, 2012).

Consciousness Raising Tasks is defined differently by different experts. Ellis describes CR as how teachers make efforts to facilitate their students with an understanding about particular grammatical rules and features in order to improve their declarative knowledge (Ellis 1991:234). He proposes additional view by defining grammar consciousness – raising tasks as “a raising tasks pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic properties of the target language” (1997:160). It is also defined as “the conveying of a rule to draw the learner’s attention to structural regularities....revealing some pattern or system in the target language the learner is being made conscious of some aspect of the language itself, but the manner varies” by Smith (2003:160-162). Additionally, Richards and Schmidt (2002:109) states that consciousness raising task is

seen “as techniques that encourage learners to pay attention to language form in the belief that an awareness of form will contribute indirectly to language acquisition”. Although these definitions have been given by different experts but they focus on similar issue, that is, students’ awareness of language form.

Many positive effects of Consciousness Raising Tasks on grammar teaching have been revealed by many studies. Fotos and Ellis (1991) have compared the effect of direct and indirect CR on the grammar ability of Japanese students and found out that both are effective. An almost similar study has been conducted by Sheen in 1992 with similar result. Fotos (1994) and Sugiharto (2006) have also investigated the use of CR in teaching grammar and indicated that the use of CR is effective. This present study is focused more on the use of CR to teach grammar, particularly, Simple Present Tense, Simple Past Tense as well as Conditional Sentences to the students of a public university in East Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. It is expected that by using this CR activities, students can have more understanding of what they are learning and improve their explicit knowledge (Ellis, 2002) because they are more aware of the language they are learning (Roza, 2014:1).

3. Methodology

3.1 Subject

The study has been conducted in East Nusa Tenggara Province in Indonesia, and the participants are 30 English Department students (fourth semester) of a public university. These students have already learnt grammar in three previous semesters (structure 1 in semester I, structure 2 in semester II, and structure 3 in semester III).

3.2 Data Collection

Tests (pre-test and post-test), interview, and direct observations have been used as the instruments of this study (the type of interviews was semi-structured with fixed-alternative _yes/no_ and open-ended questions), observation sheets as well as field notes (done on a continuous basis and in narrative genre) as the main instruments in order to obtain greater clarity in classroom practices and a true picture of opinions or feelings.

A 10-week time has been the period to collect the data. Starting with the pre-test in the first week, followed by the application of Consciousness Raising Tasks in teaching Simple Present Tense in weeks 2 and 3, Simple Past Tense in weeks 4 and 5, and

Conditional Sentences in weeks 6 and 7. Weeks 8 and 9 have been used for compiling and reviewing all the three materials taught previously. Post-test has been carried out in week 10. The observations have been conducted from week 2 to week 9 and the interview has been done in week 4 to week 9.

The following is the sample of material used in teaching Simple Present Tense:

Direction: *Below is the list of 10 sentences to be classified and put into the right column.*

Five sentences in one column:

1. We want to discuss about going on a holiday.
2. I never sleep early every night.
3. His father works as a customer service assistant.
4. They always find out information about their missing friends.
5. The sun rises in the East and sets in the west.
6. Dogs bark.
7. The two puppies sometimes run here and there.
8. My mother works hard for me.
9. My brother and I hate sea food.
10. John finishes his work on time.

1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

1. After classifying and putting the sentences in the right column, please find similarities and differences of the sentences in those two columns.
2. What makes them similar?

3. What makes them different?
4. Can you give the correct formula or pattern for both classifications?

4. Results and Discussion

As has been previously mentioned, the subjects of this study are the fourth semester students of a public university in East Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. Although they have learnt structure for three consecutive semesters, they still lack understanding and abilities to use many grammatical aspects. However, in this study, there are only three aspects applied using CR tasks, they are Simple Present Tense, Simple Past Tense, and Conditional Sentences. These aspects have been chosen because based on the observations, their performances on these three aspects are not good enough. This can be seen not only by their performances in doing all tasks assigned to them in the classroom but also by the result of their pre-test.

The average of the students' pre-test (before using CRT) is 61.3 and 70.37 is the average of their post-test (after using CRT). Although no statistical analysis conducted in analyzing the result of the tests, only by looking at the average of the raw scores of both tests, it can be clearly seen that there is an improvement of the students' results from pre-test to post-test as the difference of both tests is 9.07. Beside scoring their tests, their ways of doing the tests have also been analyzed in a simple way in order to find out whether or not they really have understood what they are doing. The following items are the sample of error/mistake analysis:

Types of error/mistake:

Pre-Test:

- I ~~write~~ (wrote) to my friend last week.
- Every morning, the sun ~~is shining~~ (shines) in my bedroom window and ~~wake~~ (wakes) me up.
- If I have enough time, I ~~would~~ write my parents a letter every week. (I usually write my parents a letter every week. That is a true fact.

Types of error/mistake:

Post-Test:

- *My friend jump~~ped~~ (jumped) up and down and shouted when she got~~ted~~ (got) the news.*
- *I can't afford that ring. It costs (costs) too much.*
- *If I ~~teached~~ (taught) this class, I wouldn't give tests. (I don't teach this class). That is a true fact.*

Looking at these two types of errors/mistakes, it can be assumed that in the pre-test, the students still have not got any awareness about the rules of the three aspects. Their explicit knowledge has not been fully improved yet. In the post-test, they have shown an improvement. They start showing their ability to understand, identify, and distinguish the rules of both tenses and conditional sentences and this is in a line with what Ellis suggests (2002). The only weaknesses appear in the post-test are misspelling and problems with irregular verbs.

The result of test is strengthened by two additional instruments, namely interview and observation. There are five questions designed to interview the students aiming at finding out their perceptions about CRT. Here is the finding relates to the interview:

1. Do you know what PPP is?

All 30 students answer yes. This shows that they are familiar with this teaching method.

2. Do you know what CR is?

All 30 students answer no. This CR model is totally new to them.

3. In learning grammar, which one do you prefer, PPP or CR?

All students say that they prefer to be taught using CR model.

4. Why do you think so?

In answering this question, there are several various reasons, which can be classified as follows: using CR makes the lesson understandable, the students can be

independent learners, they think they can understand the lesson easier, they can be active not only listeners but also doers, the students can also be creative and the teaching learning atmosphere is positive and fun.

Based on their answers, several things can be concluded, which are, although they have not heard and known about CR, all students say that they prefer CR tasks more than PPP; although the use of CR takes much time but they enjoy working on every task given; and it is easier for them to understand what they are doing using CRT.

The result of interview is in a line with the result of observations in which all students seem to enjoy learning English grammar with CRT. Below is a table showing the differences of students' performances between the use of PPP and CRT during the teaching and learning process:

PPP	CRT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive learners • Sit, listen to teacher's explanation and make notes • Teacher is the only source • Teacher-centered • Teacher dominated the process • Students depend on teacher as the only source 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active learners • Listen to teacher and busily do the tasks while trying to figure out the patterns • Students can also be the source • Student-centered • Students are involved in the process • Students can work independently to do the tasks

It is obviously seen that students perform better in teaching and learning using model of CRT than the one of PPP. Below are several findings as indicators that students have positive attitudes toward the use of CRT .

The atmosphere of the classroom has changed from negative to positive. The classroom is quiet when the PPP method is used in delivering the materials. Lecturer is the only source and she dominates the classroom talking as she spends much time explaining in front of the classroom. Students take part as passive listeners. They do

exercises by instruction without understanding and knowing what they are doing. When CRT has been applied, the lecturer does not really dominate the talking as students also take part in the teaching and learning process by involving themselves in all tasks assigned to them.

The students have changed from passive to active. They do not sit quietly to listen to their teachers' explanation but become active doers. They get involved in every task and activity given by their teacher in order to be able to improve their explicit knowledge. The more their explicit knowledge improves, the better they are in understanding the lessons. By the end of the research period, the students have already been able to do the tasks by identifying and distinguishing the rules by their own.

Another indicator is students have improved themselves from dependent to independent learners. They used to really depend on their lecturer by listening to her explanation and doing exercises only by instruction as described earlier. Using CRT makes them become independent and autonomous in learning. They do the tasks and activities based on their own initiatives and understanding. They consult with their lecturer only if they find difficulties.

The students seem to know what they are doing is the last indicator showing the positive attitude. Some of them can even explain the lesson to other students who do not understand. They can distinguish sentences of both tenses (Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense) and Conditional Sentences of all types. They can also identify the rules of each tense and explain how to formulate all types of conditional sentences.

In short, it has been revealed through this study that the use of Consciousness Raising Tasks in teaching grammar (Simple Present Tense, Simple Past Tense, and Conditional Sentences) is better than Presentation – Practice – Production in teaching the fourth semester students of a public university in East Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. However, there are several aspects relate to this finding which are not observable due to the short period of time of this research.

4. Conclusions

The use of Consciousness Raising Tasks is helpful and powerful in teaching and learning grammar to EFL students. Independent and autonomous leaning can be achieved through the use of this grammar teaching model. This model of teaching is

considered effective to be applied in teaching grammar to both ESL and EFL students because when they are learning, they will know exactly what they are doing.

Besides, students will gain more advantages using CR because they will be directly involved in teaching and learning activities; they do not only understand better, but also have the ability to identify and distinguish the rules of grammar features they are learning. By doing this, they consciously improve their explicit knowledge.

5. References

- Amiriana, Seyyed and Samira Abbasi. 2014. The Effect of Grammatical Consciousness-Raising Tasks on Iranian EFL Learners' Knowledge of Grammar. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 98 (2014) pp 251 – 257.
- Ellis, R. 1991 *Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, R. 1997. *SLA Research and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. 2002. Grammar Teaching: Practice or Consciousness-raising? In J. c. Richards, W. A. Renandya (Ed.), *Methodology in Language Teaching* (pp. 167- 174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. 2002. Teaching Learners to Communicate: A Task-Based Approach. *Rikkyo Journal of Intercultural Communication Studies*, 1(4), pp 95-110.
- Ellis, R. 2003. *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fotos, S., & Ellis, R. 1991. Communicating about Grammar: a Task-based Approach. *TESOL Quarterly* , 25(4), pp 605 - 628.
- Fotos, S. 1994. Integrating Grammar Instruction and Communicative Language use Through Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), pp 323-351.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. 2002. *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Roza, Veni. 2014. A Model of Grammar Teaching Through Consciousness-Raising Activities. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)* Volume 2, Issue 3, March 2014, PP 1-5.
- Sheen, R. 1992. Problem Solving brought to Task. *RELC Journal*, 23, pp 44-59.

- Smith, B. 2003. Computer-mediated Negotiated Interaction: An Expanded Model. *Modern Language Journal*, 87(1), pp 38-57.
- Sugiharto, S. 2006. Grammar consciousness raising and the acquisition of the simple present tense. *TEFLIN Journal*, 16, pp 172-83.
- Svalberg, A. M-L.2007. Language Awareness and Language Learning. *Language Teaching*, 40/4: pp 287-308.
- Svalberg, A. M-L. 2013. Language Learning and Teaching: Teaching for Language Awareness. In Chapelle, C. A. (ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1157/pdf>

Title

Using Self-Assessment Tasks in Foreign Language Classrooms

Author

Shalvin Singh

Rikkyo University, Japan

Bio-Profile:

Shalvin Singh is an EFL instructor from Canada who has been teaching English for more than ten years in Asia. His research interests include learner autonomy, language anxiety, and foreign language assessment. He currently teaches English discussion courses at Rikkyo University in Tokyo, Japan. He can be reached at shalvin@rikkyo.ac.jp.

Abstract

This paper examines the use of self-assessment instruments, and outlines practical ways in which they can be used to promote autonomous learning. As learners at times find lesson aims to be abstract and unclear, students have difficulty recognizing their own progress, and identifying individual strengths and weaknesses. Rather, general aims of improving vocabulary knowledge or speaking skills are all too often expressed by learners, who depend entirely upon the instructor to assess their needs and highlight progress. Providing personalized feedback is particularly challenging for instructors teaching large classes, where opportunities to directly address the needs of individual students are few and limited. Self-assessment tasks are one tool instructors can use to address these issues, and provide learners with a concrete means of evaluating performance at various stages during a course of study. This paper outlines ways in which such tasks can be integrated into curriculums to assist in course design, assess the needs of individual learners, aid students in charting progress over time, promote independent learning and goal setting, and establish the framework through which

performance is assessed. Such activities are flexible, adaptable, and appropriate for use with students of various ages and proficiency levels, in a variety of classroom contexts.

Keywords: self-assessment, autonomy, feedback, self-evaluation

Affiliation Address: Rikkyo University, 3-34-1, Nishiikebukuro, Toshima, Tokyo, Japan, 171-8501

Introduction

Self-assessment tasks have gained recognition in SLA as an effective addition to traditional forms of assessment, and a response to their shortcomings and limitations. Traditional assessment practices typically provide learners with little understanding of the framework underlying evaluation practices, and scant exposure to the rubrics employed to define good or poor performance (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). Learners depend entirely upon instructors and other experts to identify their strengths and weaknesses, receive feedback regarding future language learning aims, and obtain scores defining language proficiency. Such an approach reduces the role of the learner to a passive recipient of assessment, weakens the ability of learners to effectively manage their own language learning, and contravenes current trends in SLA emphasizing the importance of learner autonomy.

Conversely, self-assessment tasks seek to provide learners with the tools and framework to understand their own language learning, and set individual learning goals reflective of their needs and aims. They encourage learners to reflect and evaluate L2 knowledge and performance by utilizing rubrics based upon instructional aims, explicitly exposing learners to the assessment instruments employed by instructors. This paper examines the use of self-assessment in second language classrooms, and outlines ways in which such tasks can be adapted to meet the needs of specific groups of learners. By facilitating the involvement of learners in the assessment process, self-assessment tasks provide instructors with a practical means of promoting learner autonomy and developing active learners capable of understanding and managing their own language learning.

Self-Assessment Tasks in Second Language Classrooms

Self-assessment tasks have become established in SLA as effective pedagogical tools that can promote L2 acquisition, increase motivation, encourage reflection, and facilitate individual goal-setting (Lappin-Fortin & Rye, 2014; Oscarson, 2014; Saint Léger, 2009; Singh, 2014; Singh, 2015). They have been used in a variety of teaching contexts and while questions remain regarding their accuracy, their pedagogical benefits are more solidly established.

Saint Léger (2009) examined the use of self-assessment activities in a post-secondary French language speaking class. Students evaluated their vocabulary knowledge, fluency, and overall confidence in their L2 ability, and set goals for future performance, on three separate occasions during the course. She found self-assessment tasks fostered increased awareness of instructional aims and were capable of recognizing improved L2 performance. Similarly, an examination of the implementation of a four-year self-assessment curriculum in American high schools, in which students evaluated their L2 ability and participated in goal-setting tasks, found that the use of self-assessment instruments led to improved L2 performance over the duration of the study (Moeller, Theiler & Wu, 2012). Lappin-Fortin and Rye (2014) also found that self-assessment contributed to improved pronunciation during the instructional period, and facilitated targeting of specific learning goals.

Instructors may hesitate to use self-assessment tasks, questioning whether learners are capable of utilizing them appropriately. Such fears are worth considering, and the question of whether learners can accurately evaluate their performance remains open. Singh (2015) found only marginal correlations between the assessments of learners and those of the instructor in a second language speaking class. Peirce, Swain and Hart (1993), in a comparison of the standardized test and self-assessment speaking, reading, listening, and writing scores of 800 Canadian immersion students, similarly found only modest correlations, with variation between different skills. Brown, Dewey, and Cox (2014), while arguing for the pedagogical benefits of self-assessment, also found that self-assessment speaking scores following a study abroad period offered only moderate predictive value. While others have found stronger correlations (see Patri, 2002; Lappin-Fortin & Rye, 2014; Oscarson, 2014), likely owing to greater time spent on training learners to effectively utilize such instruments, the extent to which self-assessment

instruments can replace traditional forms of assessment as a means of measuring L2 ability remains debatable. Put another way, self-assessment instruments are better viewed as a complement to feedback offered by the instructor, and as useful pedagogical tools, rather than as a replacement for the assessment offered by instructors and other experts.

Examples of Self-Assessment Tasks

Self-assessment tasks are adaptable and can be used in a multitude of ways, varying according to teaching context, the age and proficiency of learners, the classroom time available for such activities, and learner motivation. They can be used at various stages throughout a lesson, in specific lessons within a course, as language placement tools for large groups of learners, or as summative feedback instruments following a period of study. In this section, I provide examples of self-assessment tasks that can be used in different teaching contexts.

Telephone Skills	Rating
I can answer the phone in a professional manner	A B
I can politely request to speak to someone	A B
I can leave a message (<i>e.g. to cancel appointments, to request to be called back</i>)	A B
I can ask for clarification (<i>Sorry? Can you repeat that?</i>)	A B
I can paraphrase to confirm understanding (<i>Do you mean that..?</i>)	A B
I can end phone calls politely and appropriately	A B

I am good at _____.
 My goal is to learn how to _____.

Figure 1. Telephone skills self-assessment task.

The self-assessment task in Figure 1 divides the ability to manage telephone calls into several component skills, clarifying for learners what specific skills contribute to effectively making a telephone call. Learners are asked to rate their performance on each individual skill, rather than overall performance, using a four-point scale. Afterwards, learners are asked to further reflect upon their performance by selecting one strength and one weakness, i.e., a goal to work towards. In future lessons and activities, learners could be provided with the opportunity to improve their performance, specifically targeting any weaknesses they have identified.

Presentation Skills	
Did you begin with an engaging introduction?	√
Did you use examples to explain your points clearly?	
Did you make eye contact with your audience?	√
Did you avoid using flat intonation?	√
Did your presentation have a clear message / purpose?	√
Did you conclude with a brief summary of your key points?	

- 1) What were the strengths of your presentation?
- 2) How can you improve your next presentation?

Figure 2. Presentation skills self-assessment task.

Figure 2 presents a self-assessment task for presentation skills. The skills which contribute to an effective presentation are broken down into specific questions learners are asked to respond to. A fairly basic rubric is used, where learners simply use checkmarks to indicate an affirmative response, lowering the complexity of the task. Particularly with lower proficiency learners or those unaccustomed to self-assessment, a simplified rubric can help reduce the completion time and difficulty of such tasks. Following completion, students could then discuss with a peer or an instructor the strengths and weaknesses of their individual performance, and select future learning goals.

Did your essay include the following: Y=Yes L=A Little N=No

Essay Writing Skills	Rating		
I began my essay with an introductory paragraph	Y	L	N
I had a clear thesis/argument in my essay	Y	L	N
I provided evidence to support my claims	Y	L	N
I cited recent research in my essay	Y	L	N
I did not plagiarize other people's writings	Y	L	N
I tried to use correct grammar	Y	L	N
I used a variety of different words to express ideas	Y	L	N
I concluded my essay with a summary and final message	Y	L	N

Figure 3. Essay writing self-assessment task.

In Figure 3, a self-assessment task focusing upon academic essay writing skills is presented. Here, a three-point scale is used, which asks learners to reflect upon the extent to which they successfully completed each action. Such a task certainly would not encompass all aspects of successful essay writing, and could be expanded or reduced depending upon the proficiency of learners. Presumably, this task features a rubric

comparable to the one used by instructors, clarifying course expectations for learners and offering learners the opportunity to understand the framework through which their grades will be assigned, prior to the submission of assignments.

Please rate how challenging it is to do the following in English, from 1 (very easy) to 5 (very difficult)

Speaking Skills	Rating (1-5)
1) I can talk about what I did last weekend	
2) I can ask others about what they did last weekend	
3) I can tell others about my summer vacation	
4) I can ask others about their summer vacation	
5) I can talk about my hobbies and interests	
6) I can ask others about their hobbies and interests	

Figure 4. Speaking ability self-assessment task.

The speaking ability self-assessment task presented in Figure 4 asks learners to evaluate their ability to participate in conversations regarding specific topics, rating their performance from one to five. A self-assessment task of this type could be used at various points in a course, prompting students to reflect upon what they have learned successfully, and what speaking skills they should devote greater attention to. The number of items could also be increased as a course progresses, serving as a means of reviewing material covered in previous classes, and allowing learners to consider progress they have made during a period of study. It could also serve as a summative assessment instrument, a way for learners to evaluate their overall course performance.

Self-Assessment Tasks in Second Language Classrooms

Butler and Lee (2010) argue that self-assessment instruments help raise learner awareness of the learning process, thereby helping students become more skilled at acquiring a second language. Effective implementation of a self-assessment curriculum inevitably necessitates prompting learners to take on roles that typically are under the purview of instructors. This can present challenges, particularly in teaching contexts where learners are unaccustomed to assessing their performance or setting individual goals for future lessons (Singh, 2016). As such, instructors should be aware of the challenges that exist for learners, and present self-assessment instruments in a gradual manner cognizant of the difficulty some might face taking on a more autonomous role

in the classroom. Using tasks with few items, simple rubrics, and easy-to-follow structures is one means of ensuring that self-assessment tasks are not overly challenging for learners. The length and complexity of tasks could then be increased as learners grow accustomed to evaluating and reflecting upon their own performance. Feedback is particularly important, especially when first exposing learners to self-assessment tasks, as learners will invariably depend upon instructors to understand how to appropriately and effectively utilize such instruments (Singh, 2014).

Oscarson (2014) notes that foreign language ability can be understood and assessed from two fundamentally distinct perspectives. External, or extrinsic, assessment refers to the evaluation of a learner's performance by an outside agent, and characterizes traditional forms of assessment conducted by instructors and other experts. Internal, or intrinsic, assessment, conversely, is the examination of second language ability by learners, and is typically more subjective and less reliable. While Patri (2002) demonstrates that with training and effective task design, high levels of congruence are possible, inevitably, these two forms of assessment may conflict and contradict one another. It is the responsibility of instructors to highlight for learners these differences, and explain some of their causes: differences between the generalized feedback provided by instructors to entire classes versus the individual assessment offered by self-assessment instruments, issues related to training and expertise—particularly in the case of complex assessment instruments, disagreement over the importance of specific instructional aims, and genuine debate over the strengths and weaknesses of individual performance. Far from being a weakness of self-assessment instruments, such matters offer an opportunity for discussion between learners and instructors, about the extent to which specific language learning goals are being met. While instructors should be aware of these potential conflicts, and bring attention to differences when they arise, they should emphasize the symbiotic relationship that exists between internal and external assessment.

The practicality of using self-assessment instruments in varied teaching contexts is also an issue worth noting. Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) found that many instructors wish to introduce curriculums that foster learner autonomy and promote individualized learning, but cite institutional concerns as common impediments. Particularly in cases where instructors seek to use self-assessment instruments as placement tools or as a

component of learners' overall grades, bureaucratic constraints can prevent implementation of a curriculum promoting autonomous learning. Learner preferences and expectations are also worth consideration. While Singh (2014) found that most learners prefer a mix of feedback—both self-assessment and teacher-fronted feedback—in some teaching contexts, learners might resist the use of such instruments. Kato (2009), for example, found only a marginal preference for the implementation of an autonomous learning curriculum in comparison to a standard curriculum amongst American university students studying Japanese. The decision on whether and how often to make use of self-assessment instruments, and the exact manner in which such use can most effectively manifest itself, inevitably will vary with regard to the learners and specific teaching context in question. Adapting self-assessment instruments to suit the needs of specific learners is doubtlessly of central importance in ensuring their successful implementation.

Conclusion

Self-assessment instruments grant learners the ability to better understand and manage their own progress as language learners. By offering learners the opportunity to assess their own performance, evaluation becomes more decentralized, less about the awarding of scores, and more a form of formative feedback intended to improve future performance. It allows learners to better control their own progress as language learners, choosing to improve upon the weaknesses they deem relevant and important, and is a practical means of promoting learner autonomy within the classroom. While the role of the instructor remains very much prominent, as they must design such instruments, provide guidance regarding their use, and offer additional feedback to complement learners' reflections, the use of self-assessment instruments remains a practical means of facilitating autonomous learning, and ensuring that students remain actively involved in understanding their own individual progress as language learners.

References

Brown, N., Dewey, D., & Cox, T. (2014). Assessing the validity of can-do statements in retrospective (then-now) self-assessment. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(2), 261-285.

- Fulcher, G., & Davidson, F. (2007). *Language testing and assessment: An advanced resource book*. Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Kato, F. (2009). Student preferences: goal-setting and self-assessment activities in a tertiary education environment. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(2), 177-199.
- Lappin-Fortin, K. & Rye, B. (2014). The use of pre-/posttest and self-assessment tools in a French pronunciation course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(2), 300-320.
- Moeller, A., Theiler, J., & Wu, C. (2012). Goal setting and student achievement: a longitudinal study. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96(2), 153-169.
- Oscarson, M. (2014). Self-assessment in the classroom. In A. Kunnan (Ed.) *The companion to language assessment*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Patri, M. (2002). The influence of peer feedback on self- and peer-assessment of oral skills. *Language Testing*, 19(2), 109-131.
- Peirce, B., Swain, M., & Hart, D. (1993). Self-assessment, French immersion, and locus of control. *Applied Linguistics*, 14(1), 25-42.
- Saint Léger (de) D. (2009). Self-assessment of speaking skills and participation in a foreign language class. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(1), 158-178.
- Singh, S. (2014). Developing learner autonomy through self-assessment activities. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning English Discussion*, 1(3), 221-231.
- Singh, S. (2015). Evaluating the effectiveness of self-assessment in discussion classes. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning English Discussion*, 3, 263-272.
- Singh, S. (2016). Assessing EFL learners' awareness and use of discussion skills. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning English Discussion*, 4, 221-230.

Title

Implementation of CLT and Its Minimum Results

Author

Siti Aisyah

Bio-Profile:

Siti Aisyah is an English lecturer at IAI Syarifuddin Lumajang, Indonesia. Her research interest is teaching and learning strategies including challenges, perspectives, attitudes, and motivation. She got her Master of English Education and Literature at the State University of Surabaya. Now, she is taking her doctoral program of English Education and Literature at the same university. She can be reached at siti_aisyah_yes@yahoo.com.

Abstract

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is still claimed as the best approach in English Language Teaching (ELT). That is why CLT has been implemented in Indonesia since the early 1980s. It means that the CLT has been proposed and used in various Indonesia curriculums, namely Curriculum 1984, Curriculum 1994, Competency Based Curriculum (KBK) in 2004, School Based Curriculum (KTSP) in 2006, and Curriculum 2013. Unfortunately, after applying the CLT at secondary education for almost 30 years, the English proficiencies of Indonesian people remain low.

Based on the latest report of English Proficiency Index (EPI), the English proficiency of Indonesian people is in the 32nd with the level of medium ability from 70 countries. This result is really unsatisfactory since English has become the significant means of communication around the world. Indeed, English competence is becoming crucial to enhance the global competition in ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) which includes competition in various sectors. Such condition implies that most of Indonesian students remain difficult to be engaged in real life communication. They cannot actively use English after learning English for 6 years at junior and senior high schools. Thus, it can be said that the implementation of CLT in Indonesia has not been

successful with such minimum results. That is why this research will investigate the implementation of CLT at secondary level of education in Indonesia to find out the real factors producing the gap between long implementation of CLT and low output of CLT.

Key Words: *Communicative Language Teaching*

Introduction

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is assumed as the best approach in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) / English as a Second Language (ESL). It is because this approach in language teaching emphasizing on the meaning and communication with its goal of developing the students' communicative competence (Littlewood, 1981; Canale, 1983; Nattinger, 1984; Brown, 1987; Nunan, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Widdowson, 1990). Indeed, the communicative competence is basically as the knowledge that the students as the language users have internalized to enable them to understand and produce messages in the language (Ellis, 1994:696). For EFL countries, CLT is an approach to English language teaching (ELT) that emphasizes on the interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of English learning so that the English learning comes through having to communicate real meaning in real communication with natural strategies for English acquisition.

Communicative Language Teaching

Basically, the term of CLT covers a variety of approaches that all focus on helping the students to communicate meaningfully in a target language. Communicative language teaching is being developed nowadays. CLT is now being applied in many non-English countries where English is treated as a foreign language because the worldwide increasing demand for good communication in English. It is in line with what Professor Jack C. Richards states in his book *Communicative Language Teaching Today* that "...the ever growing need for good communication skills in English has created a huge demand for English teaching around the world, as millions of people today want to improve their command of English or ensure that their children achieve a good command of English... The worldwide demand for English has created an enormous demand for

quality language teaching and language teaching materials and resources” (Richards, 2006:5).

The huge demand of having good communication skill of English increases significantly the responsibility of the EFL teacher. Indeed, having good communication skills in English is a burning desire for most people that places communicative competence of English is more demanded. This condition drives the aim of language teaching to take the communicative competence as the language learning goal involving listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills. However, the theories and practices of CLT have faced various challenges in EFL contexts (Anderson, 1993; Ellis, 1996; Li, 1998; Liao, 2000; Takanashi, 2004; Yu, 2001). The implementation of CLT remains facing problems and resistance in the English as a foreign language context when it is intended to meet the demand of modern media age placing the EFL students as the users of media. This demand pushes the EFL students to choose to be literate in media so that they will be avoided as the passive users of media or even as the victims of media. There should be movement in CLT to fulfil this need indeed.

In addition, CLT becomes the desired approach in language teaching since it facilitates the best language teaching. It is because the syllabus consisting of a skill-based syllabus and a functional syllabus, according to Richards & Rodgers (1986), also sets a communicative design for the instruction, materials, and classroom techniques to meet the goal of language learning that is to develop students’ communicative competence. As a result, both EFL teachers and students play their communicative roles during the communicative classroom activities.

To be detailed features of CLT, Brown (2007) analyzes four characteristics of CLT which are considered as the core assumptions of creating communicative atmosphere in language teaching. They are (1) classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence, (2) language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes so that organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather, aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes, (3) fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques in which at times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners

meaningfully engaged in language use, and (4) in the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts (Brown, 2007:241). Thus, EFL teachers have been encouraged to implement CLT to develop students' English abilities appropriately in context due to the awareness of English being the most widely spoken language in the world and used in various areas such as technology, science, and business.

Indeed, CLT has been introduced in EFL settings to improve students' abilities to use English in real contexts (Littlewood, 2007) and to advocate teaching practices which develop communicative competence in authentic contexts (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is clear that CLT in its characteristics does not downplay the importance of grammar nor advocate the abandonment of any focus form, but acknowledge the students about the relationship between grammatical form and communicative meaning through practices. Later, they view the characteristics of CLT as ten crucial matters which differ CLT from other language teaching approaches. They claim that (1) CLT focuses on the whole learner, (2) in CLT teacher is a guide, counselor, organizer, and facilitator, (3) CLT provides students with opportunities to share and explore their attitudes, feelings, and opinions, (4) CLT uses authentic, from-life materials, (5) create a genuine and realistic learning situations, (6) CLT creates a secure or non-threatening learning atmosphere, (7) CLT uses a variety of materials, topics, activities and ways of interacting, (8) CLT emphasizes on acquisition of cultural knowledge, (9) CLT gives a tolerance of errors, and (10) the target of CLT is fluency.

In reality, the application or implementation of CLT varies according to the methodologies which the language teachers used. The communication activities in CLT is basically intended as a preparation for survival in the real world. This underlines what Clarke and Silberstein (1977) viewed that "classroom activities should parallel the 'real world' as closely as possible. Since language is a tool of communication, methods and materials should concentrate on the message and not the medium. The purposes of reading should be the same in class as they are in real life." It is clear that the teachers should be able to provide the exposure to real language, appropriate methods and materials when they are applying the communicative language teaching. That is why the teaching of certain English skills should be based on the purpose of each skill and directed to the use of English in everyday life. The main reason of reading, for example,

is to obtain the information being needed from the text and that information should be beneficial to the students' real life.

There are a number of CLT literatures have been written by scholars such as such as Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Littlewood (1981), and Johnson (1982) offering the discussion of elements underlying the teaching and learning theories for the CLT practices, namely the communicative dimension in language learning, authentic task, and the principle of meaningfulness. The communicative dimension deals with activities involving the real communication to promote language learning. The authentic task relates to the activities using the target language to indorse the meaningful learning. The third element is the principle of meaningfulness in which the target language is meaningful for students to support the learning process. Indeed, learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the students in meaningful and authentic use of language which are not just mechanical practices of language patterns. These principles can be inferred from the practices of CLT which overcome the crucial conditions to promote EFL learning rather than the process of EFL acquisition.

In accordance with the basic principle of language teaching promoted by CLT, teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) should make the students have experiences of using English in real life situations so that they are able to employ their linguistic skills in normal communication events. As the best language teaching approach, CLT makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication (Galloway, 1993) to grasp a normal meaningful communication event which generally requires the use of many linguistic skills. When the students are engaged in conversational exchanges, for example, they are involved in practicing both listening and speaking in some contexts. In fact, a communicative event requires all linguistic skills in a single event. By giving the nature of communicative acts to the students, they are triggered to apply more than one skill at the same time in real-life communicative activities.

Regarding with the implementation of CLT in ASIA, this language teaching approach has been applied in several ASIA countries earlier than in Indonesia, namely China, India, Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. There are many studies analyzing this CLT approach from these countries in which some of them are done by Nishino (2008), Lixin (2011), Mustaphaa and Yahaya (2012), and Kumar, Philip, and Kalaiselvi (2013). The findings of these studies implied that the CLT was successfully

implemented as an English teaching approach in different contexts of these countries. These studies describe that English teaching and learning using the CLT approach lead the students to communicate real meaning in real communication so that they use their natural strategies for English acquisition. In other word, those studies proof that the English teaching using CLT makes the students learn to use English in natural and real contexts with satisfactory results.

CLT in Indonesia

In Indonesia, the CLT has been implemented as an English teaching approach since 1984. This means that the CLT approach has been used continuously for almost 30 years in various forms of curriculum changes starting from the 1984 Curriculum up to the 2013 new curriculum. The Indonesian curriculums that have taken the CLT as the ELT approach are the Curriculum 1984, Curriculum 1994, Competency Based Curriculum (KBK) in 2004, School Based Curriculum (KTSP) in 2006, and Curriculum 2013.

Unfortunately, after long implementation of CLT in Indonesia EFL classes, the English proficiencies of Indonesian students remain low as what has been informed by English Proficiency Index (EPI) in its latest report in 2015. EPI is a test to measure the average level of English ability of adults in a country by merging the data from EFSET (EF Standard English Test), which is the first free English test with world standards. EPI declared that the English proficiencies of Indonesian people was in the 32nd level of 70 EFL countries. From 70 countries with 910,000 adults aged 18-30 years, the English proficiency level of Indonesian adults is in a position of 32nd. While Singapore is at the 12th level, Malaysia at the 14th position, India at the 20th place, Vietnam at the 29th ranking, Japan at the 30th grade, and Taiwan at the 31st level. Thus, the CLT implementation for 32 years, its result is really unsatisfactory since the English competence is becoming crucial to enhance the global competition in ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) which includes competition in various sectors, especially in global communication.

Today, Indonesian secondary school students get English as a compulsory subject twice times a week within 60 minutes per lesson. The secondary students are assumed to have sufficient number of hours devoted to English as a foreign language.

Formally, the instructional objective of English subject at secondary school is that the students are expected to experience the English skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing in certain thematic contexts using appropriate structures with the level of 2,500 words. To get this target, the new English curriculum of 2013 requires the English teachers to apply the Scientific Approach which basically the notion of this approach still bases on the CLT approach by taking the principles of CLT approach, namely (1) language is an instrument to express meaning, (2) meaning is determined by both linguistic and situational contexts, (3) learning a language is learning to use the language in communicative activities in the target language, (4) mastery of the language components is needed to support the mastery of communicative competence, and (5) the teaching of the language components can be done whenever necessary. The new curriculum of 2013 implements more flexible system avoiding a great deal of classroom activities for encouraging the creativities of the EFL teachers and students during the lesson. This is why the new curriculum provides only detailed general guidelines in terms of the learning objectives, teaching methods and techniques, and the scope and general order of the learning materials.

Methodology

The condition of Indonesian students that are difficult to be engaged in real life communication and unable to use English actively after learning English for 3 years at junior high school and 3 years at senior high school indicates that the implementation of CLT in Indonesia has not been successful hitherto. That is why the investigation of this paper focuses on finding out the real factors of producing the gap between the long implementation of CLT and the low students' English proficiencies at Indonesian senior high school contexts. Thus, this study is going to search the issues of any challenges faced by the senior high school teachers and students causing the minimum results of CLT approach after being applied for many years in Indonesia. Through a descriptive qualitative research with the methodologies of focus group discussion (FGD), questionnaires, and field observation, this research is going to get valid and objective findings relating to how the CLT approach has been exactly applied in EFL classes at Indonesian secondary schools.

In investigating the real implementation of CLT approach in EFL secondary classes, the writer held a mini research involving four English teachers of public senior high schools with twelve students and three English teachers of public junior high school with six students. They filled out the questionnaires and joined the focus group discussion in Indonesian language after classes. The observations are also done by the writer during English classes.

Findings

Since the focus of this research is investigating on the CLT practices to find out the real factors underlying the minimum result of long CLT implementation, the mini research has been done at Indonesian senior and junior high schools for a couple of months. Based on the mini research, it is found that the EFL teachers and students in Indonesia secondary schools become bigger factors contributing to the unsuccessful implementation of the CLT approach in EFL classes than other academic factors. It means that the gap between long CLT implementation and minimum results is generally caused more by the doers' factors than by other factors.

As of the analysis on the teachers' questionnaires, it is shown that (1) one teachers feel that they have known CLT well so they have the ability and confidence in running communicative classroom activities, (2) most teachers feel that they do not know well the CLT and how to run their teachings using CLT approach, and (3) two teachers feel confident and five of them do not feel confident that their students understand their explanation in English when teaching. Moreover five teachers felt unsure that their students will not find difficulty in understanding explanations in English. In terms of fluency of their English words, two teacher said that they were not sure if they were able to recite the words of English well, one teacher were convinced that their English instructions could make students become reluctant, three teachers were not sure if they were able to speak English very well, and four teachers also were not sure if using English instructions can make the effective teaching and learning process. Most of the teachers say that they use several strategies to overcome their weaknesses in running English activities using the CLT approach by (1) switching into Indonesian language directly when they do not know how to explain something in English, (2) speaking slowly so the students will be easy to understand, (3) searching for the word in the

dictionary when getting stuck. Although they were not sure of their English proficiencies, few of them does not feel hesitant in using English in the classroom to encourage their students to develop their English.

From the students' responses to the questionnaires, it is found that (1) in terms of the teacher's explanations in English, eight students said that the teacher's explanation is less obvious and ten of them said it was unclear, (2) in response to the question asking about the difficulties students understand the teacher's explanation, and twelve students said that sometimes they feel difficult to understand the teacher's explanation using English. It is clear that most of the students were not always able to understand the teachers' explanations easily. This affects the quality of students the task at hand. Furthermore a total of eleven students assume that they found difficulties in understanding the tasks given by their teacher. The ten student answers indicates that the use of English instruction and explanations gives positive effect on their English language proficiency.

Furthermore, English for Indonesian students is considered as a foreign language, not a second language. This means that Indonesian students will typically use English only at schools and in other particular settings. Consequently the students, especially the remote students, do not have many practical opportunities to use English outside the classroom compared to those who live in big cities. This condition makes English teaching challenging. Having little contact with other English speakers, Indonesian students are not motivated to master spoken or written English. Moreover the EFL students do not experience four linguistic skills in balance, namely reading, speaking, listening, and writing skills in real contexts.

Moreover, due to the fact that the national examination becomes the most target of secondary schools, they focus their teaching and learning much on achieving the target. The students are trained to engage in learning English using written multiple choice forms which neglects other linguistics skills, namely speaking and writing. As a result the Indonesian students are not accustomed to express their ideas in English. They have just focused on how to pass the national examination of English subject based on Indonesian Competency Standard Graduates (*SKL = Standar Kompetensi Lulusan*) which do not include speaking and writing materials. This leads the English teachers more concentrate their teaching on materials included in the *SKL*, namely reading and

listening in which these two materials should be integrated into speaking activities. Both teachers and students come into belief that English speaking and writing are less crucial matters for the students to achieve excellently than reading and listening.

Other factor is there are very limited references for the English teachers which can inspire them to teach English communicatively, meaningfully and creatively. Consequently the teachers often use conventional methods in teaching English which is often done in a silent atmosphere focusing on doing written textbook exercises. No doubt, the students often feel bored and stressed during English classroom activities which they rarely feel engaged. The vast majority of students are unable to produce satisfactory spoken and written English in terms of generating ideas. This is why both teachers and students cyclically neglect English writing and speaking year after year during English classroom activities.

In fact, expressing ideas in English are crucial for students. Good communication in written and spoken English is essential to think and express opinions and feelings clearly. Even at the university level students' writing and speaking abilities are much emphasized during lecturing. That is another reason to develop students' speaking and writing skills at high schools before studying at universities. To achieve this successfully, the English teachers of secondary schools, especially those at remote areas with limited support facilities for teaching, must have good strategies for their English classroom activities. One such strategy is using authentic speaking and writing materials which bring real practical language into the classroom. This is how the EFL teachers should apply the CLT approach in English classes. In fact, spoken or written learning materials that are created with some real-life goal for native speakers are called as authentic materials (Polio, 2014:1-8). Thus, these materials are obviously not designed for language learning purposes such as magazine advertisements, movie review, television shows, conversations between native speakers, train schedules, nutrition labels, postcards, etc.

Conclusion

The ELT in Indonesia secondary schools today is still too stiff focusing on tenses, vocab, and pronunciation. The CLT approach implemented by EFL teachers in classroom practices is very far from the curriculum expectations. Indonesian students

remain being taught to be able to read and write only. The students become clumsy when speaking English. Regrettably, when the students are trying to use English for conversation with their fellows, they are dubbed or stamped by others as doing ostentatious acts of foreigners. As a result, the students feel fear of expressing their feeling and ideas in English effecting their anxiety of speaking, dread of being wrong in using English, and worry about doing incorrect grammar or tenses.

Unfortunately, teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) for students at secondary school is assumed to be difficult for it is done not in a practical use. It is because English is regarded as an academic subject in the school system and is not widely used outside of the classroom (Peace Corps, 1989:7). Both EFL teacher and students have no opportunity to use English outside the classroom so that English for them is as the compulsory subject only. This also makes the teaching-learning activities of EFL becomes time-intensive which can often be boring and unwilling to be involved actively for the students. As a result, the EFL students show little knowledge about how to communicate a contextually appropriate idea and how to express it. Common challenges that the EFL students face in communicating or expressing their mind include word choice, grammar, organization, and generation of ideas, and creativity. It means that EFL can also prove difficult to learn due to all of complicated problems involved, that are linguistic, psychological, and cognitive issues faced by the students.

Finally, the pressures of English tests in multiple choice formats for midterm tests, final semester tests, and national examination force the EFL teachers to focus their attention on grammatical rules, linguistic accuracy and students' final piece of work instead of communication skill. This makes the EFL teachers may often depend their teaching merely on the text books or students worksheets which leads the EFL students graduate within adequate training in English use. Due to having limited knowledge and experiences of using English, the EFL students often feel stuck, bored, and even stressed in English classroom activities. Thus, since the students' proficiency and motivation are low, according to Goss (1999), the teaching EFL remains a challenge. That is why there are some approaches in language teaching developed by the experts like communicative language teaching approach to overcome this kind of problem.

References

- Adi, S. S. (2012). Communicative Language Teaching: Is it appropriate for Indonesian context?. *Instructional Technology*, 51.
- Allen, J., & Widdowson, H. G. (1979). Teaching the communicative use of English. In C. Brumfit & K. Johnson (Eds.). *The communicative approach to language teaching* (pp. 147-157). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ansarey, D. (2012). Communicative Language Teaching in EFL Contexts: Teachers Attitude and Perception in Bangladesh. *ASA University Review*, 6 (1), 61-78.
- Banciu, V., & Jireghie, A. (2012). Communicative Language Teaching. *The Public Administration and Social Policies Review*, IV (1), 94-98.
- Belchamber, Rebecca. (2007). The Advantages of Communicative Language Teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, February 2007. <http://iteslj.org/>.
- Brandl, K. (2007). *Communicative language teaching in action: Putting principles to work*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language teaching and learning*. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Canale, M. and M. Swain. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1/1:1-47.
- Canale, M. (1983). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J. C Richards & R. W Schmidt. *Language and Communication*. New York: Longman. 2-27.
- Carter, R., & Nunan, D. (Eds.) (2001). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <http://www.dx.doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511667206>
- Chang, M. (2011). EFL Teachers' Attitudes toward Communicative Language Teaching in Taiwanese College. *Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles*, 53, 17-34.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1997). Direct approaches in L2 instruction: A turning point in communicative language teaching?. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(1), 141-152.

- Chang, M., & Goswami, J. S. (2011). Factors affecting the implementation of communicative language teaching in Taiwanese college English classes. *English Language Teaching*, 4(2), p3.
- Competence-Based Curriculum. (2004) Competence Standard of English Lessons for Junior High Schools. The Indonesian Department of National Education.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dailey, A. (2010). Difficulties Implementing CLT in South Korea: Mismatch between the language policy and what is taking place in the classroom. 1-23. Retrieved from <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/sociolinguistics/ADaileyDifficultiesImplementingCLTinSouthKorea2.pdf>
- Ellis, Rod. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford, U.K: Oxford University Press.
- Harmer, Jeremy. (2007). *How to teach English*. Pearson: Longman.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. J. B. Pride and J. Holmes, (eds.) *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Education, 269-93.
- Iftahar, Shampa. (2014). Rethinking English Teaching through CLT in Government Primary Schools of Bangladesh. *DIU Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Volume 2 July 2014, 193-214.
- Kaisheng, H. (2007). Reconsideration on CLT in College English: Theory and Practice. *Canadian Social Science*, 3(1), p.87-90.
- Karavas-Doukas, E. (1996). Using attitude scales to investigate teachers' attitudes to the communicative approach. *ELT journal*, 50(3), 187-198.
- Kienbaum, B., Russell, A., & Welty, S.(1986). *Communicative competence in foreign language learning with authentic materials*. Final Project Report. Purdue University, Calumet, Indiana. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 275200).
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Liao, Xiao Q. (2000) How Communicative Language Teaching Became Acceptable in Secondary Schools in China. *The TESL Journal*, Vol. 6, No: 10.

- Li, D. (1998). "It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 677-703.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and Task-Based Language Teaching in East Asian Classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40(03), 243-249.
- Littlewood, W. (2008). Foreign language teaching methods: From past prescriptions to present principles. *Foreign Language Teaching in Schools*, 31(4), 1-13.
- Littlewood, W. (2011). Communicative Language Teaching. In T. S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (pp. 153-177). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Llurda, Enric. (2000). On Competence, Proficiency, and Communicative Language Ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 85-96.
- Marcellino, M. (2009). English Language Teaching in Indonesia: A Continuous Challenge in Education and Cultural Diversity. *TEFLIN Journal: A publication on the teaching and learning of English*, 19(1).
- Miller, Lindsay. (2000) Student Teachers' Perceptions about Communicative Language Teaching Methods *RELC Journal*, Vol. 31, No:1 (1-22)
- Mitchell, R. (1988). *Communicative Language Teaching in Practice*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Musthafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in classroom practice. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2(2).
- Ngoc, K. M., & Iwashita, N. (2012). A Comparison of Learners' and Teachers' Attitudes Toward Communicative Language Teaching at Two Universities in Vietnam. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 25-49.
- Nishino, T. (2008). Japanese secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching: An exploratory survey. *JALT Journal*, 30(1), 27.
- Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative language teaching: Making it work. *ELT Journal*, 41(2), 136-145.

- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2000). An introduction to task-based teaching. *ELT Advantage, Cengage Learning*.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37/4, 589-613.
- Ozsevik, Z. (2010). *The Use of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Turkish EFL Teachers' Perceived Difficulties in Implementing CLT in Turkey* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign).
- Rao, Z. H. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System*, 30(1), 85-105.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, Jack C. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <http://www.dx.doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511667190>
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rogers, C. V., & Medley, F. M. (1988). Language with a Purpose: Using Authentic Materials in the Language Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 21, 467-478. Retrieved from <http://www.dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1988.tb01098.x>
- Savignon, S. (1983). *Communicative Competence: Theory and classroom practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative Language Teaching: State of The Art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), 261-278.
- Savignon, S. J. (2002). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching - Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education*. United States of America: Yale University.
- Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Communicative Language Teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. *IRAL*, 41(3), 223-250.

- Sultana, F. & Alim, A. (2013). Efficacy of Communicative Language Teaching Primary A School-Bangladesh Context. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 2(1): 113-119.
- Sun, Guangyong., & Cheng, Liying. (2002). From Context to Curriculum: A Case Study of Communicative Language Teaching in China. *TESL Canada Journal*, Volume 19, Issue 2, Spring 2002, 67-86.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Willis, Jane. (1996). *A Framework of Task-Based Learning*. New York: Longman.
- Wong, C. C., & Barrea-Marlys, M. (2012). The Role of Grammar in Communicative Language Teaching: An Exploration of Second Language Teachers' Perceptions and Classroom Practices. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9, 61-75.
- Wu, W. (2008). Misunderstandings of Communicative Language Teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 1, 50-53.
- Wu, Y. (2009). The Application of CLT in College English Vocabulary. *Journal of Cambridge Studies*, 4, 128-131.
- Yoon, K.E. (2004) CLT Theories and Practices in EFL Curricula: A Case Study of Korea. *Asian EFL Journal*, 6/3, 1-16.

Title

Developing Lifelong Learners by Implementing Group Investigation Technique at
Higher Education

Author

Sri Utami

Bio-Profile:

Sri Utami completed her master degree majoring English Education. She is now teaching English at Economics Faculty of Semarang State University (UNNES). Her interest is in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Collaborative Learning, Teaching Method, and Teaching Using Technology.

Abstract

Group Investigation technique has been considered significant in improving students' soft skill through the opportunity given for each individual in the learning process. This study aims to describe Group Investigation technique used for college students in a collaborative learning. This practical experience is expected to answer the questions of: 1) what kind of skills that students can acquire after using this technique?; and 2) what are the roles of teacher in the classroom in improving in making this technique successfully implemented?. To answer the research questions, this research involved fifty students divided into ten groups. Then, this study employed primary and secondary data. The primary data included notes from students of their activities learning English outside and inside the classroom in a form of rubric written by the group, and also questionnaire. While the secondary data covered handout of Business English used in the learning process. The data were gathered through questionnaire distribution, documentation, and group report. To analyze the data, qualitative method was used by interpreting all data gathered from various resources. The research found that this technique provides conducive learning process for students to participate more actively on the task given, to have better self-attitude, to create students as independent and

lifelong learners. Further, teachers have to prepare well and design task-oriented activities during the learning process.

Introduction

In the era of globalisation, higher education could be one of education institutions which can contribute in preparing graduates to enter professional world. Therefore, the role of teachers at higher education is not only simply transferring knowledge, but also give them opportunities to build their own mind through a process of translating information they could acquire into their own understandings. One of the ways is to create conducive learning climate for the students to participate during the learning process. This kind of participation can make them more engaged leading to more lasting and meaningful learning.

Then, in the real competition in the real life, the need of being able to engage in more productive teamwork is considered urgently required. So that, higher education can provide graduate candidates an access to practice the teamwork during the learning. The teamwork skill can be acquired through collaborative learning in a kind of task-oriented learning group (Barkley, et al:2005). One of collaborative learning activities can be implemented through Group Investigation technique. Therefore, this research is intended to elaborate how this kind of technique is implemented and what benefit can be acquired.

Literature Review

Collaborative learning means “interactive learning groups in higher education, from structured to unstructured” (Barkley, 2005). Students will work collaboratively with their group, share ideas and have mutual benefit. Collaborative learning is the term used for activities during learning process in higher education. In Barkley (2005), Johnson et al (1991), Light (1992), Springer & Donovan (1998), confirm that students who interact with the other friends in the process of learning, including class discussion, have more positive behaviour towards the materials, improve motivation, and create more satisfaction with their experience compared to those students who have less access to interact with their friends during the learning process.

One form of collaborative learning is translated into some teaching techniques. One of them is called Group Investigation. Killen (1998:99) says that the Group

Investigation Technique (GIT) is one of the cooperative learning techniques which focuses on the participation and activities of students. Teachers who use this technique should divide the class into small groups. Each group usually consists of two to six students and may form around friendships or around an interest in a particular topic. Students select the topics for study, then every group decides what sub-topics are to be investigated as well as the goals of their study. Then, they prepare and present a report in front of the class.

Methodology

There were fifty students divided into 10 groups. The students are economics students majoring accounting and are taking business English subject. Business English is one of compulsory subjects to take in the second term of the first year of students at Economics Faculty. The students were given a task to interview a business of their own choice. So that, this research has two main data. The primary data included notes from students of their activities learning English outside and inside the classroom in a form of rubric written by the group, and also questionnaire. While the secondary data covered handout of Business English used in the learning process. The data were gathered by distributing questionnaires to all ten groups of students. Students were also given a report template to be completed dealing with all experiences during the learning process using group investigation. The stages during the process of this implemented techniques were; first, having commitment for participating group discussion (using rubric- working group contract); second, having group discussion (uncontrolled/outside the classroom); third, having an interview with businessman; and last but not least report writing and presentation. These stages were resourceful to later classify all detailed informations gathered from the students. Therefore, at the end of the project, the students are required to complete some forms; Contract for Working Group, Group Resume, Self-Evaluation form, Peer-Evaluation form, and Group Evaluation Form.

Findings and Discussion

The implementation of Group Investigation technique was found to be very dynamic at higher education. From the Group Resume report, the students have learnt to classify their own expertise in the group. 13 students confirmed that they were good

at interviewing, 10 students at report writing, 9 students at conducting survey, 7 students at presentation, 4 students at decision making, 3 students at critical thinking, 2 students at problem solving and 2 last at communication respectively. These expertise division was classified in the beginning of the Group Investigation technique. It was aimed to give opportunities for students to acknowledge their own expertise in the group.

Then, during their project implementation, they confirmed to have productive group work. There were 40% of the students who frequently contributed to the group, 35% always did contribute, and the rest , 25% of them only sometimes contributed to the group. So that, it can be seen that most of them actively contributed to the group work. To have such large class in an English subject, Group Investigation techniques seemed to be very helpful in maintaining students' participation in the learning process.

Last but not least, an important element that can be figured out in the research is the students' attitude towards each other during the group work. This information was gathered from Peer Evaluation Form. It is related to their perspective on how often their friends in the team listen to and respect each other during discussion process in the working group. It was ranked into "always", "frequently", and "sometimes". It was found that 45% of the students confirmed that their friends always respect each other, 42% of the students confirmed to be frequent, and 13% of the students were only sometimes having respect to each other. This finding shows that the students stayed on task, listened to others, and respect other team members. It can be concluded that the students have good self-attitude in the learning process.

Conclusions

Group Investigation technique is finally useful to create conducive learning environment for students at higher education as it gives more opportunities for them to become independent learners. Kinds of skills that students can acquire after using technique group investigation are communication skill either writing (report) or oral skill (interview and presentation); and also problem solving & decision-making process. Then, teachers play very important roles to make this technique run successfully. Teachers should design the whole activities, facilitate the students' need, ensure the students contribute to the activities in the group (check the rubric, ask clarification, etc), and monitor the whole activities.

References

- Astin, A. (1993). *What matters in college?* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Annis, L.F. (1983). The Process and effects of peer tutoring. *Human Learning*. 2-39-47
- Barkley, E, et al. (2005). *Collaborative Learning Techniques*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Bruffee, K.A (1993). *Collaborative learning: Higher Education, Interdependence, and the authority of knowledge*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press
Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary
- Fiechtner, S.B., & Davis, E.A. (1992). Why some groups fail: A survey of students' experience with learning groups. In A. Goodsell, M. Maher. & V. Tinto (Eds.), *Collaborative learning: A sourcebook for higher education*. University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University National Center on Postsecondary Teaching, Learning, and Assessment.
- Light, R. J. (2001). *Making the most of college: Students speak their minds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., & Smith, K.A. (1991). *Cooperative learning: Cooperation in the college faculty instructional productivity*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports, No. 4. Washington, DC: George Washington University.
- Light, R.J. (1992). *The Harvard Assessment Seminars, 2nd report*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, Graduate School of Education and Kennedy School of Government.
- Mathew, R.S. (1996). *Colaborative learning: Creating knowledge with students*. In R.J. Menges, M. Weimer, & Associates (Eds.), *Teaching on solid ground: Using scholarship to improve practice* (pp.457-475). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- McKeachie, W.J., Pintrich, P.R., Lin, Y., & Smith, D.A. (1986). *Teaching and Learning in the college classroom: A review of the research literature*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning.
- Meredith et.al. 2003. *Educational Research: An Introduction*. 7th Edition. Pearson Education. the Unite States of America.
- Millis, B.J and Cottel, P.G. (1998). *Cooperative Learning for Higher Education faculty*. Americal Council of Education. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.

- Millar, S.B. (1999). Learning through evaluation, adaptation, and dissemination: The LEAD Center. *AAHE Bulletin*, 51(8), 7-9
- Pascarella, E.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (1991) *How college affects students*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Plainscar, A.S., & Brown, A.L. 1984. Reciprocal Teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1, 117-175.
- Schunk, D. H. (2008). *Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective*. the United States of America: Pearson Education Inc.
- Slavin, R.E. (1996). *Education for all*. Exton, PA: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Springer, L., Stanne, M.E, & Donovan, S. (1998). Effects of cooperative learning on undergraduates in science, mathematics, engineering, and technology: A meta-analysis. *Research Monograph No.11*. Madison: University of Wisconsin, National Institute for Science Education.
- Strain, P.S., Kerr, M.M, & Raglan, E.U. 1981. The use of peer social initiations in the treatment of social withdrawal in P.S. Strain (Ed.), *The Utilization of Classroom peers as behavior change agents* (pp.101-128). New York: Plenum
- Tobias, S. (1990). *They're not dumb, they're different-Stalking the second tier*. Tucson, AZ: Research Corporation.

Title

Grammar Teaching Method
Preferred by Indonesian Students

Author

Suswati Hendriani

State Institute for Islamic Studies Batusangkar, West Sumatera Indonesia

Abstract

Teaching English grammar to Indonesian students, including those whose major is English Teaching Department is a problematic thing. On one hand, they need to master English grammar well because they will use the grammar in their real communication and, for English Teaching Department students who will be the future English teachers in Indonesia, they should be able to use the grammar in their classrooms later. On the other hand, when they learn English grammar, they tend to like certain methods and dislike others. It will be the case if the students' preference on the teacher's grammar teaching methods is not found out. This research examined the preferences of 154 students about grammar instruction methods in Indonesian Higher Education context. To find out the students' preference of grammar teaching method, a mixed-method was applied. The data of the research were collected by using a mixed questionnaire. The quantitative data were analyzed by descriptive statistics and the qualitative data were analyzed by applying the interactive model of Miles and Huberman. The results of the research show that teacher's teaching grammar explicitly (deductive) followed by is preferred by 108 students (70.13%), discussion method is preferred by 38 students (24.68%), and the rest of the methods that the respondents preferred were question and answer, poetry, and group work. Interestingly, 3 students care about the way the teaching learning process is conducted. They prefer if it is conducted in a "slow but sure" way.

Keywords: *grammar teaching method, Indonesia, students' preference*

1. Introduction

The role of grammar instruction in an EFL context has been a major issue for decades. Researchers have debated whether grammar should be taught in the classroom and students have generally looked upon grammar instruction as a necessary evil at best, and an avoidable burden at worst (Al-Mekhlafi and Nagaratnam, 2011: 71). There are some groups of language researchers related to grammar teaching, like “anti-grammarians”, “pro-grammarians”, and others. “Anti-grammarians doubt the role grammar instruction plays in language learning. This group supports “comprehensible input” by arguing that this type of input would enormously help the learner improve both their fluency and accuracy (Stern, 1983; Yim, 1998; Rodriguez and Avent, 2002). The “programmarians” as the second group, claim that formal instruction plays an important role and it should not be abandoned because direct grammar instruction helps significantly with accuracy and speeds second language (L2) learning (Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers, 1997). The third group agree that grammar should be taught. Yet, factors such as age, cognition and maturation of learners should be taken into consideration while teaching grammar (Celce-Murcia, 1991 & 2001).

In Indonesian context, however, the role of English grammar instruction should not be debated. Its importance is very clear. The facts show that in Indonesia, English is not a second language. English is spoken only at certain places and at certain times. Therefore, the grammar instruction in Indonesian context is unavoidable. The primary case here is that the way to teach it- whether to teach it deductively or inductively, explicitly or implicitly. Early research distinguished between two major methods: implicit (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Swain & Lopkin, 1982) and explicit grammar teaching (Ellis, 1990; Sharwood-Smith, 1981). Implicit grammar teaching was embraced in the task based approaches (Ellis, 2003; Fotos, 1998). Recently there has been some agreement that explicit instruction is also useful particularly in acquisition poor contexts (Ellis, 2006; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Nunan, 1998).

Teaching English grammar to Indonesian students, especially, including those whose major is English Teaching Department is a problematic thing. On one hand, they need to master English grammar well because they will use the grammar in their real communication and, for English Teaching Department students who will be the future English teachers in Indonesia, they should be able to use the grammar in their

classrooms later. On the other hand, when they learn English grammar, they tend to like certain methods and dislike the other ones. Thus, for Indonesian students, now the case is whether to teach them implicitly or explicitly. This paper reports on a study which examined Indonesian learners' preference of grammar teaching methods.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. What Is Grammar?

There are authors who define grammar differently. For Noshery and Vahdany (2014:448), grammar can be seen as a device which language users call upon when motivated by a communicative need to make their meanings clear. While according to Haussamen, (2003: xiii), the term *grammar* refers to two kinds of knowledge about language. One is subconscious knowledge i.e. the language ability that children develop at an early age without being taught. The other kind of knowledge is the conscious understanding of sentences and texts that can help students improve their reading and writing abilities by building on that subconscious knowledge. The conscious understanding includes knowing the parts of sentences and how they work together, knowing how sentences connect with one another to build meaning, and understanding how and why we use language in different ways in different social situations.

Larsen-Freeman (2001) has referred to the three dimensions present in the definition of grammar: form, meaning, and use. Moreover, Larsen-Freeman (2009: 521) states “grammar is a system of meaningful structures and patterns that are governed by particular pragmatic constraints”. A grammatical class (a label assigned to) is a set of substitution lists (of grammatical elements appearing in different contexts) that have identical or broadly similar members. The generality of the phrase ‘grammatical element’ means that we apply it to classes of morphemes, words, phrases, clauses (and even sentences), regardless of the size of the element: thus the class of deverbal noun-forming suffixes, the class of prepositions, the class of noun phrases, etc. (Jackson, 2003: 141).

2.2. Grammar Teaching and Its Goal

Larsen-Freeman (1991) points out “teaching grammar means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully and appropriately. Swan (2002) emphasizes that grammar should be taught (not too much) in order to help students with

comprehensibility and accuracy. Morelli (2003:33-34) has observed, “Grammar can be taught traditionally or contextually, but students perception should be considered by teachers in the decision-making process”. Grammar teaching can involve a combination of practice and consciousness raising. It is perfectly possible to teach grammar in the sense of helping learners to understand and explain grammatical phenomena without having them engage in activities that require repeated production of the structure concerned (Rod Ellis, 2002: 170). Grammar teaching can be helpful if the teacher teaches students how to use grammar in life discourse and avoid the traditional perspective of grammar rule teaching (Khan, 2007 p. 2). For Shafer (2012: 20), “Instead of teaching grammar, usage, and as a prescriptive way to reach a uniformity we should approach it descriptively, exploring and celebrating the many discourses that students bring to class”.

Haussamen, (2003) mentions three goals of grammar teaching: the ability to communicate comfortably and effectively in both spoken and written Standard English, with awareness of when use of Standard English is appropriate, the ability to analyze the grammatical structure of sentences within English texts, using grammatical terminology correctly and demonstrating knowledge of how sentence-level grammatical structure contributes to the coherence of paragraphs and texts, and an understanding of, and appreciation for, the natural variation that occurs in language across time, social situation, and social group.

2.3. Methods of Teaching Grammar

A large number of methods and techniques emerged over the years as a response to the ongoing discussion of grammar pedagogy. Some authors use the terms ‘method’ and ‘approach’ as equivalent terms, while others (Harmer, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) distinguish them. According to Harmer (2001, p. 78) an ‘approach’ includes the description of the nature of language and the nature of language learning. However, the term method is an umbrella term for specifications and interrelations of theory while ‘practice’ or ‘technique’ is the practical realization of an approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 16). I myself prefer to use the term method in this paper, i.e. the general direction in grammar teaching which can be implemented using a series of techniques and specific procedures.

Nassaji and Fotos (2011: i) divide the journey of grammar teaching into three phases, from a phase “in which grammar instruction was central, to one in which grammar instruction was absent, and to the recent reconsideration of the significance of the role of grammar instruction”. The journey can be seen from various teaching methods that have emerged: Grammar-translation Method (nineteenth–midtwentieth centuries), Direct Method (first part of twentieth century), Audiolingual Method (ALM) (1950s–1970s), Cognitive Approach (1970s), Natural Approach (1980s), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), (1970s–today) Richards and Rodgers (2001).

Categorizations and classifications of grammar methods and terminology have been found in literature. The first distinction which has been prevalent throughout the literature is deductive vs. inductive grammar instruction. The aim of inductive instruction is to acquire rules implicitly without students being aware of the target form (DeKeyser, 1994). While Patel and Jain (2008: 143-144) mention three methods of teaching of grammar: (1) Deductive Method, (2) Inductive method, and (3) Inductive and Deductive Method. In deductive method the teacher uses a grammar text book. He or she tells his or her students rules or definitions and explains those with the help of examples then gives exercise and asks his or her students to apply the rules. In inductive method, the teacher first presents or takes the example from the students then comes on theory or concept. The third method (inductive and deductive method as the name shows, is the synthesis of both above the methods) can remove the limitation of both the above methods. The teacher following this method will first present the examples before his or her students then will explain them or analyses them. Then he or she will try to see that students draw some conclusion and then teacher will give the rules. The teacher will continue by giving new examples and asking his or her students to verify the rules. Furthermore, Early research distinguished between two major methods: implicit (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Swain & Lopkin, 1982) and explicit grammar teaching (Ellis, 1990; Sharwood-Smith, 1981). Implicit grammar teaching was embraced in the task based approaches (Ellis, 2003; Fotos, 1998). However, recently there has been some agreement that explicit instruction is also useful particularly in acquisition poor contexts (Ellis, 2006; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Nunan, 1998).

Another distinction is focus on form vs. focus on meaning. The former indicates a situation when one grammar component is presented explicitly followed by extensive practice while the latter, is a term that designates attention to linguistic items in communicative activities with emphasis on meaning (Ellis, 2001b, 2006). Focus on Form includes a range of techniques which aim to focus students' attention to the form implicitly and explicitly. Focus on form is often discussed as grammar in integration in pedagogical circles (Borg & Burns, 2008). This involves grammar being embedded in meaning oriented activities and tasks and familiarizing students with the communicative purposes of grammar which give immediate opportunities for practice and use (Mitchell, 2000). A series of approaches has been introduced which offer different techniques of grammar integration into language learning: lexical approaches, the use of corpus concordancing, task based approaches and functional systemic approaches (Borg & Burns, 2008; Ellis, 2006, 2008). Hişmanoğlu (2005) considers "literature as a popular technique for teaching both basic language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) and language areas (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation)"

3. Research Method and Procedures

3.1. Research Subjects

The research applied qualitative and quantitative paradigm. The goal of the study was to identify the methods of grammar teaching preferred by the subjects from the subjects' view –point and then to find out the percentage of their preference.

The subjects of the research were selected purposefully based on the research need: those who were formally engaged in the process of teaching and learning English grammar. As a result, the second and the fourth semester students of State Institute for Islamic Studies (IAIN) Batusangkar whose major is English were selected and 154 students became the Informants of the research. To determine the sample of the research, there were several guidelines that were used: the purpose of the study, the focus of the study, the primary data collection strategy, the availability of the informants, and the redundancy of the information as McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 404) suggest.

3.2. Data Collection

To collect the data of the research, a questionnaire was distributed (Gay, Mills, and Airasian, 2009: 381). The questionnaire consisting of closed-and open-response

items was used because they are complementary. According to Heigham and Croker (2009: 201-2), closed- response items only require respondents to select their answer(s) from a limited list or selection in which questions and responses for this type of item use categories that have been defined by the researcher beforehand. Open-response items call for the respondents to answer in their own words.

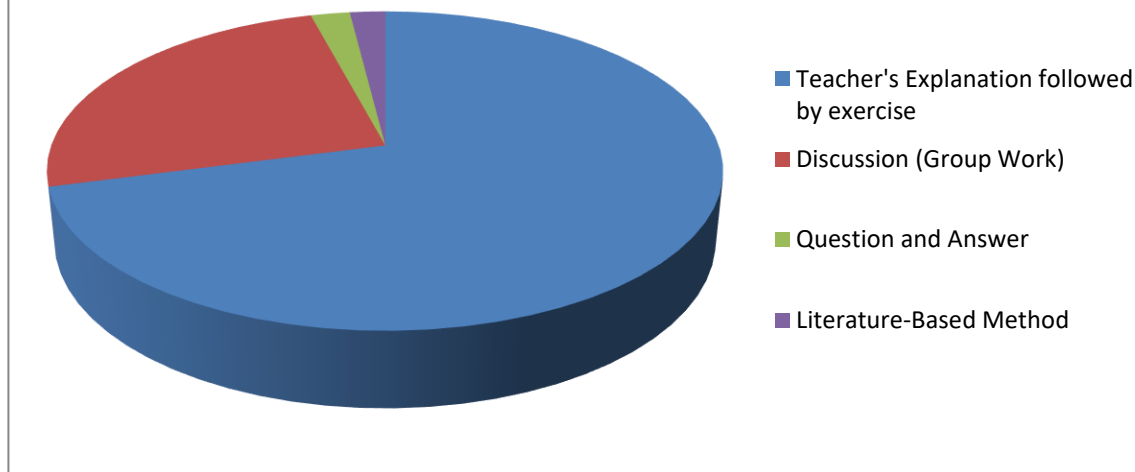
3.3. Data Analysis

To analyze the qualitative data, the technique of data analysis as proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) was used. The technique of data analysis includes three phases, namely data reduction, data display, conclusion drawing and verification. McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 462) state “qualitative analysis is a relatively systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing, and interpreting to provide explanations of the single phenomenon of interest.” Moreover, they point out that qualitative data analyses vary widely since there are differences in foci, purposes, data collection strategies, and modes of qualitative inquiries. To analyze quantitative data, descriptive statistics was used in which the percentage of each method was counted.

4. Results and Discussion

Before the students’ preference of grammar teaching method was asked, their opinion about the importance of grammar in learning English was asked. All of the respondents (100%) agreed that English grammar was very important in learning English. Then, they were also questioned whether they wanted to improve their English grammar mastery or not. All of them (100%) stated that they wanted to improve their English grammar master. The two previous questions were asked by using closed-ended question using Likert-scale. Meanwhile to collect the data of students’ preference of grammar teaching method, an open-ended question was asked. The results of the research show that there are some grammar teaching methods preferred by the students. They are: teacher’s teaching grammar explicitly (deductive) followed by examples and exercises is preferred by 108 students (70.13%), discussion/group work method is preferred by 43 students (25,76%), and the rest of the methods that the respondents preferred were question and answer (10 respondents or 2.16%), and literature-based method (poetry, song, and drama) by 9 respondents (1.95%).

Students' Grammar Teaching Method Preference



Besides describing about their preference of grammar teaching method, three students mention that they prefer when the teacher teaches grammar in a “slow but sure way”, three students prefer to use their own experiences in learning, and two of them mention about item analysis.

Based on the research results, it can be inferred that a deductive method is preferred by most of the students, not an inductive one. According to Nazari and Allahyar (2012), a deductive approach (I prefer to use the term “method) to language teaching underlines explaining the grammar item to learners and then training them in applying it, whereas an inductive approach fosters practicing the syntactic structure in context and then asking learners to infer the grammar rule from practical examples. It means that most of the subjects prefer. While the former is said to be more teacher-centered, the latter is considered to be more learner-centered.

The research results show that the students prefer to be taught using a prescriptive way even though Shafer (2012) points out “instead of teaching grammar, usage, and language as a prescriptive way to reach a of a uniformity of correctness, we should approach it descriptively, exploring and celebrating the many discourses that students bring to class. The subjects prefer to be passive even though they are expected to be no longer passive recipients of what Freire (1989) called the banking system of education but actually become collaborators in the learning and sharing that is both

social and forever. Pettersen (2006) explains that the goal of grammar instruction is to "shift the from good-versus-bad to curiosity" (p. 388). Indeed, what Pettersen contends is that grammar instruction can be both interesting and helpful when it is a real life context-when it is taken out of the prescriptive world of right and wrong and discussed for its social appropriateness.

Metalinguistic discussion (i.e., the use of grammatical terminology to talk about language) is seen by Stern (1992:327) as one of the characteristics of explicit grammar teaching. Burgess and Etherington (2002:440-441) also conclude that teachers believe that explicit teaching of grammar is favoured by their students because of expectations and feelings of insecurity. Students expectations of traditional, explicit grammar teaching have been confirmed by many teachers (cf. Borg, 1999a, b). While students favour formal and explicit grammar instruction and error correction, teachers favour communicative activities with less conscious focus on grammar (e.g., Brindley 1984; Kumaravadivelu 1991; Leki 1995; Schultz 1996, 2001; Spratt 1999). However, As Morelli (2003:33-34) has observed, "Grammar can be taught traditionally or contextually, but student perception should be considered by teachers in the decision-making process. Students need to feel confident that educators have met their needs . . . and educators should be willing to consider the attitudes and perceptions of students when making decisions about how to teach grammar."

Even though the students prefer deductive grammar teaching method, it does not mean that the English teachers need only to explain the rules but they need also to make them meaningful and applicable for the learners. In classes that are designated for teaching grammar, grammar is taught explicitly either by presenting the rules and then giving examples, which is referred to as deductive reasoning, or by providing examples and then students arrive to the rule, which is referred to as inductive reasoning (Thornbury, 2000). Then, some communicative based tasks might be used to practice the rules (Andrews, 2007).

One of the examples proposed in the literature for explicit grammar teaching is the use of *consciousness-raising* (CR) grammar tasks (Ellis, 1995; Fotos, 1993). Ellis (1997) defines a CR task as "a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it" (p. 160). He added that the purpose of a CR task "is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some

linguistic property or properties of the TL” (p. 160). Thornbury (2000) asserted that the pro-grammar teaching researchers claim that through CR “learning seems to be enhanced when the learners’ attention is directed to getting the forms right, and when the learner’s attention is directed to features of the grammatical system” (p. 24). For example, in a research performed by Fotos (1994) with EFL Japanese college students to examine the effectiveness of CR grammar tasks, she found that having the students work together to analyze and discover the rules was effective in generating accurate understanding of the grammatical structures and in using the target language.

5. Conclusion

This research can have significant implications not only for Indonesian students, but also other EFL students learning English grammar. The investigation into the students’ preference on grammar teaching methods can be an enlightening tool for English teachers, in making decision on what methods to use to teach English grammar to their students. The study has showed that Indonesian preferred deductive grammar teaching methods. Students are concerned with the the methods of grammar teaching the teachers use what they learn more than. Hence, EFL teachers need to highlight the importance of grammar lessons to students by organizing their grammar lessons in such a way that students understand the usefulness of learning a particular grammatical component. The students need to be provided with the opportunity to apply what they learn in real life contexts to make them. The study also endorsed the significant role of the teachers in the decision making process and in curriculum design. Teachers need to actively engage in understanding student needs and adapt materials and teaching methods accordingly. The findings have important implications for English teachers that they need to master a variety of methods or techniques that will make the students both understand and are able to use the English grammar in the four language skills in real life situation.

Bibliography

Al-Mekhlafi, Abdu Mohammed and Nagaratnam, Ramani Perur. (2011). *Difficulties In Teaching And Learning Grammar in an Efl Context*. International Journal of Instruction July 2011, Vol.4, No.2. e-ISSN: 1308-1470.

- Borg, S. (1999a). The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: a qualitative study of teachers' practices and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics*, 20 (1): 95-126. (cited in Burgess and Etherington, 2002)
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). Grammar pedagogy in second and foreign Language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 459-480.
- Brindley, G. (1984). Needs Analysis and Objective Setting in the Adult Migrant Education Program. NSW Adult Migrant Education Service, Sydney.
- Burgess, J. and Etherington, S. (2002). Focus on grammatical form: explicit or implicit? *System*, 30: 433-458.
- Celce_Murcia, M. (Ed.) (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education* (6th ed.). London and New York: Routledge.
- Davis, K. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistics research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(3), 427-53.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in teaching grammar: An SLA perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 83-107.
- Ellis, Rod. (2002). "Grammar Teaching Practice or Consciousness Raising?" in *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Jack C. Richards and Willy A. Renandya. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, Rod. (1990). *Instructed second language acquisition*. London: Blackwell.
- Freire, P. (1989). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.
- Gay, Lorraine R, Mills, Geoffrey E and Airasian, Peter W. 2009. *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application (Tenth Edition)*. New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.
- Haussamen, Brock . (2003). *Grammar Alive: A Guide for Teachers*. Illinois: the National Council of Teachers of English.
- Heigham, Juanita and Croker, Robert A. 2009. *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hinkel, E. & Fotos, S. (2002). From theory to practice: Teachers' view. In E. Hinkel & S. Fotos, (Eds.). *New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms*. (pp.1-12). London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Hişmanoğlu, Murat. (2005). "Teaching English Through Literature". *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*. Vol.1, No.1, April 2005
- Jackson, Howard. (2003: 141). *Grammar and Vocabulary : A Resource Book for Students Routledge English Language Introductions Series*. London: Taylor & Francis Routledge.
- Khan, Rabeya, Nashin. (2007). *Effective Grammar Teaching in ESL Classroom*. Bangladesh: BRAC University.
- Krashen, S. D. & Terrell, T. (1983). *The natural approach: language acquisition in the classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language learning tasks: teacher intention and learner interpretation. *ELT Journal*, 45 (2): 98-107.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Teaching grammar. In M. Celce-Murcia (ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd edn., pp. 251–66). Boston, MA: Thomson/Heinle.
- Larsen-Freeman, Diane (1991: 279:283), Teaching Grammar in Celce-Murcia M. (1991). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, (Second Edition), Boston MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Larsen-Freeman, Diane. (2009). Teaching and testing grammar. In M. Long and C. Doughty (Eds.) *The Handbook of Language Teaching* (pp. 518-542). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Leki, I. (1995). Good writing: I know it when I see it. In D. Belcher and G. Braine (eds.) *Academic Writing in a Second Language*. Norwood, NJ: Able Publishing.
- MacNeil, R. (2005). English Belongs to Everybody. In P. Escholz, A. Rosa, & V. Clark (Eds.), *Language Awareness* (pp. 537-543). Boston: Bedford St. Martin's.
- McMillan, James Hand Schumacher, Sally. 2001. *Research in Education (Fifth Edition)*. United States: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- Miles, Mathew B and Huberman, A. Michael. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis (Second Edition)*. California: Sage Publications.
- Nassaji, Hossein and Fotos, Sandra. (2011). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms: Integrating Form-Focused Instruction in Communicative Context*. New York. Routledge.

- Nazari, Ahmad and Allahyar, Negah. (2012). Grammar Teaching Revisited: EFL Teachers between Grammar Abstinance and Formal Grammar Teaching. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*. Volume 37, Issue 2, Article 5.
- Noshery, Akram Ranjbar and Vahdany, Fereidoon. (2014). An Investigation of the Relationship between Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Grammatical Knowledge, Predictive Validity, Use of Grammar Learning Strategies and Their Vocabulary Achievement. *The Iranian EFL Journal*. December 2014 Volume 10 Issue 6.
- Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching grammar in context. *ELT Journal*, 52(2), 101-109.
- Patel, M.F. and Jain, Praveen M. (2008). *English Language Teaching (Methods, Tools & Techniques)*. Jaipur: Sunrise Publishers & Distributors.
- Petraki, Eleni., and Gunawardena, Maya. (2015). The Key Ingredients of an Effective Grammar Lesson: Perceptions From High School ESL Students. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*. September 2015. Volume 17, Issue 3.
- Pettersen, N.L (2006). Grammar Instruction in the Land of Curiosity and Delight." *Teaching English in the Two Year College*. (pp.388-391).
- Richards , Jack C. and Rodgers, Theodore S. (1996). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library.
- Rodriguez, L. and Avent, P. (2002). What Happens When direct grammar is used to Develop Oral Proficiency in a Spanish Immersion Classroom. Retrieved from <http://gse.gmu.edu/research/lmtip/arp/vol1Word/L.Rodriguez.doc>.
- Schultz, R. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *ForeignLanguage Annals*, 29(3): 343-364.
- Shafer, Gregory. (2012). "A Socially Dynamic Approach to Teaching Grammar," *Language Arts Journal of Michigan*: Vol. 27: Iss. 2, Article 16.
- Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness-raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 159-168.
- Spratt, M. (1999). How good are we at knowing what learners like? *System*, 27:141-155.
- Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Stern, H. (1992). *Issues and Options in English Language Teaching*. Oxford:Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. & Lopkin, S. (1982). *Evaluating bilingual education: A Canadian case study*. Avon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Yim, Y. K. (1998). *The role of grammar instruction in an ESL program* (p. 17). Los Angeles, CA: Languages and Linguistics (ERIC Document Reproduction in Service No. ED432137).

Title

Acquisition of Second Language Grammar through Extensive Reading with Incidental and Intentional Learning Instruction

Author

Alfi Hidayatu Miqawati
Jember State Polytechnic, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Alfi Hidayatu Miqawati is an English lecturer at State Polytechnic of Jember, East Java. Her research interests are on Second Language Acquisition, English Skills, Language Assessment, Technology-Based Language Learning and English for Specific Purposes. She can be contacted at alfi_hidayah@yahoo.com.

Abstract

A number of studies revealed that learners developed their language through extensive reading. Some also stated that it is an effective way to help learners gain their vocabulary and grammar acquisition. However, in the implementation of extensive reading activities, incidental and intentional learning instructions also played a remarkable role and effected significantly on the learners' language ability. In this study, the researcher investigated the effects extensive reading on learners' grammar acquisition with two different learning instructions, incidental and intentional. Participants were students of English Department of State Polytechnic of Jember attending Reading 4 course (N=71). The results showed the incidental learning instruction in extensive reading activities gained more significant effect on the students' acquisition of grammar knowledge.

Keywords: Extensive reading, Incidental and intentional learning, grammar

Jember State Polytechnic
Jalan Mastrip Kotak Pos 164
Jember East Java Indonesia 68101

Extensive Reading (ER), often known as Sustain Silent Reading (SSR), book flood, free reading activity and reading for pleasure, is an alternative approach of reading which aims at developing students' language ability and promoting students to be better readers who enjoy reading for their pleasure. In more elaborated perspective of classroom implementation, Davis (1995) argued that ER is classified as a supplementary class library scheme and is attached to an English course in which pupils are given time to read pleasurably based on their level and no test is administered. In ER, students are exposed to a large amount of reading and they can choose what they want and when to read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). ER has been put into consideration by language teachers and practitioners in recent decades and has shown significant effects on students second language proficiency development.

In communicative language teaching, the teaching of language components (vocabulary and grammar) has faced a turndown. However, teaching grammar should not be solely neglected since it helps learners reach a higher level of language competence (Ellis, 2002). In relation with extensive reading, Krashen (1993) suggested that to improve grammatical performance and output, extensive reading can be applied and to obtain more significant result, the reading program should involve explicit instruction to enhance learners' reading skills Wong (2001). Chio (2009) also anticipated that such research in the future would further enhance the implementation of reading programs to promote second language acquisition. From such situation, this study aims to investigate the effectiveness of the implementation extensive reading with incidental and intentional instructions to promote learners' grammar acquisition.

Literature Review

Incidental Vs Intentional Learning

In language teaching and learning instruction, many scholars have noted the necessity of incidental (implicit) and intentional (explicit) learning. Incidental learning is defined as not planned by both the teachers and students student but occurs as a 'by-product' of another activity while another intentional learning is regarded as being deliberately intended by the teacher or the students (Nation, 1990). Incidental learning is closest in meaning to implicit learning in sense that they are unintentional and uncontrolled (Reber, 1996). Informal incidental learning suits the needs of adult education since it takes place anywhere and anytime.

Incidental learning has been proven to be an effective way to obtain students' success of vocabulary learning through extensive reading (e.g., Krashen, 1993; Laufer, 2009).

However, focusing solely on incidental vocabulary learning is not sufficient (Nation, 2010) since in vocabulary learning, extensive reading could not provide enough opportunities to learn vocabulary proficiently within a restricted time (Waring and Nation, 2004). They proposed that explicit vocabulary learning that focuses on linguistic forms is more effective in learning vocabulary. Other findings also showed that a combination of both incidental and intentional learning is necessary for L2 acquisition (Dekeyser, 2003; Ellis, 2004). From several of the explanations, there have been many studies investigating extensive reading and its implication toward vocabulary learning, but few investigated incidental and intentional L2 grammar learning from reading program. Thus, the focus of this study is to investigate the effect of extensive reading with incidental and intentional grammar learning toward students' grammar acquisition.

Methodology

Participants

Seventy one students majoring in business English and taking Reading IV course became the participants of this study. The language proficiency of the students vary and most of the students were on intermediate level. Prior to the treatment, the students were required to take a grammar test which were adopted from several valid sources (e.g TOEFL exercise book) and thus, the content validity of the test can be assured as well as the test reliability. The test included question on general grammar and consisted of 100 items.

Materials

Graded readers were selected as the materials in implementing ER. It is in line with what Nation (2009) and Waring & Takaki (2003) called that graded readers are useful reading materials for students. The students were given three assigned reading material and four free book chosen by the students based on their interest and preference. The books were selected from the Bookworm series published by Oxford University Press.

Treatment (Experimental Procedures)

The students were divided into two groups (Control Group/CG and Experimental Group/EG). The participants in the control group received extensive reading only. They were required to finish reading the short books within two months. Every week, the students had classroom discussion related with the books they read and wrote their opinion on the report

book provided. However, the experimental group was also given the same treatment with an additional activity, which was explicit grammar explanation and exercises. The sample sentences were taken from the books the students read. After the activities, the students were asked to speak out a sentence or create a sentence by using the target patterns. During the treatment process, the students were asked to focus on reading the books and find their enjoyment in reading and were without being told that a test would be administered after they finished the program.

Instrumentation

The instruments applied in this study was a general grammar test. The instrument was used to collect primary data and consisted of 100 objective test items and was adopted from various resources of Grammar handbooks and standardized English Proficiency test (e.g., TOEFL and TOEIC). The items were selected based on the distribution of grammar materials. The grammar test was scored dichotomously with one point for choosing a correct option and zero point for choosing an incorrect option. The total score for this test is 100 points. It was used for both pretest and posttest. An example of the item can be found below (Phillips, 2003).

The horn of rhinoceros consists of a cone of tight bundles of
keratin ... from the epidermis.

- A. grow
- B. grows
- C. growing
- D. they grow

Findings and discussion

The main data of this study were obtained from grammar test. The descriptive statistics results of the grammar test is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1 The Descriptive Analysis Summary of the Posttest Result

Group	Pretest	Posttest
Control Group	$\Sigma X = 2391$	$\Sigma X = 2585$
(Extensive Reading with Incidental Learning)	$\Sigma X^2 = 5716881$ $X = 66.4$ $N = 36$	$\Sigma X^2 = 6682225$ $X = 71.8$ $N = 36$
Experimental Group	$\Sigma X = 2419$	$\Sigma X = 2642$
(Extensive Reading with Intentional Learning)	$\Sigma X^2 = 5851561$ $X = 69.1$ $N = 35$	$\Sigma X^2 = 6980164$ $X = 75.49$ $N = 35$

Note. From the statistical test, p value $0.0001 < .05$. Within each of the the group, the pretest and posttest results of statistical analysis showed p value of .006205 (the control group) and of in the experimental group of .000064. The results were significant at $p < .05$.

The result showed that there was a significant effect of both treatment from the results of the pretest and posttest. It can be inferred that both treatments (incidental and intentional learning in extensive reading), within each of the groups, provided contribution to the students' grammar learning. The findings of this study is in line with studies conducted by Lee, Schallert, & Kim (2014) and Alqadi & Alqadi, (2013) which showed that extensive reading worked best for students' grammar knowledge and accuracy. In this study, both of the groups received the same treatment, in terms of they were given the same post reading activity (discussion) after they did extensive reading since post reading activities like report, reading journal, or discussion provide learners more opportunities to develop their language proficiency. Resketi & Bagheri (2014) called the activity as enhance extensive reading. Their study on enhance extensive reading revealed that learners who received enhanced extensive reading outperformed the ones who received unenhanced extensive reading instruction in thers of incidental acquisition of English phrasal verbs.

Meanwhile, another point of this study is to investigate significance effectiveness of the implementation of extensive reading with incidental and intentional learning. The result called that students taught using extensive reading with intentional learning outperformed those taught using extensive reading with incidental learning. This finding support previous studies

on explicit grammar teaching in reading programs. Together with discussion, explicit instruction led to significantly greater gains on students' grammar test Rodrigo, Krashen and Gribbons (2004).

Conclusion

This study illustrates some evidence for the use of extensive reading with incidental and intentional grammar teaching. The implementation of both instructions increase students general grammar knowlegde. However, students taught using intentional grammar learning in extensive reading gained more significnt result compared to those taught using extensive reading with incidental learning. The pedagogical implication of this extensive reading program is the engangement of students and teacher in the process of reading and post reading activities. Teachers need to always monitor the progress of the students' learning, motivate them to participate in post reading activities, ask them to make use of language forms, and provide feedback for their improvement in the target element acquisition.

References

- Alqadi, K. R. & Alqadi, H. M. (2013). The Effect of Extensive Reading on Developing the Grammatical Accuracy of the EFL Freshmen at Al Al-Bayt University. *Journal of Education and Practice.*, 4 (6), 106-113.
- Chio, K. U. (2009). Reading and Second Language Acquisition. *Applied Language Studies* Vol. 13 (Online). Retrieved on 28th July, 2016 from www.hawaii.edu/sls/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/Choi-Sujeong.pdf.
- Davis, C. (1995). Extensive reading: An expensive extravagance? *ELT Journal*, 49(4), 329-336.
- Dekeyser, R. M. (2003). Implicit and explicit learning. In C. J. Doughty, & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 313-348). Oxford, MA: Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (2002). Does form-focused instruction affect the acquisition of implicit knowledge? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24, 223-236.
- Ellis, R. (2004). The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning*, 54, 227-275.
- Krashen, S. (1993). *The power of reading: Insights from the research*. Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

- Laufer, B. (2009). Second language vocabulary acquisition from language input and from form-focused activities. *Language Teaching* 42 (3), 341-354.
- Lee, J., Scahallert, D. L., Kim, E. (2015). Effects of extensive reading and translation activities on grammar knowledge and attitudes for EFL adoslescents. *System* 52, 38-50.
- Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.
- Phillips, D. (2003). Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL: The Paper Test. Pearson Education: New York.
- Reber, A. S. (1996). *Implicit learning and tacit knowledge: An essay on the cognitive unconscious*. Oxford: Clarendon.
- Resketi, B. M. & Bagheri, B. (2014). EFL Learners' Incidental Acquisition of English Phrasal Verbs through Enhanced Extensive Reading vs. Unenhanced Extensive Reading. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching & Research* 2 (8), 33-42.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*, (3rd ed.). London: Pearson Education.
- Rodrigo, V., Krashen, S., & Gribbons, B. (2004). The effectiveness of two comprehensible-input approaches to foreign language instruction at the intermediate level. *System*, 32, 53-60.
- Waring, R. & Nation, I. S. P. (2004). Second language reading and incidental vocabulary learning. *Angles on the English-Speaking World* 4, 11-23.
- Wong, C. K. (2001). What we know after a decade of Hong Kong extensive reading scheme. University of Connecticut. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 458 806)

Title

The Teaching Methodology and Assessment of Character Education in Indonesian English Curriculum: Teacher`s Perceptions

Author

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin

Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar

Bio-Profile:

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin is a teaching assistant at English Education Department, Teaching and Science Faculty of Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN) Alauddin Makassar (Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar). He took his Master`s degree at MSc TESOL Programme at the University of Edinburgh, United Kingdom. He can be contacted via ahkam.arifin@gmail.com.

Abstract

To develop students` knowledge subjects (e.g., English) and character (e.g., honesty), the Ministry of Education of Indonesia in 2013 launched a new curriculum called *Kurikulum 2013*. All subjects in this curriculum were claimed to be fully integrated with character education (CE). Notwithstanding a growing body of research stressing the need for CE to be integrated into school curricula, empirical studies on teachers` perceptions regarding the implementation of CE “have made few inroads in high schools” (Leming, 2006, p. 84). Thus, the current research aimed to explore English teachers` perceptions in Indonesia regarding the teaching methodology and assessment of CE integrated into the English high school curriculum. It utilised semi-structured interviews with four English teachers as the respondents. Regarding the teaching methodology, the findings revealed that teachers (1) had little consensus on how moral values could be integrated into English teaching materials and methods, (2) employed different strategies in teaching values, and (3) faced challenges in implementing CE (e.g., lack of training). In terms of assessment, it was found that teachers (1) mostly employed observation as the assessment tool, (2) claimed the invalidity of quantitative

assessment, and (3) expressed concern over the validity of the assessment of students' behaviour.

Keywords: *teaching methodology, English curriculum assessment, character education, English-high school curriculum, moral education*

Introduction

Context Information

In 2013, the Indonesian government (MONEC Number 59 Year 2014) launched a new curriculum called *Kurikulum 2013* (Curriculum 2013), wherein all subjects (e.g., Mathematics, English) were integrated with character education (henceforth CE). This means that all teachers, from elementary to high school, not only focused on improving students' academic achievement, but also on their moral development, by cultivating universal moral values (Kemendiknas, 2011). These goals appear to reflect the goals of Indonesian education as depicted in the Indonesian Government Regulations Number 20 Year 2003 about the National Standards of Education that any formal learning activities are required to focus upon the development of students' "faith, character (or morality), health, knowledge, creativity, independence, democracy and responsibility" (ibid, p. 5).

Theoretical Framework

The above goals of Indonesian education seem similar to what was addressed by Lickona (2000) that all schools, all over the world, "have always had two goals: the development of intellect and the development of character" (p. 59). The development of intellect refers to the knowledge subjects (e.g., Physics, Biology, English, Mathematics), while the development of character covers the teaching of character (or morality e.g., honesty, hard work, discipline). Lickona (ibid) claims that, of these two main goals of formal education, "character is the more important, because it provides the foundation for everything else" (p. 59). Among other approaches (values clarification, moral dilemma discussion), CE is an approach to moral education, by seeking to instil students with certain universal moral values (e.g., honesty, patriotism, hard work).

Relevant Studies and the Research Gap as the Rationale

Despite a growing body of research stressing the need for CE being integrated into school curricula (e.g., Jones et al., 1990; Troutman, 2014; Qoyyimah, 2015; Beachum et al.,

2013; Mathison, 1999), studies that have specifically focused on teachers' perceptions regarding CE in English classrooms could be said to be few in number. Howard et al. (2004) stated that the field of CE "suffers from having relatively few rigorous research findings" (p. 205). It is particularly so in high schools. Leming (2006) posited that CE efforts "have made few inroads in high schools" (p. 84), albeit "character education interventions have primarily targeted the elementary and middle developmental levels" (Davidson et al., 2014, p. 290). Albeit a number of studies (e.g., Jones et al., 1999; Donovan, 2000) have examined teachers' perceptions regarding the implementation of CE, apparently the only empirical studies that have focused on English teachers' perceptions regarding the implementation of CE are by Mambu (2014) and Qoyyimah (2015). Mambu (2015) also has specifically addressed some challenges in assessing CE.

Studies on teachers' perceptions regarding CE implementation have revealed some negative feedback including teachers' lack of training for CE (Jones et al., 1999; Troutman, 2014), the lack of consensus about what character education is and how it should be taught (Jones et al., 1999), the inconsistency in defining moral values (Donovan, 2000), teachers' low confidence in being a good role model (Donovan, 2000), being afraid of religious indoctrination (Mathison, 1999), the need for family, or homes, as the central role for CE (Leming & Yendol-Hoppey, 2004; Romanowski, 2005), the issue to quantify the assessment of CE (Romanowski, 2005) and the urgency to prepare students for academic standardised tests (Yandles, 2008).

Conversely, other studies have suggested positive findings. These findings include the perceptions that most teachers support and agree with the importance of CE being integrated into the school curriculum (e.g., Beachum et al., 2013; Mathison, 1999, Chang, & Muñoz, 2006; Jones et al, 1990; Troutman, 2014), that teachers are confident to cultivate values or are good role models (Mathison, 1999; Milson & Mehlig, 2002; Troutman, 2014), that religion needs to serve as a compelling framework for CE (Jones, 1999; Milson & Mehlig, 2002) and that teachers begin to know their students better (Leming & Yendol-Hoppey, 2004). Hence, this current research aims to contribute to this debate in the sense that the research questions will be formed based on these findings.

Specifically, on English teachers' perceptions in the implementation of CE in the English curriculum of Indonesia, Qoyyimah (2015) reported that all respondents, regardless of their religion, supported the integration of CE in the school curriculum, particularly in assisting students to become religious as one of the eighteen prescribed values by the Indonesian government. (The eighteen moral values include religiosity, honesty, tolerance, discipline,

hardworking, creativeness, independence, democratic, motivation to learn, patriotism, nationalism, supportive, love to read, peace maker, friendliness and communicativeness, environmental awareness, social awareness and responsibility (Kemendiknas, 2011). Despite this support, however, some of the teachers failed to suggest evidence of the implementation of CE in their classroom, which was due to their lack of training. Nevertheless, those who had regular training “consistently modelled and explicitly taught the nominated values in classrooms” (ibid, p. 158).

However, another study, conducted to determine university teachers` perceptions regarding religiosity in English classrooms in Indonesia, indicated contradictory findings. Mambu (2014) reported that some teachers “felt awkward if they had to start classes with a prayer” (p. 97). Despite the fact that they did not “forbid the teaching of religiosity or spirituality” (p.100), they considered teaching students to be good language speakers is the main aim in their professions. In a more recent study, Mambu (2015) suggested the challenges in teaching and assessing the value of tolerance in English classrooms. One of the examples of this was the fact that students and teachers seemed to have a different way of defining the value of tolerance.

Research Aims, Questions and the Significance

Based on their empirical studies, both Qoyyimah (2015) and Mambu (2014; 2015) appeared to indicate contradictory findings, to the extent that, while Qoyyimah suggested teachers` positive support over the policy of teaching CE, Mambu indicated teachers` negative support. To contribute to this debate, the current research aimed to explore the perceptions of English high school teachers in Indonesia regarding how they teach and assess moral values while teaching English simultaneously, or, in other words, how they integrate CE into their ways of teaching English. The results of the study might provide useful information for the curriculum designers, or trainers, to make informed decisions in the future for improvements to the integration of CE into the English curriculum. Furthermore, the current paper employed interviews as the main instrument in that both studies above utilised interviews as one of the instruments for the data collection. More specifically, to address the research aims, the following research questions were formed:

- 1. What are English teachers` perceptions regarding the teaching methodology of character education in the English high school curriculum in Indonesia?*
- 2. What are English teachers` perceptions regarding the assessment of character education in the English high school curriculum in Indonesia?*

Methodology

Research Approach and Data-Gathering Tool

The above-mentioned research questions call for some kind of interpretation of teachers' attitudes or perceptions, and hence the current research can be considered to adopt the approach of interpretivism (Thomas, 2013; Bryman, 2012). More specifically, the current study adopted a phenomenological approach as the design frame (Gray, 2014; Starks & Trinidad, 2007). For the data-gathering tool, it utilised a semi-structured interview since it could allow more detailed responses from the participants by the use of probes, and they can be asked to clarify what they have said (Gray, 2014).

Participants

The current study used criterion sampling, a type of purposive sampling (Gray, 2014), in that the participants were selected based on three main criteria. Firstly, it was imperative that the teachers had been implementing character education (CE) in their classroom (and the school as well) for more than one semester. Secondly, it was crucial that the teachers were implementing the latest curriculum, Curriculum 2013. Thirdly, it was essential that they had undergone training in implementing CE, in order for them to provide a comprehensive understanding (Gray, 2014).

Table I. A summary of the participants' identities

Respondents	Sex	Age	Years of teaching experience
Respondent A	Male	36	Thirteen (13) years
Respondent B	Male	27	Four (4) years
Respondent C	Female	26	Three (3) years
Respondent D	Female	31	Six (6) years

Data Analysis

Regarding the data analysis, this research utilised the "constant comparative method" as recommended by Thomas (2013). The steps within this method affirmed the process of data analysis as what Goulding (2005) mentioned. Firstly, all of the transcripts were read and re-read for the researcher to become familiar with the responses, and temporary constructs (or meaning units) were initiated. Consequently, the first stages were completed. The second

reading resulted in second-order constructs, which were compared with the first constructs. Once the constructs were deemed exhaustive, they were then labelled as the themes of the data.

Procedure

For the procedure, after obtaining the consent form from the interviewees, the interviews were conducted. Each interview lasted sixty to ninety minutes, and the interviewees had been informed about the possible length of time prior to conducting the interview. Following the data analysis, member checking was conducted to elicit the participants' feedback on the analysis, in order to cross check interpretation.

Findings

How Teachers Teach Values and English Simultaneously

- **There are no specific strategies in integrating values into English teaching materials.**

All of the respondents appeared to express the same concern, in that they had no specific strategies in teaching each of the (moral) values while teaching English. It is worth pointing out, however, that the government, under Curriculum 2013, had officially prescribed English teachers to implement a scientific approach. Nonetheless, teachers indicated that they could not effectively use this approach to specifically teach each of the values, while also teaching English.

Respondent A (RA) commented that "I don't know what methodology I use. It [scientific approach] makes my students bored". Respondent D (RD) claimed that "sometimes I cannot relate the teaching material with a value that should be taught [based on the syllabus]". Respondent C (RC) also reported that "I don't know the type of strategies I use. I tend to use a variety of teaching strategies and provide a varied task". Similarly, Respondent B (RB) mentioned, "I don't have [specific] strategies. The strategy is laid on the situation and condition [of] the classroom and what is the objective of the material or lesson to be taught".

- **Teachers integrate values into English materials, and not the reverse.**

Furthermore, the above quotations from the four teachers seem to provide hints about the way they teach moral values while teaching English, that is, by integrating the values into the English materials, or topics, that they would teach, and not the reverse. This means that the

teachers had clear objectives of English lessons at the beginning and then attempted to find certain values that could be integrated into the lessons.

- **Teachers use varied strategies in promoting values.**

Despite the above seemingly consensus that the teachers had no clear hints on specific strategies, they managed to mention some strategies that they had exercised in their classrooms. To teach the values of discipline, respect and confidence, RA mentioned that “students must attend [the class] on time [and wear] complete uniform. Consistently being on time is the product of proper planning; discipline [and] respect for other people`s time. Educative penalties such as presentation ... is for training their confidence.”

Teachers Teach and Assess Different Values.

When asked about whether he implemented all of the eighteen recommended values, RA mentioned that “only some of them. I just assess three values: discipline, creative, and hardworking”. Similarly, RD also claimed that she promoted tolerance, honesty, discipline, hardworking and cooperation. Unlike RA and RD, RB claimed that “I taught most of the eighteen universal values”. When asked whether she managed to integrate all the values, she mentioned that “no, I didn`t. For example, when I try to use patriotism as [a] value in my teaching, I would be hard to find materials that [are suitable]”.

Challenges in Promoting Moral Values

- **Lack of training**

All of the respondents seemed to agree that not all moral values that were recommended by the government could be integrated into their English lessons. Seemingly, one of the reasons of this difficulty is due to the lack of training on how to integrate the values into English teaching materials. RD claimed that “we weren`t trained to teach values when we`re still in the university”. Moreover, RB reported that “[there was] no workshop or seminar before it [was] applied. We didn`t have any clue about the lesson plan [and] syllabus. It [CE] can be applied after its socialisation [or trainings] has been comprehensively addressed to all teachers”.

- **Lack of collaboration with students` parents**

Regarding the issues in implementing CE, RA seemed to focus more on the difficulties in collaborating with students` parents. He commented that “there is no cooperation with the students` parents. Their parents think that go[ing] to school is just a processing of getting certificates and they don`t want to [be] involve[d] with that [their children`s character development]”.

- **Lack of confidence in teaching moral values (or as a role model)**

The teachers were also asked whether they had confidence to promote values, or could become good role models for their students. RB indicated her low confidence in promoting values that “before build[ing] the students` characters, we as a teacher should build our character first. I only have a little confidence. Teaching values is a big responsibility.”

However, RC and RD appeared to imply that they had confidence in promoting values and being role models for their students. RC claimed that “I feel appropriate to teach values because education [CE] is our responsibility as a teacher”. She also mentioned that “if we haven’t successfully applied it, it means we have to evaluate ourselves, our strategies in teaching”. RD reported that “no need to wait ourselves to be perfect in order to teach good things [values]. And I consider it as a motivation for myself [to have good character]”.

Teachers Support the Aims of Character Education.

- **Teaching English and promoting values are of the same importance.**

Despite the aforementioned challenges, all teachers posited that they supported the government`s policy in developing students` moral character, notwithstanding each teacher put it in a different way. RA perceived improving students` characters to be his responsibility as a teacher, as he mentioned that “most of [my] students want to work or have some business. But the problem is their attitude. I try to prepare their attitude. As a teacher I have to educate them”. When asked about which one he prioritised more in his classrooms, either teaching values or teaching English as a subject, he reported that “both should be integrated”.

- **Teaching English is more important than promoting values.**

Unlike RA, who perceived both teaching English and promoting values the same way, RB preferred to focus more on teaching English. She commented, “I prefer teaching English itself to values. Because as we know that teaching English is not easy. Many problems [are] faced when teaching the language. So, when teaching English and the value at once is too difficult for me”. Nonetheless, she suggested her support over the policy of CE, when stating that “actually I support it but it should be minimize[d] by its assessment”. Similarly, RC reported that “as an English teacher, I feel [it is] more important to teach English because this is [my] academic responsibility”. She continued that “values in teaching and learning processes are only additional benefits that can be gained [in addition to English]”.

- **Promoting values is more important than teaching English.**

Unlike the others, RD considered teaching values more important to her compared to teaching English, as she claimed that “there is no use having students who are good at English but their behaviours are not good. Teaching English itself is [already] not easy. But we, educators, [must] play roles in developing future civilisation”. She also mentioned that “I probably tend to say that teaching values is more important [than teaching English]. This country really need[s] people with good characters”.

The Effectiveness of Character Education

Both RA and RD suggested the effectiveness of CE under Curriculum 2013. RA mentioned that “in my class, I implement it [CE] well”. Upon the development of his students` discipline, he said that “better and better. They [students] start thinking that discipline is [an] important thing that can make them successful”. He further gave examples that “most of them always submit assignments on time [and] they start paying attention on my class”. Similarly, RD reported that “in general, they are more serious to study and do the tasks I assign”. She continued that “I asked them to write paragraphs about their future visions. Many of them really want [that] there is no corruption in this country”.

However, RB contradicted this claim, as she reported that “I think [there is] not really [improvement]”. She further mentioned that there were still many students who violated the values being promoted, although teachers had implemented CE since 2013. Similarly, RC commented “[It is] not fully effective because in reality in my school every year [there are] students who did not pass to get to the higher class, caused by their naughtiness.”

How Teachers Assess Character Education

- **Teachers use observation for assessment.**

Notwithstanding the government provided three types of assessment of CE, most of the teachers within the current study indicated their preference to employing observation over self-assessment and peer assessment. When asked about the types of assessment she implemented, RD answered “[I use] observation. I do it when they [students] have examination and when I ask them to write paragraphs”. Similarly, RA said that “I assess my students` behaviour from their activeness in my class” and “based on their daily behaviour”.

- **Teachers do not use “numbers” for the assessment.**

Although suggested by the government to use (descriptive or predicative) words for the assessment of spiritual and social attitude (CE), the teachers within the current study claimed

that they used descriptive words to assess their students' behaviour rather than numbers. Like RB, RC reported that "I assess [students' behaviour] by using words (descriptions), yet in the end it will be in the form of the scale of A to E". She continued that "using scores [numbers] makes me hard to identify [assess] students' attitude". Furthermore, RA mentioned that "I just assess [CE] [by the scale of] bad, fair, good, [and] very good".

Challenges in Assessing Character Education

- **Students' behaviour is dynamic.**

As might also be indicated within the previous section, two teachers perceived that assessing students' behaviour, which always changed, might lead teachers to give invalid marks (or assessment scores) to students. For example, RB claimed that "assess[ing] students' behaviour is very complicated. Because we know that behaviour is always changing every time for every student". She also mentioned that "the condition of students is still unstable. Sometimes they show good behavior sometimes they show bad behavior". Moreover, RA appeared to support this phenomenon, as he said "Students' behaviour is always dynamic. Behaviour is not [to be] assessed but to be improved."

- **Assessing English and moral values simultaneously might be time consuming.**

Three of the respondents suggested that assessing students' cognitive competence (English) and social and attitude competence (CE) were time-consuming. It is worth pointing out at the outset that the government officially required teachers, not only to assess these two types of competence, but also to assess skill competence (or objectives of English lessons). Quotations from RB indicated this phenomenon:

The assessment covers three main points, [namely] affective [spiritual and social attitude], psychometric [skill], and cognitive [English]. The difficulties are [that] we should describe those points for every competence [every objective for each meeting] of the material. It [is] really a waste of time to assess the students."

Discussions

How Teachers Teach Values and English Simultaneously

In line with previous studies (Jones et al., 1999; Mathison, 1999), this section indicated overall teachers' little consensus on how values could be taught, as they reported utilising different strategies studies (Cheung & Lee; Richardson, et al., 2009) in teaching each of the

moral values, albeit teaching the same values. As a result, it was difficult to specifically determine which strategies for which values. Regarding this, in reviewing seventy-eight empirical studies on fifty-four CE programs, Berkowitz and Bier (2007) argued that “many of the research reports did not sufficiently elaborate on the content [or moral values] and pedagogical strategies of the program methods” and “most programs employ many strategies” (p. 5).

The respondents` claim that they integrated values into their English lessons, or, in other words, they started with English materials and methods first before selecting values for the integration and not the reverse, which is in line with previous studies (Troutman, 2014; Qoyyimah, 2015). While Troutman claimed that “teachers feel that academics come first and character gets fitted in and when time allows” (p. 88-89), Qoyyimah argued that “teachers should choose only the values relevant to EFL teaching materials and teaching activities” (p. 185).

Teachers Teach and Assess Different Values.

Despite the fact that the government recommended eighteen values to be promoted, the respondents indicated that they implemented different values in their classrooms. This appears to corroborate Berkowitz and Bier`s (2007) statement that CE programmes generally promote diverse values, albeit within the same programmes, as how it was disclosed within the current research. Moreover, the current findings also seem to endorse Qoyyimah`s (2015) findings that English teachers in Indonesia offer different values within their classrooms, as a result of the difficulties faced by teachers in the integration of values to their English materials and methods.

Challenges in Promoting Moral Values

As in previous research (Jones et al., 1999), teachers appeared to indicate difficulties in promoting values while teaching English as a result of the lack of training. Moreover, Mathison (1999) revealed that 71% of his participants (287 teachers) disagreed with the statement that “the topic of character education was addressed thoroughly in my teacher preparation program” (p. 33), while 16% were unsure.

The teachers within the current study claimed to be unable to integrate all the eighteen recommended values into their English materials and methods, supporting Qoyyimah`s (2015) findings that English teachers in Indonesia “could not freely nominate and model all 18 values”. Qoyyimah claimed that despite teachers` routine in attending training for Curriculum 2013, they still faced the difficulty of integrating values. Perhaps this could be explained by RD`s

statement that teachers attending training for Curriculum 2013 were not encouraged to focus on how values could be integrated into English teaching materials or methods.

Of the four respondents, only one indicated that she could not guarantee her character to be confident in promoting values to students. This could be said to contradict previous research by Donovan (2000), wherein, of the six teachers interviewed, only two suggested they were confident in promoting values and also as being a role model. This could be due to the fact that Donovan's participants lacked knowledge of the framework of the CE programme in their context. However, the current research appears to confirm other studies (Mathison, 1999; Milson & Mehlig, 2002; Troutman, 2002) that the majority of teachers believe that they could become a role model to promote moral values to their students, and were confident to discuss issues of right and wrong (Mathison, 1999).

Additionally, endorsing previous research (Romanowski, 2005), the current study indicates teachers' challenges in having good collaboration with students' parents in monitoring the development of their children, particularly related to students' character (CE). Moreover, like Mathison's (1999) study, teachers consider parents and close relatives to have the primary responsibility for CE, rather than teachers themselves.

Teachers Support the Aims of Character Education.

Overall, the findings within this section verified a number of previous studies (e.g., Jones et al., 1990; Troutman, 2014; Qoyyimah, 2015; Beachum et al., 2013; Mathison, 1999) that teachers, in general, perceive CE to be important and supported the idea of promoting values to students, despite teachers' facing challenges in integrating values to the lessons. Interestingly, the current research also disclosed that one of the respondents considered teaching values more important than teaching English, albeit her profession is an English teacher. However, two others contradicted this view, while the other perceived both teaching English and promoting values to be of the same importance.

The Effectiveness of Character Education

Two respondents claimed that the implementation of CE in their contexts indicated effectiveness, to the extent that they found some improvement in their students' behaviour development related to the values they were instilling. However, like Richardson et al. (2009), the current study only employed teacher interviews as the single type of measurement tools, which might influence the validity of the findings. There also appeared to be a variety of causes that might influence students' behaviour, such as "parental influences, individual student maturity, peer pressure, social class" and others (Romanowski, 2005, p. 10). For this reason,

the claim should be interpreted with caution (Berkowitz & Bier, 2007). Nonetheless, inasmuch as other studies (Cheung & Lee, 2010; Dereli-Iman, 2014; Lee, 2014), with the use of different data gathering tools, also pointed to the effectiveness of CE programs, this claim might be validated.

How Teachers Assess Character Education

Overall, the teachers within the current research seem to prefer employing observation to self-assessment and peer assessment, supporting previous research (Retnawati et al., 2016). Teachers found it impractical to utilise self-assessment and peer assessment, in that teachers would need to spend a great amount of money and time for printing and the distribution of the instruments to the students. Another difficulty was due to the lack of training in making the assessment rubrics. However, the current findings also contradict Retnawati et al. (ibid), to the extent that, in their study, some teachers implemented the self-assessment, or the combination of the three techniques, while all the participants within the current research only employed observation.

The teachers within the current study used the scale of A to E (excellent to bad), along with descriptive (or predicative) words, to assess their students' behaviour. This finding appeared to endorse Romanowski's (2005) finding that "student behavior is extremely difficult to quantitatively assess" (p. 9). However, the CE programme under Romanowski's study was different from the CE programme under the current research. While that of Romanowski required teachers to do quantitative assessment, the CE programme under the current study required teachers to employ qualitative assessment.

Challenges in Assessing Character Education

Validating previous research (Romanowski, 2005), the teachers claimed to have difficulties assessing students' behaviour, in that behaviour was not static. While the participants within the current study expressed concern over the validity of assessment scores, those of Romanowski's were concerned with the belief that the changes might not be caused by the CE programme under implementation, but could be influenced by other factors, such as "parental influences, individual student maturity, peer pressure, social class" and others (ibid, p. 10).

Another challenge that the teachers under study were facing is related to the fact that they would need to spend much time to do the assessment, as required by Curriculum 2013. Teachers were required to carry out three types of assessment: (1) social and attitude assessment (CE), (2) subject knowledge assessment (English), and (3) skill assessment.

Furthermore, each of these types of assessment required different ways of measurement tools. This phenomenon verified Retnawati et al.'s (2016) finding that "all of the teachers who had been interviewed stated that the assessment system of Curriculum 2013 was complicated" (p. 39).

Lastly, the teachers suggested that they had difficulties in utilising three ways of assessing students' behaviour, as recommended by the government, and, as a result, they mostly utilised observation. This could be due to the fact that teachers find it demanding and impractical. It could also be due to the lack of training for the assessment process, which then might lead to the lack of understanding of such assessments (Retnawati et al., 2016).

Conclusion

The findings revealed that teachers seem to have little consensus on how moral values (or CE) could be integrated into English materials and teaching methods. It is also indicated that teachers, without consistency, implement different strategies in teaching moral values. This is, perhaps, caused by teachers' lack of training in integrating values into English teaching materials and methods.

Furthermore, in arranging their teaching materials, the teachers claim that they started with English teaching materials and methods before selecting certain values that were appropriate for the integration. In addition to the lack of training, teachers also mentioned two other challenges: (1) students' parents might not be cooperative in monitoring their children's behaviour (or character), and even more so, they consider that it is merely teachers' responsibility to educate their children; and (2) some teachers might have low confidence in being role models, or as character educators. Despite the challenges, the teachers indicated their support over the policy of instilling moral values to students as integrated with the curriculum. Moreover, they also claim to find some improvement over their students' character after the implementation of CE in their classrooms.

Regarding the assessment, all teachers appeared to claim that they mostly utilise observation as the assessment tool, among other techniques (self-assessment and peer assessment), that are recommended by the government. Teachers provide the report for the assessment in the form of a scale of A to E (excellent to bad) along with the descriptions of students' behaviour (descriptive words), validating the difficulty for the quantitative assessment of CE.

References

- Beachum, F., McCray, C., Yawn, C., & Obiakor, F. (2013). Support and importance of character education: Pre-service teacher perceptions. *Education, 133*(4), 470-480.
- Berkowitz, M. W., & Bier, M. C. (2007). What works in character education? *Journal of Research in Character Education, 5*(1), 29.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods* (4th edn). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Chang, F., & Muñoz, M. A. (2006). School personnel educating the whole child: Impact of character education on teachers' self-assessment and student development. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 19*(1-2), 35-49.
- Cheung, C. K., & Lee, T. Y. (2010). Improving social competence through character education. *Evaluation and program planning, 33*(3), 255-263.
- Davidson, M., Lickona, T., & Khmelkov, V. (2014). Smart & Good Schools: A new paradigm for high school character education. In L. Nucci, D. Narvaez, & T. Krettanauer (Eds.), *Handbook of moral and character education (2nd ed., pp. 290-307)*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dereli-Iman, E. (2014). The effect of the values education programme on 5.5-6 year old children's social development: Social skills, psycho-social development and social problem solving skills. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 14*(1), 262-268.
- Donovan, A. (2000). Moral Education and Teachers' Self-Perceptions: Novice Male Teachers in the Catholic High School. *Journal of Catholic Education, 3*(4).
- Goulding, C. (2005). Grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. *European journal of Marketing, 39*(3/4), 294-308.
- Gray, D. E. (2014). *Doing Research in the Real World (3rd edn)*. London: Sage.
- Howard, R. W., Berkowitz, M. W., & Schaeffer, E. F. (2004). Politics of character education. *Educational policy, 18*(1), 188-215.
- Jones, E. N., Ryan, K., & Bohlin, K. (1999). Character Education & Teacher Education: How are Prospective Teachers Being Prepared to Foster Good Character in Students? *Action in Teacher Education, 20*(4), 11-28.
- Lee, A. (2014). Implementing character education program through music and integrated activities in early childhood settings in Taiwan. *International Journal of Music Education, 0255761414563195*.

- Leming, J. (2006). Smart & good high schools: Integrating excellence and ethics for success in school, work, and beyond. *Journal of Research in Character Education*, 4, 83-91.
- Leming, J. S., & Yendol-Hoppey, D. (2004). Experiencing character education: Student and teacher voices. *Journal of Research in Character Education*, 2(1), 1.
- Lickona, T. (2000). Character Education: The Heart of School Reform. *Religion & Education*, 27(1), 58-64.
- Mambu, J. E. (2014). Negotiating the Place of Spirituality in English Language Teaching: A Case Study in an Indonesian EFL Teacher Education Program. (Dissertation). Arizona State University.
- Mambu, J. E. (2015). Challenges in assessing character education in ELT: Implications from a case study in a Christian university. *TEFLIN Journal*, 26(2), 183.
- Mathison, C. (1999). How teachers feel about character education: A descriptive study. *Action in Teacher Education*, 20(4), 29-38.
- Milson, A. J., & Mehlig, L. M. (2002). Elementary school teachers' sense of efficacy for character education. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 96(1), 47-53.
- Qoyyimah, U. (2015). *EFL teachers' professional dilemmas with moral curriculum reform in Indonesia*. (Thesis). Queensland University of Technology.
- Retnawati, H., Hadi, S., & Nugraha, A. C. (2016). Vocational High School Teachers' Difficulties in Implementing the Assessment in Curriculum 2013 in
- Richardson, R. C., Tolson, H., Huang, T. Y., & Lee, Y. H. (2009). Character education: Lessons for teaching social and emotional competence. *Children & Schools*, 31(2), 71-78.
- Romanowski, M. H. (2005). Through the eyes of teachers: High school teachers' experiences with character education. *American Secondary Education*, 6-23.
- Thomas, G. (2013). *How to Do Your Research Project: A Guide for Students in Education and Applied Social Sciences*. London: Sage Publications.
- Troutman, P. R. (2014). *Teachers' perceptions of aspects of character education programming: Importance, efficacy, and practice*. Doctoral dissertation. Regent University.

Government Documents

MONEC (Ministry of Education and Culture) Number 59 Year 2014 regarding Curriculum 2013 for Senior High Schools [Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No 59 Th 2014 tentang Kurikulum 2013 Sekolah Menengah Atas/Madrasah Aliyah].

The Indonesian Government Regulations Number 20 Year 2003 about the National Standards of Education [UU RI No 20 Th 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional].

Kemendiknas [*Indonesian Ministry of Education*] (2011). *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Pendidikan Karakter [character education handbook]*. Jakarta: Puskurbuk.

Title

Direct Focused Feedback: Do Learners Notice it? Is it Effective?

Author

Sya'baningrum Prihartini

Universitas Islam '45 Bekasi, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Sya'baningrum Prihartini is a lecturer in Universitas Islam '45 (Unisma) Bekasi, Indonesia. Her research interests include grammar acquisition, corrective feedback, and task-based learning. She took her postgraduate program in University of Indonesia, and currently teaches Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL) and Grammar courses.

She can be reached at syabaningrum@englit45bekasi.org

Abstract

This study aimed to gain insights about the learners' cognitive process when they were given focused direct feedback. As a pre-test, 24 learners were asked to write a narrative composition after watching a 7-minute video, and the writing was given focused direct feedback. A week later the writing which had been given feedback were returned to the learners and immediate post-test was performed. 4 weeks later, a delayed post-test was conducted. Interview was then conducted to investigate whether the learners noticed the feedback previously given. Written data was analyzed qualitatively to see if there was any improvement on the feedback-given structures across three pieces of writing. The result of the study showed that: 1) there were improvements on the feedback-given structures, and 2) even though the students claimed that they noticed the feedback given, the time-limited writing process prevented them in checking back their writing.

Keyword: *noticing, focused feedback, writing, grammar*

1. Introduction

For almost two decades, studies about the efficacy of corrective feedback have continuously been done ever since Truscott (1996, 1999) stated that feedback was not only useless but also harmful for the learners. His controversial view sparked a huge number of researches (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2009; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener, Cameron & Young, 2005; Sheen, Wright & Moldawa 2009; Daneshvar & Rahimi, 2014; Eslami, 2014), which aimed to figure out which type of feedback worked best and whether improvement resulted from the feedback can be retained for longer period. To this date, there are mixed results of how effective corrective feedback can be, with some studies claimed that certain types of feedback were more effective the other and that some other found no difference in the students' work. However, very few studies explore the cognitive process of the students and see whether the feedback is noticed. This study investigated that cognitive area as well as the lasting effect of feedback on a new piece of writing.

2. Literature Review

The efficacy of feedback has been a subject of debates ever since Truscott wrote his controversial view on feedback (1996). In his articles (1996, 1999) Truscott did not only see feedback as useless but only harmful. He argued that even though the students might produce fewer mistakes in the next draft, but it was not proven that effect was extended to the new piece of writing. Truscott's extreme view undeniably was the wakeup call for researchers and theorists, and since then continuous studies have been done to seek the most effective type of feedback, the effect of feedback on the students' performance as well as language acquisition. Among the issues raised in corrective feedback (CF) studies, some of the major issues are related to: 1) the degree of explicitness of the feedback, and 2) the number of the targeted structures to be given feedback. Related to the explicitness, feedback is either seen as a) direct or b) indirect (Ellis, 2009). Direct CF means providing the students with the correct structure while indirect CF simply providing codes where the errors are located without giving the correct structures. To this date, there are mixed results related to which type of feedback is the most effective. Bitchener et.al. (2005) compared different types of direct CF and found that the group with direct CF combined with metalinguistic explanation outperformed the direct CF (without additional metalinguistic explanation) and the control group. Bitchener (2008) compared different types of direct CF and investigated whether the effect of direct feedback lasted for a long period. The result showed that the direct CF groups outdone the control group

in the immediate post-test and delayed post-test (2 months later). In another study, Eslami (2014) compared two different CF techniques, those are direct red pen and indirect techniques. After comparing three pieces of writing, Eslami found that the indirect feedback group outperformed the direct group on both immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

Another issue in CF studies is whether the feedback should be focused (directed at a certain error) or unfocused (addressed all kinds of errors). Sheen et.al. (2009) compared the works of three types of CF groups and a control group. The study found that focused feedback groups performed better than the control group. More recent study by Daneshvar and Rahimi (2014) investigated the effect of both direct focused and recast written CF on grammatical accuracy of EFL learners' writing. The study found that the recast group outperformed the direct group and the control group. The study also found that the lasting effect of recast was more than the lasting effect of the direct focused on the grammatical accuracy of the learners' writing.

Some researchers suggested the addition of revision after feedback is given. Ellis (2009) said that a teacher needs to provide some opportunities for the learners to react towards the feedback. He argued that revising drafts that had been given feedback would lead learners to 'notice' the feedback and correct their mistakes. This argument supported Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 2001) which stressed that a learner should 'notice' input in order for it to be acquired.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

This study was conducted in a Grammar I course, one of the compulsory courses for the college learners participated in this study. 20 female and 4 male learners were involved, and during the time the research was conducted, all of the learners have studied English formally for 12 years.

3.2 Design

The study followed a pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test sequence. For the pre-test and post-test, the students were asked to watch a video and write a narrative paragraph describing the daily activities of the character shown in the video. The writing was then submitted to the teacher-researcher to be scored and given feedback. The feedback given was the focused structure, that was the present simple verbs for the third-person singular subject.

3.3 Data collection

For the pre-test, the participants were asked to watch a 7-minute video and then write a narrative paragraph about the character's daily routines. The teacher-researcher gave a focused direct feedback to this first writing. One week later, immediate post-test was performed, with similar task like the one in the pre-test (using different video). Four weeks later, delayed post-test was carried out. In this test, the participants were asked to write a narrative paragraph based on a person's timetable. The participants' writing from 3 written tasks (pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test) were then analyzed. The accuracy ratio was calculated based on the number of the correct target structures divided by the number of both correct and incorrect target structures produced.

4. Result and Discussion

Based on the interview, 92% of the students claimed that they were aware of the feedback given to them and the correct grammatical structure they should have produced. However, a closer look to their answers indicated that they did not really focus on the structure while writing.

Table 1. Students' awareness about the feedback given

Student #13	I think it's easier. Because it's too long I think, I make it.. I always make it.. long, and I don't have the time now.. I'm in hurry.
Student #2	Didn't really pay attention because focusing on the writing.
Student #22	I remembered the structure but not really focus on it because I was in hurry.
Student #16	I remembered the feedback, and It helped me to know which structure I should fix.

From the table, it could be seen that the students could not really focus on the structure, even after being given feedback, because their focus was on expressing their thought in writing. One student mentioned because he was in hurry and he wanted to write a long composition, he

could not pay attention to the structure. Still, the feedback was seen as helpful because the students knew which error should be fixed.

Related to feedback-given structures, below are the samples of three pieces of writing from Student #1 and #15.

Table 2. comparison of 3 pieces of writings of Student #1

Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
<p>...he preapers for lunch.</p> <p>...he is preapers coffee....</p>	<p>..... she <u>prepares</u> go to work.</p> <p>... She <u>prepares</u> for go to the river.</p>	<p>... ..he <u>prepares</u> for breakfast...</p>

As shown from the table, in pre-test, Student #1 had problems with the correct verb structure and spelling for the verb “prepare”. After being given feedback, he could produce the verb correctly and it was maintained in delayed post-test four weeks later.

Table 3. Comparison of Student #15’s 3 pieces of writing

Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
<p>. And make has lunch.</p> <p>Enter the room. Turn off the fan.</p>	<p>.... <u>she wakes</u> up at 6,...</p> <p><u>she does</u> some sport yoga. Then <u>she makes</u> coffee,.....</p>	<p>.. <u>he goes</u> to college.</p> <p>Then, <u>he has</u> lunch fish...</p> <p><u>he has</u> English lesson.</p>

As for Student #15, she produced incomplete sentence structure in pre-test. She also had problem with the verb structure, as shown from “make has”. After the feedback, she consistently had subject and verb structure in her sentences. She also produced correct verb structures in both post-tests.

5. Conclusion

Based on the interview, it was revealed that the students paid less attention to the structures while writing, due to time constraint that forced their attention more on the message that they wanted to write. However, comparison of three pieces of writing showed that there was improvement on the feedback-given structures, and that the effect was maintained to the delayed post-test. For further studies, it is suggested to add proofreading and revision sessions to let the students check back their writing, notice and revise mistakes.

References

- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effects of different types of corrective feedback on ESL learner writing, *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 191-205.
- Daneshvar, E. & Rahimi, A. (2014). Written Corrective Feedback and Teaching Grammar. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science* 136, 217 – 221. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.317
- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1), 3-18.
- Eslami, E. (2014). The Effects of Direct and Indirect Corrective Feedback Techniques on EFL Students' Writing. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science* 98, 445 – 452. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.438
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning, *Applied Linguistics*, 11 (2), 129-158.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). "Attention", In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pg. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sheen, Y. Wright, D. & Moldawa, A.(2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners, *SYSTEM*, 37, 556-569.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes, *Language Learning*, 46 (2), 327-369.
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes": A response to Ferris, *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8 (2), 111-122.

Title

Designing an EFL Speaking Class
with a View to Critical Thinking Development

Author

Syafrizal Tabi'i Rahman

Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa State University, Banten, Indonesia

Udi Samanhudi

Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa State University, Banten, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Syafrizal Tabi'i Rahman is an English lecturer at Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa State University, Banten, Indonesia. His area of research includes TEFL and Text Book Analysis. He completed his doctoral degree in Jakarta State University (syafrizal@untirta.ac.id).

Udi Samanhudi is an English lecturer at Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa State University, Banten, Indonesia. His research interest includes EFL Speaking and Critical Writing. He is currently a doctoral student on TESOL at Queen University of Belfast, UK (udisamanhudi@untirta.ac.id)

Abstract

This paper reports a small part of an ongoing research in an EFL Speaking class at one state university in Banten, Indonesia. This focuses on *joint student-teacher designed activities* implementation to develop students' critical thinking and speaking skills and their responses of the activities. A qualitative case study approach was used in this research in that it deals with a 'small-scale' and focused participants, i.e., 35 student-teachers engaging in the EFL Speaking class. Data were collected through participatory observations and interviews. The results indicated that *joint student-teacher designed activities* helped students develop both their critical thinking skills and speaking abilities and it thus also gained students' positive response.

Keywords: *Joint syllabus making, public speaking skills, critical thinking.*

Introduction

Helping students to become a critical thinker as Karimi and Esakfi (2014) argued, needs a strong commitment from both teachers and students especially in dealing with strategies enabling them to practice their critical thinking skills. In the contemporary education in general and in English language teaching (ELT) in particular, critical thinking is even vital for students to be decisive and open-minded individuals (Paul & Elder, 2008) and “to be independent thinkers and discern problem solvers” (McGregor, 2007). In addition, critical thinking is also useful to develop because students nowadays are bombarded by tremendous accessible data, for example, through online media like internet that requires their critical thinking skills (Chaffee, 2014). Thus in EFL context, it is argued that speaking class is a potential place to build both students’ speaking and critical thinking skills (see Fahim & Koleini, 2014).

Literature Review

Critical Thinking and Speaking Skills

It is stated in the literature that there is a strong relationship between the ability to think critically and speak skillfully (Fahim & Koleini, 2014). This suggests that critical thinking, especially in EFL context, can be improved through various activities as commonly done in speaking skills classes and vice versa. Critical thinking, in this sense, basically refers to a thought process (Paul, 1993) and “a careful, deliberate determination of whether we should accept, reject, or suspend judgment about the truth of a claim or a recommendation to act in a certain way” (Reichenbach, 2001). Critical thinking also refers to thinking activity leading to identification, questioning, criticizing, analyzing and decision making abilities in which all can be practiced in speaking class that engage their critical and creative thinking skills such as group discussion on current issues happening in the society (Citraningtyas, 2005 as cited in Widiati & Cahyono, 2006).

Research Methods

This study employed a qualitative case study design. Yin (2015) defined it as a research design focuses on studying a phenomenon (the “case”) and also an individual case in its real world context (see also Baxter & Jack, 2008), that is a speaking class in a tertiary EFL context. The study involved 35 students undertaking Speaking IV class (Public Speaking) and were chosen based on the convenient sampling procedure (Nunan & Bailey, 2009) in which the researcher is the teacher teaching in the class. Data on students’ progress in critical thinking and speaking skills were collected through participatory

observations and interviews. Data were analyzed through thematic analysis design where by data put into certain category and cross checked with supporting theories.

Discussion

The first stage conducted in this research was syllabus making involving students in the selection of topics and tasks types to do. This is done to follow ideas suggested by Snyder & Snyder, (2008) saying that critical thinking requires active practice and involvement by the students and it is a learned skill that needs a place in the curriculum. This is also supported by Facione (2013) arguing that teaching students to make a decision for their own learning can improve their critical thinking and contribute better in their future community. Based on the teacher and students agreement, the syllabus includes topics as well as activities which allow for both speaking and critical thinking practices to happen. The topics include 1) public speaking's definitions and its areas; 2) public speaking in academic context; 3) people's problems in English speaking activities and their strategies to solve the problems; 5) text to text: reproducing written into spoken texts; 6) My lovely library and 7) To be a successful English learner.

The combination of thinking and speaking activities can be seen even in the early stage of the teaching program that is in brainstorming activity of public speaking definition. Working in a group of three, students were encouraged to formulate working definitions of public speaking based on their understanding and experience as can be seen below.

Student A	Public speaking is speaking in front of audience of various background
Student B	Public speaking is speaking that pays attention to the topic being delivered and the audience

Students' definitions above are in line with Lucas's (2000) definition that "public speaking the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence or entertain the listeners". By this comparison, it is clear that definitions of public speaking shared by the students were influenced by their background knowledge which is vital in helping them to think critically (Chafee, 2014). Interestingly, although students found this activity useful as in *"I am so excited! I learn a lot and get some knowledge about public speaking and strategies to solve my problems in doing this"* (Student A), data from observation revealed that they need further guidance from the teacher.

Similar to the brainstorming activity that involved students' thinking and speaking skills, another topic like "text to text: reproducing written into spoken texts activities" that required students to read a certain text type (e.g., narrative and argumentative) and designed an oral activity based on the texts-story telling and debate was "*really challenging and useful*" (*Student D*). These activities were done because critical thinking improvement needs students to actively and skilfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication (Condon, W., & Kelly-Riley, 2004). This also, as data from interview revealed, rose students' awareness that knowledge is something they can construct and that is a learning which is "liberating students from the confines of those classrooms in which the teacher is traditionally expected to transfer knowledge to students, while students receive and accept the information, right or wrong, without deserving the right to question the authenticity of the knowledge being transferred" (Fahim & Koleini, 2014).). In other words, the activities allowed students to engage with a knowledge enrichment activity, thinking and speaking activities important for the improvement of the two skills.

Finally another engaging students to both thinking and speaking activity is the "My lovely library". Through this topic, students were led to find out of what critical thinking is and finally relate it to what they have done previously in order to conclude what critical thinking practice means and how to implement it in daily life. This was later presented by each group in the classroom allowing them to have an idea that critical thinking is an important factor in helping them to be proficient EFL learners (Kabilan, 2000). All those activities illustrated above had given students numerous activities to deal with the identification of arguments, evaluating the evidence for the alternative views and weighing up the opposing arguments of others fairly which are all skills and attitudes important for students as critical thinkers. Finally, although the teaching program allowed students develop both their critical thinking and speaking, some still find challenges as one expressed by a student "*it is not easy to perform in front of public especially with the pressure to perform, it challenge us to do the best*". This suggests that motivations as well as scaffolding from the teacher are important (Gibbons, 2002) apart from them as "adults" university students.

References

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The qualitative report*, 13(4), 544-559.

- Chaffee J (2014) *Critical Thinking, Thoughtful Writing*, 6th ed. Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.
- Condon, W., & Kelly-Riley, D. (2004). Assessing and teaching what we value: The relationship between college-level writing and critical thinking abilities. *Assessing Writing*, 9(1), 56-75.
- Fahim, M., & Koleini, A. (2014). The relationship between critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners and their speaking skills. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World. Volume 5 (4), April 2014; 233--241*
- Facione, P.A. (2013). *Critical thinking: What it is and why it counts*. Measured Reasons and the California Academic Press, Millbrae, CA.
- Folse, Keith. (2006). *The art of teaching speaking*. Michigan: Michigan University Press.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding Language: Scaffolding Learning; Teaching Second Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom*. Heinemann.
- Kabilan, M. K. (2000). Creative and critical thinking in language classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(6), 1-3.
- Karimi, A., & Eskafi, M. (2014). Towards Assessing Critical Thinking Cognitive Ability in Varied University Majors: Evidence for EFL Students' Dominance. *English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 67-89.
- Lucas, E. Steven. 2000. *The Art of Public Speaking: Seventh Edition*. McGrawhill

Title

Improving Students' Reading Comprehension Achievement through Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review Technique

Author

Syarah Aisha

English Postgraduate Program, University of Sumatera Utara,

aisha_syarah88@yahoo.com

Nazliza Ramadhani

English Postgraduate Program, University of Sumatera Utara,

lizha.nazli@gmail.com

Abstract

This study focuses on Improving Students' Reading Comprehension Achievement through Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review Technique. This study was conducted by using classroom action research. The subject of this study was The 2010/2011 of SMP Swasta Nur Azizi Tanjung Morawa. It was VIII which consisted of 38 students. The data of this study were obtained from multiple choice, observation sheet, interview sheet, and diary notes. Based on the data, it was found that the students' score increased from the pre-test until the post test of the first and the second cycles. In the pre-test, the mean of the students score was (59,84) , in the post test of the first cycle was (69,63), and the mean of the students' score of the second cycle was (78,02). It can be concluded that teaching reading comprehension through PQ4R Technique can improve the students' reading comprehension.

Keywords: *Improving, Reading Comprehension, PQ4R Technique.*

1. Introduction

Reading is one of the four language skills which should be mastered by someone. By reading, much information can be obtained. Reading is more difficult from listening although

both are for understanding. Reading can be done repeatedly to the same text, while the listening cannot. So, reading is very important in our daily life especially in education because the knowledge can be obtained well by reading. It is as Brown (2004:185) says reading is arguably the most essential skill for success in all educational context, remain a skill of paramount important as we create assessment of general language ability.

Based on the writer's experience in Teaching , the writer found that most of students have problem in reading comprehension. They only read by reading the text from beginning to the end. But, when they found some difficult word, they stopped to read and began to look for word meaning in dictionary. They do word per word translation. It is difficult for them to comprehend the text or to find out the information of the text. This fact showed that many students failed to comprehend reading text.

The students have difficulties to understand a reading text. It involves some factors such as the ability of students, students' motivation, how the teacher teaches students with technique and materials used in the classroom. The techniques used sometimes are not appropriate with the objective of the study. So, the goal of the study is not achieved. Many techniques can be applied in the teaching of reading, such as Reciprocal Questioning, K-W-L, SQ3R, PQ4R, etc.

Considering about the condition above, the writer interests to use PQ4R technique. This technique will help the students in reading comprehension. Thomas and Robinson (1972) states that PQ4R technique is a technique that individual can use to help them better comprehend written material.

2. Reseach Method

This research involved qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative data were obtained from the mean of students in reading test of taking multiple choices. The qualitative data were obtained from the diary notes, questionnaire sheet, observation sheets, and interview students. The data were taken from a class which consisted of 38 students. The class named VIII – G. It was accomplished in two cycles. Every cycle consisted of four steps of action research (planning, action, observation and reflection). Each cycle was conducted for three meetings. So, there were six meetings for this research.

3. Finding and Discussion

3.1 Finding

The result of research indicated that there was an improvement on the students' reading comprehension, which taught by Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review Technique. It was proved by the data, which showed the progression mean of the students. The mean in the cycle II (78,02) was higher than the mean in the cycle I (69,63) and also from the pre-test (59,84).

The data from the observation sheet, interview sheet and diary notes that students got improvement in their comprehension, because they could share knowledge and their opinion each other and also find the definition of difficult words together. They were feeling enjoyable in teaching learning process, too.

3.2 Discussion

3.2.1. The Activities of Cycle I

Cycle I was conducted for three meetings. There were many activities that were done in this cycle, they were:

Before discussion the material about narrative text which entitled "Jonah" in term, the students were asked to give their opinion individually. It was done to do brainstorm and to make prediction about the text in order to help the students to comprehend the text easily. In this case, some of the student could express their idea. In this meeting, only four students were brave to give their opinion. While the other students looked afraid and ashamed in expressing their ideas. They had less motivation and enthusiastic in teaching learning process.

After that, the students in their group were instructed to identify the characters, the setting, the problem, the solution, and also the grammar features such as the use regular and irregular verb in the past form in that story. They tried to understand words by words, sentences by sentences and then find the answer of all the tasks given to them. They express their opinion, shared their best idea and found the meaning of the difficult words together. All students discussed seriously and enthusiastically.

3.2.2. The Activities of Cycle II

In the second cycle, the researcher conducted the research for three meetings. It was expected that the second cycle would get better result than the first cycle. In this cycle, the teacher motivated the students to show their best in reading comprehension.

In this activity, the students were asked to give their opinion about the topic “Bawang Merah Bawang Putih”. The teacher gave colorful picture of Jonah. The picture was given to students because it would help the students to brainstorm and to make prediction about the text given. So, the students would comprehend the text easily. In this case, some of the students expressed their ideas. There were 9 students gave their opinion about their story. The students had improved their motivation and enthusiastic in teaching learning process. Although there were some students looked afraid and ashamed in expressing their ideas.

In discussing topic, they tried to find the meaning of difficult words, read the text one another, find the character, the setting, the problems and the problem solving. They also identified the main ideas, understanding the causal relationship and making inferences. All of groups were active, shared their best idea. So, all of groups would be success in presentation.

4. Conclusion and Suggestion

4.1 Conclusion

Based on the result of the study, there was an improvement on students’ reading comprehension. The mean of the students’ score in the second cycle (78,02) was higher than the mean of the students’ score in the first cycle (69,63) and the mean of the pre-test (59,84). It also proved by observation sheet, interview sheet and diary notes result which indicated improvement in teaching learning process from cycle I and cycle II. Based on the result of the data, the conclusion is that Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review Technique can improve students’ achievement in reading comprehension.

4.2 Suggestion

Related to the conclusion above, some suggestions are pointed out as the following:

- 4.2.1 It is suggested to English teacher to use PQ4R technique in teaching and learning process in order to make variation teaching technique especially in reading.
- 4.2.2 It is suggested to students to apply this technique in their mind whenever they read a text.
- 4.2.3 Researchers who want to develop all information and knowledge for those who have interest in doing research related to PQ4R Technique are able to make a researcher in other discipline

5. References

- Alexander, T. 1988. *Strategies in Teaching Learning*. George Town: George Town.
- Brown, H.D. 2004. *Language Assessment: Principle and Classroom Practice*. New York: Longman. Pearson Education.
- Cohen, Louis, Lawrence Manion & Keith Morrison. 2000. *Research Method in Education*. New York. Routledge Falmer
- Davis, K B. Frederick. 1944. *Fundamental Factors of Comprehension in Reading*. New York: Permission.
- Edithia, S, Drs. 1988. *Developing Reading Skills for EFL Students* .Jakarta
- Grabe, W. & F.L.Stoller. 2002. *Teaching and Researching Reading*. England: Pearson Education.
- Harmer, J. 2007. *How to Teach English*. England:Longman Pearson Education
- Heiman, Arthur W. 1981. *Principle and Practice of Teaching Reading*. Fifth Edition. Ohio. Merrill.
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (Eds.). (1990b). *The action research reader*. Victoria: Deakin University.
- Kustaryo, S. 1998. *Reading Techniques for College Students*. Jakarta. Depdikbud Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi Proyek Pengembangan Tenaga Kependidikan.
- Otto, Wayne. 1979. Addison-Wesley. *How to Teach Reading*. Addison-Wesley. Philippines.
- Siahaan, Senggama and Kisno Shinoda. 2008. *Generic Text Structure*.
- Trianto. 2007. *Menesain Model Pembelajaran Inovatif – Progresif*. Jakarta
- Turner. 1988. *Technology for Teaching and Assessing Reading*. Australia. Uniiversity of New South Wales.
- Wallace J.M. 1998. *Action Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/read skill](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/read_skill)) Accessed on April. 10, 2010(<http://learningdisabilites.about.com/od/instructionalmaterials/a/pq4rstrategy.ht>) Accessed on April. 10, 2010

Title

Religion-Related Expressions in Research Report Acknowledgements
by Indonesian EFL Learners

Author

Toyyibah

State College for Islamic Studies (STAIN) Kediri

A.Effendi Kadarisman

State University of Malang

Bio-Profiles:

Toyyibah is a senior teaching staff at the ELT Department of State College for Islamic Study (STAIN) Kediri, Indonesia. She earned her doctor in ELT at Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia. Her research interest includes ELT and interlanguage pragmatics. She can be reached at toyyibahumarfaruq@yahoo.com.

A. Effendi Kadarisman earned his Ph.D. in linguistics at the University of Hawaii. His research areas include linguistic universality, linguistic relativity, linguistic poetics, and ethnopoetics; and the application of themes of universality and relativity in ELT. He is currently a professor of linguistics at Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia. Email: effendi.kadarisman@gmail.com.

Abstract

Expressing religiousness is part of Indonesian socio-cultural norms. Religion-related expressions are often produced by Indonesian people in any occasions: formal and informal, spoken and written. This “divine presence” is also found in research report acknowledgments by Indonesian learners of English. This article explores religion-related expressions in acknowledgements accompanying 120 undergraduate and graduate theses and 23 doctorate

dissertations. This corpus-based study found that most acknowledgements contain religion-related expressions in the forms of (1) thanking God, (2) prayers for blessing on the Prophet, (3) spiritual support as a reason for thanking, and (4) invocation for the acknowledgees as elaboration of thanking. Another typical aspect of Indonesian acknowledgements is the preferred order of acknowledgees, where most writers put thanking God at the initial position. Besides confirming that acknowledgements reflect socio-cultural identities of the writers and revealing an Indonesian variety of English, this study provides evidence of pragmatic transfer among Indonesian EFL learners.

Keywords: *Religion-related expressions, Indonesian EFL learners, acknowledgements*

Introduction

Expressing religiousness is part of pragmatic routines which frequently occur in daily communication in Indonesia, both in formal and informal situations, either in oral or written use of language. Religion-related expressions also frequently appear in the acknowledgments of theses, dissertations, or books. The ‘divine presence’ or “Praise be to the Lord ...” also goes ineluctably into the magister theses and doctoral dissertations, in spite of the fact that they are full-fledged scholarly works (Kadarisman, 2009:208). This confirms Al-Ali’s (2009:8) claim that acknowledgement is a genre that exhibits a rich mix of identities reflecting personal, social and academic collaboration and interactions that establish and shape social, academic and personal identities.

Studies on the acknowledgments section accompanying thesis and dissertation have been conducted from the view points of genre (Giannoni, 2002; Hyland, 2003 and 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Al-Ali 2009 and 2010; Zhao and Jiang 2010, Yang, 2013), pragmatics (Cheng and Kuo, 2011), and error analysis (Erfan, 2007). The studies examined thesis or dissertation acknowledgments written by native speakers of several languages: Persian (Mohammadi and Tabari (2013), Chinese (Cheng, 2012; Yang, 2013), Italy (Zhao and Jiang, 2010), Arabic (Al-Ali, 2009 and 2010), and Indonesian (Basthomi, 2010; Kadarisman, 2009; and Erfan, 2007). However, there is no previous study examining social and cultural characteristics in research report acknowledgements (henceforth RRAs), particularly religion-related expressions. So, the present study aims to find out types of religion-related expressions in RRAs and probable reasons why they occur in purely academic discourse.

Literature Review

Hyland (2004:303) states that acknowledgements are almost universal in dissertation writing where they provide writers with a unique rhetorical opportunity, not only to convey

their genuine gratitude for the intellectual and personal assistance they have received in completing their research, but also to promote a competent scholarly identity. In addition, acknowledgments offer students a unique rhetorical space to convey their genuine gratitude for assistance and to promote a favourable social and scholarly character (Hyland and Tse, 2004:259).

Hyland (2003:242) also points out that the textualization of gratitude in acknowledgements can reveal social and cultural characteristics. Al-Ali's study (2010) also supports the influence of socio-cultural values. These findings confirm Mauranen's (1993, as quoted in Al-Ali, 2009:13) proposal that a written genre is a cultural object.

Accordingly, studies on acknowledgements written by Indonesian learners of English indicate the influence of Indonesian culture. A study by Erfan (2007) found that the dominant cultural transfer in thesis acknowledgements was the use of religion-related expressions. Kadarisman (2009) investigated the expression of religiousness in the acknowledgements of *magister* theses and doctoral dissertations written by students of Indonesian and English departments, and found that the students of these two different departments use significantly different expressions of religiousness.

Methodology

The corpus is acknowledgements sections of research reports written by Indonesian EFL learners, taken from 60 undergraduate theses, 60 graduate theses, and 23 doctorate dissertations written by students of English Language Teaching at State University of Malang in a three-year period: 2011–2013. The data were firstly organized using the coding scheme adapted from Cheng & Kuo (2011). Modifying Cheng & Kuo's coding scheme, every thanking expression in the acknowledgements was segmented into 7 semantic units: (i) thanking; (ii) acknowledgees; (iii) reasons due to academic assistance; (iv) reasons due to resources; (v) reasons for spiritual or moral support, such as blessing, love, prayer, support and encouragement; (vi) elaboration, elaborating on reasons for thanking; and (vii) invocation. Religion-related expressions were then identified by using some basic key terms in religious expressions, such as *God*, *Allah*, *Prophet*, *divine*, or other words having similar meaning.

Findings and Discussion

Thanking God

Overall, praising and thanking God occurs in 95 RRAs (67%) by Indonesian learners of English. This frequency (67%) is not too far from the occurrence of similar expressions in Arabic acknowledgements by Arabic native speakers, that was 70 % (Al-Ali, 2010:9). The

expressions were in the form of praising, thanking, or praising followed by thanking, as shown by the following three quotations:

1. “*Alhamdulillahirabbil’alamiin*, this thesis finally can be accomplished well”
2. First and foremost, let me express my never-ending gratitude to the Most Merciful Allah SWT.
... .
3. “*Alhamdulillah*, I am really grateful for Allah SWT, for the blessing ...

Praising is mostly expressed using the Arabic phrase *Alhamdulillahilahi rabbil ‘alamin* ‘Praise be to Allah, Lord of the universe’, an expression of thank-giving common among Muslims. Al-Ali (2010: 17-18) points out that the use of *Alhamdulillahilahi* ‘Praise be to Allah’ contains a strong preference for the overt expression of praise, which is only used when the writers offer their thankfulness for their God (Allah). Similar to Arab writers, Indonesian writers of RRAs tend not only to fall back on their socio-cultural norms but also have a perception of how best to address and interact with their heterogeneous audience (see Al-Ali-2010: 17). The words used to address God are also affected by the writers’ religious background. There are four lexical variants used to address God; they are *Allah* (64%), *God* (23 %), *Jesus* or *Jesus Christ* (8.4%), and *Lord* (4.2%).

Prayers for Blessing on the Prophet

Another conventional expression that frequently appears at the opening part of RRAs is prayers for blessing on the Prophet. They occur in 33 RRAs (23%), being placed immediately after thanking Allah. The typical wording of these prayers is presented in excerpt 4, and more elaborately in excerpt 5.

4. Blessing and peace should always go to Prophet Muhammad, peace be upon him
5. Blessing and peace be upon His messenger and servant, Muhammad, and upon his family and companions and whoever follows his guidance.

It is also worth noting that some student-writers did code-mixing by inserting Arabic expressions that are commonly used in other communicative events, as in 6:

6. *Shalawat* and *salam* only for my beloved prophet, Muhammad *SAW*¹, the last prophet sent to enlight human kind in the world with Islam as *rahmatan lil ‘alamiin*.

Prayers for blessing on the Prophet is evidently observed not only in RRAs but also in acknowledgements of introduction of books or other scholarly works written by Indonesian

¹ SAW that stands for *shallallahu ‘alaihi wa sallam* (may Allah’s blessing and peace be upon him).

Muslims, especially those discussing Islamic studies or teachings. Al-Ali (2010) found similar data in Arabic acknowledgements, that 6 % of acknowledgements by Arabic writers are opened with prayers for the Prophet.

Moral and Spiritual Support as a Reason for Thanking

Another form of religion-related expressions observed in Indonesian RRAs is the dominance of thanking for moral and spiritual support. In the whole corpus, more than one third of thanking expressions are for spiritual and moral support (42%), followed by thanking for academic assistance (35.2%), and thanking for resources and technical assistance (22.8%). Among expressions of thanking for moral and spiritual support, 136 expressions (21 %) of them are specifically devoted for spiritual support, namely, guidance, blessings, or prayers. Thanking expressions for spiritual support are commonly delivered to family members, as exemplified in excerpt 7.

7. My beloved parents, mom and dad, thanks a bunch for the endless love, support, sincere pray (*sic.*) and everything.

This frequently occurring gratitude for moral and spiritual support indicates that moral and spiritual support plays a crucial role in the realm of Indonesian collective mind.

Invoking and Blessing

This expression of religiousness also occurs when the writers elaborate their thanking and occasionally when they open or end their acknowledgements. Invoking and blessing are expressions of asking for God's (Allah's) divine favors and blessings upon acknowledgees. Out of 1484 identified thanking strategies in the corpus, 58 (or 4 %) are accompanied with invocation. More than half invoking and blessings are intended for those who provided moral and spiritual support (57.4%), technical assistance (8.5%), and academic assistance (10.6%), as well as while opening (2 %) and closing (21.3%) acknowledgements. Data analysis also reveals that the invocation involves not only relatives or friends, as in quotation 8, but also academics such as advisors, as in quotation 9.

8. **to my beloved parents and whole family, May God give you all the best that life can give.**
9. I am indebted for the great help to (*sic.*) my advisor: X, S.Pd, M.Ed God bless you.

Al-Ali (2009: 15) points out that neither of these invocations is arbitrary; they are part of their culture reflecting their realm of thought. "It may seem obvious that words with special

culture-specific meanings reflect and pass on not only ways of living characteristic of a given society but also ways of thinking” (Wierzbicka 1997, as quoted in Al-Ali (2009: 15)).

Conclusions

Religion-related expressions observed in RRAs by Indonesian EFL learners reveal that “divine presence” as part of Indonesian socio-cultural norms has been evidently rooted in written genre. This finding confirms that acknowledgements reflect academic and social identities as noted by Hyland (2003) and Al-Ali (2009); and that socioal practices can affect writing habit (Mauranen, 1993). Socio-pragmatic transfer among Indonesian EFL learners which characterizes Indonesian variety of English is also evidenced in this study.

References

- Al-Ali, M.N. (2010). Generic patterns and socio-cultural resources in acknowledgements accompanying Arabic Ph.D. dissertations, *Pragmatics*, 20 (1), 1-26.
- Al-Ali, M.N. (2009). Academic and socio-cultural identities in english dissertation acknowledgements of Arab writers. *ESP Accros Cultures*, 6, 7-27.
- Basthomi, Y. (2010). Competing discourses in thesis advisement: reflecting on the writing of terms of address in acknowledgements section. *Selected Articles in English Language Teaching*. Jakarta: IIEF & RELO-US.
- Cheng, S. W. & Kuo, C. (2011). A pragmatic analysis of MA thesis acknowledgements. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 7 (3), 29-58.
- Erfan. (2007). Cultural transfer and linguistic problems in writing thesis acknowledgement. Unpublished Master Thesis. Malang: State University of Malang.
- Giannoni, D. S.(2002). Worlds of gratitude a contrastive study of acknowledgment texts in english and italian research articles. *Applied Linguistics*, 23(1), 1–31.
- Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2004). “I would like to thank my supervisor”: Acknowledgements in graduate dissertations. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14 (2), 259-275.
- Hyland, K. (2004). Graduates’ gratitude: the generic structure of dissertation acknowledgements. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 303–324.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Dissertation Acknowledgements: The Anatomy of a Cinderella Genre. *Written Communication*, 20, 242-268.
- Kadarisman, A. E. (2009). Linguistic relativity, cultural relativity, and foreign language teaching. In A. Effendi Kadarisman, *Mengurai bahasa menyibak budaya* (pp. 199-216). Malang: UM Press.

- Kadarisman, A. E. (2009). Hipotesis sapir-whorf dan ungkap verbal keagamaan. In A. Effendi Kadarisman, *Mengurai bahasa menyibak budaya*, (pp. 33-51). Malang: UM Press.
- Mohammadi, M. J., & Tabari, B. H. (2013). Politeness in Persian and English dissertation acknowledgments. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(8), 1473-1478.
- Yang, W. (2013). Genre analysis of dissertation acknowledgements: a comparative study across contexts. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English language Studies*, 19 (2), 27-40.
- Zho, M. and Jiang, Y. (2010). Dissertation Acknowledgement: Generic Structure and Linguistic Features. *China Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 33(1), 94-109.

Title

Mapping of the Competence of SHS Students in English
Subject in Sarmi and Mamberamo Raya Regencies
Papua, Indonesia

Author

Yulini Rinantanti
Cenderawasih University, Indonesia

Lalu Suhirman

Cenderawasih University, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Yulini Rinantanti is a lecturer at English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Cenderawasih University, Papua, Indonesia. She is currently a Ph.D. student at State University of Makassar. Her research interest is in the area of Language Teaching Methodology, English Foreign Language Teacher Education, and Teachers professionalism. She can be contacted at yrinantanti@gmail.com.

Lalu Suhirman is a lecturer at English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Cenderawasih University, Papua, Indonesia. He is currently a Ph.D. student at State University of Makassar. His research interest is in the area of EFL teaching methodology, approach, strategy, teachers' professionalism, English to Young Learners (EYL). He can be contacted at lalusuhermanmpd@gmail.com

Abstract

This study aims to map and portray the various factors that lead to the success or failure of education, especially in the subjects of English for Senior High Schools (SHS) in Sarmi Regency (SR) and Mamberamo Raya Regencies (MRR). This study focuses on data about the standard of competence and basic competences that has not been mastered yet by the learners

and their causative factors. These factors include: management system, teachers, and educational facilities, as well as the culture. The researchers apply the descriptive qualitative method. Data were collected through interviews, focus group discussion (FGD), and the collection of documents (artifacts) in the form of: lesson plans, instructional material and media. Data will be gained from all of high school English teachers and principals, students, and stakeholders from the area of investigation. The expected outcome of this study is a model for improving the quality of education that is valid and ready to be implemented concretely in each district or city through community service activities.

Keywords: *mapping, basic competence, competency standards, English subject*

A. Introductions

Overview of Education in Indonesia's school system is immense and the population of school-age children is one of the largest in the world. Despite rapid progress achieving almost universal enrollment in primary education under a centralized management system over the last 30 years, significant problems in the education system continue to exist, including low public funding, poor completion rates, low teacher qualifications, poor classroom methodologies, and poor educational quality, as evidenced by low rankings in international testing, particularly in science and mathematics, (Ausaid 2008; Ausaid 2009).

The Government of Indonesia (GOI), through the Ministry of National Education (MONE), has initiated a decentralization process in the hopes of spreading the governance, financial, and managerial responsibility for improving education across a range of stakeholders. The GOI is also attempting to strengthen accountability mechanisms, (Ausaid 2008; Ausaid 2009; Sugito 2012). Under decentralization, school committees and district governments are expected to hold schools and teachers accountable for educational quality. The GOI is developing school and teacher accreditation criteria and minimum service standards to measure their performance, (Sugito 2012; Firman & Tola 2008; Ausaid 2009).

How about the quality of education in Papua? The quality of education in Papua by the National Examination (NE) did not disappoint even tend property because its value or score obtained is high. Judging from the NE graduation is also high. Rarely reported in one school graduation at the position of 0%, but otherwise mostly school graduation of 100%. Of the 130 SMA which follows NE, there were 117 high school graduation, which reached 100% or equal to 90% (MONE, 2010). This fact is contrary to the facts presented by the chairman of the study

of education in Papua that there are still many children Papuans or approximately 70% experience delays in cognitive development. One of the three aspects studied is the aspect of reading (Cepost, 2009).

With the conditions as described above, there is a problem that allegedly unreasonable or irrational to schools in remote areas can yield close to 100% of their students. Therefore, it is necessary to study a mapping or search among: (a) the results of NE with the real conditions of each school area, (b) the results of NE with the ability of teachers, (c) the results of NE with learning device, (d) the results NE with school management system, (e) the results of NE with educational facilities, and also between the results and the graduation NE culturally. Or in other words, the absorption of good students or high against the subjects studied, especially in the subjects of English tested nationally (which is included in the national exam) would also be balanced with the achievements of a minimum standard of eight National Education Standards (NES) or minimum completeness criteria (MCC).

The purposes of this research are to map the students' competence of each core of competencies, find the causes of students do not master certain basic competence, and find alternative problem-solving model to improve the competence of learners. The study will specifically address the following research questions: (a) How is the map of competence of Senior High School (SHS) students at Sarmi and Mamberamo Raya regencies towards each of the EFL basic competence? (b) What are the causative factors that may cause the SHS students at Sarmi and Mamberamo Raya regencies do not master the EFL basic competencies? and (c) What kind of alternative problem-solving models that can advance the competence of the students? The findings of the mapping study of competencies and the causatives factors of the inability of students to master the certain basic competencies it will be able to create a suitable implementation model for troubleshooting.

B. Methodology

1. Research Design

It is a descriptive - qualitative research design as the purpose of this study is describing the education competency achievement data in SR and MRR focused on the mapping competencies absorption of English subject that tested in national examination.

2. Population and Sample

Entire High Schools in SR and MMR (both state and private schools) which encompasses of four schools. There are three senior high schools in SR: SMAN 1, SMAN 2 and SMA YPK,

and only one state SHS in MMR. This study applying total sampling technique in determining the sample of the research (as the population is very limited).

3. Data Sources and Instruments

EFL teachers, students, principals and school administration staff. There were four EFL teachers of four senior high schools as the representative of research sample. Instruments for collecting data are field-notes observation, interview format, documents (lesson plans and other, text books, and other teacher's instructional devices), and rubric of basic competence.

4. Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected by observing the entire school environments, and the activities of the learning process at each high school sample. Data were also obtained through interview with several students of each class, principals, EFL teachers, and schools administration staff. A qualitative design (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Creswell, 2007) was selected to be the most appropriate research approach for this study because of the nature of the research questions and the intent of the researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of the environment of school events and instructional process.

C. Results and Analysis

1. Results

In this section, it will described the results of data analysis that includes: (a) mapping results of national examinations in 2011 and 2012 for English subject in the district of Mamberamo Raya and Sarmi, (b) some of the causes of low absorption of English subject at high school students in MRR and SR, and (c) the participation of parents and communities in the implementation of education.

a. Mapping of English National Examination in KMR and SR

In this section, it is presented the results of research which included the mapping of national examination results of English subjects in 2011 and 2012 at Senior High School in MRR and SR. it is presented Successively the absorption rate and passing rate in the past two years in 2011 and 2012 in the form of the following tables.

Table 1. Graduation rate and absorption of English NE 2011 in MRR

Major & Test Pact	Graduation Rate		Absorption (mastery Range)	
	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >
IPS (only one pact)	19 (30%)	31 (62%)	0 – 56%	80 – 99.99%

Table 2. Graduation rate and absorption of English NE 2011 in SR

Major & Test Pact	Graduation Rate		Absorption (mastery Range)	
	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >
IPS (only one pact)	27 (54%)	23 (46%)	10,41 – 56%	61.85 - 93.64.
IPA (only one pact)	24 (48%)	26 (52%)	7,5 – 60	62,5 – 97,5

Notes:

KKM = Minimum Completeness Criteria

NE = National Examination

MRR = Mamberamo Raya Regency

IPS = Social Science Major

IPA = Physic Science Major

Table 3. Graduation rate and absorption of English NE 2012 in MRR

Major & Test Pact	Graduation Rate		Absorption (mastery Range)	
	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >	KKM 60 <	KKM 60 >
IPS test pact A	13 (26%)	37 (74%)	0 (3) – 31,58	63,16 – 99.99
IPS test pact B	9 (18%)	41 (82%)	0 (4) – 26.32	63.16 – 99.99

Notes:

0 (3) = there were 3 competencies or questions not answered

0 (4) = there were 4 competencies or questions not answered

Table 4. Graduation rates and Absorption of English NE 2012 in SR

Majors & Pact	Graduation rates		Absorption (mastery Range) of English	
	KKM60 <	KKM 60 >	KKM<	KKM >
IPS Pact A	23 (46%)	27 (54%)	2,63 – 59,65	61,4 – 92,98
IPS Pact B	25 (50%)	25 (50%)	0,89 – 58,04	60,72 – 93,75
IPA Pact A	15 (30%)	35 (70%)	0 – 60	62,5 – 99,99
IPA Pact B	12 (24%)	38 (76%)	2,56 – 46,5	64,1 – 99,99

The investigation results within the last two years (2010/2011 and 2011/2012) of national examinations of English subject is problematic for students in high school in both regencies. Some of the basic competencies that appeared in NE matters were answered incorrectly by students. The wrong answers on items represent certain basic competencies. It also shows the absorption of students' basic English competence. The absorptive capacity on the basis of competence in English is still not good or satisfied.

Some of the basic competencies that appear in NE for an English course in the two regencies as presented in Table 1 to 4. Graduation competence and absorption of English competence of high school students at MRR and SR 2011 of NE results issued by BNSP (Board of National Education Standard). For SHS in MRR that 19 questions out of 50 were in the position of under KKM. One question of 19 (30%) questions under the KKM was not answered by the examinees. Absorptive capacity on the NE result of under KKM showed the range of 0 - 56, while the range of absorption above the KKM showed 80 - 99.99. For SHS at SR, there were two majors, IPS (Social Science) and IPA (Physic Science) followed the NE. The graduation rate and absorption for the IPS indicated that 27 (54%) questions of 50 questions were identified on the position of under KKM or smaller than KKM and the range of absorption for the questions of under KKM indicated 10.41 - 58.38 while the range of absorption of questions above the KKM were 61.85 - 93.64. As for English IPA major showed that the graduation rate of 24 (48%) questions were in the position of under KKM and 26 (52%) questions of 50 questions were above of KKM. Then, the absorption of questions under KKM was indicated on the range of 7.5 to 60 and the absorption stage of questions above the KKM was on the range of 62.5 - 97.5.

b. Some causes the low of English absorption for SHS students in MRR and SR

Based on the results of the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and direct observation to the location of the study, the researchers found some causes of the low of English absorption for SHS students in MRR and SR to some basic competencies in English lessons which were tested nationally because of non-fulfillment of the eight (8) Indonesian SNP (National Standard of Education), namely: 1) content standard, 2) process standard, 3) competency standard, 4) educational standard and educational staff, 5) standard of facilities and infrastructure, 6) management standard, 7) financing standard, and 8) assessment standard. Instead of the eight SNPs, it was also suspected the causes of low absorption of English in MRR and SR were caused by the culture of student learning, the carrying capacity, and community participation.

1) Content Standard

The curriculum is the main standard in conducting the process of education and learning in the school, but it was known that SHS in MRR and SR were: (a) Schools did not have their own EULC (Educational Unit Level of Curriculum) documents; (b) English teachers claiming to have documents that copy paste of EULC from NSP, but the document was not stored in the school; (c) schools did not determine load local content subjects yet; (d) schools had not yet developed the standard of extracurricular program activities, so even though there were extracurricular activities but they were not based on the talents and interests of students; (e) English teachers rarely gave structured or unstructured assignments, and (f) KKM (Criterion Complete Minimal) of English subjects had not been determined yet based on the analysis of indicators on the basic competence.

2) Processing Standard

(a) Senior high schools syllabus in MRR and SR was a copy of the other schools, so that the English teachers did not know the compatibility with the SKL (graduation standard), curriculum guides, and its compatibility with the components of the syllabus; (b) Teachers rarely prepared lesson plans for the instructional process; (c) There were not all teachers' lesson plans prepared in accordance with the principles of lesson planning and they did not accommodate difference learners' characters; (d) schools did not provide textbooks and other learning resources were sufficient to use in the learning process; (e) There were not all teachers use the books in the library as a learning resource for the learning process; (f) There were not all teachers utilize the school environment as a learning resource for the learning process; (g) There were not all teachers use multi media and methods appropriately with the character of

the topics and themes of learning materials to create interactive learning process, inspiring, fun, challenging, and motivating learners;

3) *Graduates Competency Standard*

(a) There were not all students had the grades report in accordance to KKM English standard; b. not all learners are always complete assignments and home works; (c) there were not all students use the library, language laboratory, and the environment as learning resources in completing their tasks; (d) there were not all students learn to express their experiences in the implementation of weekly language, speak contest, English debate, art and culture; and (f) schools did not provide the skills and personality development activities to students.

4) *Education Standard and Educational Personnel standard*

(a) The number of English teachers at each school in the MRR and SR were not in accordance with the ratio of the number of students; (b) there were not all teachers of English had their teaching certificate; (c) English teacher education qualification was appropriate, but there were not all English teachers had sufficient experience in teaching English; (e) Most of English teachers had very low in pedagogic, professional, social, and personality competence.

5) *Infrastructure Standard*

(a) There were not all senior high school had a decent library in accordance with the ratio of the number of students; (b) The number of textbooks for independent learning for students was not sufficient yet; and (c) there was not every high school had a language laboratory, even if there was a school had a language laboratory but it did not facilitate with the power of electricity.

6) *Management Standard*

(a) School or the principal did not have descriptions about the main tasks and functions of educators, including teachers of English; (b) School or the principal did not evaluate the process of learning English both semesters and annual; (c) schools did not prepare supervision program for teachers and administrative staff in accordance with National Education Standards (NES).

7) *Financing Standard*

(Internal problems of the school, it did not affect the competence of teachers and students).

8) *Assessment Standard*

(a) There were not all English teachers could create and prepare the KKM of English subjects; (b) There were not all English teachers prepare the blue prints of test, instrument rating, and assessment rubric; (c) There were not all English teachers to inform basic

competence, a minimum completeness criteria (KKM), judging techniques and assessment rubric to students; (d) There were not all English teachers apply the techniques of observation during the learning process took place whether in the classroom or outside the classroom; (e) There were not all English teachers to give feedback or comments that educate against judging results; and (f) There were not all English teachers implemented the improvement and enrichment based on the analysis of rating.

c. The role of parents and the community in the implementation of education.

In addition to the components of eight (8) SNP into the causes of low absorption or not achieving the standard of competence and basic competences of English tested nationally, it was also caused by the lack of participation of parents and communities in the implementation of education. From the observation and FGD on high school teachers in the MRR and SR were known that: 1) The schools did not involve the parents or guardians of students in the implementation of the school programs; 2) Schools did not currently have and form a school committee; 3) The meeting between the schools and parents was very rare and the level of presence of the parents was also very low; 4) the parents and the community were not involved in decision-making in schools; 5) English teachers rarely, even never communicated with parents about the issues facing their children in school; and 7) parents and the community did not understand and were not involved to promote learning programs in schools.

2. Discussions

In this discussion section, it will be described, (1) absorption of English lessons as one of the subjects tested nationally in high school in MRR and SR, (2) alternative solutions to improve the absorption of basic competence of English, and (3) alternative of problem-solving model that can be implemented in both the short and long term.

1) The absorption of English as one of the subjects tested nationally at High Schools in MRR and SR

The graduation rate and absorption results of English NE in 2012 for the two regencies, MRR and SR (see Tables 3 and 4) indicated where, out of 50 questions package A was found 13 (26%) questions under the KKM and three of the 13 questions were below the KKM and were not answered by the examinees. The Absorptive capacity of national examination of English test for package B in MRR showed 9 (18%) of 50 questions were about the position under KKM, and four questions of 9 questions below KKM were not answered by the participants. The national examination of English language test for package B indicated that the passing rate of the examination was high enough on the position 82%.

For Sarmi district, there were two departments that took the national examination which majoring in social and science. For IPS major that took package A of English test, there were 23 (46%) questions of 50 were under KKM and 27 (54%) questions were above the KKM and the absorption questions below KKM illustrated the range 2.63 to 59.65. On the other side, the test of the English language package B showed 25 (50%) of 50 questions were on the position under the KKM and other 50% were located on the position above the KKM. The range of absorptive capacity on competencies of English under the KKM was 0.89 - 58.04. Then to majoring in science, about the English absorption package A, it was identified that 15 (30%) of the 50 questions with a range of 0 to 60 was positioned below the KKM. As for the English package B, the graduation rate showed that 38 (76%) of the 50 questions in English were in the position above the KKM and the remaining 12 (24%) were in the position under the KKM with absorption range 2:56 to 46.5.

From the analysis of mapping, the absorption of English competency was tested nationally there were some basic competencies that were not well understood by the students, there was even a basic competency that was not understood completely by the students. As national test of English in 2012 in two districts MRR and SR. MRR still had only Social Science major, for the test questions of the English language package A, it was found 13 competencies (questions) below KKM and three questions which were not answered by the examinees. For about national test package B, it was identified that nine competencies or questions were categorized under KKM and four among the competencies could not be answered correctly or not be answered by the examinees. Basic competencies which were tested, seemed difficult for the examinees especially on the competencies of: determine a general overview of the contents of the conversation, determining the ultimate mind paragraph written text narrative form, an overview of the contents of a written essay in text form (discussion, descriptive, exposition, narrative, recount, report), determines the general description of a conversation, and others (see tables 1 and 2).

Similar with Sarmi district, the level of absorption of the test package A English for the Social Science showed that there were 23 questions on the position of below the KKM, and the two questions of which were at the lowest basic competency 2.63 on questions number 28 and 35. Basic competency at question number 28 states that, "determine the ultimate mind paragraphs of text written form of a narrative and question number 35 by basic competency, "determining the main idea of paragraphs in the text written essay in the form of a report." For science major, in English test of package A, it was found that there were 15 questions of 50

on the position of below the KKM, and one of them was not answered by the examinees, such as question number 28 with basic competency, "determining the main idea of a paragraph of written text form of news item." Then for about test package B, the lowest absorption level of English competency below the KKM was 2.63 with basic competency, "determining the main ideas of a paragraph in essay written text in report form."

Based on in-depth interviews and focus group discussions, it was known that almost all teachers did not understand EULC and bills that should be implemented in the curriculum, such as the preparation of syllabi, lesson plans, types of assessment, determine the minimum completeness criteria (KKM). In the process of learning, all teachers of English from the two districts was still using teaching method traditionally that teachers as learning centers, the use of media and teaching methods had no any variation yet. Assessments administered by the English teachers were more dominant to assess cognitive domains that assessed and tested the results of the student memorization. Learning English was done by teachers more focused on teaching structure than teaching language skills. Even if they taught language skills, they just taught reading skill, while other skills such as listening, speaking and writing were almost never taught.

2) Alternative solutions to improve the absorption of basic competence of English

Alternative solutions will be described in this section, among others: (a) the management system (MBS), (b) curriculum, (c) educators and education personnel, (d) the educational facilities, (e) students, (f) parents' role and public participation, climate and school culture

a) Management System

As a school in general, it has to have a vision, mission, and the purpose as a reference in the provision of education in schools, so it was absolutely necessary that the development of the school program. Various programs are developed to be relevant to the mission, vision, and mission of the school as well as various forms of elaboration which more detailed, structured, and flexible enough to be implemented in schools (MONE, 2005).

The development of school programs should be managed through a systematic phasing with steps that can be accounted for, both academically, juridical, and social. In addition, the development of school programs must also consider the potential and the ability of schools (Dediknas 2008; Director General PMPTK, 2007). Thus the school can determine how big the

opportunities that exist on the program that was developed to be applied as a plan of action that can be taken with a high success

It was known that senior high school management in MRR and SR which became target in this study was not good yet. The average of SHS had not set the goals and short-term planning, medium and long term in accordance with the standards of NSP. Therefore it was necessary to design some programs that could be developed which include: (1) determine the vision, mission and objectives of the school, (2) dissemination and consolidation of school based management and quality management of education, (3) designing the semester programs and annually programs, (4) increase cooperation with stakeholders, (5) enhancing the implementation of the principles of independence, transparency, participation, accountability, and sustainability of school programs, (6) conduct and improve supervision, monitoring, and evaluation of school programs, (7) conduct workshop to determine KKM for each lesson, (8) provide the information request service, giving information, and complaining service from the public relating to the management of the school, (9) provide and make the description of the duties and functions of education and educators.

Alternative strategies in a concrete problem-solving actions, namely:

1. conduct workshops and training internally at the school,
2. cooperation with the school committee,
3. carry out in-house training or mentoring for school leaders,
4. cooperation with other agencies, especially in developing school management,
5. internships and visits to schools that have been developed, and
6. building cooperation with university and LPMP (provincial quality assurance institution).

b) Curriculum

The Article 17 of Government Regulation in 2005 states, EULC high school and vocational school, or other equivalent forms developed in accordance with the educational unit, the potential of the region, the regional characteristics, social culture of the local community, and learners. Each school developed curriculum based SKL (graduation competency standard) and content standards and follow the guidelines established by the National Education Standards Board (BNSP).

Based on the results of focus group discussions, in-depth interviews, and observation of all English teachers in the MRR and SR, it was known that all schools as venues of research did not have EULC (Education Unit Level of Curriculum) in accordance with the character of

each school. Teachers of English copied paste the syllabus of English from other sources. Deputy had of the school curriculum also claimed to have EULC documents copied paste from BNSP. Since all schools did not have a curriculum that was made by the school, so many academic activities, extracurricular, educated personal development, and the potential of student could not be executed properly. This case of course made the students became passively, lazy, uncreative and unproductive and at the end it caused on the poor achievement of students' English learning.

To improve absorption and student learning outcomes in MRR and SR, it was necessary to develop EULC. EULC development aims for the realization of the document of EULC in school according to the conditions, students' potency, and the capacity of schools. The benefit of school curriculum development was expected to provide maximum opportunities to the students to build and find their identity through a process of learning or active learning, creative, effective, and fun (PAKEM) (Partnership Principal Force V, 2007: 71).

Alternative action strategy and problem solving concretely can be conducted, namely: (1) conduct a workshop or training internally in each school, (2) cooperation with LPMP and Local Education Department, (3) conduct in-house training or assistance for the drafting team of EULC, (4) building cooperation with other relevant institutions, (5) apprenticeship and visitation to other schools that have been developed, and building cooperation with the University which has teacher college and education science, and (6) conduct seminars with teachers and education experts in other schools or education offices.

c) Educators and Education Personnel

Definition of standards of teachers and according to the Government Regulation Number 19 year 2005 about NSP is pre-service teacher education and eligibility criteria for physical and well mental for educators. Educators must have academic qualifications and competence field of study or content knowledge, pedagogical competence, healthy spiritual and physical, and have the ability to achieve national education goals. Academic qualification is a minimum level of education that must be met by an educator (teacher) as evidenced by a diploma or certificate of membership to the relevant provisions of law applicable (MONE, 2008: 45).

Based on the observations to research sites in MRR and SR, it was known that educators, especially teachers and educators of English in high school in MRR and SR inadequate or lacking in terms of both the number of English teachers and competence. The

number of English teachers from the two districts Mamberamo Raya and Sarimi were 8 English teachers. Each school had two teachers of English from four high schools as targeted research. Each school had two the administrative personnel (education personnel), but two senior high schools did not have the administrative personnel, namely Mamberamo Senior High School and YPK Senior High School in Sarimi district. A few of the English teachers also taught other subjects were like Indonesian because of a shortage of teachers. English teachers' competency, especially in pedagogic and professional competence was still very low because the reason was for almost all teachers had experience of teaching \pm 3 years and only one teacher of English had almost 15 years of teaching experience and had obtained her teaching certificate. The attendance of teachers in the learning process reaches $>$ 50%.

Conditions of educators (English teachers) and high school educators in MRR and SR were suspected potentially causing low level of absorption and achievement of students learning English. Incompetent educators, especially the low pedagogic competence would lead lower student learning outcomes. Therefore, it was necessary to develop alternative solutions of the problems.

Alternative strategies in a concrete problem-solving actions related to educators and education personnel, namely: (1) workshop to increase the competence of teachers in English language studies on the development of EULC; (2) workshops to improving the competence of teachers in the development of learning strategies, Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL), mastery learning, and PAKEM; (3) In-house workshops/ training for improving teacher competence related to media development and learning methods; (4) workshops on aspects of improving the competence of teachers, pedagogic competence, professionalism, social and personality; (5) internships and visits to increase the competence of principals; (6) collaboration with other agencies to increase the competence of teachers in ICT, and (7) workshop about supervision system and monitoring of teachers and education personnel.

d) Infrastructures Education Standard

The infrastructure standard of education according to the Government Regulation number 19 year 2005 about NSP is the national standard relating to the minimum requirements of the land, classrooms, places to exercise, places of worship, libraries, laboratories, workshops, playgrounds, places of recreation, furniture, tools and educational media, books, and other learning resources, which are necessary for the support of the learning process, including the use of information and communication technologies (Dirjen PMPK, 2008: 47).

The condition of facilities and infrastructure were inadequate in MRR and SR, allegedly very influential on the level of mastery and absorption of student learning outcomes, especially on the unavailability of text books in English and for all other subjects and textbooks which were relevant and support the field of study learned in school. Lack of adequate facilities and infrastructure to support the learning process could potentially weaken the competence of student learning outcomes, therefore it was necessary to develop alternative solutions to the problems.

Alternative action strategy of problem solving concretely related to facilities and infrastructure, among other things:

1. Form a special team to handle the development of infrastructure.
2. Conducting workshops and training internally at the school.
3. Cooperation with the school committee.
4. Collaboration with institutions and agencies or publishers for the procurement of textbooks.
5. Cooperation with business world and industry.

e) Students

Center and focus of learning activities in schools are the students. Students are the main subject of the learning process. Success or failure of the learning process, is highly dependent on the readiness and ability of students to learn. Optimizing the learning readiness and ability to learn the key to the success of the learning process in schools. Therefore, it is essential to engage students in school activities or by giving responsibility to them and on the other hand teachers should strive to grow in the students a sense of ownership of the school and learning. Forms of student involvement can vary, generally can be done through designing curricular activity programs, life skills programs (life skills), guidance and counseling services, or career guidance.

The monitoring of students' progress is an important procedure, as a preliminary activity to plan learning strategies, change and choose appropriate learning methods and accommodate all students' learning styles. Associated with these problems, teachers need to pay attention to the activities of homework that should be given to students and ratings and feedback given.

Related to the monitoring of students' progress, teachers of English in the MRR and SR had not been able to use the assessment results to determine the strategy and to determine whether their teaching methods had been effective or not. Teachers rarely gave feedback of

the student work quickly, and the work and accomplishments of students in the school were never reported to the parents and the local education office. In fact, if student performance reports were distributed to all teachers, it could be used as alternative plans and improvement.

f) The role of parents and the community

The participation of parents and communities at schools in MRR and SR had not been much empowered. That was, there was no communication and parent involvement to support the implementation of education. Whereas the involvement of parents and the community were learning stimulus in school (Partnership Principal, 2007). Parents and the public should be able to serve as representatives of service users that could affect school education to be effective. The traditional role of parental involvement should not be ruled out, such as cooperation with the school in providing tutoring and foster discipline to their children.

Besides parents, community in general needs to be empowered optimally to provide support to school. According to the government decision number 044 / U / 2002, empowering the community in order to improve quality, equity and efficiency of education management in schools accommodated by the school committee which is independent and has no hierarchical relationship with government agencies. Therefore schools in MRR and SR should be: 1) to form school committee; 2) The school may involve students' parents in a few school programs; 3) frequency of meetings between students' parents and schools need to be improved; 4) parents and communities must be involved in making decisions at the school; 5) teachers must often communicate with parents about the problems faced by students in the school; and 6) the parents and the community are given an understanding to participate in promoting learning programs in schools.

3) Alternative Model problem solving

The alternative of problem-solving model in this study that can be implemented are cases which are considered urgent. Indeed, Senior High Schools in MRR and SR are in a trap and classified as severe pain problems. Eight (8) of SNP are as a barometer for measuring the degree of readiness, effectiveness, and progress of schools that ideal according to national standards. There are no standards at adequate positions, wholly inadequate. However, of the eight SNPs were suspected as the source of the problem of low absorption competence of students to the national examination results for English. Subsequently, there were two SNPs which considered the most urgent to look for alternative solutions that can be implemented immediately, namely the content standards and process standard. Content standard includes

EULC development and learning devices, while process standard covers teaching and learning processes and the devices attached to them.

Conclusions

Graduation competence and absorption of English competence of high school students at MRR and SR 2011 of NE results issued by BNSP (Board of National Education Standard). For SHS in MRR that 19 questions out of 50 were in the position of under KKM. One question of 19 (30%) questions under the KKM was not answered by the examinees. Absorptive capacity on the NE result of under KKM showed the range of 0 - 56, while the range of absorption above the KKM showed 80 - 99.99. For SHS at SR, there were two majors, IPS (Social Science) and IPA (Physic Science) followed the NE. The graduation rate and absorption for the IPS indicated that 27 (54%) questions of 50 questions were identified on the position of under KKM or smaller than KKM and the range of absorption for the questions of under KKM indicated 10.41 - 58.38 while the range of absorption of questions above the KKM were 61.85 - 93.64. As for English IPA major showed that the graduation rate of 24 (48%) questions were in the position of under KKM and 26 (52%) questions of 50 questions were above of KKM. Then, the absorption of questions under KKM was indicated on the range of 7.5 to 60 and the absorption stage of questions above the KKM was on the range of 62.5 - 97.5.

Based on the results of national examinations in English two years 2011 and 2012 showed that it is very satisfying when seen from the graduation level, because all the participants of national exams in the district of Mamberamo and Sarmi nearly 100% graduation rate. From the distribution of grades issued by the central BNSP educational assessment department of national education, national English exam results in 2011 showed that the average value of 6.90 to the achievement of the lowest value of 4.80, and the highest value of 7.60. While the results of national exam in 2012 indicated that the average value was 6.98, and the achievement of the lowest value was 4.95, and the highest value was 7.89. However, if it was viewed from the absorption, it was appeared that English test package A and package B seemed quite difficult for the students in Sarmi district. For about test package A to social major, there were 23 (46%) of the 50 questions under the KKM, as well as the test package B, it was more difficult for the participants of social that 25 (50%) of the 50 questions below KKM (see table 4).

The cause of the low level of absorption of English lesson allegedly due eight (8) NSP being minimal requirements are not met, or in other words are inadequate. It could be

concluded that all of the standards required by BNSP to high schools in MRR and SR was very low, such as on content standard, all schools in the two districts Mamberamo and Sarmi indicated that they did not have the EULC document which created by themselves.

References

- Ausaid Report. 2009. *Teacher Education and Professional Development in Indonesia: A Gap Analysis*. GEM II - Aguirre Division of JBS International, Inc. p.4.
- AUSAID (2010) *Designing Effective Education Programs For In-Service Teacher Professional Development: Compendium*. America: AUSAID-IIIEP.
- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. 1992. *Qualitative Research for Education*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon room Observation.
- Creswell, J. (2007) *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design : Choosing Among Five Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Depdiknas. 2005. *Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 20 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
- Dikdasmen. 2008. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Sekolah Standar Nasional*. Jakarta: Dikdasmen.
- Jalal, F., Samani, M., Chang, M.C., Stevenson, R., Rigatz, A.B., & Negara, S.D. 2009. *Teacher Certification in Indonesia: A Strategy for Teacher Quality Improvement*. Jakarta: Ministry of National Education and World Bank staff and consultants.
- Kemendiknas. 2010a. *Pedoman Pelaksanaan Penilaian Kinerja Guru (PK Guru)*. Jakarta: Kemendiknas
- Ministerial of National Education. 2010b. *Monitoring Guidelines on Teacher Quality through on Service Training*. Jakarta: Dirjen PMPTK.
- MONE. 2003. *National Educational System, Act of the Republic of Indonesia Number 20, Year 2003*. Jakarta: MONE.
- MONE. 2005. *Law Number 14 Year 2005 about Teacher and Lecturer*. Jakarta: Department of National Education.
- Sugito. 2012. *Reformasi dan Inovasi Pendidikan (Reform and Innovation in)*. <https://soegitounipa.wordpress.com/2012/10/10/reformasi-dan-Education-inovasi-pendidikan/>(accessed 09-01-2016).

Title

The Common European Framework of Reference for English Language in Practice:
Challenges for Thai Elementary School Teachers

Author

Dararat Khampusaen

Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Bio-Profile:

Dararat Khampusaen earned her Ph.D. in TESOL from the University of South Australia, Australia. At present, she teaches in the English Department in Khon Kaen University, Thailand. Her experiences and research interests include academic writing and teacher professional development in ICT for foreign language teaching. She can be reached at darkha@kku.ac.th.

Abstract

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) was originally intended to provide a common basis for language learning, teaching, and assessment for Europeans. At present, the framework is being implemented in the field of language education across the world. Among European Member States and other European countries (non-EU Member States), the CEFR is adopted progressively in education, while a limited number of research projects have been conducted to further produce language proficiency standards. In Thailand, the CEFR was introduced in 2015. This study investigated on the implementation of the CEFR, initiated by the Thai Ministry of Education as an instrument for comparing language proficiency levels and facilitating the use of English, in a rural Thai elementary school. Participants were 33 non-English background first graders and 19 English language teachers

in the district. The research design is experimental, involving a control group and an experimental group. The research instruments were 5 Mini Phonics Books developed by the research team that were delivered to classes using the Communicative Language Teaching approach. Tasks and activities were designed according to Task-Based Language teaching approach. The interviews were administered to the teachers to find needs and problems in implementing the CEFR into practice. The results reveal that the scores of the post-test in the experimental group are significantly higher than the scores in the control group (at .05). Also, the end-of-lesson exercise scores of the target students increased from Mini Phonics Book 1 to 5. The problems that surfaced from the interviews were varied from personal, academic, and organizational issues in teaching English. The discussion shares insights on the implementation of the CEFR outside Europe—an international controversy. The research outcomes are expected to lead to sustainable and effective ways in improving teaching and learning of English at primary school level.

Keywords: *CEFR, English Teaching Methods, Phonics Teaching Method, English language teachers, Task-Based Teaching*

Introduction

The familiar international proficiency tests, for example, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), or the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) have been used to determine the ability of English users for several decades. Recently, the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR), which provides six proficiency levels for foreign language learning, was introduced to the Thai English teachers as the framework for teaching, learning and testing English language in primary and secondary school levels. CEFR determines English users into 6 levels. The first levels, A1 and A2, are called a ‘basic user’. B1 and B2 are the levels of an ‘Independent user’. The highest levels, people who have a good command of English fall into C1 and C2 are considered ‘Proficient Users’. The levels are described with can-do statements, emphasizing action-oriented approach of the creators of the CEFR. (European Commission, 2012). English learners are assessed the ability in using English with these can-do-statements. The can-do-statements are thus used to determine the level of what a learner could do to what they should be able to do in effectively communicating at the determined CEFR level. The five different skills: listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing are the presented together within the can-

do-statements. In this sense, it would be clear that both learners and users of foreign languages are regarded as members of a society who accomplish tasks in certain circumstances and within social contexts. Even though the CEFR has been mentioned as guidelines toward the success in building a shared understanding of levels, facilitating the setting of realistic learning targets for a group, and relating outcomes to what learners can do next successfully perform a particular job, or pursue university studies using the language, and so on, there are several issues in applying it into classrooms with low proficiency in English. Unlike in Europe, the CEFR is regarded a challenge in the implementation process to several Asian countries including Thailand. This paper inspects the process and outcomes of how the CEFR was applied English subjects in an elementary school in North-eastern Thailand.

Research problems

Regardless of enormous budget allocated to improve English education in Thai schools, the outcomes do not match the huge investment. As evident in the English Proficiency Index (EF, 2014), Thailand had low proficiency, Thailand is in a serious situation as the proficiency of English language of the citizen could be getting worse. In addition, as one active member of AEC, Thailand is definitely in need of the citizens who are well-equipped with the English communicative skills. Several studies disclose critical problems which involving the policies, the teachers, the learners and the instructional materials in classrooms. In details, the policies are usually planned from the top to be implemented by the practitioners who have little say or contribution in what they are to act. Unfortunately, as the English language are considered the core part of the language policy, ignoring their voices attributes to low quality in teaching.

In addition, a significant number of these teachers in English language possess low language proficiency and out of place training. As CEFR has just adopted in Thailand, there are a limited number of research done in this area. However, several studies targeting at primary school level indicated that most of the Thai teachers who teach English in elementary school did not have the degrees in the related field. Moreover, they were not well-equipped with English language skills suitable for English classes. This includes the lack of background knowledge of theories and methods of teaching English. It is obvious that those who are not prepared with the content in neither English, nor do they have pedagogical skills are naturally nervous in classroom. In there, the English language teachers are also required to use vocabulary knowledge and pronunciation skills.

According to the students who have more than a decade devoted to English subjects before commencing in higher education, they are found skeptical in their English proficiency. As evident in the Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL during 2011 to 2012, Thai learners' average TOEFL scores are lower than the international average score (Thai = 75, International = 80). In ASEAN, Thai English proficiency is behind Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore.

The low proficiency in English of Thai learners may partly due to the limitation of instructional media and techniques. In classrooms, students learn English in dry environments with almost no exposure to language use and practice. The English lessons are isolated and lifeless. Thai learners are known as passive learners, while English classes are naturally delivered with the grammar-translation method.

Due to several criticisms toward the English language education in Thailand, the government agreed to use CEFR as a direction in teaching, learning and testing of English language. Toward this change, the groups being affected the most are the elementary school levels, according to their readiness in applying the framework to practical use. This study thus aimed to look into the implementation of the CEFR in a rural Thai elementary school.

Research Questions

As it has always been recommended, the most successful classroom with the CEFR is when it focuses on the useful outcomes of language learning teaching and lesson planning. In practical, the lesson design should focus on what exam grades mean in terms of specific skills and abilities rather than simply the grades themselves. The question raised is how the teacher link teaching to the CEFR in a very effective way to achieving this. It allows teaching to focus on the strengths and weaknesses which are helping or hindering learners. This study therefore conveyed two research questions.

1. How the lessons designed with the CEFR can dos implemented in the classroom?
2. What are the problems and needs perceived by the teacher in using the CEFR in lesson planning and teaching?

Research Methods

This study employed an experimental research model (Quasi-experimental design) to study how the English language class relying on CEFR was arranged. The the main focus of the work was on the effects of the Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based learning

on the students' pronunciation ability. The study took place in two rural schools in a small district called Phra Yuen, Khon Kaen Province. The procedure lasted for one semester (months)

The participants

The participants were 33 non-English background first graders and 19 English language teachers in the district. The research design is experimental. The lessons were designed and planned according to CEFR can do with the three language teaching and learning approaches: (1) Communicative Language Teaching, (2) Task-Based Learning and (3) Phonics Teaching Theory.

Research Instrument

This research employed 2 research instruments. To investigate the learning outcomes, the Pretest Posttest on phonics was used. In addition, to find how successful the lessons planned and designed with the CEFR can dos were, the interviews were employed. There were 2 groups of participants: the control group and the experimental group. The former group was taught with the designed method while the latter group was taught with a normal teaching method. the Pretest was administered to the 2 groups prior to the start of the experiment.

For the ongoing class activities, the CEFR can dos were employed as guidelines in planning and designing the learning activities. The five key concepts of task-based learning approach proposed by Nunan (1991) which are (1) Focus on learning through interaction using the target language, (2) The use of real-world instructional media, (3) Linking language learned in the classroom with language used outside the classroom, (4) Learning the language and learning process at the same time, and (5) Bringing the personal experience of the class as part of classroom learning were applied to the phonics lessons. Accordingly, the five mini phonics books were created. The tasks in in the books were therefore developed by using the explanation of the stages in using task-based activities. as explained by Willis (2012). The activities were then divided the task-based teaching into three main stages:

1. Pre-task phase which refers to the time that the instructor introduced the subject. At this stage the teacher includes useful vocabulary and phrases for the task to prepare the students for the task.

2. Task Cycle phase is the period when the instructor gives the learner the opportunity to work independently so that the learner can freely use the language. Also, students prepare the reports about their tasks. Later, the teacher asks the students to present the work in several

forms, for example oral presentation, poster, role-plays and etc. After that, the instructor comments on the report.

3. Language focus phase is the time students devote to check their own language, to reflect and to examine their assumptions in the language structures.

In addition, the 19 teachers in English language undertook the English proficiency self-assessment survey and semi-structured interviews with the researcher. The survey was created using the CEFR self-assessment. The teachers read the ‘can do statements’ for each level and rated their proficiency accordingly. The results were to be analyzed to find the gap between the self-assessed and the perceived required level of English proficiency. The semi-structure interview was carried out to find problems, needs and to investigate participants’ difficulties in teaching English language. The interview questions probed the teachers’ teaching situations (school, workload, students, professional development activities), attitudes and ICT skills in teaching.

Research results

Totally the 5 Mini Phonics and 18 learning activities were used in the experiment. Table 1 show the percentage of samples who completed the task-based exercises both as group and as an individual.

The pre and posttest results

In answering the research question 1 enquiring how the CEFR can do were used as a central point of reference for teaching and lesson planning in the classroom, Table 1 and Table 2 are to be discussed. The results of using the mini phonics books revealed that 17 lessons of English language skills training were undertaken. The lessons learned in Chart 1 show the percentage of sample. Each exercise is a task-based exercise.

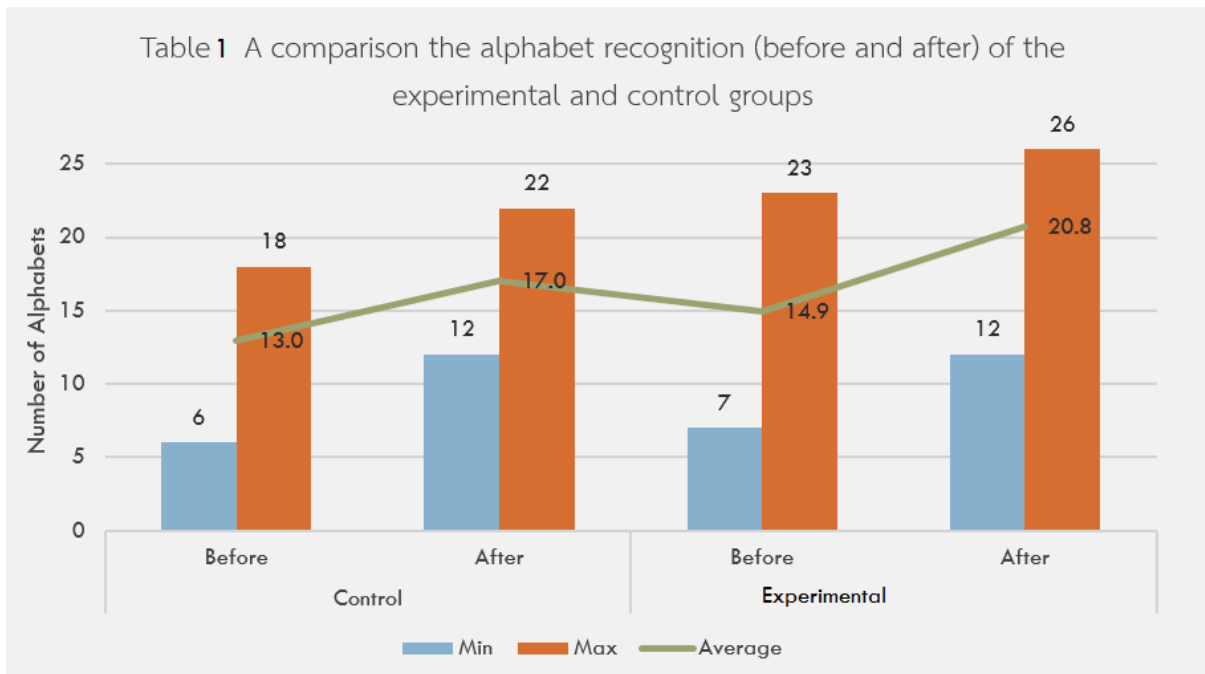
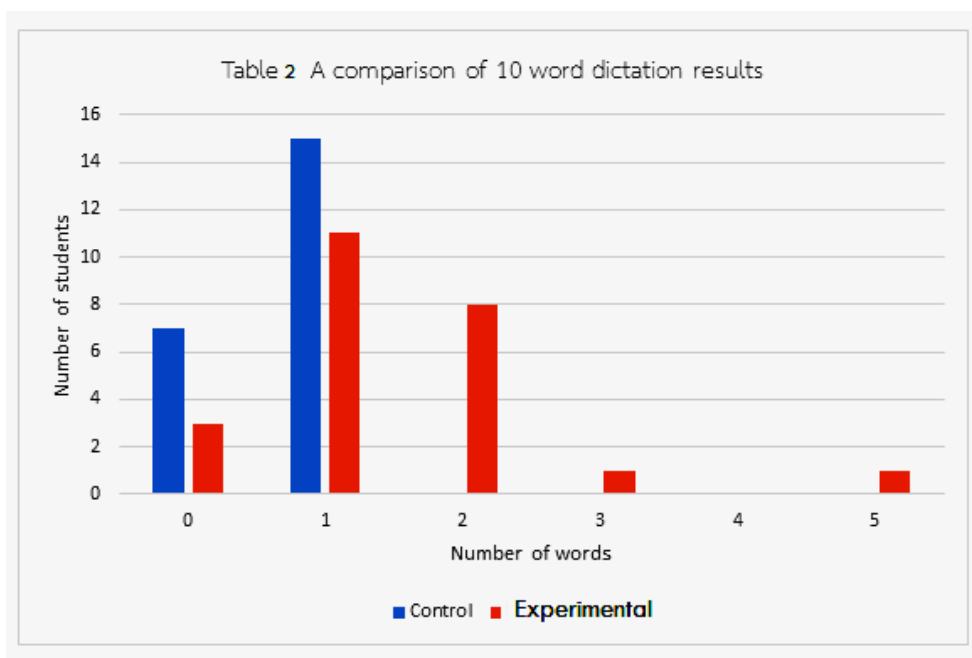


Table 1 shows that the tasks, designed with the CEFR can dos, were able to significantly increase the posttest scores of all the samples. The students could recognize the more English alphabets when tested at the end of the 17 lessons. Therefore, the research question 1 could be that the innovation designed and planned with the CEFR can dos have the positive effects on the students' alphabets recognition ability. They were able to identify the alphabet according to the sounds they heard.

In addition, both groups were tested their listening ability of cvc (Vowel-Consonant-Vowel) words (e. g., CAT BAT BUS TON NET) with the dictation test 2 (adapted from Phonics / Decoding Screening Test). By comparing the pre and posttests' scores, it was found that they were able to match the words they heard to the words they saw better as presented in Table 2.



According to dictation test, the experimental group outdid those in the control group. From Table 2, it was found that none of the students in both groups were able to write the words they heard. The score was 0. However, the posttest results showed that both groups of learners showed the ability to write the words being dictated. 68% of the control group could write the words they heard correctly, while 88% of the participants in the experimental group were able to do this thing.

According to the results, all the 24 students in the experimental group made the scores over 50% in their Phonics training package. The observations indicated that students could make less in the first Phonics practice. This is possible that the students had not learned the vowel (a-e-i-o-u) before. They could perform better from the second phonics onward. The results were in contrast to the control group where the students could not pass at 50%.

To sum up, the pre and posttest scores in the experimental group were significantly higher than those in the control group. In fact, the students' least developmental skills were writing which was found to be mild to moderate. The mini phonics lessons, designed and planned with the CEFR can do, are therefore likely to improve students' English proficiency. It is predicted that if the time for practice was extended, the student were to be able to listen, read and write in English more fluently and precisely.

The results also indicates that innovation designed and planned according to the CEFR can dos was reliable and effective in teaching the learners to mix, decode and pronouncing words. It could help students learn how words are pronounced in English and allowed students to analyze the language with members of the group. This was found to be a suitable way to

work in the early stages of learning when learners were in need of motivation and confidence in learning. The class activities were delivered to students by engaging them with participating in the group-working atmosphere. During the practice, students planned how to get the job done and that they could learn from and use the new words (by means of speaking and writing). The production was later given feedback from the instructor. This is a significant stage of learning allowing the learners to analyze their own learning outcomes.

The CEFR, as found from this study, had considerable influence when designed along with the task-based learning activities. However, there are still significant concerns on how the teachers in the Thai educational contexts who have with limited English knowledge and competency consistently deal with the pedagogical use of CEFR. In addition, the establishment of standards of foreign language proficiency in Thailand is unclear to date. Apparently in the first case there are several ongoing training focusing on how the CEFR can do descriptors are interpreted and implemented in classrooms (e.g., assessment, goal-setting and reflective tools to develop and plan curricula and courses).

The interview results

In answering the research question number 2 on the problems and needs perceived by the teacher in using the CEFR in lesson planning and teaching, the teacher was interviewed. It was firstly found that the implementation of the CEFR in the mini phonic books, the activities designed under the Communication Language Teaching approach significantly raised students' interests and motivation to learn English. This was considered a main factor for their increased scores and also their increased ability in mixing consonants with vowels and read aloud.

However, the teacher indicated that the CEFR can dos were challenging in practice. . They can also distinguish the sound of the words with the written words. This is because the CEFR required the teacher who held good English skills and the content knowledge of the subject to deliver the lesson successfully. From the interviews with the 18 teachers in English language who were in the same district, were very enthusiastic in teaching English. However, these teachers stated that they were not confident in teaching in classes due to their English limitation. In fact, the interviews indicated that there were only 6 teachers out of 19 who had the degrees in the related fields to English. As a result, they said that they were struggled when teaching in class. Teachers used only a few English words ; for example greeting. The main class language was the dialect (E-Saan), and they interchangeably use the central Thai

language. They also tried to use English in giving commands, for example, Quiet please, Sit down, and Stand up.

When asked about the lesson planning, the teachers said they found this was hard for them to accommodate students at different grades. Usually there were only a few English teachers in a school. Thus one must teach more than one level (e. g., grade 1- 6). Teaching English from Elementary to Grade 6 made it a heavy task for teachers to prepare many lessons. Besides, the teachers were assigned extra-curricular work (e. g., coaching students for sport competitions, or doing paperwork). While the teachers believed they had the skills to use modern media to as their English language teaching tools (such as computers), the main obstacle was that the schools were unable to provide them with the ICT tools (for example audio-visual equipment, such as audio, TV, CDs and computers). In classrooms, teachers used a variety of teaching techniques such as music, conversation, and games. The teachers had considerable experiences in developing teaching materials and share with the others.

The most critical problem which could lead to the failure in implementing the CEFR into practice, as seen from the teachers was support from their schools for professional; development as 13 out of 19 of them did not graduate in English majors. They were worried about their lack of confidence in teaching pronunciation, answering questions about vocabulary and structure in English in the classroom. The lack of knowledge and proficiency in English made the teachers feel uncomfortable and were unable to use commercial textbooks. Several of them thus download the ready-made lessons from the Internet to teach instead of using the activities in textbooks.

Recommendations

In English language classes, the CEFR could make positive outcomes. However, in the Thai context, it requires a great deal of effort from all stakeholders. In addition, the change should cover from the attitudes toward the English education philosophies and practices to the implementation to all educational levels. The teachers are recognized one most influential factor in implementing the CEFR can do. The results of this research are expected to lead to an appropriate teaching style for English communication in order to improve the English communication skills of first-grader students who are in the Northeastern of Thailand. This could also mean the solution for one most critical issue in the English education in all the rural regions in Thailand. Also on the policy level, this study would result in further planning and resource support at the national and international levels.

References

- Anderson, N. J. (2008). *Practical English Language Teaching: Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Archibald, J., Roy, S., Harmel, S., Jesney, K., Dewey, E., Moisiuk, S., et al. (2006). A review of the literature on second language learning. Retrieved from <http://education.alberta.ca/media/349348/litreview.pdf>
- Bringe, K. L. (2007). How Two First Grade Teachers Applied Specific Reading Theories When Planning Instruction, Teaching, and Assessing Their Students. Retrieved August 18, 2015, from <http://www.uwosh.edu/coehs/departments/teaching-learning/MSE/electronic-journals/documents/kendra-bringe.pdf>
- Brown, H. D.. 2000. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* [M]. 4th ed. NY: Longman.
- Brumer, Leah. (1998). Phonics and the Politics of Reading Instruction. In C. Weaver (Ed.), *Practicing what we know: Informed reading instruction* (pp, 7-25). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English
- Clymer, T. (1963). The utility of phonic generalizations in the primary grades. *The Reading Teacher*, 17, 252-258. Johnston, F.P. (2001). The utility of phonic generalizations: Let's take another look at Clymer's conclusions. *The Reading Teacher*, 55(2), 132-143.
- Conelly, V. Johnston, R. & Thompson, G. B. (2001). The effect of phonics instruction on the reading comprehension of beginning readers. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 17, 423-457.
- Edwards, K. (2008). Examining the impact of phonics intervention on secondary students' reading improvement. *Educational Action Research*, 16(4), 545-555.
- EF English Index. 2014. Retrieved September 20, 2015, from <http://media.ef.com/~media/centralefcom/epi/v4/downloads/full-reports/ef-epi-2014-english.pdf> on 20
- European Commission, 2012. Special Eurobarometer 386 Europeans and their languages, 2012, retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eurobarometer-survey_en.htm
- Playful Imagery. Retrieved January 18, 2015, from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Z6op3aC6r-k>
- Gunning D., Ellis, E.S. & Lenz, B. K. (2000). *Teaching adolescents with learning disabilities: Strategies and methods*. (2nd ed.). Denver: Love.

- Harris, A. J., & Sipay, E. R. (1990). *How to increase reading ability* (9th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Hafner, L. E & Jolly, H. B. (1982). *Teaching reading to children*. New York: Macmillan.
- Milne, B. (2012). *Interactive Phonics Song for Young children and Toddlers Using Hand Motions and*
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Nunam, D. (1991). *Communicative Tasks and the Language Curriculum*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25 (2), 279-295.
- Reutzel, D. R. & Cooter, Jr, R. B. (2005). *The essentials of teaching children to read: What every teacher needs to know*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Willis, D. and Willis, J. (2007). *Doing Tasked-based Teaching*. China: Oxford University Press
- Willis, J. (2012). *Task-Based Learning: What Kind of Adventure?* Retrieved September 20, 2015, from <https://cdn.auckland.ac.nz/assets/education/about/centres/lipis/docs/Task-Based%20Learning-What%20Kind%20of%20Adventure.html>

Title

Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence Model for English Students in
Indonesia University Context

Author

Edi

Edi.dompu.80@gmail.com

Abstract

This research explores students' level of Intercultural competence (IC), students practice of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), and students' strategies to develop a model of ICC. The researcher modified Michael Byram's ICC model (1997) based on dimensions that encompasses Attitude, knowledge, skills and awareness for developing students' ICC from diverse culture. Specific focus is on students' speaking skills development. The purpose of this research is to apply the ICC model based on Byram's model for students in Indonesia universities. The researcher used the quantitative and qualitative method that refer to large studies in which the researcher collect data from a number of sites and employs a variety of quantitative and qualitative data-collection and analysis students' level of IC, students' practice in ICC, and students' strategies to develop ICC model. Quantitative method is applied in order to find out the students level of IC and Qualitative method then are use to determine the students practice of ICC, students strategy to develop model of ICC to improve students ICC especially on the spoken part. The subject of this research were 4 (Four) students in four grade levels with two classes, all English students at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB. Five primary data collection techniques were used: Questionnaire, Interview, Observation, field note, and Documentation. The result of this research indicated these 4 (Four) students are different level of intercultural competence (IC). The students practice of ICC are knowledge, attitude, skills, and behavior (New Model). The researcher modified Byram's ICC (Michael Byram, 1997) within different objectives, farther, new model will improve students' intercultural communicative competence (ICC) especially 'Spoken'.

Key words: *Intercultural Competence, Students' Competence, Model of ICC.*

1. Introduction

Indonesia has complicated web of culture, it has 726 different language in this country (Crystal, 2000: 4, and Martin et al, 1999: 48) it means that's Indonesia has 23 Million native speakers and 140 million second language speakers who speak it along their local language and mother tongue with divers tribal customs and has large numbers of international communities (Malaya, Chinese, Japanese, Singapore, Etc) and all these different groups cultural within Indonesia. Intercultural Communicative competence (ICC) has been a vital issue since the world began. Intercultural competence can end disputes, save lives, radically transform the existence of million of people; it can lubricate the wheels of education, industry and business; it can help teams win, whether they be sports teams or teams of international aid workers. Intercultural competence has been defined, in general terms, as 'the ability to interact effectively with people from cultures that we recognize as being different from our own' (Guilherme, 2000: 297).

Many research results argued that the English proficiency of the Indonesian university students' is still low. "The Ministry revealed of Higher Education has conducted many efforts suchs as held workshop and educational training and also provide a lot of scholarship for students to pursue their study for the purpose of increasing their proficiency" (Kwelju, 2001: 35). Increasing the English Proficiency should be the main objective of every lecturers, teachers, educator, students or stakeholder because it is a primary need for Indonesian nowadays. Based on the researcher preliminary observation at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB showed, that the majority of the student end up with a fairly good command of the English grammar, sentence structure and list of vocabulary items (lexis) but with no competence for the language use. Lecturers emphasized the teaching competence in macro teaching-skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), and micro-skills (vocabulary and grammar) without emphasizing the developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC).

The importance of studying intercultural communicative competence (ICC) models is face-to-face interactions among people of deverse cultures 'in a more specific way, intercultural communication is a process of the exchange of thoughts and meaning between people of different cultures'. The interactions between people from different cultures have had

becoming increasingly extensive, for instance, some people may go to a foreign country to receive their education and some others may work in a multinational firm and accept a job assignment in other country. Intercultural communicative is needed in globalization era and in international trade. This kind of intercultural interaction has already become inevitable and necessary. In order not to be left behind, intercultural competence is insisted to be developed to pace the world economy. All the countries in the world have to contact, exchange information and cooperate with other countries more frequently than ever before. The other important efforts of colleges and universities in designing programs aiming at developing students leadership and ability to interact with people from other culture within a models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), and leading in global intercultural environment. The leaders must prepare in ‘mind-set hear-set and skills-set that can carry across cultural boundaries’ (Deadorff, 2009: 67).

My interest in this research comes from a variety of sources. Firstly from my travelling experiences to develop my intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in diverse settings, which lead me to the process (and it is process which still continuos) of examining cultural assumptions and a relativisation of cultural beliefs, values and world views. Secondly my interest comes from my experience in Philippines, as a speakers in AsianEFL, Malaysia/Malaya, Nanjing-China to be a speaker in an AsiaTEFL conference for improving my attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness related to improve intercultural communicative competence (ICC) with different culture, learning another culture, language, situations, environment etc. This experience opened up the models of intercultural communicative Competence (ICC) of language learning for my student. Students need to learnt culture from different countries the glove, just like my experiences of learning the other world view and culture. Two things became particularly apparent to them as my experience progressed. Firstly, despite of many years of spending to learn English my students are unable to use their English to communicate. Secondly, many of the students have low attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness, so that their culture and their language use are incompetent when they communicate with the native speakers (tourist/visitor) as Dompu and Bima is tourism destination location. Students suppose to use English in tourism situation in which they can find themselfe the way to communicate without knowing different culture, in fact, the students do not use English so that tourist or visitor feel uncomfortable. While the causes of this situation are diverse and complex, I felt that the different cultural contexts for implements language use were most likely a significant part of this.

The purpose of this study is to develop a model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) by (Byram, 1997-2008) for my English language teaching with the aim for developing the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model for students in university context. This research tries to grasp the vision of understanding intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model and raise the ICC based on dimensions such as attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB. It attempts to design a model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) dealing with different strategies or models accelerate intercultural communicative of the students.

2. Literature Review

a. Definition of intercultural communicative competence (ICC)

Intercultural communicative competence “as the speaker's ability to interact effectively with people from other cultures that he/she recognizes as being different from his/her own. It is understood as the ability to cope with one's own cultural background in interaction with others” (Bachman, 1990 and Savigno, 1983). To complement this (Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002), claim that intercultural competence is defined as the “ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and [the] ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality”.

Intercultural communicative competence is ability to negotiate cultural meanings and to execute appropriately effective communication behaviours that recognise the interactants' multiple identities in a specific environment (Chaen and Starosta, 1996: 358 as cited by Franklin, 2009: 52). Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is the process occurring when the producers and receivers of a message belong to different cultures....and can be used for multiple purposes, such as for foregrounding teachers' preconceived notions of learner groups and for evaluating the sociocultural appropriateness of their proposed language teaching methodology for particular target learner (Dogancay-aktuna, 2005: 100). Intercultural competence that is the ability to behave effectively and appropriately in interacting across cultures (Nakayama, 2010: 47). Improving Intercultural competence means using your knowledge, motivation, and skills to deal appropriately and effectively with cultural differences (Koester, 2010: 72). Intercultural competence is “the ability to interact

effectively with people from cultures that we recognise as being different from our own” (Guilherme, 2000: 297). (Byram, 1997a: 3).

b. Level of intercultural competence (IC)

Level of intercultural competence requires a combination of holistics and analytic thinking. Four levels of intercultural competence: (1) unconscious incompetence, (2) conscious incompetence, (3) conscious competence, and (4) unconscious competence.

1) Unconscious Incompetence

Unconscious incompetence is the “be yourself” approach, in which we are not conscious of differences and do not need to act in any particular way. Sometimes this works. However, being ourselves works best in interactions with individuals who are very similar to us. In intercultural contexts, being ourselves often means that we’re not very effective and don’t realize our ineptness (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

2) Conscious Incompetence

At the level of conscious incompetence, people realize that things may not be going very well in the interaction, but they are not sure why. Most of us have experienced intercultural interactions in which we felt that something wasn’t quite right but couldn’t quite figure out what it was. This describes the feeling of conscious incompetence (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

3) Conscious Competence

As instructors of intercultural communication, we teach at a conscious, intentional level. Our instruction focuses on analytic thinking and learning. This describes the level of conscious competence. Reaching this level is a necessary part of the process of becoming a competent communicator. Howell would say that reaching this level is necessary but not sufficient (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

4) Unconscious Competence

Unconscious competence is the level at which communication goes smoothly but is not a conscious process. You’ve probably heard of marathon runners “hitting the wall,” or reaching the limits of their endurance. Usually, inexplicably, they continue running past this point. Communication at the

unconscious competent level is like this. This level of competence is not something we can acquire by consciously trying to. It occurs when the analytic and holistic parts are functioning together. When we concentrate too hard or get too analytic, things don't always go easier (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

c. Models of intercultural communicative competence (ICC)

1) Michael Byram (1997-2008) Model

The dimensions of ICC in Byram's model include (1) Attitude, (2) Knowledge, (3), Skills, and (4) Awareness.

	Skills Interpret and relate	
Knowledge Of self and other; of interaction; individual and societal	Education Political education Critical cultural awareness	Attitude Relativising self Valuing other
	Skills Discover and/or interact	

Figure 1: Dimensions of ICC (Byram, 1997-2008)

Byram specifies the components of ICC by providing a detailed description of each: attitudes concern the ones towards people perceived as different, in other words attitudes that are frequently labeled as prejudices or stereotypes. The attitudes required for successful IC need to include curiosity, openness, and readiness to suspend disbeliefs and judgments about other cultures and about one's own.

Byram distinguishes two types of knowledge: (1) knowledge of social groups and their practices in one's own or in one's interlocutor's country, and (2) knowledge of the process of societal and individual interaction. These kinds of knowledge are partly acquired through socialization (1) and institutionalized learning (both 1 and 2).

The third set of components are skills: the ability to apply knowledge and tailor it to different situations. The two distinct categories established are (1) skills of interpreting and relating, and (2) skills of discovery and interaction. The skills of interpreting and relating are used when individuals, drawing on their previous knowledge, are required to analyze, interpret and relate to a manifesto of a different culture; whereas the skills of discovery and interaction denote the ability to recognize significant cultural phenomena, elicit their meanings and find out how they interact with other phenomena, thus, the ability to acquire new knowledge. In other words, the required skills include the ability of making use of existing knowledge together with the ability to recognize and acquire new knowledge in the course of the interaction. There is a fourth component: critical cultural awareness that enables individuals to critically evaluate perspectives, practices and products of their own, and their interlocutors' cultures (Byram, 1997: 55).

The fifth component (*Savoir s'engager*) was later added by (Byram, 1997) in order to include a political dimension to the model. Who uses the different components of this model for her study offers her interpretations for *savoirs*, *savoir-apprendre*, *savoir-faire* and *savoir-être* (Sercu, 2000). Engages with three of these competences (*savoir*, *savoir-faire* and *savoir-apprendre*) (Fenner, 2006). Refer to and offer their interpretations of three of these dimensions (knowledge/*savoirs*, know-how/*savoir-faire*, being/*savoir-être*) which can be assessed (Lazar, et.al, 2007). Focuses on critical cultural awareness (Guilherme, 2002).

<p><u>Skills</u></p> <p><i>Savoir Comprehendre</i></p>
<p>Byram, 1997</p> <p>interpret and relate</p> <p>ability to interpret a document or event</p> <p>from another culture, to explain it and relate it</p> <p>to documents from one's own</p>

Knowledge Savoirs	Education Savoir s'engager	Attitudes Savoir etre
<p><u>(Byram, 1997)</u> Of self; of other; of interaction: of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction</p> <p><u>(Sercu, 2000)</u> the acquisition of a body of knowledge about a particular target culture or a group of cultures</p> <p><u>(Fenner, 2006)</u> declarative knowledge</p> <p><u>(Lazar et al., 2007)</u> intercultural awareness: the understanding of the relation between the</p>	<p><u>(Byram, 1997)</u> political educationcritical cultural awareness</p> <p>ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries</p> <p><u>(Guilherme, 2002)</u> a reflective, exploratory, dialogical and active stance towards cultural knowledge and life that allows for dissonance and conflict as well as for consensus, concurrence, and transformation</p>	<p><u>(Byram, 1997)</u> relativising self Valuing other curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own</p> <p><u>(Sercu, 2000)</u> a general disposition of respect and tolerance towards cultural differences, essential for entering into and maintaining intercultural contacts</p> <p><u>(Fenner, 2006)</u> existentiall knowledge directly concerned with cultural competence</p> <p><u>(Lazar et al., 2007)</u> cultural awareness, the understanding of other cultures which</p>

world of origin and the world of target communities		should lead to their acceptance and valorization and ultimately the integration of other values than those of one's culture
Skills		
Savoir apprehender/savoir faire		
<u>(Byram, 1997)</u> discover and interact ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction		
savoir-apprehenre	Savoir-faire	
<u>(Byram and Zarate, 1997b)</u> capacity to develop and operate an approach to interpreting cultural phenomena which reveals unknown meanings, beliefs, and practices from a language and culture with which the learner is not familiar Sercu, 2000 the ability to learn cultures <u>(Fenner, 2006)</u> ability to learn	<u>(Byram and Zarate, 1997b)</u> a combination of savoirs, savoir- être and savoir-apprendre in situations of bi-or multilingual contact <u>(Sercu, 2000)</u> the ability to apply these skills to hitherto unknown intercultural situations or cultural phenomena <u>(Fenner, 2006)</u> skills and know-how <u>(Lazar et al., 2007)</u> ability to function linguistically in the target language by using	

	different language strategies in order to communicate with those of other cultures, and the capacity to overcome stereotyped relationships
--	--

Figure 2: The five Savoirs.

It is evident that as IC is a complex concept, it consists of a number of components. The model is not necessarily exhaustive, but it has been repeatedly reproduced and is considered the most agreed-upon definition. It reveals that ICC covers not only the cognitive but also the behavioral and affective domains (Byram, 1997).

2) Precht and Davidson Lund (2007: 68) Model

This model of intercultural competence developed by the INCA Project.

	(A) Motivation	(B) Skill/ Knowledge	(C) Behavior
1. Tolerance for ambiguity (TA)	Readiness to embrace and work with ambiguity	Ability to handle stress consequent on ambiguity	Managing ambiguous situations
2. Behavioral flexibility (BF)	Readiness to apply and augment the full range of one's existing repertoire of behavior	Having a broad repertoire and the knowledge of one's repertoire	Adapting one's behavior to the specific situation.
1. Communicative awareness (KD)	Willingness to modify existing communicative convention	Ability to identify different communicative conventions. Levels of foreign language competencies and their impact on	Negotiating appropriate communicative conventions for intercultural communication and coping with different

		intercultural communication	foreign language skills
2. Knowledge discovery (KD)	Curiosity about other cultures in themselves and in order to be able to interact better with people.	Skills of ethnographic discovery of situation-relevant cultural knowledge (including technical technical knowledge) before, during and after intercultural encounters.	Seeking information to discover culture-related knowledge.
3. Respect for otherness (RO)	Willingness to respect the diversity and coherence of behavior, value and belief systems.	Critical knowledge of such systems (including one's own when making judgments).	Treating equally different behavior, value and convention systems experienced in intercultural encounters.
4. Empathy (E)	Willingness to take the other's perspectives.	Skills of role-taking de-taking de-centering; awareness of different perspective	Making explicit and relating culture-specific perspectives to each other.

Figure 3: Model IC developed by the INCA (Prechtl and Davidson (2007: 68).

However, one key difference between Byram's model and others presented in this model is located firmly in the context of the teaching and learning of foreign languages in schools. The detailed objectives that he identifies (and which space limitations prevent us from presenting here) represent broad educational goals, many of which require long-term exposure for their development. In this sense, some of the details of his model are less applicable to non-school contexts, where more immediate results are desired. Nevertheless, Byram's model influenced the thinking of the INCA Project team (of which he was a member). This project involved academic experts (mostly linguists) and engineering employers from Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany and the United Kingdom, and its aim was practical: 'to develop a valid framework of intercultural competence and robust instruments for assessing intercultural competence to meet the needs of employers' (Precht and Davidson as cited by Franklin, 2009: 68).

3) Ruben's (1976) Model

Behavioral approach to intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Having a behavioral basis, this model describes competence based on monitoring actions and behaviors. This monitoring process evaluates communicative competence in terms of how a person's knowledge, attitude, or intention towards the host culture is reflected in his or her behavior in different situations. (Ruben, 1976) listed seven dimensions of ICC:

- *Display of respect*: simply showing respect to others.
- *Interaction posture*: treating others in a nonjudgmental way.
- *Orientation to knowledge*: realizing that people view the world from different perspectives.
- *Empathy*: putting oneself in someone else's shoes.
- *Self-oriented role behavior*: asking for information and playing a role in groups.
- *Interaction management*: interacting and taking turns in discussions.
- *Tolerance for ambiguity*: handling new situations in relative comfort.

This behavioral model had a great influence on ICC assessment tools as it opened the door to performance assessments that monitor actions, rather than self-reporting (Ruben, 1976 as cited by Shoman and Mahmud M, 2011: 34).

4) Risager (2007) Model

Risager (2007) constructed her model on the basis of Byram's. She built upon his concept of multiple competences and further defined both broad and narrow competences. She described ICC in terms of ten different competences and skills:

- *Linguistic (languastructural) competence*
- *Linguacultural competences and resources: semantics and pragmatics*
- *Linguacultural competences and resources: poetics*
- *Linguacultural competences and resources: linguistic identity*
- *Translation and interpretation*
- *Interpreting texts (discourses)*
- *Use of ethnographic methods*
- *Transnational cooperation*
- *Knowledge of language as critical language awareness, also as a world citizen*
- *Knowledge of culture and society and critical cultural awareness, also as a world citizen* (Risager, 2007: 227 as cited by Shoman and Mahmud M, 2011: 36).

5) Bennet's (1986) Model

Bennett's developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. DMIS, on the other hand, is the outgrowth of research in the field of IC in North America. Bennet's model was not exclusively designed for academic purposes; it targeted individuals in different corporate. Utilizing the concepts of psychology and constructivism, this model was based on observing phases that individuals undergo during the process of achieving considerable competence as intercultural communicators. Bennet's view is that such observations can help predict future stages the communicator will face, and hence work through education on developing his or her skills to be a better intercultural communicator.

The DMIS is divided into two stages. The first is ethnocentric, whereby the learner's own culture is central in constructing his or her view of the world, and it comprises:

- *Denial of cultural difference*

Denial: Here, cultural differences in other people are not identified and if they are, cultural others are perceived as less human' than the self.

- *Defense against cultural difference*

Defense: One's own culture is experienced as the only true culture. Others are perceived in stereotypical images as less real than the self.

- *Minimization of cultural difference*

Minimization: Individuals at this third and final stage of ethnocentrism minimize cultural differences as they believe that universal values apply to all human beings and still lack cultural self-awareness.

The second stage is ethno relative, where one's own culture is viewed in context of other cultures, and it comprises:

- *Acceptance of cultural difference*

Acceptance: The first stage of ethno relativism acknowledges and respects behavioral and value differences since people become aware of their own cultural contexts but do not necessarily accept all cultural differences.

- *Adaptation to cultural difference*

Adaptation: Here individuals cultural frames of reference' by integrating other cultural beliefs and behaviors to their own. They experience intercultural empathy and adapt their behavior to the target culture.

- *Integration of cultural difference*

Integration: Other cultural frames of reference have been integrated into one's identity; people are no longer at the center of any' culture which can be a profoundly alienating experience'. FLE can therefore contribute to learners' intercultural sensitively and help them move through the above stages.

This model has been the foundation of several curricula aiming at developing intercultural education and assessment tools. Though well-defined, it is not relevant for the scope of my study as it focuses on sensitivity rather than competence, while other models incorporate both (Bennett's, 1986 as cited by Shoman and Mahmud M, 2011: 36)

6) Byram, Kuhlmann, Muller Jacquier, and Budin-Intercultural Competence assessment (INCA).

INCA developed a framework for assessing intercultural communicative competence (ICC) based on actual observations of the elements of interaction between groups of people who possess different cultural backgrounds. Constructed on the basis of solid theoretical work by Byram and other European researchers (Kühlmann, Müller-Jacquier and Budin), INCA designed a suite of assessment tools (INCA online, portfolios) which does not exclusively target language learning but assesses ICC in any discipline on the basis of both language and subject knowledge competence. INCA adopts an operational definition of IC: “Intercultural competence enables you to interact both effectively and in a way that is acceptable to others when you are working in a group whose members have different cultural backgrounds”.

Although INCA does not provide a framework for developing ICC, its assessment tools can be used as guidelines towards assessing and there on developing its different dimensions. The INCA tool comprises assessment scenarios, questionnaires, role-plays and internet-based test materials. Assessment is the outcome of two sets of elements, one for the assessor and one for the assessed. Each element comprises three skill levels: basic, intermediate, and full.

The INCA assessor’s manual lists six dimensions of IC:

- *Tolerance for ambiguity*: the ability to accept lack of clarity and ambiguity, and deal with it constructively.
- *Behavioral flexibility*: the ability to adapt one’s own behavior to different requirements and situations.
- *Communicative awareness*: the ability to establish relationships between linguistic expressions and cultural contents, to identify, and consciously work

with, various communicative conventions of foreign partners, and to modify correspondingly one's own linguistic forms of expression.

- *Knowledge discovery*: the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to act using that knowledge, those attitudes and those skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.
- *Respect for otherness*: curiosity and openness, the readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own.
- *Empathy*: the ability to intuitively understand what other people think and how they feel in concrete situations.

INCA manual for the assessed simplifies the six dimensions of IC into three:

- *Openness*: to be open to the other and to situations in which something is done differently. (respect for others + tolerance of ambiguity)
- *Knowledge*: not only wanting to know the 'hard facts' about a situation or about a certain culture, but you also want to know, or you know something about, the feelings of the other person. You also know how your interlocutor feels. (knowledge discovery + empathy)
- *Adaptability*: to be able to adapt your behavior and your style of communication. (behavioral flexibility + communicative awareness) (Byram, Kuhlmann, Muller Jacquier, and Budin as cited by Shoman and mahmod M, 2011: 39-40).

7) Fantini (2006) - Exploring and assessing intercultural competence.

Considering the strong points of the project discussed above and all other seminal works in the field of ICC, Alvino Fantini initiated an extended project to explore and assess intercultural outcomes in program participants worldwide. Conducted by the Federation of the Experiment in International Living (FEIL), it received funding support from the Center for Social Development at Washington University in St. Louis. Its initial phase was reported on by (Fantini, 2006). The main purpose of the project was to develop a framework for ICC, develop an assessment tool, and examine ICC outcomes on participants in civic service programs.

The fact that the project incorporated a review of 138 articles and studies gives it a strong theoretical framework. The project listed the components of ICC as follows:

- *A variety of traits and characteristics*: flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, and suspending judgment, among others;
- three areas or domains:
 - The ability to establish and maintain relationships;
 - The ability to communicate with minimal loss or distortion; and
 - The ability to collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need.
- four dimensions:
 - knowledge;
 - (positive) attitudes/affect;
 - skills; and
 - awareness.
- Proficiency in the host language
- Varying levels of attainment throughout a longitudinal and developmental process:

Levels of attainment of intercultural communicative competence (ICC).

Level	Description	Stay in host Culture
Level I	Educational Traveler	participants in short-term exchange programs (1-2 Month)
Level II	Sojourner	participants engaged in extended cultural immersion, e.g., internships of longer duration, including service programs (3-9 months)
Level III	Professional	Individuals working in intercultural or multicultural contexts; e.g., staff employed

		in international institutions or organizations.
Level IV	Intercultural/ Multicultural Specialist	Trainers and educators engaged in training, educating, consulting, or advising multinational students.

Figure 4: level of attainment of ICC

As listed above, Fantini offers a complete grid of all aspects of ICC and that is by far the most thorough analysis of the concept of ICC of all reviewed models. The four dimensions: knowledge, attitudes, skills, and awareness in addition to proficiency in the host language are used in this study as guidelines for designing a proposed framework associating ICC with Arabic varieties as a main component of proficiency in Arabic.

Besides providing a solid hierarchy of ICC, the project has a major outcome by providing a well-established, reliable assessment tool that could be universally employed in research as well as in designing language curriculum and classroom evaluations (Fantini, 2006 as cited by Shoman and mahmod M, 2011: 41-42).

3. Method

The researcher applies of both quantitative and qualitative methods, researcher modified Michael Byram (1997) related to dimension of ICC model, and step of ICC are modified from Borg and Gall, 1983. Five primary data collection techniques were used: Questionnaire, Interview, Observation, field note, and Documentation.

Participant of this research are four students at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB. The students generally come from various tribes in the eastern of Indonesia with different ethnics, gender, social, cultures, and language.

4. Findings

a. Student A

Level of intercultural competence (IC) from student at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB is conscious incompetence where in quantitative research is **Pre Conscious Incompetence**, N=96, Mean= 3.6643, Std Deviation= 88997, Minimum= 2.08, Maximum=4.69. **Post Conscious Incompetence**, N=96, Mean= 4.708, Std. Deviation= 81472, Minimum= 4.41, Maximum= 6.00. where At the level of conscious incompetence, people realize that things may not be going very well in the interaction, but they are not sure why. Most of us have experienced intercultural interactions in which we felt that something wasn't quite right but couldn't quite figure out what it was. This describes the feeling of conscious incompetence (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

Student practice of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB that is knowledge, attitude, skills, and behavior. Students strategies to improve intercultural communicative competence (ICC) through chat rooms, text chat, e-mail, watching film, and instants message.

b. Student B

Level of intercultural competence (IC) from student at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB is unconscious competence where in quantitative research is **Pre Unconscious Competence**, N=96, Mean= 3.6788, Std. Deviation= .64538, Minimum= 2.27, Maximums= 4.72.). **Post Unconscious Competence**, N=96, Mean= 4.0000, Std. Deviation= .45677, Minimum= 3.22, Maximum= 4.22.). as the level of intercultural competence (IC), it means, **Unconscious competence** is the level at which communication goes smoothly but is not a conscious process. You've probably heard of marathon runners "hitting the wall," or reaching the limits of their endurance. Usually, inexplicably, they continue running past this point. Communication at the unconscious competent level is like this. This level of competence is not something we can acquire by consciously trying to. It occurs when the analytic and holistic parts are functioning together. When we concentrate too hard or get too analytic, things don't always go easier.

Other student practice of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB encompasses knowledge, attitude, skills, and behavior. Students strategies to improve intercultural communicative competence (ICC) through audio conference, tele-tandem, tele-collaborative, video conference-Skype, discussion forum between people from different culture, and training of trainer.

c. Student C

Level of intercultural competence (IC) from student at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB is conscious competence where in quantitative research is **Pre Conscious Competence**, N=96, Mean= 3.4215, Std. Deviation= .39474, Minimum= 2.45, Maximum=3.82. **Post Conscious Competence**, N=96, Mean= 3.9917, Std. Deviation= .45899, Minimum= 3.36, Maximum= 4.82. conscious competence as instructors of intercultural communication, we teach at a conscious, intentional level. Our instruction focuses on analytic thinking and learning. This describes the level of **conscious competence**. Reaching this level is a necessary part of the process of becoming a competent communicator. Howell would say that reaching this level is necessary but not sufficient (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

Student practice of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB is knowledge, attitude, and skills. Student strategies for improve intercultural communicative competence (ICC) through video conference-Skype, voice chat, audio conference, chat rooms, asking question-expression opinion, tele-collaborative, to be a speaker in the conference, and short study abroad.

d. Student D

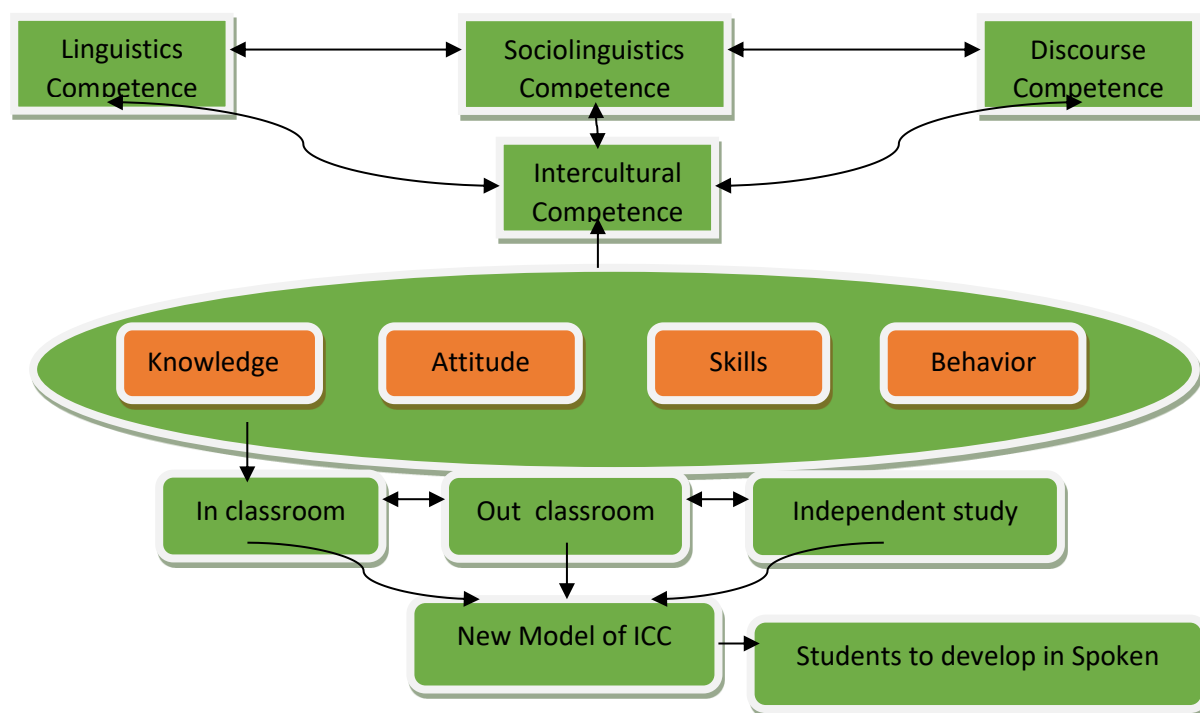
Level of intercultural competence (IC) from student at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompu-NTB is conscious incompetence where in quantitative research is **Pre Conscious Incompetence**, N=96, Mean= 3.6643, Std Deviation= .88997, Minimum= 2.08, Maximum=4.69. **Post Conscious Incompetence**, N=96, Mean= 4.708, Std. Deviation= .81472, Minimum= 4.41, Maximum= 6.00. where At the level of conscious incompetence, people realize that things may not be going very well in the interaction, but they are not sure why. Most of us have experienced intercultural

interactions in which we felt that something wasn't quite right but couldn't quite figure out what it was. This describes the feeling of conscious incompetence (Nakayama, 2010: 473).

Student practice of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompus-NTB consist of knowledge, attitude, skills, and behavior. Student strategies to improve intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is text chat, chat rooms, tele-tandem, and voice chat.

5. Result

The based on findings above, the researcher find out related to new model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) as below:



Result of this model will be modified versions of dimension of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) by Michael Byram. The modified versions of dimension of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) are as follows:

- a. **Knowledge (Savoir):** of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction. Includes:

- Knowledge about aspects of foreign/own culture, e.g. daily life/daily activities, institutions, verbal and non-verbal behaviour and history
 - Learners ability to discover new information about historical and contemporary issues of foreign/own culture.
 - The means of achieving contact with interlocutors from another country (at a distance or in proximity), of travel to and from and the institutions that facilitate contact or help resolve problems;
 - The processes and institutions of socialisation in one's own and one's interlocutor's country;
 - Institutions, and perceptions of them, which impinge on daily life within one's own and one's interlocutor's country and which conduct and influence relationships between them.
 - The processes of social interaction in one's interlocutor's country;
- b. Attitude (*Savoir Etre*):** Curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own. This dimension includes English students abilities to
- Interest in discovering other perspectives on interpretation of familiar and unfamiliar phenomena both in one's own and in other cultures and cultural practices;
 - Readiness to experience the different stages of adaptation to and interaction with another culture during a period of residence;
 - Readiness to engage with the conventions and rites of verbal and non-verbal communication and interaction;
- c. Skills of Interpreting and relating (*Savoir Comprendre*):** Ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own. Includes ability to
- Identify ethnocentric perspectives in a document or event and explain their origins;
 - Identify areas of misunderstanding and dysfunction in an interaction and explain them in terms of each of the cultural systems present;
- d. Skills of intercultural interaction (*Savoir faire*):** Ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction. Includes ability to

- Elicit from an interlocutor the concepts and values of documents or events and to develop an explanatory system susceptible of application to other phenomena;
 - Identify similar and dissimilar processes of interaction, verbal and non-verbal, and negotiate an appropriate use of them in specific circumstances;
 - Use in real-time an appropriate combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes to interact with interlocutors from a different country and culture, taking into consideration the degree of one's existing familiarity with the country and culture and the extent of difference between one's own and the other;
 - Identify and make use of public and private institutions that facilitate contact with other countries and cultures;
 - Use in real-time knowledge, skills and attitudes for mediation between interlocutors of one's own and a foreign culture.
- e. Behavior:** Ability to do actions and how to interact with people from different culture through nonverbal codes. Includes ability to
- Ability to asking question
 - Expressing preference
 - Summarizing information
 - Make personal remark

6. Conclusion

The findings of this research indicate that students level intercultural competence is conscious incompetence, and their strategies for developing ICC are Chat Rooms, Text Chat, E-mail, Watching Film, Instant Message, Audio Conference, Tele-Tandem, Tele-Collaborative, Video Conference-Skype, Discussion Forum between people from different culture, TOT, Voice Chat, Asking question, expression Opinion, To be a Speaker in the conference, and Short study abroad.

Result from this research show that new model of ICC related to dimension of ICC at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompus-NTB encompasses knowledge, attitude, skill, and Behavior. Researcher has modified related to the objective of ICC itself.

References

- Bachman, L.F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford etc.: OUP.
- Bennett, M. (1993). *Towards ethnorelativism: A development model of intercultural sensitivity*. In M. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (pp. 21-71). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.
- Bennet, J. M. 1986 *Modes of cross-cultural training: Conceptualizing cross-cultural training as education*. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15, 117–34.
- Borg. W.R. dan Gall, M.D. 1983. *Educational Research: An Introduction*. New York: Longman.
- Byram, M. (2008a). *From Foreign Language Education to Education for Intercultural Citizenship*. (M. B. and alison Phipps, Ed.). Usa-Canada: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Byram, M. (2008b, June 19-20, 2008). *The 'Intercultural Speaker'-rhetorical device or social identity? Paper presented at the Cutting Edges: Identity in the classroom* Canterbury Christchurch University.
- Byram, M., Gribkova, B. & Starkey, H. (2002). *Developper La Dimension Interculturelle de l'enseignement des langues*. Division des politiques linguistiques, Conseil de l'Europe, Strasbourg. Langues vivantes.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. and Zarate, G. (1997b). *Defining and Assessing Intercultural Competence: some principles and proposals for the European Context*. *Language Teaching* 29: 239-243
- Christal, David. 2000. *Language Death*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press
- Deardorff, D. K. (2009). *Theory Reflections: Intercultural Competence Framework/Model*. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15, 261-266 .Retrieved from http://www.nafsa.org/_/file/_/theory_connections_intercultural_competence.pdf.
- Dogancay-aktuna, S. (2005). *Intercultural communication in English language teacher education*, 59(April), 15–107. <http://doi.org/15.1093/eltj/cci023>.
- Fantini, A. (2006). *Exploring and assessing intercultural competence*. Final report. Brattleboro, VT: EIL. Retrieved 13th September 2010 from <http://www.experiment.org/documents/FinalGSIResearchReport12.15.pdf>
- Franklin, H. S.-O. and P. (2009). *Intercultural Interaction*. (C. N. C. and D. R. Hall, Ed.). New: Palgrave Macmillan in the US is a division of St Martin's Press LLc.

- Fenner, A. and Newby, D. (eds.) (2006) *Coherence of principles, cohesion of competences: exploring theories and designing materials for teacher education*. Strasbourg-Graz: Council of Europe-European Centre for Modern Languages
- Guilherme, M. (2000). *Intercultural competence*. In M. Byram (ed.) *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 297–300). London: Routledge.
- Koester, M. w. L. J. (2010). *Intercultural COMPETENCE. Interpersonal Communication Across Cultures*. (K. Bowers, Ed.) (Sixth Edit). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Kwelju, S. 2001. *Vocabulary and Lexicogramatical Units : Graduate Students' main problem in Reading their textbooks. linguistic Indonesia*. *Jurnal Ilmiah Masyarakat linguistics Indonesia* (Scientific Journal of Indonesia Linguistic Society), 1,35-56.
- Lázár, I., Huber-Kriegler, M., Lussier, D., Matei, G. S., Peck, C. (eds.) (2007) *Developing and assessing intercultural communicative competence. A guide for language teachers and teacher educators*. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages. Council of Europe.
- Martin, J. N., & Nakayama, T. K. (1999). *Thinking dialectically about culture and communication*. *Communication Theory*, 9(1), 1–25.
- Nakayama, J. N. M. and T. K. (2010). *Intercultural Communication in Contexts* (Fifth Edit). New York: McGraw-Hill, a business unit of the McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10015.
- Risager, K. (2004). *Cultural awareness*. In M. Byram (Ed.), *Routledge Encyclopedia of language teaching and learning* (pp. 159-162). London: Routledge.
- Sercu, L. (2000). *Acquiring Intercultural Communicative Competence from Textbooks*. The Case of Flemish Adolescent Pupils Learning German. *Studia Paedagogica* 28. Leuven: Leuven University Press.
- Shoman and Mahmud M. 2011. *Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence and Proficiency of Advanced Arabic Learners: A Proposed Framework*. The American University in Cairo.

Title

The Influence of Social Factors on Children's Achievement
of Acquiring Second Language

Author

Elitaria Bestri Agustina Siregar

Faculty of Cultural Sciences, University of Sumatera Utara

Bio-Profile:

Elitaria Bestri Agustina Siregar is a graduate student at University of Sumatera Utara. Her research interest includes psycholinguistics and Second Language Acquisition. She can be reached at lazzaromaha26@gmail.com.

Abstract

Social factors are believed to play a crucial role in language learning and have a major impact on second/foreign language proficiency (Ellis, 2003). The study was conducted to investigate children's English learning achievement and the impacts of social factors of parents' economic level, parents' education level, learning environment, and parents' occupation on the children's second language acquisition. Participants were 36 students and their parents from a kindergarten in Medan, North Sumatera. An eighteen item questionnaire designated to elicit the required information on the social factors was used for data collection. The face and content validity of the instrument was ensured. Reliability coefficient of 0.84 was obtained. All available data were processed by SPSS 17.0 for descriptive, correlation, ANOVA, and predictive analyses. Finding revealed that social factors have significant impact on children's English learning. Parents' economic level is the most dominant factor influencing the children's achievement, followed by environment. It was also revealed that parents' education level and children's' achievement of English has no strong relationship. In addition, parents' occupation does not significantly impact on the children's achievement of second language acquisition.

Keywords: *children's achievement, second language acquisition, social factors.*

Introduction

The nation-wide implementation of English teaching for school students was one of the efforts and changes made. In Indonesia, English is a foreign language. To improve the English of Indonesian students, English has already been officially included in the curriculum, starting from Elementary School, Junior High School, Senior High School and University Level. Young children are supported to learn English from their early ages. Teachers are also supported to help students develop their skills. Teachers are trained and educated to improve their skills, learning media are also prepared well to help the students improve their English. But the fact shows that the achievement of the students in learning English is vary.

Social factors are believed to play a crucial role in language learning and have a major impact on second/foreign language proficiency (Ellis, 2003). The sociolinguistic backgrounds of a student provides him an opportunity of being better or less equipped in oral communications.

Researchers have examined individual differences in attempting to answer the question "Why some learners are more successful than others in learning a second language within the same social context?". Variables frequently discussed are motivation, age, and learning strategies.

This research investigates the social factors students/learners affecting SLA, to investigate, from a social aspect to see how parents' economic level, parents' education level, environment and parents' occupation influence students' achievement in English learning.

Review of Literature

Language Acquisition Theory

In order to fully appreciate the influence of sociolinguistics on second language learning and second language use, it is important to establish common ground in the field of second language acquisition as a point of departure (Geeselin and Long, 2014). Two different senses of SLA need to be distinguished. The term is frequently used to refer to the learning of another language (second, third, foreign) after acquisition one's mother tongue is complete. that is, labels the object of enquiry. The term is also used to refer to the study of how people learn

a second language (Ellis, 2005). In this research, SLA will be labelled as the object of inquiry and the field of study.

Behaviorism

The behaviorist believe that the first language acquisition process is controlled from outside the child, that is the stimulus given by the environment. According to this theory the most important thing is the feedback or input in the form of stimulus and output or output in the form of response.

Another factor which is also considered important by behaviorists is reinforcement. Reinforcement is something that can strengthen the response onset, when reinforcement added then the response is getting stronger. So also when the reinforcement reduced, the response will still remain strengthened.

The Identity Approach

The Identity Approach to second language acquisition adopts a distinct perspective on the relationship between the learner and the external, social environment. Under this approach learners are connected to the learning context via social identity(ies). Norton (in Geeslin and Long, 2014), defines identity as : how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future. Two principles central to this approach are: (1) the social identity of language learners is complex and dynamic, and (2) socially structured relations of power affect learners' opportunities to interact with speakers of the target language community.

Method

A survey research design was adopted. The participants of this research were 36 students of a kindergarten and their parents in Medan, namely TK Gethsemane. Questionnaires were used for data collection. It deals with the environment background of the students. There were seven (7) items designated to elicit the required information. The face and content validity of the instrument was ensured. Split- half method was used and reliability coefficient of 0.88 was obtained. All available data were processed by SPSS 17.0 for descriptive, correlation, ANOVA, and predictive analyses.

Results

F-Test

F-Test was conducted to test whether the variables X (social factors) has a simultaneously influence on variable Y.

Table 1. ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	4713.333	4	1178.333	68.06	.000 ^a
Residual	536.667	31	17.312	5	
Total	5250.000	35			

The F-table is 2.67 in significant level of 5%. The F-count is 68.06 with significant 00.00. F count > F table and significant level of F-count (0.000) is greater than significant level of F-table (0.05). The conclusion that can be obtained that the free variables in this study, consisting of variable X1, X2, X3, X4 have a positive and significant effect. Social factors have a positive and significant influence, so they can be used to predict the children's achievement of SLA.

R-Square

Table 2. Model Summary

Model		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Dimension 0	1	.948 ^a	.898	.885	4.160

Table 2 above shows that the R-square is 0.898. It has a very strong relationship. R-square of 0.898 means that 89.8% of dependent variable (children's achievement of SLA) can be explained by the independent variables (social factors) discussed in this research.

T-Test

Table 3. Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-6.487	5.089		.828	.212
x1	1.244	.314	.376	3.965	.000
x2	.932	.566	.134	1.648	.109
x3	1.413	.376	.448	3.755	.001
x4	1.246	.625	.137	1.992	.055

a. Dependent Variable: y

T-test shows that among the five independent variables, there are two variables that have positive and significant correlation to the dependent variable, namely parents' economic level (X1), environment (X3), and children's length of study time. Parents' occupation also has a relationship, but the effect is not so significant. And the most dominant factor that influences the achievement of children's achievement of acquiring second language is parents' economic level.

Discussion

Social factors and children's achievement of SLA are in high correlation. Parents' economic level is the most dominant factor influencing the achievement of children/students. It is found that the higher the parents' economic level is; the higher is the student's score is. Environment is the second most dominant factor influencing. Children, who live in good environment, got higher scores. Meanwhile, parents' education level and parents' occupation have no strong influence on children's achievement of SLA.

Conclusion

From the findings, it can be concluded that the achievement of learning English a second language was not due to parents' education level, parents' occupation, but to other

variables which are parents, economic level and environment. Therefore parents should give a big attention to their economic issue.. The fulfillment of students' needs is a motivation for them in learning activities. Good parents' economic level helps them optimize their talents and abilities.

Parents should try to raise their children in good environment. Because environment influences the children's achievement, beside the parents' economic level.

References

- Berg, Laura. E. (2007). *Development Through The Lifespan*. Boston: Pearson.
- Duff, P., & Talmy, S. (2011). Second language socialization: Beyond language acquisition in SLA. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 95–116). London: Routledge.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study Of Second Language Acquisition*. OXFORD, NewYork: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Second Language Acquisition*. OXFORD, NewYork: Oxford University Press
- Ellis, R. (2005). *Analysing Learner Language*. OXFORD, NewYork: Oxford University Press.
- Ferguson A. Charles. (1996). *Sociolinguistics Perspectives*. Tom Huebner (Ed). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Geeslin K.L & Yim Long. (2014). *Sociolinguistics & Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Rouledge.
- Newport, L. Ellisa & Jacqueline S. Johnson. (1989). *Critical Period Effects in Second Language Learning: The Influence of Maturational State on The Acquisition of English As A Second Language*. University of Illinois.

Title

Helping the EFL Learners in Reading Class: Learning by Interacting with Social Media-Related Topics through Pre-Question Way

Author

Khadijah Maming

Muhammadiyah University of Parepare

khadijahmaming@gmail.com

Bio-Profile:

Full name is **KhadijahMaming**. She is a lecturer of English Education Study Program, Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. Now, she is registered as a doctoral student of Linguistics Study at Hasanuddin University of Makassar. Being a presenter in some international conferences, such as; *UTIC, TEFLIN, ICOLE, LSCAC. TESOL*, and *Annual Seminar of ELS*. Besides, she has some writings and articles published in journals and proceedings.

Abstract

In helping the EFL learners comprehend the content of reading texts, they should be facilitated with good methodology and interesting material. These can help them to be active in reading activity process. This study is focused on helping the EFL learners in reading class, in this case the learning process by interacting with social media-related topic through pre-question way. Pre-questioning is useful to build the learners' interest and motivation, also activate their schemata. The objective of this study is to find out whether or not there is any significant difference between the reading comprehensions of the EFL learners who were taught by using media social-related topics through pre-question way with the EFL learners who were taught by using general topics through pre-question way. This research implemented quantitative research method. It applied quasi experimental design. The subjects of this research were the EFL learners of SMA Negeri 2 Parepare. It consisted of two groups, namely experimental and control group. Each group consisted of 36 students. The result of the data

analysis showed that the reading comprehension of the EFL learners in experimental class was not significantly different with the reading comprehension of the EFL learners in control class. The use of social media-related topics through pre-question way can improve the EFL learners' reading comprehension at SMA Negeri2 Parepare significantly. It was showed by the mean score of posttest was higher than pretest. However, the final result concluded that the t-test value was lower than t-table value. It meant that H_1 was rejected and H_0 was accepted. In other words, the EFL learners who were taught social media-related topics through pre-question way are not better than the EFL learners who were taught general topics through pre-question way.

Keywords: *Social Media Topic, Pre-Question, Reading, Comprehension*

Introduction

English as a foreign language involves four language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Willis (1998) stated that speaking and writing are productive skills, while listening and reading are receptive skills. These four language skills can be developed from four language components or it usually called as sub skills, they are; structure, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation. In Indonesia, English is the first foreign language taught formally from elementary until university level. This study focused on English reading comprehension. Reading is one of the very essential skills in our life. Through reading, we can get a lot of information that will enable us to enlarge our knowledge. In addition, by reading activity people can improve their knowledge and experience, develop new concept and broaden his or her horizon of thinking.

Reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among; (1) the reader's existing knowledge; (2) the information suggested by the text being read (Dutcher, 1990). It showed that when the students read a text, their thinking is monitored by connecting their prior knowledge to what they learn in the text, and when they are learning; they are in the process of understanding of the words is needed. It is because our understanding of a text comes from understanding the words of which it is composed (Ur, 1996). Consequently, with reading comprehension, students can easily to find the main idea of the text readings and identify things that are concerned with reading (Klingner, 2007). Therefore, this study assists the students to improve their reading comprehension ability through pre-question way by utilizing social media-related topics. As concluded by a previous researcher (Souisa

and Kakerissa, 2014) that the students can connect their knowledge with the offering information of the text being read. Considering these points can help teachers to design enjoyable, interactive and innovative English instruction.

Moreover, Chyntia and Vera (2013) stated that reading and thinking is a complex process. A student must know how to synthesize material from many different sources. Thinking and processing information is very complex and reading is also something crucial and indispensable for the students because the success of their study depends on the greater part of their ability to read. If their reading skill is poor they are very likely to fail in their study or at least they will have difficulty in making progress.

Mansor and Wan Salam (2014) stated that social media enriches the learning experience by allowing students and teachers to connect and interact in new, exciting ways. Web sites such as Facebook and Twitter provide a platform where users can dialogue, exchange ideas, and find answers to questions, thus further are able to foster collaboration and discussion. This study intends to explore the social media, In reading, to comprehend the text the readers should be able to manage every part of the text especially in media social topic, because it is easy to gain the comprehension in reading when the readers are able to organize the text. Sometimes, they may find form of pre-questioning and it is important for them to comprehend a reading text with having knowledge in general view of the text. Theoretically, pre-questioning itself can build the students' interest and motivation before students read the whole text. Moreover, the students can predict what will be discussed on the text. In line with this study, students may improve their reading comprehension if they know about pre-questioning and it is very important to understand about pre-questioning in order to get good comprehension in reading.

Teacher should apply appropriate teaching way as well as method to establish the improvement of english teaching. It could make easier and enjoyably for students receive the lesson. The appropriate way should be the fusion between linguistics theories the psychological state of students and the presentation of materials. To make the best method in language teaching, it need the alertness of teacher for interpreting, comprehending, reformulating, implementing and evaluating the use. Besides, a method can be best applied if there is a real effort for teachers to make progress in learning process.

In this research, the researcher conducted a research to EFL learners exactly at SMA Negeri 2 Parepare. The school was the subject of this research because the student had several problems in reading comprehension, one of the factors was their motivation in learning reading was low because of materials used were less attractive to students and it made them bored, so

it did not reach the criteria of minimum achievement: 75. Therefore, they were lazy to read the reading text. On the other hand, the students in this school had difficulty to comprehend the text and it was influenced to their achievement on reading comprehension. They had no desire if the teacher asked them to read the text. Because of that reason, they failed when teacher gave them the task. In addition, the students had lack of motivation. (The writer had done *by interview with English teacher* in this school at Monday, January 19th, 2015).

Literature Review

Concept of Social Media

There are some people argued about media social, such as:

1. Erin and Jack (2014) stated that media social is the collective of online communication channels dedicated to community-based input, interaction, content-sharing and collaboration. Websites and application dedicated to forums, micro blogging, social network, social bookmarking, social duration and wikis are among the different types of social media.
2. Bala (2014) said that social media refers to the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, and/or exchange information and ideas in virtual communities and networks. The Office of Digital Communications manages the main Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Foursquare, YouTube and Vimeo accounts”.
3. Oi Jun (2013) defined social media are used to document memories, learn about and explore things, advertise oneself and form friendship. For instance, they claim that the communication through internet based services can be done more privately than in real life.

Ennoch Sindang (WidyaiswaraMadyaPusdiklat KNPKT), therearesix types of social media:

1. Social Networks – Services that allow you to connect with other people of similar interests and background. Usually they consist of a profile, various ways to interact with other users, ability to setup groups, etc. The most popular are Facebook and LinkedIn.
2. Bookmarking Sites - Services that allow you to save organize and manage links to various websites and resources around the internet. Most allow you to “tag” your links to make them easy to search and share.

3. Social News – Services that allow people to post various news items or links to outside articles and then allows its users to “vote” on the items. The voting is the core social aspect as the items that get the most votes are displayed the most prominently. The community decides which news items get seen by more people.
4. Media Sharing – Services that allow you to upload and share various media such as pictures and video. Most services have additional social features such as profiles, commenting, etc. The most popular are YouTube and Flickr.
5. Micro blogging – Services that focus on short updates that are pushed out to anyone subscribed to receive the updates. The most popular is Twitter.
6. Blog Comments and Forums – Online forums allow members to hold conversations by posting messages. Blog comments are similar except they are attached to blogs and usually the discussion centers around the topic of the blog post. There are many popular blogs and forums.

Based on the explanation, the researcher concluded that the world is very close to the students. The students will be very interested and motivated to read something related to the topic of social media, both in terms of positive or negative. And the researcher focused in social network.

Benefits of Social Media for Education

Social networking has now become a necessity for any teenager or adult. As we know social networking is a place where we make friends both at home and abroad. Social networks that we know, such as Facebook, Twitter, Friendster, etc. According to Joseph Baker (2013) there have benefits of social networking to education as a follows:

1. Adaptability

With social networking students will be able to learn how to develop technical and social capabilities needed them in the face of today’s digital age. They will find ways to adapt and socialize with friends in social networks, as well as the ability to manage their friendship. This is a difficult material to be found in the class, because the social networking site they will be faced with new friends they just know, so that they will look for and taught himself how to adapt to their new friends, trying to understand what they are talking about that later will hone their ability to learn to socialize.

2. Friendship Network Expansion

Basically this is the purpose of the social network provides the opportunity for anyone to expand the network of friendship with anyone from any country, even though network they had never met before. With social networking the students can add a friendship network without having to meet in person so that they can easily create a community that is beneficial to them. Whether it be in the discussion lesson and other things that can make a positive contribution to their students.

3. Motivated

With the formation of a broad community of friends, it will be able to motivate the students to develop themselves from the material or input new friends they are connected online. They formed naturally to interact with each other so that the size of the discussions that they do will add to the knowledge of the students as a result of feedback interactions between friends. Hurling material one friend to other friends raises a set of small notes varied, this wealth of material that comes naturally from the results of friends in social networks.

Questioning Strategies

The most important key to create an interactive learning is the initiation of interaction from the teacher by using question, Brown (2001). Appropriate questioning can fulfill a number of different functions, such as:

1. Teacher questions give students the opportunity to produce language comfortably without having to risk initiating language themselves. It is very scary for the students to have to initiate conversation or topics for discussion.
2. Teacher question can serve to initiate a chain reaction of students interaction among themselves.
3. Teacher questions giving immediate feedback about students' comprehension.
4. Teacher questions provide students with opportunities to find out what they think. As they are nudged into responding to questions about, say, a reading, they can discover what their own opinions and reactions are. This self-discovery can be especially useful for a pre-reading activity.

Pre-Questioning

Questioning can be regarded as another type of top-down processing activity. Questions may be generated by the teacher or by the students and should be done before their reading, rather than after the reading.

1. Brown's (2001) defined pre-questioning implicitly as some questions which are provided before the students read the whole text, in order to build the students' interest and motivation, also their cognitive factors and pre-questioning is very useful to activate the schemata, thus the students can predict what will be faced by them in the reading text.
2. According Oxford dictionary (2007), pre-question is a sentence in an interrogative form, addressed to someone in order to get information in reply.

In the same way, the questioning way which is selected and used by the teacher should maximize students' participation and success. By knowing the reasons for questioning, the teacher will encourage his/her students to participate in classroom activity.

Kinds of Pre-Questioning

Harmer (2002) stated that, there are some kinds of pre-questioning, they are: Pre-questioning before reading to confirm expectations, pre-questioning before reading to extract specific information, pre-questioning before reading for general comprehension, and pre-questioning before reading for detail comprehension. The explanations are as following:

1. Pre-questioning before Reading to Confirm Expectations

The use of pre-questioning as a tool for placing great emphasis on the lead-in stage (where students are encouraged to become interested in the subject matter of the text), encourages students to predict the content of the text, and gives them an interesting and motivating purpose for reading.

2. Pre-questioning before Reading to Extract Specific Information

Pre-questioning as a tool to force the students to extract specific information from the text. They are going to answer before reading the text. If they do this it will be possible for them to read in the required way, they should see the text only to extract the information the questions demand.

3. Pre-questioning before Reading for General Comprehension

In this case pre-questioning used to build up the students' prior knowledge.

4. Pre-questioning before Reading for Detailed Comprehension

This kind of pre-questioning intends to give the students some detailed information that should be found by them in the whole of the text.

Based on the explanation above, in this study the writer concerned fourth kinds of pre-questioning. In order to deal with students' background knowledge and activating schemata. Related to this study, the writer used pre-questioning with Indonesian version, because the form of pre-questioning is only to deal the students' background knowledge. Thus, the students can predict easily what will be discussed on the text, after they read and answer the pre-questioning.

Methodology

In this research, the researcher applied quasi-experimental design. The data were analyzed from writing test. The researcher used two groups design with different treatment, namely; experimental group and control group. To make it clear, the researcher formulated the following figure (Gay, 2006)

$$\begin{array}{l} E = \quad O_1 \quad X_1 \quad O_2 \\ C = \quad O_1 \quad X_2 \quad O_2 \end{array}$$

Where :

E = Experimental Group

C = Control Group

O₁ = Pretest

O₂ = Posttest

X₁ = Treatment for experimental group

X₂ = Treatment for control group

The population of the research was the EFL learners of SMA Negeri 2 Parepare, located in South Sulawesi Province. The researcher applied cluster random sampling technique to choose sample. One class was experimental class consisted of 36 students and another as control class consisted of 36 students. So, the total sample is 72 students. This research used 4 items of essay test (considering the kind of pre-question) and 6 items of true-false test, the total of test consisted of 10 items. The tests applied in the pretest to find out the achievement of the students before giving treatment, and posttest used to find out the achievement of the students after giving treatment.

This research was conducted in four times meetings in helping the EFL learners in reading class, in this case they learned by interacting with social media-related topics through pre-question way. It was conducted in experimental class. But, in control group, it used general topics through pre-question way for four times meetings. The teaching and learning process conducted in experimental class described in the following steps, they are;

1. First Meeting;

- a. The researcher greeted the students.
- b. The researcher gave motivation to the students before teaching process.
- c. The researcher explained about the hortatory exposition text and the title is "*Is Social network good for us?*"
- d. The researcher gave a question about the title.
- e. The students gave opinion and collected detail information based on the question from the researcher.
- f. The argument was responded by other students.

2. Second Meeting;

- a. The researcher greeted the students.
- b. The researcher gave motivation to the students before teaching process.
- c. Making some groups consisted of 4 students in every group.
- d. The student read the text about "*Is Social network good for us?*"
- e. The students discussed about positive and negative impact and solution in the text.
- f. The student answered the question based on the text.

3. Third Meeting;

- a. The researcher explained about the hortatory exposition text the title is "*People Shouldn't Share Their Problems in Social Network*"
- b. The researcher gave a question about the title.
- c. The students gave opinion and collected detail information based on the question from the researcher.
- d. The argument was responded by other students.

4. Fourth Meeting;

- a. The researcher made group consisted of 4 students in every group.
- b. The students read the text about "*People Shouldn't Share Their Problems in Social Network*".

- c. The students discussed about positive and negative impact and resolution in the text.
- d. The student answered the question based on the text.

Besides, the treatment process in control group used general topics but with the similar way. There are topics given to the students in control group, namely; *Let's Make City Clean and Fresh; Where Should Be after High School.*

The collecting data was analyzed quantitatively. This quantitative analysis employed statistical calculation to test the hypothesis. Among those formulas to analyze data, the researcher chose SPSS. Some formulas in this research to process the data as follows:

1. Scoring the students answer

$$\text{Score} = \frac{\text{Students' gained score}}{\text{The total maximum score}} \times 100$$

(Dirjen Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah, 2005)

2. Scoring the student's answer by using the following formula.

a. True- False test

Table 1. Scoring the students reading comprehension

Indicator	Score
Correct answer	1
Wrong answer	0

b. Essay test

Indicator	Score
The answer is grammatically correct and the idea is true	5
Some grammatical errors but the idea is true	3
Many grammatical errors and the idea is nearly true false	1

Many grammatical errors and the idea is false	0
---	---

(Dirjen Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah, 2005)

- Identifying the student's classification ability on reading comprehension.

The researcher used the formula that is represented as follow:

Table 2. Classification of ability on reading comprehension

No	Classification	Score
1.	Very good	86-100
2.	Good	71-85
3.	Fair	56-70
4.	Poor	41-55
5.	Very poor	≤40

(Dirjen Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah, 2005)

- The mean score of the students' achievement :

Researcher used "IMB SPSS statistics 21" .

(DM Review, 21-22. Srivastava, A and Sahami)

- The standard deviation :

Researcher used "IMB SPSS statistics 21" .

(DM Review, 21-22. Srivastava, A and Sahami)

- The test of Significance

Calculating the value of t-test to indicate the significance of the different between the mean score of the pre-test and post-test were used "IMB SPSS statistics 21" .

(DM Review, 21-22. Srivastava, A and Sahami)

- Criteria of Testing Hypothesis

To test the hypothesis, the researcher used t-test with $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance for independent sample, the formula degrees of freedom is $df = (N_1 + N_2) - 2$. Therefore, $36 + 36 - 2 = 71$ for $\alpha = 0,05$ and $df = 70$, the t-table is 1.994. The formula of the statistical hypothesis in this research is two tailed as follow:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

(Sugiyono, 2010)

Where:

μ_1 = Reading comprehension of the students who are taught by using social media-related topics through pre-question way.

μ_2 = Reading comprehension of the students who are taught by using general topics through pre-question way.

- a) If t-test is not higher than t-table, null hypothesis (H_0) accepted and alternative hypothesis (H_1) rejected. It indicates that there is no significant difference between the reading comprehension of the students' who are taught by using mediasocial-related topics through pre-question way of the students who are taught by using general topics through pre-question way.
- b) If t-test is higher than t-table, null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and alternative hypothesis (H_1) is accepted. It indicated that there is any significant difference between the reading comprehension of the students' who are taught by using mediasocial-related topics through pre-question way and the students who are taught by using general topics through pre-question way.

Finding and Discussion

The first meeting, the researcher started the activities by checking the students' attendance list and gave motivation to the students before teaching process. The researcher introduces and explained about hortatory exposition and gave an example title to discussion "Is social network good for us". After that, the researcher gave question about the title "what is on your mind when you think about the title?" Every student gave opinion about the title, example "social media have positive impact and negative impact", and "when using media social, we can get information everywhere and anywhere". The opinion was responded by other students, example "we can get information everywhere but this is not cheap, you must have pulse. And the second meeting, the researcher made several group, every group consist four students. And then, students read the text "Is Social Network Good for Us?" and then the

students discussed about positive and negative impact and solution in the text. And the last, the students answer the question.

In control the researcher started the activities like in experimental class but in control class using general topic, example “Let’s Make City Clean and Fresh”. After that, the researcher gave question about the title “what will be done in your city to make clean and fresh?” The students gave opinion about the question; example “just put your trash and doesn’t smoke”. The opinion was responds by other students, example “the government must set aside for trash and smoker place”. And the seconds meet, the researcher make a group consist four students. And then, students read the text “Let’s Make City Clean and Fresh” and then the students discussed about positive and negative impact and solution in the text. And the last, the students answer the question.

The Result of the Frequency and the Percentage of Reading Text.

Table 3. Frequency and Percentage of Pretest Result

No	Classification	Score	Experimental class		Control class	
			F	(%)	F	(%)
1	Very Good	86-100	0	0	0	0
2	Good	71-85	3	8.4	7	18.9
3	Fair	56-70	22	61.3	21	58.3
4	Poor	41-55	11	30.6	8	21.6
5	Very Poor	< 40	0	0	0	0
	Total		36	100	36	100

Table 4. Frequency and Percentage of Posttest Result

No	Classification	Score	Experimental class		Control class	
			F	(%)	F	(%)
1	Very Good	86-100	7	19.4	2	5.4

2	Good	71-85	22	61.2	25	69.4
3	Fair	56-70	7	19.4	9	24.3
4	Poor	41-55	0	0	0	0
5	Very Poor	< 40	0	0	0	0
	Total		36	100	36	100

The Mean Score of Pre Test and Post Test

The mean score and standard deviation of the students pretest and posttest both in experimental class and control class.

Table 5. Mean Score and Standard Deviation Pretest

No	Variable	Mean score	Standard deviation
1.	Experimental class	61.08	8.456
2.	Control class	61.81	13.391

Table 6. Mean Score and Standard Deviation Posttest

No	Variable	Mean score	Standard deviation
1.	Experimental class	80.00	8.053
2.	Control class	77.43	6.229

The table 5 and 6 showed the standard deviation of the pretest and posttest in experimental class was significantly difference because the standard deviation in pre-test is higher better than in standard deviation in posttest. The mean score and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest in control class was significantly difference because the standard

deviation in pretest is higher better than in standard deviation in posttest. It revealed that the mean score and the standard deviation of the pretest and posttest both in experimental class and control class were significantly different.

In testing the hypothesis, the researcher applied t-test formula by using SPSS 21.0 application at the level of significance with $\alpha = 0.05$ with degree of freedom is $df = (N_1 + N_2 - 2)$. The result of the calculation (SPSS 21.0) is shown as follow:

Table 7. The result of calculation t-test of significance value and level of significance in

pretest	
Level of Significance	Significance (2 tailed)
0.05	0.235

Table 7 indicated that the significance value (0.235) is greater than the level of significance (0.05). It indicates that null hypothesis (H_0) of pre-test and post-test is different.

Table 8. The result of calculation t-test of significance value and level of significance in post-

test	
Level of Significance	Significance (2 tailed)
0.05	0.131

Table 8 indicated the significance value (0.131) is greater than the level of significance (0.05). It indicated that null hypothesis (H_0) of post-test is accepted and the alternative hypothesis (H_a) is rejected.

The reading skill became very important in the education field, students need to be exercised and trained in order to have a good reading skill. In the same line, Chyntia and Vera (2013) stated that Reading and thinking is a complex process. A student must know how to synthesize material from many different sources. It shows that reading is very important in education.

Table 9. The result of T-Test and T-table of the Students' Pre-test and Post-test

No	Variable	T-Test Value	T-Table Value
1.	Pre-test	-1.198	1.994
2.	Post-test	1.526	1.994

Based on preliminary observation in the target research, it was found that the students motivation in learning reading was low because of materials used were less attractive to students and it made them bored (interview with English teacher 2015). Therefore, they were lazy to read the text of reading.

In order to solve the problem explained, the researcher considered to choose interesting materials that applied in teaching reading activity. In this case, the researcher chose media social based topic. Besides, an interesting media can be supported more by the existence of good technique. Therefore, the researcher chose pre-question way.

This indicated that the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted and alternative hypothesis (H_1) was rejected because the significance value of post-test was higher than the level of significance value of pre-test. It meant that the eleventh year students of SMA Negeri 2 Parepare improve reading comprehension by using social media-related topic through pre-question way in various reading comprehension. But, there is no any significant improvement based on calculating t-test and t-table.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of achievement test presented in the previous part. The researcher concludes that the use of socialmedia-related topics through pre-question way to improve the reading comprehension of the students has no significant difference with by using general topics through pre-question way. First, there were two twenty two students in experimental got score in good level, and while in the control class there twenty six students in good level. Second, both the mean score of the students in experimental class and control class increased. Third, the standard deviation of the students in experimental class was higher than the students' in control class. Fourth, after calculating t-test, it was found that the t-test value was lower than t-table. It means that the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) was rejected. In another word, the reading comprehension of the students who were taught by

using social media-related topics through pre-question way has no significant difference with the reading comprehension of the students who were taught by using general topics through pre-question way.

References

- Abraham, Lincon. 2013. *Critical Reading*. A capacity and taste for reading gives access to whatever has already been discovered by others. Accessed on February 11th 2015 from www.armyacademy.ro.
- Aisyah. 2014. *Enhancing Students' Reading Comprehension through Cooperative Reading Groups (A Classroom Action Research)*. Proceeding of the 3rd UAD TEFL International Conference. Yogyakarta: English Education Department of Universitas Ahmad Dahlan.
- Baker, Joseph. 2013. *Edudemic Connecting Education & Technology*, How Students Benefit From Using Social Media, (Online), (<http://www.edudemic.com/how-students-benefit-from-using-social-media/>). Accessed on January 13th 2015.
- Brown, H Douglas. 2001. *Teaching by Principles*. San Francisco: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.
- DirjenPendidikanDasardanMenengah.2005
PeraturanDirektoratJendralPendidikanDasardanMenengahTentangPenilaianPerkembanganAnakDidik. Jakarta. Depdikbud.
- Djiwandono, P. I. 2002. *StrategiMembacaBahasaInggris*. Jakarta : PT. GramediaPustakaUtama.
- Dutcher, Peggy. 1990. *Authentic Reading Assessment, Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*. Accessed on 21st March 2017.
- Ennoch, Sindang. 2010. *Manfaat Media SosialDalamRanahPendidikandanPelatihan*. *Jurnal, WidyaSwaraMadyaPusdiklat KNPk*, (Online), 8 (2-7), (<http://www.media-sosial-dalam-pendidikan.edu>). Accessed on 15th January 2015.
- Erin K. Wise & Jack D. Shorted. 2014. *Social Networking and the exchange of Information*. *Issues in Information Systems*, Volume 15, Issue II, pp. 103-109. Accessed on 25th January 2015 from iacis.org.
- Gay, L. R. 2006. *Educational Research. Sixth Edition*. Ohio Charles. E. Merrill Publishing Company and a Bell and Howell Company.

- Harmer, Jeremy. 2002. *The Practice of English Language Teaching, Third Edition*. New York: Longman, Inc.
- Hornby, AS. 1995 Oxford *advance learner's Dictionary of Current English* 5th Ed. London: Oxford University Press.
- Jun Oi. 2013. *Social Media*. Prezi App, (Online), (<http://www.prezi.com/I0wcfua3ozyq/social-media/>) accessed on January 10th 2015.
- KiranBala. 2014. *Social Media and Changing Communication Patterns*. Jagannath International Management School, Volume 5, Article.Global media journal-Indian Edition.Accessed on February 4th 2015 from www.caluniv.ac.in.
- Klingner, Anette K. et. Al. 2007. Teaching Reading Comprehension to Students With Learning Difficulties. New York: The Guilford Press. Paris. Scott G. dan Stahl. Steven A. 2005. Children's Reading Comprehension and Assessment. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Mansor .N, Ibrahim S. H, & Wan Salam W. N, 2014.**Social Media In Esl Classroom: Exploring The Impact On Language Learning**, *Journal Of Bisniss And Social Development*, 6 (1. Volume 2, Number 1: © Penerbit UMT (Universiti Malaysia Terengganu), Terengganu.
- Mardiah, (Interviewer). 2015 *with English teacher* in this school SMA NEGERI 2 PAREPARE. January 15th2015.
- Mustagfiroh (2013:62) "*The Effectiveness Of Using Pre-Questioning Technique To Enhance Reading Narrative Text Comprehension Of The Second Grade Students At SMPN 1 Banyubiru In Academic*"State Institute For Islamic Studies (Stain) Salatiga.
- Nell K. D & Pearson. P. D. 2002. *Effective Practices for Developing Reading Comprehension, What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction*, Third Edition - ©, International Reading Association.
- Parr, C & Woloshin, V. 2013. *Reading Comprehension Strategy Instruction in a First-Year Course: An Instructor's Self-Stud*, *The Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, Volume 4, Issue 2. http://ir.lib.uwo.ca/cjsotl_rcacea accessed on januaryjanuary 15th 2015.
- Ratminah (2014:80) "*The Use Of Question And Answer Technique To Improve Students Reading Comprehension In Recount Text*"State Institute For Islamic Studies (Stain) Salatiga.

- Souisa, TR and Kakerissa, WM. 2014. *Improving Students' Reading Comprehension through The Application of the Predict-O-Gram Strategy at XI IPS Class of SMA Xaverius Ambon*. Proceeding of the 3rd UAD TEFL International Conference. Yogyakarta: English Education Department of Universitas Ahmad Dahlan.
- Sugiyono. 2010. *Statistika untuk Penelitian*. Bandung: Alfabeta, cv
- TIM Penulis. 2014. *Buku Pedoman Penulisan Skripsi; Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris FKIP UMPAR*. Parepare: UMPAR Press.
- Tompkins G.E 2006. Language Arts Essentials, *The reproduction, duplication, or distribution of this material by any means including* Edition, p.87
- Ur, Penny. 1996. *A Course in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Wijayanti, I. S (2013:67) "*The Use of Pre-Questioning Technique To Improve Students' Reading Comprehension*" State Institute For Islamic Studies (Stain) Salatiga.
- Willis, Jane. 1998. *Teaching English through English, A Course in Classroom Language and Techniques*. Longman: England.

Title

The Effects of Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in Engaging and Empowering Writing Skill

Author

Khairunnisa Hatta

Muhammadiyah University of Parepare, Jl. Jend. Ahmad Yani No.8, Parepare, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Khairunnisa Hatta. She is A Lecturer at English Education Program, Muhammadiyah University of Parepare, South East, Indonesia. She holds a S.Pd in English education 2011, and S.Pd.I in Islamic Education 2013, and M.Pd in 2013. E-mail: khairunnisaabintihatta@gmail.com

Abstract

English as Foreign Language in writing skill continues to face the two-sided challenge of decontextualised impractical theorisations and traditional reductionist practices. The Teachers often wish that they had more time to communicate with the students in their classes- to learn about their performances; to know motivations, interests, and needs; to share experiences and information; and to track and document students' developing knowledge and abilities. Dialogue journal writing (DJW) is related with a learner-centered curriculum orientation, in which students write to express themselves, to make sense of their own and others' experiences, and to develop their abilities (Auerbach, 1999; Isserlis, 1996). This paper calls for the introduction of dialogue journal writing (DJW) into education as a theoretically rich and practically feasible procedure. This paper examines the efficacy of English DJW on students' writing skill, as well as the students' responses to journal writing. students in SMAN 1 Suppa participated in this study, and each student was required to write journal entries per week. This research use experimental design, the participants' entrance scores ranged from the highest of 8.5 to the lowest of 67.9 with an average of 7.00 and the possible

range of scores 0-100 (the sum) on the Basic Competence Test. The findings showed that improved the students' writing skill on content, organization, and vocabulary; reflective awareness of writing and self-growth as learners; and intrinsic writing motivation. The students held positive attitudes toward the project and confirmed that DJW was an important tool for self-understanding and self-growth. This shows that DJW had a significant impact, able to increase interaction with others, build self-confidence. Besides, it gave rise to the idea of the idea after reading the journals they wrote and associate in the surrounding environment.

Keywords: *Communicative approach, dialogue journal writing, writing performance*

Introduction

The average of the writing grades of the eleventh year students SMAN 1 Suppa in the result of the tests shows that the students' with consist XI Exact 1 that scores in the writing draft were 67,9. It means that the measurement of the students' achievement in test was Minimum according Depdiknas in SMAN 1 Suppa.

Focus for the discussion above, the writer tries to apply a strategy in teaching English. So the researcher chooses the title "Effects of Dialogue Journals Writing (DJW) in Students' Writing Skill". Specifically, Dialogue journal writing a learning tool, and its effects on the students writings is the object of the present study which addresses the following research questions (1) How is the students' writing skill have any effect after using DJW, (2) What are the students' responses to the DJW?

Literature review

They are some researcher that have been conducted a research related to writing. They are as followed: Byrne (1980:24) , Writing is also one media of communication; Heaton in his book "Writing English Language Test"(1975:138), Writing skill are more complex and difficult to teaching, requiring, and mastering not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also conceptual and judgment.; Kreidler (1965; 41)

Definitions of Writing

Another definition is given by Byrne (1980:24) defines that writing is a primary means of recording speech, even though it must be acknowledged as a secondary medium of communication. Based on the definitions above conclusion of the researcher that writing could

be conceived as the act of putting down in conventional graphic form something that had been spoken and brings to writing and the impacts of the particular political and institutional context in which it interviews, analyses of surrounding practices and other techniques, researcher seek to develop more complete accounts to local writing contexts. And make us could be creatively or personally and written in many different forms.

Dialogue Journal Writing

Journal of the dialogue is a conversation between students and teachers on a regular basis that are written in a journal. Students are free to write what he thought what an interesting and after that the teacher correcting student work to provide questions and feedback. In terms of writing the involvement of teachers provide guidance and freedom so that students can write premises freely, without focusing on a particular theme. Put the teachers who wrote in the journal students a way for students to know his mistakes without feeling judged

The student writes freely to the teacher as in a letter. The teacher answers questions and makes comments about the student's entry, making sure the answers provide correct structures, grammar and spelling. From the teacher's reaction, and not from any particular corrections students discover in the "dialogue" how the correct form of the entry should be. The student then tends to refer to more correct structures in further entries. Harmer claims that advantage of writing a journal is that the writer can decide freely which form to employ in writing. The writer is not bounded to any particular genre and moreover, the writer knows that his or hers freedom of expression is not to be corrected or graded by the teacher (2004: 126-127).

Methodology

In this research, the researcher would be use experimental design. The purpose of the research to found out the skill of the students' writing skill. The design of the research is one group pretest-posttest design. The research that will be described in the next section was conducted with High school students of SMAN 1 Suppa. There were of three classes, namely Class VIIIa consist of 29 students, Class VIIIb consisted of 28 students, and VIIC consisted of 28 students. So, the total number of population is 85 students.

Findings and Discussion

The rate of frequency and percentage of the score of pre-test

NO	Classification	Score	Experimental		Control	
			F	%	F	%
1	Very good	86 - 100	0	0	0	0
2	Good	71 - 85	0	0	0	0
3	Fair	58 - 70	8	28.57	1	3.57
4	Poor	41 - 55	14	50	16	57.14
5	Very poor	<40	6	21.43	11	39.29
Total			28	100	28	100

Table 1 above identifies that the students mastery of both classes were different, in the experimental group, (71,43 %) of them got very poor and poor, (28,57 %) of them got fair. Control group, (96,43 %) of them got very poor and poor, (3,57 %) of then got fair classification. It means that in experimental group most of students got higher point than control group.

The rate of frequency and percentage of the score of post-test

NO	Classification	Score	Experimental		Control	
			F	%	F	%
1	Very good	86 - 100	2	7.14	0	0
2	Good	71 - 85	5	17.86	3	10.71
3	Fair	58 - 70	14	50	7	25
4	Poor	41 - 55	7	25	15	53.57
5	Very poor	<40	0	0	3	10.71
Total			28	100	28	100

The table 2. The post-test score of control group shows that none of the students got very good, 3 students got good, 7 students got fair, 15 students got poor and 3 students got very good classification.

The mean score and standard deviation of the pre-test of the students on experimental group and control group.

The mean score and standard deviation of the students pre-test

Group	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Experimental	50.18	14.42
Control	44.29	8.21

The t-test of the students pre-test

Variable	T-test Value	T-table Value
Pre-test	1.86	2.000

The table above indicates that the result of calculation of t-test value is smaller (1.86) than the t-table value (2.00) this means that there is no significant difference between the results of mean score of both tests.

1. The mean score and standard deviation of the post-test of the students on experimental group and control.

Group	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Experimental	66.07	12.42
Control	56.07	12.20

The table shows that the mean score for post-test of experimental group was greater (66.07) than the control (56,07). It means that the mean score of the post-test obtained by the two groups were nearly the same.

Significant at the level of significance 0,05 with degree of freedom (**df**) **54** (**n1 + n2 - 2**) the result of the calculation is shows in the following table.

Variable	T-test Value	T-table Value
Post-test	3.01	2.000

The table above indicates that the result of calculation of t-test value is greater (**3.01**) than t-table value (**2.00**) this means that there is a significant difference between the students' post-test of both groups.

Conclusion

Based on the findings and the discussion, the researcher puts forward the conclusion that the first year students of SMAN 1 Suppa have good achievement in writing after being treated with sequence pictures. It is proved by the students mean score in experimental group (66.67) which is greater than the students mean score in control group (56.07). It means that the students achievement in experimental group experience an improving.

References

- Ablex. Trites, L. (2001). *Journals as self-evaluative, reflective classroom tools with advanced ESL graduate students*. In J.I. Burton & M. Carroll (Eds.), *Journal writing: Case study in TESOL practice series* (pp. 59-70).
- Byrne, Donn. 1980. *Teaching Writing Skill*. London; Longman Group Ltd
- Dirjen pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah 2005. *Peraturan Direktorat jendral pendidikan dasar dan Menengah*. Nomor. 506/c/kep/2004 Tentang penilaian Perkembangan Anak Didik. Jakarta: Departemrn Penedidikan Nasional.
- Lorimor Lawrence, T.1991.*Grolier Encyclopedia of Knowledge*, Volume7. Danbury. Connecticut; Grolier Incorporated.
- Lowenstein, S. (1987). A brief history of journal keeping. In T.Fulwiler (Ed.) *The Journal Book* (pp.19-32). Portsmo, NH: Heinemann. *written interaction* (pp. 155-172).
- Norwood, NJ: Ablex. Reyes, M. de la L. (1991). *A process approach to literacy using dialogue journals and literature logs with second language learners. Research in the Teaching of English*, 25(3), 291-313.
- Norwood, NJ: Ablex.. Peyton J.K. (2000). *Dialogue journals: Interactive writing to develop language and literacy*. ESL Resources: Digests. National Center for ESL Literacy Education. Retrieved October 20, 2009, from http://www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources/digests/Dialogue_Journals.html
- Norwood, NJ: Ablex. *Effects of Dialogue Journals on L2 Students' Writing Fluency, Reflections, Anxiety, and Motivation*
- Parera, Jos Daniel.1993.*Menulis Tertib dan Sistematis Edisi Kedua*.Jakarta; Erlangga.
- Peyton, K.J. (1988) *Dialogue writing –bridge from talk to essay*. In Staton, J., Shuy, R.W., Peyton, J.k., &Reed,L. *Dialogue journal communication: Classroom, linguistic, social and cognitive views*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

- Peyton & J. Staton (Eds.), *Dialogue journals in the multilingual classroom: Building language fluency and writing skills through written interaction* (pp. 29-46).
- Singer, M. (1990) Responding to Intimacies and Crises in Students' Journals. *English Journal*, 79,2 (72- 75).
- Smith, Carl B (2000) Writing instruction : changing views over the years. ERIC DIGEST D155.
- Staton, J. (1981) "*It's just not gonna come down in one little sentence*": *A study of discourse in dialogue journal writing*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association, Los Angeles, California.
- Rivers.1968. *Teaching Foreign Language Skill*. Cambridge; Cambridge

Title

Students' Attitudes on the Implementation of Storybird Web 2.0 Tool
in Creating a Narrative Story

Author

Mega Wulandari, M.Hum.

Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Mega Wulandari teaches English at Faculty of Education, Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Her research interests include technology-enhanced learning, flipped learning, and language teaching media. She completed her undergraduate and master degree at Sanata Dharma University. She published a book entitled *English Missions: Learning English through Games*. She can be reached at mega@usd.ac.id.

Abstract

This study was carried out to describe the implementation of Storybird, a web 2.0 tool which promotes creation of narrative story collaboratively, in a freshman Paragraph Writing class consisting of 25 students in English Language Education Department of Sanata Dharma University. In addition, this study will also investigate students' attitude toward the integration of the internet-based tool through their reflection and narrative writing outcome. From the data, this study will elaborate (1) the implementation of Storybird in narrative writing, and (2) the student's attitude toward the project which reveals the benefits and also limitations of Storybird. Finally, the use of Storybird to support creation of narrative texts is expected to help teachers and students to deal with academic matters and learning challenges in the 21st century.

Keywords: *Teaching in 21st century, ICT integration, Narrative, Collaborative Writing*

Introduction

The rising interest related to the advancement of collaborative tasks to encourage interaction and boost critical thinking skills in the language classroom has expanded innovative views and perspectives towards second language learning and the internet use (Dudeny & Hockly, 2007). The internet became the learners' interactional tool where most of their social activities take place, they find themselves immersed in a new world and their needs and interests are defined by that world (Prensky, 2010). Moreover, Castells (2003) and Tapscott (2009) argue that the internet use has a positive effect on the social interaction because it increases the effects of sociability.

One of web-based educational tools that accommodate students to work collaboratively in producing narrative writing online is **Storybird** (www.storybird.com). Storybird is a web 2.0 tool created by Mark Ury that supports the collaborative storytelling with the use of art galleries that inspire people to create stories (Storybird, n.d; Nordin, 2010). The use of Storybird to support the creation of narrative texts when working collaboratively shows how the use of new technologies might help teachers to deal with academic matters and learning challenges in the 21st century School. The use of the internet, social networks, virtual platforms and web 2.0 tools to reinforce, consolidate and/or propel communicative language and social skills is a determinant factor in our daily lives (Prensky, 2010). In an educational context, new technologies offer broader knowledge and experiences, promote social interaction, foster autonomous behaviors and increase learners encouragement to learn (Castells, 2003; Dudeny & Hockly, 2007; MEN, 2005; Prensky, 2010;).

Bearing in mind the need to witness learners' attitude regarding the use of Storybird Web 2.0 in creating narrative writing skill, this research aims to answer the following questions:

- (1) How was Storybird implemented in creating a narrative writing?
- (2) How was student's attitude toward the project which reveals the benefits and also limitations of this approach?

Literature Review

Storybird

The Storybird has widely been studied by researchers and educators interested in analyzing the benefits that these experiences bring to the language classroom. Although Storybird is not designed particularly for language learning, it provides a number of useful learning tools that can be used in EFL/ESL settings or teacher training projects. CALL

Researchers and practitioners in the world have been participating in the further development and improvement of Storybird in a collaborative writing.

The first related research comes from Dabbs (2011) who reports an example of design and implementation of Storybird in EGAP instruction in Oman. He claims the following four advantages: (1) Enhancing student-student interactions and teacher-student interactions; (2) Finding a real audience to interact with; (3) Helping students do their research for their independent study project; (4) Fostering students' independence. These advantages would commonly be found in any web-based educational tool, but it's still the basic usefulness of Storybird.

On the other hand, he states some problems and concerns in its implementation: Learners could feel limited by the range of pictures offered by Storybird, although there is plenty of art, pictures are not appealing to learners at times. Therefore, if there is not motivation for learners to work with computers or they do not know how to do it, extra work is required and more challenges would emerge for the teacher along the study. These problems are common among less computer literate teachers as well as lower level EFL students even in Japan.

By looking at contradictory findings related to how Storybird can impact student' writing proficiency, as language teachers we need to be able to equip ourselves with adequate knowledge on learning objectives, kinds of tasks and activities, technological tools used, and the right procedure on how to integrate them into the classroom activities to achieve learning objectives.

Narrative Writing

Narrative Writing relies on imaginative/fiction story. Narrative paragraph are told from a defined point of view, often in first person, so there is feeling as well as specific and often sensory details provided to get the reader involved in the elements and sequence of the story. It offers writers a chance to think and write about themselves and their experiences (Boucher, 2011).

Teo (2006) examined how to write a narrative story using the five-step writing process. Students should find these suggestions helpful:

1. **Prewriting for the Narrative Story:** in this phase, students think about a topic in the context of the assignment's theme. Once a topic is chosen, students should spend time sorting through details. Think about the sequence of events and create an outline of the story's narrative flow is very helpful.

2. **Drafting a Narrative Story:** when creating the initial draft of a narrative story, follow the outline, but focus on making the story come alive.
3. **Publishing a narrative story:** Due to its personal nature, sharing a narrative story with the rest of the class can be exciting. The important thing is to learn from experience and use feedback to make the next composition even better.
4. **Revising a Narrative Story:** In the revision phase, students review, modify, and reorganize their work with the goal of making it the best it can be. Students also proofread and correct errors in grammar and mechanics, and edit to improve style and clarity.

Research Method

This study was carried out to describe the implementation of *Storybird*, a web 2.0 tool which promotes creation of narrative story collaboratively, in a freshmen Paragraph Writing class consisting of 25 students in English Language Education Department of Sanata Dharma University. In addition, this study will also elaborate students' attitude toward the integration of the internet-based tool through their reflection and narrative writing outcome.

In collecting the data to describe the implementation of the use of *Storybird* in creating narrative writing, the researcher uses observation in class. The researcher followed Edwards and Talbots (1999) on classroom observations by observing the process of the implementation. Information was collected and was interpreted in this study, which is in accordance to the suggestion of O'Leary (2004). Furthermore to describe the students' attitude toward the project, the researcher used students' reflections about the process and the final products.

Findings and Discussion

Stages of Implementation of Storybird in Creating Narrative Story

The initial step is to investigate Storybird itself. I got to the site and ensured I had a decent command of it before introducing it to the students. What I discovered interesting about Storybird was that it consolidates artworks and writing. Users were provided with works of arts presented in sequence as if they were a part of story plot. Next, students need to choose which pictures to pick, how to order them, and what story they want to construct. That is, after choosing some artworks they can begin composing their story. The site gives the students the options of composing a longform book, a poem, or a picture book. For Paragraph Writing level, picture book format was chosen since the objective of the course throughout the semester is to enable students develop coherent and cohesive paragraphs.

The students learned by working in collaborative groups, each of which consisted of 3 members chosen randomly. Each member of the group was a key component for the success of a project because everyone should contribute to the work of the group. This was very important because each student brought his/her own style to the story while working together. Storybird was then introduced and demonstrated in the class. They were encouraged to use their own laptop to be able to execute this. Afterwards, they went through several steps which in line with the steps of creating a narrative story.

In the next step, students created an account for the group on www.storybird.com. There were two types of account that user could choose, namely “regular user” account or “educator and student” account. The difference between those two modes of account is that educator and student account can serve as a learning management system where teachers create an account, then provide a special class code to the class members, then they will undertake all the process in the site such as creating, sharing, commenting, and grading. On the other side, the regular user account does not require teacher to make an account and provide class code. Students create their composition using storybird, then the next steps would be done in other platform, for example facebook, edmodo, or schoology.

Once the students registered, they could browse and read compositions published by other users. Inspirations could be acquired by reviewing other compositions. Subsequently, students think about the most interesting topic in the context of the assignment’s theme. Once a topic is chosen, students should spend time sorting a vast array of pictures that could accompany that theme. They had to choose the pictures for the story and then drag and drop each picture onto the pages.

Considering the the sequence of events and create a framework of the story’s narrative flow was exceptionally useful. To help them undertake this process, it is a good idea to provide a graphic organizer as the storyboard. The creation of storyboard as a prewriting strategy helps learners develop their writing skill (Linares, 2010). Afterwards they discussed orally about the story and then wrote it.

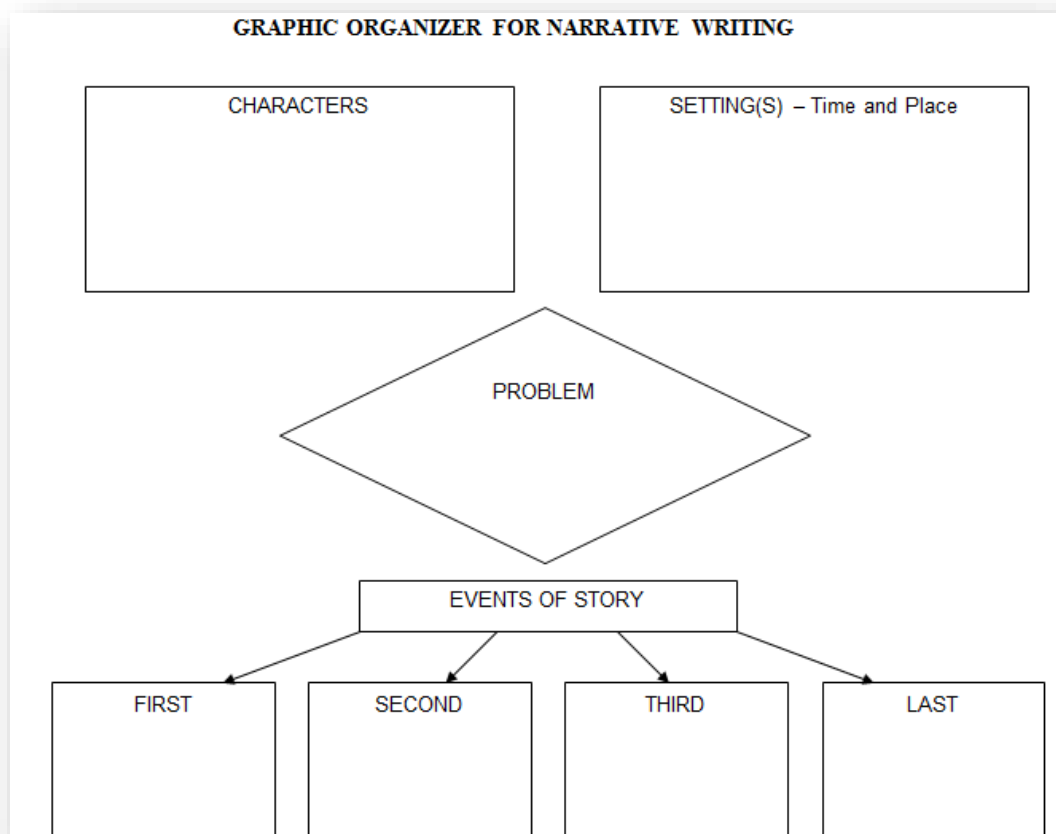


Figure 4. Graphic Organizer for Narrative Writing

From the observation, it could be seen that the students were really eager about utilizing the site, and they were prepared to play a dynamic part in this new writing endeavor. Writing and reading for an audience encouraged and developed literacy skills. The use of artwork allowed students to develop deep reflection and higher-order thinking (Menezes, 2012). Their creativity is challenged to systematically organize the images to develop their own narrative story avoiding them from a blank-page syndrome.

Drafting a Narrative Story

Once storyboard had been designed, learners worked together to develop the story for the narrative text. To achieve the objective of the study, I assigned them to compose a ten-page picture book based on the artwork that inspired them the most. I even incorporated a tutorial to foster their autonomy. It was exceedingly remunerating to see how students took this new assignment seriously. This motivation to write a narrative story was translated into motivation to expose their English because the students were putting into words their creative ideas

(Giacomini, 2015). Not just did they learn new vocabulary things and linguistic use structures; however they reused ones they knew.

The students composed their first Storybird story at campus. It took them three sessions to finish the task. When some of them completed early, they inquired as to whether they could compose another story utilizing the site while their colleagues finished up their tasks. This never happened when they were composing the story on paper. What usually occurred in class once they completed their composition was they turned in their papers and accomplished something else afterwards. In the conventional mode of classroom, they never requested to continue composing. That proved that storybird successfully boosted students' motivation in writing a narrative text.

Lecturer became a facilitator who monitored if students needed help with Storybird or with how to express certain ideas in English. From the observation, it can be seen that students could assist each other and did not depend solely on the lecturer's help to produce their narrative text. In the process of writing their own narrative writing, students also read stories published on the Storybird, obtaining supplementary exposure to the English language.

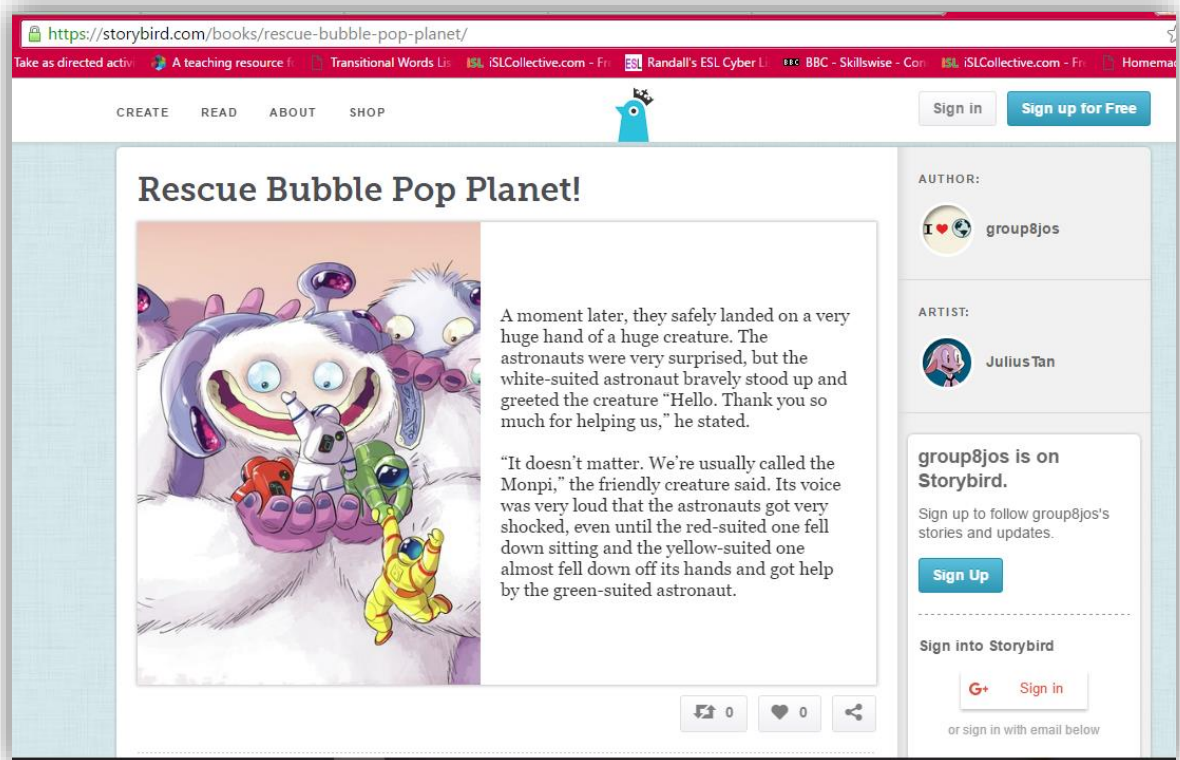


Figure 5 Example of Student's Work on Storybird

The Students' Attitude toward the Stages of the Project

Following the steps that have been undergone by the students was the reflection stage. The data gathered from students' reflection was analyzed to find out students' attitudes toward the use of Storybird in creating a narrative story writing.

Working in Group Collaboratively

One special function of the Storybird is that it can develop students' cooperative learning skills. One group of students can create, elaborate, and work with each other to finish a story. When attempting to use Storybird, the students were assigned to make a group of three randomly selected members. The group collaborate in creating a narrative story, share information, and help each other. The group consisted students whose English capability levels are distinctive. This gave chances to the students to learn and apply their interpersonal aptitudes as they work in collaborative groups. Simultaneously, they were urged to develop cognitively as well as convinced to work empathetically. The students' reflection communicated uplifting attitudes appeared because they fancy cooperating with others.

- (1) I learn that everything can be easier if we can help each other and we can do it together. I get new information from my group. My friend who is tech-savvy helped me in operating the site. I love working with my group despite all the obstacles we faced.
- (2) Collaborative writing helps us to share story ideas and combine them to make one comprehensive story. It is so fun when we brainstormed the storyline together. We help each other to decide the character, setting, problem, climax and resolution.
- (3) When I did the project collaboratively, I got a lot of new knowledge related to grammar and vocabulary to make our story interesting. I would like to thank Ayu for giving such a wonderful insight on how to make our story interesting.
- (4) I learned to be a good listener in the group, because sometimes we have to appreciate others by listening to their ideas. I think I can expand my knowledge through this eye-opening activity. Moreover, what we have done, what we have shared and what we have experienced together have successfully made our friendship closer.

These reflections show students' positive attitudes toward Collaborative Writing, which provided them with learning environment where they could work together. If Storybird is used in a class, it will help students develop creativity, innovation, and also will help students to learn effective communication and collaboration. Students will also have fun in cooperative learning and their meaningful contribution will help them develop self-concepts and social developments. Data (1) shows that they think it is easier if they are working together in group, data (2) shows that the student was interested in making the project because they can put their

head together to decide how they construct the story, data (3) shows that working in group can expose the use of English even more by discussing vocabulary and grammar together, and data (4) shows how happy the student to build a strong interpersonal relationship within the members of the group. However, the limitation of this grouping appears in the process of making the project, as follows:

- (5) We find difficulties in deciding the topic that pleases each member of the group. Sometimes, there were clashes among us.
- (6) Working together in a group is a little bit difficult than working alone. We must share our ideas and try to have agreement with each other. Like it or not, I don't have any choice but to say agree with my team's idea. Sometimes, I feel that it is hard to decide the next part of the story, for example when trying to create the climax of the story.
- (7) It is hard to manage our time to meet outside the class, because we have different schedules.
- (8) When we could not come up with a good decision, then we discussed it but sometimes it took us so long to make up our mind.
- (9) One of my students was so dominating. She did not want to listen others and got upset when her ideas were not accepted by the other members of the group.

Data (5) and (6) show that conflict of interests happened when they start choosing the topic for their narrative writing. Data (7) and (8) show that the students need to cope time management problem. Data (9) shows the problem of individual participation as a member of the group. To face these problems in the future implementation, the lecturers need to make sure individual participation and their contribution as well as roles in groups. One member should be responsible as a leader of the group.

Constructing Narrative Story Using Storybird

The use of computers was motivating and it guided learners to develop autonomous behaviors to enhance their own learning (Prensky, 2010; Chapelle, 2003) when they made decisions about the online resources to use, the stories creation process, and when and how to work. Storybird inspires the students by starting with the image and unlocking the story using the vast-array of appealing images. The following are the benefits mentioned by the students.

- (10) Before using this tool, I always encounter difficulty in starting the story. However, after using Storybird I didn't face the same problem any longer. I would like to use storybird even not for college assignment.
- (11) I love storybird so much! It makes me able to develop and improve my skills in story writing. When I firstly heard about Storybird, I directly visited the website using my mobile phone and was intantly amazed with the abundance of beautiful artworks there. I browsed the works done by other users and got an idea to write a

story. I think storybird is a great media to study because not only it can train my writing skill, but it can also train my brain to use my imagination and creativity.

- (12) Storybird provides us millions of colorful images we can use as the base to make the story. By arranging the pictures, we indirectly created the story's main structure, and that was so really relieving that somebody created this tool. Thanks to the creator!

Data (10), (11), and (12) show that Storybird's appealing visual contents and creative atmosphere attracted even to the most reluctant writers. Storybird encouraged students' imagination by providing a variety of colorful and vibrant illustrations that ignite their creativity, avoiding them from the blank-page syndrome. However, the limitations of Storybird were also perceived by the students, as follows:

- (13) Since we can only use images from one artist, we meet difficulty to match the pictures and our story. Sometimes, the pictures are not in line with the story we were building. So, we need to change the story line in the middle of the writing process.
- (14) We cannot change font type, size, etc.
- (15) After we created a narrative story, we can only share it online. We need to pay some amount of money to download the story book in PDF format. It's not totally free.

From data (13) we know that the images in the Storybird can be two sides of the same coin. It can ignite students' creativity, but it can also divert it. That could be a potential pitfall of this website. One way that the students can do to avoid this problem is by arranging the images before they develop the story. Afterwards, they develop the story based on the images they have arranged.

Data (14) shows that students' desire to create a unique digital story book by customizing all elements to obtain more personalised result is unbearable. However, Storybird cannot accommodate this. Data (15) shows another pitfall of the website. Making, sharing, and reading stories on Storybird are free. While, printing or downloading stories have various fees that are clearly explained on the web. The downloading feature is a part of premium facility Storybird offers to its members. Those essential matters are to be considered by lecturers regarding the strategies to use when using web tool.

Conclusions

What makes Storybird an encouraging source to create stories is the possibility to collaborate and share their creation with more readers. When having students creating narrative

story, they negotiate and create meaning by defining the context, the content, the situation and characters of a story. Storybird can be used to follow a process approach to writing, it is recommended to have pre-writing activity in the classroom before learners continue with the collaborative online work. Storybird is a web 2.0 tool which can be used to promote the collaborative creation of narratives but students' success depends basically on the free will they have to make decisions along the process.

References

- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Dabbs, L. (2011, July 19). *New teacher Boot Camp Week 3-Using Storybird*. Retrieved from <http://www.edutopia.org/blog/storybird-new-teacher-bootcamp-lisa-dabbs>.
- Dudenev, G., & Hockly, N. (2007). *How to teach English with technology*. Harlow: Pearson/Longman.
- Elbow, P. (2000). *Everyone can write: Essays toward a hopeful theory of writing and teaching writing*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Harmer, J. (2004). *How to teach writing*. Harlow: Longman.
- Kessler, C. (1992). *Cooperative language learning: A teacher's resource book*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Nordin, Y. (2010). Web 2.0 and Graduate Research Storybird. Retrieved from: <http://edpsychbsustudentwork.pbworks.com/f/3StoryBirdWeb+2.0+and+Graduate+Research.pdf>.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Collaborative language learning and teaching*. Cambridge language teaching library. Cambridge [England: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Writing*. Newbury House Teacher Development (Ed.), *Second language and teaching* (pp. 271-299). Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Prensky, M. (2010). *Teaching digital natives: Partnering for real learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Roger E., Kagan O. & Kagan S. (1992). About Cooperative Learning. In Kessler (Ed.), *Cooperative Language Learning: A Teachers' Resource Book* (pp. 1-30). Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Storybird, (n.d.). Retrieved Feb 25, 2016, from <http://educ5553.wikispaces.com/file/view/Storybird.pdf>

Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning and Teaching. A Guidebook for English Language Teachers*. Macmillan books for teachers.

Tapscott, D. (2009). *Grown up digital: How the net generation is changing your world*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Teo, A.K. (2006). *Using a Peer Assisted Writing Activity to Promote ESL/EFL Students' Narrative Writing Skills*. The Internet TESL Journal, XIII (8). Available online at <http://iteslj.org/> . Retrieved on Feb 25, 2016.

Title

Spices Learning Model in Maximizing the Students' Writing Skill

Author

Siti Hajar Larekeng

Aryanti Tajuddin

Abstract

This article shed light on one learning model to solve the students' problem in writing, namely SPICES learning model. SPICES is the acronym for Student-centered, Problem-based, Integrated, Community-based, Elective, and Systematic.

This research is aimed at finding out: whether or not applying SPICES learning model significantly maximize the writing skill of the second semester students of Madrasah Aliyah Lil Banat Parepare.

The result of the study shows that the use of SPICES learning model significantly maximize the students' writing skill.

Keywords : *SPICES learning model, student's writing skill.*

Introduction

Gaining a new language necessarily involves developing four language skills in varying degrees and combinations: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The skills are divided into two, namely: receptive and productive skill.

Vergheese (2007: 78) elucidated that writing is a thinking process and is much more than an exercise in transcription or copying. Furthermore, he explained that writing is different from speaking in that it aims at compactness and precision in expression as well as grammatical, idiomatic, and orthographic accuracy and in that conventions of writing tend to be less flexible than those of speech. Moreover, the students who learns to write English has not only to cope with the mechanical problems connected with the script of the language but also with the problems of ease and fluency of expression, of grammatical and lexical accuracy and of the appropriateness of the style of writing as demanded by the occasion or situation. Learning to

write, therefore, is learning to use grammar with ease and facts in some sequential order as tools. In fact, teaching writing skill for the learners is difficult for some teachers. Kompf (2005: 54) reported that teachers frequently being dissatisfied with their own classroom practices in the area of curriculum, yet were unsure how to improve them. Generally, they felt they were implementing the procedures that they had learned at college and which they had read about in prescriptive texts on the teaching of writing, yet at the same time these procedures seemed unsatisfactory. In particular, teachers reported that their children lacked ideas and imagination in their creative writing, that little evidence of improvement in ability to use writing skills (in spelling, grammar, sentence structure and punctuation).

Clark (2007: 4) stated that most educators agree on the need for writing instruction in the content areas but differ on where instruction should occur. Because of curriculum demands, many teachers feel there is not enough time to teach writing in the content areas; adding one more component is just too much strain on the time and quality of lessons. In the meantime, those challenges for writing competencies can be caught on for scholars because of various elements, specifically: those lack for instructor's innovativeness in making straight models and methodologies.

These factors also became the reasons of the difficulty of English writing for students of Madrasah Aliyah DDI Lil Banat Parepare. Besides, the students stated that most of them found difficulties in starting writing and exploring their idea because the lack of vocabularies. The information was obtained through interview with the students. Their statement about the difficulty in writing is also proved through their writing score. From 40 students of the two groups, the experimental group and control group, there were 12.5% students gained good classification (between the ranges of 71 - 85), 57.5% of them gained fair classification (between the ranges of 56 - 70), and there were 12.5% of them gained very poor classification based on Dirjen Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah score classification.

No wonder with the result because usually the teachers just explain how to write well but they didn't show the right way to write, they didn't prepare right models in teaching writing skill, as the result, sometimes we find the learners become bored. Teachers ought to build the students' interest to write by using varieties models.

Viswanath (2006: 113) pointed out that a teaching model is a pattern or plan that can be used to shape curriculum or course, to design instructional materials and to guide a teacher's action. Thus, a model of teaching can be used to design face-to-face teaching in classrooms or tutorial settings to shape instructional materials including books, tapes, computer-mediated

programmes, curricula and long-term courses of study. In addition, by using an appropriate model, the process of teaching learning will be more interesting for both, teachers and learners, they can build a good interaction while teaching learning process, they can create a pleasant environment, the students can memorize easily what they have learnt, and apply them in their activity.

On the whole, this study was then intended to address the finding out the effectiveness of SPICES learning model in teaching writing. To know the result, the researcher compared the achievement between the students taught by using SPICES learning model and the students taught by Contextual Teaching Learning model.

Literature Review

Maghsoudi and Haririan (2013:64) reported that the instruction of brainstorming strategy had a positive effect on EFL learners’ writing achievements. It also made them more active, which might make them responsible for their own learning and likely to learn better. O’Connell (2009) proved that students who are well informed about medical education principles, such as the SPICES criteria, are more likely to be able to provide constructive feedback about their own medical education experience, contributing in the long term to course improvements.

SPICES Learning Model

Officially, SPICES model introduced in 1984 in the field of health. The SPICES model by Harden et al. (1984) presents six curricular approaches or strategies that are most relevant to health professions education, since all of them are already in use in varying extent. These strategies are considered as issues, as a spectrum between two extremes, the traditional side on the right and the innovative on the left. The six approaches are:

SPICES MODEL

Student-centered	-----	Teacher-centered
Problem-based	-----	Information dissemination
Integrated	-----	Discipline-based
Community-based	-----	Hospital –based
Electives	-----	Standard program
Systematic	-----	Apprenticeship-based

The curricular strategies in the SPICES model may refer to any of the different element of the curriculum. However, Student-centered or teacher-centered, Problem-based or information dissemination, and systematic or apprenticeships-based approaches are more descriptive of the learning experiences that students are provided with. The choice or utilization of such strategies is influenced by the philosophy and goals of the institution and the curricular track that has been adopted.

The researcher informed the students that they will be learnt by using SPICES model to write a descriptive essay, as in the following:

a) Student-centered

In this step, the researcher showed the students what to learn, the students identified educational resources available to help, and gave activities to help them understand and remember the material.

b) Problem-based

In this step, first the students brainstorming ideas about the topics prepared by the researcher, then they listed facts/ problems based on what they know from the topics to build a solution which one of the topics they will choose and prepare themselves to compose a descriptive essay.

c) Integrated

As stated in the previous chapter that Integrative learning requires students to blend perspectives. In this stage the students were stimulated to integrate their learning by reflecting on theoretical information encountered elsewhere in the course. Related information could also be made available in the session for reference or revision.

d) Community

In this step, the students were taught in community facilities, the researcher divided the students into several groups, and they discussed with their group mate about the topic related to descriptive essay.

e) Elective

As the explanation in the previous chapter that elective is the special study which allow each student choices in the precise content of their course, and the opportunity to learn how to study in greater depth. The main content of an elective with a core is determined by the outcomes the students must achieve by the end of the course. After 4 meeting through a variety of topics were appreciated by students, informally they reported an increasing interest in practicing as a

result and formally gave their opinion about SPICES learning model by completing the questionnaire.

f) **Systematic**

In this step, the researcher applied PAF (Presentation, Application, and Feedback) process in teaching,

1. P (Presentation) the researcher gave motivation, information transfer, and test for understanding.
2. A (Application) the researcher asked the students to practice to compose a descriptive essay and brainstorming about descriptive essay.
3. F (Feedback), the researcher pointed out important strengths, pointed out areas for improvement, and suggested ways to improve.

Methodology

This research used quasi experimental design which involved two groups, namely experimental group and control group. It was intended to test the hypothesis concerning the difference of two scores. The experimental group received treatment using SPICES learning model while the control group received treatment using Contextual Teaching Learning (CTL) model. CTL is the current model being used in that school. The control group was needed for comparison purposes to see whether teaching by using SPICES model effective or not to enhance the students' writing skill.

Writing test was intended to find out the students' prior knowledge and the initial skill before being treated using the SPICES model and to know how far is their skill and achievement after being treated using the SPICES model.

Findings

In this study, the researcher focuses on the improvement of students' achievement in five components of writing. It is parallel with Perkins (1990: 75). He revealed that the students' writing should fulfill the five significant components in writing. The five components are content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. The result in findings indicate that both the experimental and control groups have a significant increase in five components of writing after being taught writing for four meetings. However, the experimental group's result is higher than that of the control group.

To maximize the application of SPICES model, the researcher used several strategies like realia and brainstorming strategy.

This research proved that the use of SPICES learning is very helpful in teaching technical writing like descriptive skills. This model creates interest in the subject for the students. They become more creative in writing. Besides, the students can also get many advantages, the model makes the learning easier, it makes them free to choose a topic which they want to develop to be an essay, gives them wider ideas to be written.

Conclusion

The use of SPICES learning model can improve the students writing skill of the tenth grade students of Madrasah Aliyah DDI Lil Banat Parepare significantly. Furthermore, the use of this model also helps the students to construct the words to be a qualified essay and as the result, the students are able to write systematically and finish their writing task fast.

References

- Ary, Donald. (2009). *Introduction to Research in Education*. Canada : Cengage Learning, Inc.
- Clark, Sarah Kartchner. (2007). *Writing Strategies for Social Studies*. USA: Corinne Burton, M.A.Ed.
- Dent, John A. (2014). Using the SPICES Model to Develop Innovative Teaching Opportunities in Ambulatory Care Venues in Korean Journal of Medical Education, Vol. 26, No. 1, March 2014, Pg. 3-7.
- Fosnot, Catherine Twomey. (2005). *Constructivism*. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Gunawan, Muhammad Handi and Intan Satriani. (2012). Contextual Teaching Learning Approach in Teaching Writing, in Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 2, No. 1, July 2012, Pg. 10 – 22.
- Harden, RM., Sowden, Susette., Dunn,W.R. 1984. Educational Strategies in Curriculum Development the SPICES model in Medical Education, 1984, 18., 284-297
- Kompf, Michael. (2005). *Teacher Thinking Twenty Years On: Revisiting Persisting Problems and Advance in Education*. Netherlands: Sweets & Zeitlinger Publishers.
- Maghsoudi, Mojtaba and Javad Haririan. (2013). The Impact of Brainstorming Strategies Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Skill Regarding Their Social Class Status, in International Journal of Language and Linguistics, Vol. 1, No. 4 – 1, December 2013, Pg. 60 – 67.

- O'Connell, Henry. (2009). Spicing Up Medical Education (online) (<http://careers.bmj.com/careers/advice/viewarticle.html?id=20000269>, accessed on 19th March 2015)
- Othman, Normala., and Mohamed Ismail Shah.(2013). Problem Based Learning in the English Language Classroom, In English Language Teaching, Vol. 6, No. 3, February 2013, Pg. 125 – 134.
- Rodrigues, M.V. (2000). Perspective of Communication and Communicative Competence. India : Concept Publishing Company.
- Tuan, Luu Trong. (2010). Enhancing EFL Learners' Writing Skill via Journal Writing, In English Language Teaching, Vol. 3, No. 3, September 2010, Pg. 81 – 88.
- Vergeshe, Paul C. (2007). Teaching English as a Second Language. India : Sterling Publishers.
- Viswanath, H.N. (2006). Model of Teaching in Environmental Education. India : Discovery Publishing House
- White, Fred D. (1986). The Writers' Art: A Practical Rhetoric and Handbook. Pennsylvania: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Author's Bio profile Data

Name : Siti Hajar Larekeng
 Affiliation : Universitas Muhammadiyah Parepare
 Address of affiliation : Jalan Jenderal Ahmad Yani Km 6 Parepare
 Email : sitihajar7773@gmail.com

Co Author's Bio profile Data

Name : Aryanti Tajuddin
 Affiliation : SMP Negeri 13 Parepare
 Address of affiliation : Jalan Jl. Watang Bacukiki No.5, Watang Bacukiki, Kec. Bacukiki Kota Parepare
 Email : aryanti@gmail.com

Title

The Effects Of Cooperative Learning Techniques And Sociological Learning Styles On Academic Writing Ability

Author

Mardiana

Abstract

The objective of this research was to find out the effects of cooperative learning techniques and sociological learning styles on English academic writing ability. This research was experimental using a 2 X 2 factorial design conducted at English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar in 2011. The data were collected through an academic writing test and Sociological Learning Styles Inventory. The data analysis and interpretation indicated: (1) The English academic writing ability of the students who learned through CWRG-SE technique and through CS technique without interaction with learning styles did not show any significant difference; (2) The English academic writing ability of the students who preferred GBSB and who preferred GBSI without interaction with learning techniques did not show any significant difference; (3) There was an interaction effect between cooperative learning techniques and sociological learning styles on the English academic writing ability of the students;

Keywords: *cooperative learning techniques, sociological learning styles, academic writing, and experimental*

Introduction

Based on the preliminary study conducted by the researcher, it was found that the problems in writing English at English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar were writing and researching ability as well as the bureaucracy that should be endured by the students. The main problem was then considered as the biggest obstacle was the limited ability of scientific writing in English related to the thesis content ranging from the preparation of the background to the writing techniques. As a result, many of those who do not think for the long

term and then offense by using the shortcut ways to solve those problems. Students are often found quoting other works in part or whole by simply changing the location of the study and researcher's name of the previous thesis. This is commonly referred to plagiarism as a kind of thefts or copyrights infringement, or more commonly known as copy-paste conducted by students. This informal interviews conducted by the researchers to 20 students who are undergoing coaching thesis on Monday, December 20, 2015.

Practically, it had not found so far a clear formulation dealing with the scientific writing learning techniques used by lecturers in classes with courses supporting thesis writing. Based on the observations conducted by the researcher, there was a variation performed by teachers on subjects Writing. Some of them implement learning strategies that refer to product writing with classical learning model. These methods were classified as conventional ways because students were asked to write (Harmer, 2004: 4) on the sentence to discourse level on the topic that had been determined by the lecturers. For teachers who apply the writing process, the steps carried out start with planning to editing, but the treatment was still in the classical with the lecture method (Ghaith, 2002; Gillet, 2010; Wardani, 2007; Akhadiah, Arsjad, and Ridwan, 1996; and McCrimmon, 1984). They did not apply groups or pairs teaching strategy on the course so it looked low interaction among the students in the class.

To respond this issues, the lecturers as facilitator are expected to solve the problems with increasing their creativities by pursuing various innovative breakthrough in the use of methods and techniques for appropriate writing learning. In addition, teachers also need to direct the student's mastery of language skills to be applied in real situations contextually. Some innovations in the field of language teaching methodology have been conducted and published in various journals teaching languages to assist language teachers to improve their services to accommodate the students' learning needs in the class. Two fundamental things assumed as the cause of problems in the preliminary observation were the use of cooperative learning model and the use of student learning styles that have not been optimized. On the basis of the description, it is necessary to conduct a series of studies focused on the students' problems in scientific writing in English that happens to English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar.

Cooperative Writing Response Group and Self-Evaluation (CWRG-SE)

CWRG-SE is a learning technique that combines product and process orientation by relying on a positive response to the results of the writing group (Johnson, 1994: 26; Anthony,

1963). The group writing is a small group consisting of 3-4 people who do the writing learning activities (Medsker and Holdsworth, 2001: 287). The cooperation is intended as a response to the role of cooperation between the 'author' and 'reader' (audience) by providing a response or feedback about the positive sides or the advantages and strengths found in teammates' writing content (Porto, 2001). This writing learning techniques was developed by Porto in 1997 as the result of merging Cooperative Writing Response Group technique developed by Bryan (1996: 188-193) with an additional element of Self-Evaluation developed by Hansen (1996: 188-195).

Cooperative Script (CS)

CS (Lambiotte et al, 1988: 103) was introduced by Dansereau (1985: 209) as "A study method in the which students work in pairs and take turns Orally summarizing sections of material to be learned." The free translation of this definition is a learning technique that sets the students work in pairs and take turns summarizing portions of the materials studied (Newbern et al, 1994; Spurlin et al, 1984: 451-463; & Fuchs and Fuchs, 1998: 57-74). In other sources, it has not been found another definition of CS.

Sociological Learning Styles

Sociological learning styles or commonly called Sociological preferences in learning as a fraction of 5 groups of learning styles was introduced in 1978 by proponents of learning style, Dr. Rita Dunn, director of the Research Center for Learning and Teaching Styles St. John's University. Sociological Learning styles generally is defined as a preference in receiving, processing, and storing information or new knowledge with social orientation of individuals, in pairs, small groups, teams, guided by the teacher (authority learning/figure) or mixtures (Dunn and Dunn, 1998: 47). The term of 'sociological' on the model offered Dunn and Dunn (1978: 54) does not refer to social conditions in the sense or a broad scale, but only related to the tendency of students' options who like to learn by theirselves, or with colleagues, or motivated by a figure or teacher authority.

Research Method

This study applied experimental method with factorial design 2x2. It aimed to find out the influence technique cooperative learning (CWRG-SE and CS) and learning sociological styles (GBSB and GBSI) on the ability of scientific writing in English on 60 samples of the sixth semester students of English Education Department at UIN Alauddin Makassar.

The instrument used to measure the students' ability in scientific writing was writing scientific test developed based on the six components of writing technique (the developing ideas (ideas); structuring or organizing ideas through the process of deductive and inductive reasoning (organization); adjusting argument to the topic or theme (voice); using words in scientific terms (word choice); using cohesive and coherent sentences (sentence fluency); and using punctuation and spelling (conventions). To determine the learning style, it was used 50 items of sociological learning styles Questionnaire with 3 options.

The findings of scientific writing test were obtained by analyzing the correlation between 0.708 to 0.872 that were greater than the table value with $t_{0.05}$ (0,367). In other hands, all the items being the assessment criteria were declared as valid. For reliability with Cronbach Alfa equivalent to KR-20 on SPSS is 0.841, greater than the 0.411 Alfa table at $t_{0.05}$ and $t_{0.05}$ or the 18th items of the instrument were reliable. For learning styles questionnaire, 10 out of 60 items were invalid on the value table with $t_{0.05}$ (0.2523) – they are the number 14 (0.099) 15 (0.113) 16 (0.172) 17 (0.047), 18 (0.149) 27 (0.083) 30 (0.058) 37 (0.158) 38 (0.210), and 39 (0.213) so that 50 items were still valid. The reliability value with Cronbach Alpha was 0.929 – it was far from the Alfa table 0.2763 at $t_{0.05}$ and $t_{0.05}$ or the 50 items of the instrument were quite reliable.

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistical calculation of frequency distribution (f), mean (\bar{X}), and standard deviation (SD); and inferential factorial ANOVA or General Linear Model to test the effect of the variables with 2 x 2 factorial design (main effects and interaction effects) at the significance level $\alpha=0.05$ or 95% valid level. The analysis of factorial ANOVA was conducted after testing normality and homogeneity data. If the analysis showed an interaction, then the test was continued with Tukey test to see which treatment was superior. The data were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences). The results of the data analysis were presented in tables and graphs if it deemed necessary.

Findings And Discussion

Data Description on Group and Subgroups

The mean scores for CWRG-SE group (A1) were 2.67 with a standard deviation of 1.01; CS CS (A2) with a mean of 2.73 and standard deviation of 0.96; GBSB (B1) with a mean of 2.75 and standard deviation of 0.97; and GBSI (B2) with a mean of 2.65 and standard deviation of 0.99. The mean scores for CWRG-SE subgroups combines with GBSB (A1B1)

was 3.48 with a standard deviation of 0.62; CS combined with GBSB (A2B1) with a mean of 2.02 and standard deviation of 0.66; CWRG-SE combined with GBSI (A1B2) with a mean of 1.87 and standard deviation of 0.56; and CS combined with GBSB (A2B2) with a mean of 3.44 and standard deviation of 0.63.

The Findings of Analysis Requirements Test (Normality and Homogeneity)

The normality test criteria through Lilliefors accepted H_0 if the probability score was $L_0 > \alpha 0.05$, and rejected H_0 if the probability score was $L_0 < \alpha 0.05$.

H_0 : Data derived from a population of normal distribution

H_1 : Data dis not come from populations with normal distribution

The findings of normality test at the significance level and db30 for the group and db15 for the group and for subgroups by using SPSS obtained data as follows:

Tabel 4. The Findings of Normality Test

Groups	Db	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a	Value α	Range	Conclusion
A1	30	0,200	0,05	0,200 > 0,05	Distributed normally
A2	30	0,560	0,05	0,560 > 0,05	Distributed normally
B1	30	0,050	0,05	0,050 \geq 0,05	Distributed normally
B2	30	0,200	0,05	0,200 > 0,05	Distributed normally
A1B1	15	0,200	0,05	0,200 > 0,05	Distributed normally
A2B1	15	0,002	0,05	0,002 < 0,05	Not distributed normally
A1B2	15	0,130	0,05	0,130 > 0,05	Distributed normally

A2B2	15	0,200	0,05	0,200 > 0,05	Distributed normally
-------------	----	-------	------	--------------	----------------------

^a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Lavene test was used to test the homogeneity of the data. The criteria for decision-making based on the magnitude of the probability value compared to the value $\alpha 0,05$. If the probability value was greater than or equal to the value of $\alpha (\geq 0.05)$, we concluded that the data came from populations with the same variance or homogeneous. Results of homogeneity test in SPSS with 3 variants of the following data: (a) the value of the probability variant learning techniques CWRG-SE (A1) and CS (A2) was $0.775 > 0.05$; (b) the learning styles variant GBSB (B1) and GBSI (B2) was $0,829 > 0,05$; and (c) 4 groups factorial variance of learning techniques and learning styles (A1B1, A2B1, A2B1, and A2B2) was $0.839 > 0.05$. It can be concluded that all groups of data derived from populations having the same variant or homogeneous and received the null hypothesis (Ho).

Hypothesis Test Findings

The findings of factorial ANOVA calculation or General Linear Model - Univariate with SPSS were presented in the tables below:

Tabel 5. Descriptive Data among the variants

Dependent Variabel: Writing Ability

Learning Techniques	Learning Styles	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
CWRG-SE (A1)	GBSB (B1)	3,48	0,62	15
	GBSI (B2)	1,87	0,56	15
	Total 1	2,67	1,01	30
CS (A2)	GBSB (B1)	2,02	0,66	15
	GBSI (B2)	3,44	0,63	15
	Total 2	2,73	0,96	30
Total	GBSB (B1)	2,75	0,97	30
	GBSI (B2)	2,65	0,99	30
	Total 1 + 2	2,70	0,98	60

The findings of variant tests between the variables of learning techniques and learning Styles as follows:

Tabel 6. The Findings of ANAVA Test

Dependent Variabel: Writing Score

Dependent Variabel: Writing Score

Variant Sources	The Sum of Squares Type III	Mean Squares	F_h	Sig.	Non-centered Parameter	Observed power ^b
Corrected Model	34,92 ^a	3 11,64	30,39	0,0091,16		1,00
Interception	438,21	1 438,21	1144,010,001144,01			1,00
Learning Techniques (k)	0,05	1 0,05	0,12	0,730,12		0,06
Learning Styles (b)	0,14	1 0,14	0,37	0,550,37		0,09
Learning Techniques*	34,73	1 34,73	90,67	0,0090,67		1,00
Learning styles						
Errors	21,45	560,38				
Total	494,58	60				
Total Corrected	56,37	59				

a. Squares R = 0,619 (Squares Adjustment R = 0,599)

b. Calculated by alfa = ,05

The findings of Tukey test can be seen on the Table 7 as follows:

Table 7. The Findings of Tukey Test

Group Pairs compared	Q_{hitung}	Q_{tabel}	Range	Conclusion
Q ₁ (A1B1 dan A2B1)	9,21	3,01	9,21 > 3,01	Significant
Q ₂ (A1B2 dan A2B2)	-9,91	3,01	-9,91 < 3,01	Not Significant
Q ₃ (A1B1 dan A1B2)	10,18	3,01	10,18 > 3,01	Significant
Q ₄ (A2B1 dan A2B2)	-8,95	3,01	-8,95 < 3,01	Not Significant

Hypothesis 1 – accepting Ho: $F_h = 0,12$ ($F_h 0,12 < F_t 4,03$); ($0,73 > 0,05$), (students' scientific writing ability in English that learns through CWRG-SE and CS techniques were not significantly different).

In the description previously, the findings described the comparison of scientific writing class findings with two different writing learning techniques and ignore the aspect of sociological tendency of students' learning styles. Learning writing through CWRG-SE technique applied the 'process writing' model and was designed in group learning situations in the small groups (3-4 people) as compared with the CS technique which also accommodates 'process writing' models that is designed in pairs learning situation.

The important thing should be understood among students that there were individual feel more comfort studying in group – other sides, there were also students choose studying in pairs as well as individual. The data showed that hypothesis Ho was accepted and then implicated to the efforts in developing and completing cooperative learning technique especially for CWRG-SE and CS models that should consider other variables if it will be applied in scientific writing course.

Hypothesis 2 – accepting Ho: $F_h = 0,37$ ($F_h 0,12 < F_t 4,03$); ($0,55 > 0,05$), (there was no differences between students' ability of scientific writing in English between those who prefers to GBSBd and GBSI).

It indicated that sociological learning style preferences intended as an approach to learning that relate to students' sociological dimension predisposition factors. The findings showed that the students' sociological learning style preferences were also not a single variable that affects the ability of scientific writing in English at the Department. It was explained by the utterly rejected the alternative hypothesis that there were differences in students' ability of scientific writing in English between those who prefer to GBSB and GBSI.

The findings above implied that the variables of sociological learning style were not strong enough to be used as the sole factor that determines the success of the students in learning scientific writing in English. Another implication leads to the truth of theoretical filed by proponents of the learning style that even the learning styles tend to be fixed, especially the factors on physical and environment variables, but the factors in emotional and sociological variables (individual study, orientation in pairs, etc.) There are still opportunities to change along with the person's cognitive development and maturation. Therefore, the understanding of sociological learning styles and the elements were directed toward learning techniques

alignment flexibility for grouping aspects of learning that can be arranged so that students feel the justice in acquiring the rights to study.

Hypothesis 3 – rejecting H_0 : $F_h = 90,67$ ($F_h 90,67 > F_t 4,03$); ($0,00 < 0,05$), (Between learning techniques and learning style preferences owned by students, there were interaction effects that result in differences in students' scientific writing ability in English).

The findings showed the interaction between cooperative learning techniques with the sociological learning style preferences that significantly affect students' ability in scientific writing in English. Cooperative learning techniques (CWRG-SE and CS) in relative terms will effectively affect students' writing skills when learning style preferences correspond to the sociological (GBSB and GBSI) they have.

The findings above have not been explained about the group partner of learning techniques and learning styles that was superior to be used in learning scientific writing in English. The findings only give information about whether or not there is interaction between the variables tested. In other words, the adjustment of students' sociological learning styles with the cooperative learning techniques in this study comprises the interaction that takes place on scientific writing teaching and learning activities using English. Interaction in the activities that establish the interaction of physical, psychological, and social between students and faculty. Their interaction relationship has implications on the students' ability in scientific writing in English which also indirectly affect their cognitive development, conative, affective, and psychomotor (not included in the component being measured).

Conclusions

The conclusiong were; 1) the students' ability in scientific writing in English between those who learn through CWRG-SE and CS techniques without elaborating the learning style has not shown a significant difference; 2) the students' ability in scientific writing in English between those who prefer GBSB and GBSI without elaborating with learning techniques have not shown a significant difference; and 3) there was influence of the interaction between cooperative learning techniques and sociological learning styles of the students' ability in scientific writing using English.

It is suggested that; 1) the learning techniques that are tailored to the students' learning styles of students is a factor which influenced the increase of students' learning achievement. Therefore, there should be training for lecturers in form of refreshment in implementing

cooperative learning techniques, as well as other actual and accommodative techniques; 2) workshop for teaching scientific writing that is mainly associated with the students' thesis writing should be held to a unified vision in instruction and assessment and coaching thesis. This was deemed necessary given the constraints in terms of maintaining the lecturers' ego tendency on techniques and scientific writing process for students in accordance with their own background and experience; and 3) it should be considered to form a special team consisting of expert in teaching material design and learning style inventory design that will be able to work together to design a scientific writing learning program centered on students, especially in UIN Alauddin Makassar..

References

- Akhadiah, S., Arsjad, M. G., dan Ridwan, S. H. *Pembinaan Kemampuan Menulis Bahasa Indonesia*. Jakarta: Erlangga, 1996.
- Anthony, E. M. "Approach, Method and Technique". *English Language Teaching*, 17: p. 63-7, 1963.
- Bryan, L. H. "Cooperative Writing Groups in Community College", An Article in *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, Vol. 40/3, pp. 188 – 193, November 1996, International Reading Association.
- Dansereau, D. F. "Transfer from Cooperative to Individual Studying. *Journal of Reading*, p. 614-618, April, 1987.
- _____. "Learning Strategy Research", In J. W. Segal, S. F. Chipman, and R. Glaser (Eds.), *Thinking and Learning Skills: Vol. 1, Relating instruction to research*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1985.
- _____, Collins, K. W., McDonald, B. A., Holley, C. D., Garland, J. C., Diekhoff, G., and Evans, S. H. "Development and Evaluation of A Learning Strategy Program. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, p. 64-73, 1979.
- Dunn, R. and Dunn, K. *Practical Approaches to Individualizing Staff Development for Adults*. Westport, CT: Praeger, 1998.
- Dunn, R. and Dunn, K. *Teaching Students through Their Individual Learning Styles: A Practical Approach*. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing. 1978.
- Fuchs, L. S., and Fuchs, D. "Acquisition and Transfer Effects of Classwide Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies in Mathematics for Students with Varying Learning Histories", *School Psychology Review*, 24 (4), 604-621.1995.

- Ghaith, G. "Writing", In Nada's ESL Island, February 2002,
- Hansen, J. "Evaluation: The Center of Writing Instruction'. *The Reading Teacher*, (50), 3, 188–95, 1996.
- Harmer, J. *How to Teach Writing*. London: Pearson, 2004
- Johnson, D. W., and Johnson, R. *Learning Together and Alone: Cooperative, Competitive, and Individualistic Learning*. (4th Edition). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1994.
- Lambiotte, J. G., Dansereau D. F., O'Donnell, A. M., Young, M. D., Skaggs, L. P., and Hall, R. H. "Effects of Cooperative Script Manipulations on Initial Learning and Transfer". *Cognition and Instruction*, 5, p. 103-121, 1988.
- McCrimmon, J.M. *Writing with a Purpose*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1984.
- Medsker, K. L., and Holdsworth, K. M. *Models and Strategies for Training Design*. Maryland: ISPI, 2001.
- Newbern, D., Dansereau, D.F., Patterson, M.E., and Wallace, D.S. "Toward a Science of Cooperation", Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, April, 1994.
- Porto, M. "Cooperative Writing Response Groups and Self-Evaluation. An Article. *ELT Journal* Volume 55/1 January 2001, p. 38 – 46. Oxford:Oxford University Press, 2001.
- Wardani, I.G.K. *Karangan Ilmiah*. Jakarta: Penerbit UT, 2007.

Title

Exploring Policymakers` and English Teachers` Perceptions and Interpretations in Makassar towards Curriculum 2013 (A Mixed-Design Study)

Author

Djuwairiah Ahmad

English Education Department at The Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar, South Sulawesi – Indonesia

djuwairiah.ahmad@uin-alauddin.ac.id

Bio-Profile:

The writer is **Dr. Djuwairiah Ahmad, M.Pd., M. TESOL**. Currently, she is the head of Center for Languages Development and a Lecturer at the Faculty of Education and Teacher Training of the Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. She was also the head of English Education Department at the faculty in 2008–2015.

Abstract

The study investigated the policymakers` perspectives and English teachers` perceptions and interpretations regarding the reform of Curriculum 2013 (K-13) as a replacement for the previous curriculum. The participants were three policymakers and eleven English teachers from four different schools around Makassar, South Sulawesi. To ensure methodological triangulation, this study employed a mixed design, combining the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data, including classroom observations, interviews, and document analysis. From the policymakers` perceptions, the results revealed that K-13 was launched as a result of the failure of the previous curriculum, the anticipation of demographic and economic growth, and other benefits offered within the reform. Teachers perceived the reform to be lack of guidelines in the sense that teachers were lack of references to have comprehensive understanding of the curriculum in order that they could implement it well in their classrooms. They also suggested the difficulties around administrative matters, and

considered these to be more important than providing genuine lesson plans for their classrooms. As a result, they tended to focus more on fulfilling the administration than the implementation of the curriculum itself. Furthermore, the teachers pointed to the difficulties around designing lesson plans, teaching and learning processes, and the assessment of K-13.

Keywords: *Policymakers` and English Teachers` Perceptions and Interpretations, Curriculum 2013*

Introduction

The initial frame of this research was mainly on how the senior secondary school English teachers in Makassar viewed the ELT curriculum of 2006 (which is commonly called as KTSP 2006, and henceforth “KTSP”) and what exactly the government expected to happen with such curriculum at the level of implementation. The focus was then routed to the new curriculum which is called Kurikulum 2013 or 2013 Curriculum (henceforth “K-13”).

This research thoroughly examined perceptions and interpretations of English language teachers about the K-13 which are regulated by the government in response to the quality improvement of the teaching in Indonesia. As both curricula were newly regulated, different perceptions and interpretation was believed to emerge among teachers as the main stakeholders of curriculum development and its implementation. Some may believe that KTSP has been prescribed as it is in the attachment of the decree, while others maintain their conception that it needs development. In the case of the K-13, the teachers would have the relatively similar mind frame of the previous curriculum. The different perspectives among teachers in perceiving of what is intended by the government of KTSP and its succession of K-13 will lead to different interpretations and will normally end up with a question of a mismatch in the level of implementation.

Misperceptions about a revised curriculum among teachers are not without reasons. One working example for such misperceptions is what had happened in KTSP 2006. As it was the newly revised curriculum in 2006, KTSP provides “a new paradigm with which to create a working mechanism regarding curriculum decision-making in schools” (The Ministry of National Education, 2006:2). However, in the implementation of KTSP, it requires the presence of qualified educational personnel in all regions who are able to put the curriculum documents into practice. As a consequence, educational personnel in general, and teachers in particular, will have greater flexibility in assigning curricula at the classroom level. The teacher’s role in

curriculum decision-making at individual schools will require a greater level of expertise. Teachers with qualified training and teaching experience were assumed able to carry out the curriculum for students who are individually different. Therefore, transferring the power of responsibility from the central government to local government in decentralization context, in general, and national curriculum reform, in particular, need time for all related stakeholders, in this case the school teachers, to accept the change with appropriate knowledge and skills.

Problems of various kinds arising from curriculum implementation have been recognized as inevitable, and therefore the implementation is inherently more complex than what people can anticipate (Brindley and Hood, 1990; and Fullan&Stiegelbauer, 1991). This complexity can be perceived from several aspects, with stakeholders at different levels interpreting the curriculum policies differently than as originally conceived. First, policymakers produce policies with good intentions, but unforeseen and often unwanted results may occur as the policies are interpreted by the local implementing institutions. Second, as the policy interpreters, middle-level administrators may have their own interpretation of the policies. Third, the implementation may also be confounded by the resistance of the primary stakeholders, i.e., the teachers (Williams et al., 1994). Teachers may view the revised curriculum either negatively or simply differently than as was the intent of the policymakers (Karavas-Doukas, 1995), or view the innovations favorably but not incorporate the curriculum changes into their day-to-day classroom teaching for various reasons (Gahin and Myhill, 2001).

Studies of the impact of curriculum implementation on educational outcomes tend to adopt three different approaches (Snyder et al., 1992). First, the fidelity perspective determines “the degree of implementation of an innovation in terms of the extent to which actual use of the innovation corresponds to intended or planned use and to determine factors which facilitate and inhibit such implementation” (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977:340). Second, the mutual adaptation perspective (Berman and McLaughlin, 1980) studies how the innovation has been adapted during the process of implementation. The third perspective shifts its focus from studying the implementation and adaptation of proposed curricula to studying curriculum enactment. Studies with this last focus have examined how a curriculum is shaped through the evolving constructs of teachers and students (Paris, 1989). These three approaches have been used in the fields of general education and of language education to explore the effects of curriculum implementation on both teachers and students.

Some issues regarding the new revised curriculum has been identified, namely: (a) a mismatch of teachers’ perceptions and interpretations with the government’s intention on the

new revised curriculum is inevitable; (b) qualified educational stakeholders in all regions who are able to develop KTSP, to deal with K-13 and to put the curriculum documents into practice is required; (c) transferring the power of responsibility from the central government to local government in decentralization context needs time for all related stakeholders to accept the change with appropriate knowledge and skills then back to centralization in 2013; (d) there must be large constraints teachers encounter in their attempts at implementing the KTSP and mindset constraints in implementing K-13; and (e) the questions of how the intended curriculum interpreted and implemented by the English teachers so far.

Among the issues stated previously, this research only focused on describing the policymakers' perspectives on the issues of the school curriculum reform from KTSP into K-13 and English teachers' perspectives and interpretations towards the policy with special reference to ELT program at senior secondary schools in Makassar. To be more specific, this research is carried out to understand what perceptions the teachers have and how they interpreted the curriculum policy in their teaching practice.

Research Method

Since the purpose of this research is to understand issues associated with the policy design and teachers' policy perceptions, interpretations and implementation of K-13 with special reference to ELT program at the targeted senior secondary schools in Makassar, this research applied a mixed-method design. A mixed-method design is an approach that incorporates the collection, analysis and combining of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Creswell, 2005). For this study, the type of design selected was an explanatory mixed-method or a two-phase model in which the researcher first collects a small portion of quantitative data and followed by a large portion of qualitative data (quan-QUAL). This design enables the researcher to refine or elaborate the findings from the initial quantitative data through an extended and in-depth qualitative exploration of key issues which arise (Creswell, 2005).

Some questionnaires were developed to be used in collecting quantitative data as this instrument is quite efficient to get a broad understanding of the perceptions and interpretations of K-13 (Walen and Fraenkel, 2001). Then, the quantitative data were complemented by the collection of qualitative data from the participating teachers, giving depth to the study. In addition, qualitative data (Mertens 1998; Bogdan and Biklen, 2003; Guba and Lincoln, 2005)

were collected through classroom observation, informal discussion after each observation and interviews.

Moreover, this research was conducted for 19 months from October 2012 to April 2014 in the four targeted senior secondary schools of the K-13 implementation in Makassar and involved three policymakers at different levels and 11 English teachers. Then, the data about policy design of the progressive shift of the curriculum from KTSP into K-13 had been obtained from three policymakers; whereas, the data about perception and interpretations of the curriculum have been obtained from 11 senior secondary school English teachers.

Next, interviews were conducted through face-to-face interaction which ran for approximately an hour per interview per person. Across the interview, the following broad thematic areas were covered:

Teachers' perceptions about the K-13

Teachers' interpretation about the policy of the K-13

In-depth interview were also used to collect the primary data from the key informants of policymakers. The aim is to clarify the conceptions and intentions of reforming the KTSP into K-13. This is also to see the congruency of the intended and the enacted curriculum at the implementation level. The other technique was documentation by collecting relevant documents from various sources. The documents ranged from government regulations relevant to the research focus and samples of K-13 stuffs.

The validation of the data can be obtained by checking the credibility, dependability, transfersability, and comfirmability. In addition, the data collected from respondents, informants, and documents were analyzed using 'flow model' (see Figure 3.1) proposed by Miles and Huberman (1984).

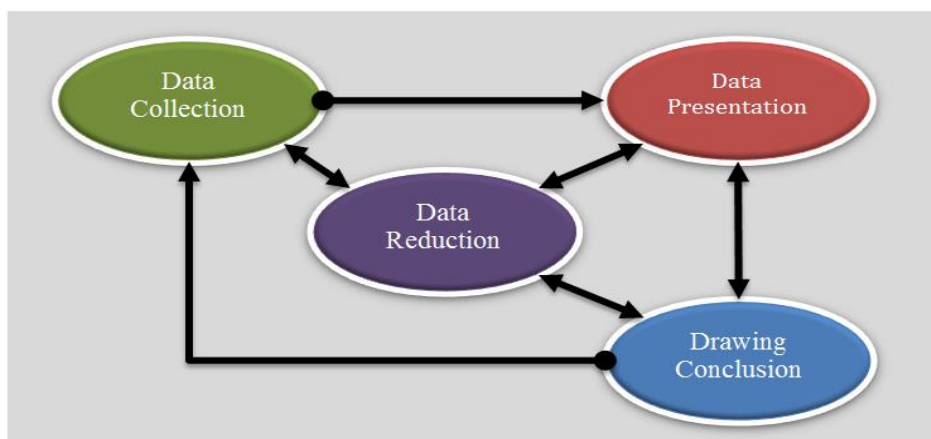


Figure 1 Flow Model (Miles and Huberman, 1984)

Findings and Discussion

The findings from the teachers' survey questionnaire results were the teachers' interpretations on some parts of the K-13. The key concepts which were elaborated into key questions in the survey questionnaires are: (a) the difference between SK and KI; (b) the ways to develop achievement indicators from KD; (c) synchronization of factual learning materials as part of Scientific Approach and materials of ELT in official textbooks; (d) views of Scientific Approach; and (e) views of Authentic Assessment. Table 5.12 below summarizes the key data about the teachers' interpretation of some parts of K-13.

Table 1. *Key Data Summary of Teachers' Interpretation of K-13 from the Survey Questionnaire*

Key Concepts	Emergent Interpretation
Differences between KI and SK	Different in Focus; Difficulty level; Lesson plan; Outcome Competence; Basic Competence; Assessment; Teaching approach; Teacher roles; World change
Developing Achievement Indicators and Sequencing KI in Lesson Plans	Bases: KD, Materials, Syllabus, Student Achievement, Scientific Approach, Class Level, Learning Activities, Skills, Models of Learning, Material Difficulty Level, Learner Competence Orders: Easier to Difficult; Material contain spiritual competence; Following syllabus, class level, Scientific Approach

Dealing with 'Facts' in English Learning Materials	<p>Maginary and imaginary text type</p> <p>Texts, sentences, pictures become the phenomena observed or questioned</p> <p>Students know the kinds of text;</p> <p>Not much in Textbook, needs to find authentic materials from magazines, newspaper or in the internet, familiar to students' life, contextual teaching and learning</p> <p>Have to explain material based on facts on phenomena</p> <p>Facts or phenomena are authentic materials, suitable with the students' needs</p>
Valuing Scientific Approach in ELT Practices	<p>Learning steps to make lesson easier to learn</p> <p>Problem based learning</p> <p>Adapted scientific procedures in learning</p> <p>Approach in learning using scientific orders and a good breakthrough in approaching learning</p> <p>An approach emphasizes modern pedagogical dimension in learning using scientific steps. The main activity takes 5-steps explained in the former question.</p> <p>Learning to adopt scientific to develop knowledge use scientific model</p> <p>An approach emphasizes modern pedagogical dimension in learning using scientific steps</p> <p>Approach that highlight the dimensions, observation, reasoning, discovery validation and explanation of truth</p> <p>Analyzing, asking, correlating</p>
Appraising Authentic Assess-ment in ELT Practices	<p>Efforts to measure competences through learning and teaching process, assignments and testing system</p> <p>Real assessment for all domains</p> <p>Measurement of intellectual accomplishments through observation, portfolio, and tests.</p> <p>Creative and varied ways of assessing</p> <p>Tasks-Based assignment</p>

Measuring real learning outcomes in attitudes, skills, and knowledge.

Integrated real life assessment for all learning outcomes and process domains

Measuring learning outcomes based on real outcomes in attitudes, skills, and knowledge

Measurement of intellectual accomplishments that are worthwhile, significant and meaningful

Real assessment that consist of spiritual, cognitive, and psychomotor achievements

The shift of KTSP into K-13 is not a rushed change and this study refuses the sound political arguments that “changing the minister will change the curriculum”. This refusal was based on the findings and discussions in the previous chapters. The study concluded the main findings based on the research questions posed earlier about the issues behind the curriculum reform from KTSP to K-13, especially the perceptions and interpretations the and policymakers and teachers have on K-13 in ELT

The issues underlying the curriculum change from KTSP to K-13 are concluded to be relatively similar to the issues in any curriculum changes in Indonesia. For the K-13, the issues are the failure of the former curricula, the anticipation on the world projected of Indonesian demographic and economic circumstances in the future, and the benefits offered within the curriculum change.

Although it has been proved in this study that the curriculum change from KTSP to K-13 is not a rushed decision, the study concludes that the Indonesian government has failed to work efficiently and effectively within the estimated time or in the planned schedule. This will become a negative precedence and a scapegoat for the unwanted failure of K-13 in the future.

The perception of the English teachers towards the curriculum change from KTSP to K-13 in English language teaching mainly leads to two main trends. The first trend is coming from the teachers who mainly look at the curriculum change as a positive, innovative, and creative change in the English teaching practice for the future of Indonesia. The change also gives impact to the transformation in the way teachers and students viewed the English learning from traditional view of learning to a modern pedagogic dimension. The second trend viewed the curriculum change as a superficial and conceptual change, and would likely to have the

same effects with the previous curriculum changes. Both the trends in teachers' perception seem to be in line with the knowledge and the teachers' belief system towards the change. The knowledge and belief system that the teachers have will be linked to their experiences on the implementation of the previous curriculum.

The interpretation of the teachers towards the curriculum change from KTSP to K-13 in ELT practices leads to two types of interpretation. The first type is the correct and comprehensive interpretation when dealing with the general concepts in K-13 in ELT practices. However, towards the applicable concepts, the teachers tended to interpret the concepts partially according to the teachers' level of understanding and procedural knowledge and the convenience of the application offered by the changing elements.

Therefore, the perception and interpretation the teachers have on K-13 in relation to the ELT practices are postulated to be in line with their knowledge and beliefs, mindset in teaching practice, government policy demands in teacher administrative tasks, and disregards their individual capacity to better create new learning atmospheres for students as highlighted by K-13.

Conclusion

Policymakers' perceptions, the results revealed that K-13 was launched as a result of the failure of the previous curriculum, the anticipation of demographic and economic growth, and other benefits offered within the reform. Teachers perceived the reform to be lack of guidelines in the sense that teachers were lack of references to have comprehensive understanding of the curriculum in order that they could implement it well in their classrooms. They also suggested the difficulties around administrative matters, and considered these to be more important than providing genuine lesson plans for their classrooms. As a result, they tended to focus more on fulfilling the administration than the implementation of the curriculum itself. Furthermore, the teachers pointed to the difficulties around designing lesson plans, teaching and learning processes, and the assessment of K-13.

References

Bogdan, R. C. and Biklen, S. K. 2003. Qualitative Research for Education: An introduction to Theories and Methods (4th Edition). Pearson Education, New York.

- Brindley, G., and Hood, S. 1990. Curriculum Innovation in Adult ESL. In G. Brindley (Ed.), *The Second Language Curriculum in Action* (pp. 232-248). National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Sydney.
- Creswell, J. W. 2003. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (2nd Edition). Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Fullan, M., and Pomfret, A. 1977. Research on Curriculum and Instruction Implementation. *Review of Educational Research*, 47 (2): 355-397.
- Fullan, M., and Stiegelbauer, S. 1991. *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (2nd Edition). Teachers College Press, New York.
- Gahin, G., and Myhill, D. 2001. The Communicative Approach in Egypt: Exploring the Secrets of the Pyramids. *TEFL Web Journal*, (online), Vol. 1, No. 2. (<http://www.teflweb-j.org/v1n2/GahinMyhill.html>, retrieved on July 24, 2011).
- Guba, E.G., and Lincoln, Y.S. 2005. Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions, and Emerging Confluences. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd Edition), (pp. 191-216). Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Karavas-Doukas, E. 1995. Teacher Identified Factors Affecting the Implementation of A Curriculum Innovation in Greek Public Secondary Schools. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 8 (1):53-68.
- Mertens, D. M. 1998. *Research Methods in Education and Psychology: Integrating Diversity with Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Sage, London.
- Miles, M. B., and Huberman, A.M. 1984. *Qualitative Data Analysis*. Sage Publications, Inc., California.
- Paris, C. 1989. *Contexts of Curriculum Change: Conflicts and Consonance*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Snyder, J., Bolin, F., and Zumwalt, K. 1992. Curriculum Implementation. In P. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*, (pp. 402-435). Macmillan, New York.
- Walen, N., and Fraenkel, J. 2001. *Educational Research: A Guide to the Process* (2nd Edition). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey.
- Williams, P., Williams, M., Guray, C., Bertram, A., Brenton, R., and McCormack, A. 1994. Perceived Barriers to Implementing A New Integrated Curriculum. *Curriculum Perspectives*, 14 (1):17-23.

Government Regulations:

Attachment of the Regulation of the Ministry of National Education Number 22 Year 2006
Education and Culture Ministerial Regulations Number 67, 68, 69, and 70 on Fundamental
Framework and Curriculum Structure from Elementary to Senior Secondary and
Vocational Secondary School.

Government Regulations Number 32 Year 2013 (The Revision of Government Regulations
Number 19 Year 2005 about the National Standards of Education)

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education Number 24 Year 2006 Article 2 Verses
1 – 2

The Regulation of the Ministry of National Education Number 24 Year 2006

Title

Students' Need on English Language

Author

Ika Yanti Ziska

Universitas Muhammadiyah Parepare

ikayantiziska@gmail.com

Abstract

The objective of need analysis is to find the students' needs, wants, necessities, and lacks in learning English. This study also wants to know how important of English language for their future, what difficulties they face, and what they want in the learning process. Therefore, the results of this study also make the lecturer easy to compose the suitable materials for the students.

The population of this study is the students of biology department of FKIP UMPAR which consists of two classes. Where class A consists of 20 students, and class B consists of 20 students. In this study, the researcher will use class A as the sample. It means, the sample take based on cluster random sampling. The kind of this study is classroom observation which conducted in to three steps. The first step was classroom observation for all of the students. The second step was giving questionnaire for them. The last step was interview. The instruments used are questionnaire and interview. The result of the instruments analyzed by descriptive analysis.

Based on the result, the researcher found that more than 83% of the students likely study English for once in a week. In the learning process, they also interested in Vocabulary class. They do not really like composed a paragraph and reading comprehension. They think that mastering vocabulary is better that composing idea.

Key Words: *Need analysis, students' needs, learning English.*

Introduction

A. Background

Need analysis in a language program is often viewed simply as identification of the language forms that the students will likely need to use in the target language when they are required to actually understand and to produce the language. Need analysis procedure may involve interview with the students to determine perception of their major language difficulties, observation of students in class, and also need analysis by questioner.

Need analysis can be distinguished between subjective and objective. Objective need as derivable from different kinds of factual information about learners, their use of language in real life communication situations as well as their current language proficiency and language difficulties. Subjective the cognitive and affective needs of the learners in the learning situations, derivable from information about affective and cognitive factors such as personality, confidence, attitudes and learners wants or need.

The aims of a need analysis are thus to determine the types of situations in which lectures will be using English, the tasks and activities they are expected to carry out or take part in English, and their exiting language skills or abilities with respect to those tasks.

B. Problem Statement

Based on the background above the researcher think that the lecturer of English language should compose the suitable materials for the students. Therefore, in doing this research, the researcher formulated a research questions, as follows:

“How important the need analysis of English language subject conducted at education of biology department?”

C. Objective of the Research

Based on the background of need analysis, this particular study aimed at finding out:

1. To find out the important of English for biology students.
2. The difficulties experienced by biology students on English language subject.

3. To determine the suitability between English materials and the students' need.
4. To determine the ability of the English that the students' need to improve for future.

D. Significance of the Research

Based on the objectives stated above, the researcher tries to find the suitable materials for the biology students in learning English. Basically, significance of the research is divided into two parts of the significance; they are theoretical significance and practical significance. In the theoretical of significance, the researcher expected, this research gives successful information generally to teaching of English especially for the learning and teaching English process. In practice significance, there are five significances expected by the researcher, such as:

1. For the education world, the result of this research to be consideration in developing materials.
2. For English lecturers, the result of this research is expected as a way in varying materials, so they can make this research as one of their references to improve teaching process. Additionally, it is a useful and meaningful contribution in repairing the quality of teaching process in classroom.
3. For students, the result of this research is expected to make them enjoy in learning English. It also can motivate the students to study English.
4. For curriculum designers, the result of this research is expected to be a reference in composing and developing the curriculum.
5. For the next researchers, the result of this research is expected to be meaningful information and to give motivation for the next researchers in creating another research concern to English for Specific Purposes.

Review of Related Literature

A. The Concept of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

We have defined ESP as an approach to course design which starts with the question 'why do these learners need to learn English?' but it could be argued that this should be the starting question to any course, General or ESP. All courses are based on a perceived need of

some sort. Otherwise why would English find its way on to a school or college timetable: someone at some time must have decided there was a need for it. What then, in the terms of our definition, is the difference between ESP and General English?

The answer to this very reasonable question is ‘in theory nothing, in practice a great deal. It is often argued that the needs of the general English learner, for example the schoolchild, are not specifiable. This is an assumption that owes more to institutional inertia and the weight of tradition than to any reality, but it is a powerful force nevertheless. In fact, this is the weakest of all arguments, because it is always possible to specify needs, even if it is only the need to pass the exam at the end of the school year. There is always an identifiable need of some sort.

What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the *existence* of a need as such but rather an *awareness* of the need. If learners, sponsors and teacher know why the learners need English, that awareness will have an influence on what will be acceptable as reasonable content in the language course and, on the positive side, what potential can be exploited. Thus, although it might appear on the surface that the ESP course is characterized by its content (Science, Medicine, Commerce, Tourism etc), this is, in fact, only a secondary consequence of the primary matter of being able to readily specify why the learners need English. Put briefly, it is not so much the nature of the need which distinguishes the ESP from the general course but rather the awareness of a need. (Chusnul et. al. 2011)

This being said, we would still maintain that any course should be based on an analysis of learner need. This is one way in which ESP procedures can have a useful effect on General English and indicates once more the need for a common approach. The answer to the analysis will probably be different, but the questions that need to be asked are the same. Nevertheless, for the time being, the tradition persists in General English that learner needs can’t be specified and as result no attempt is usually made to discover learners’ true needs. Thus if we had to state in practical terms the irreducible minimum of an ESP approach to course design, it would be needs analysis since it is the awareness of a target situation-a definable need to communicate in English-that distinguishes the ESP learner from the learner of General English.

The most thorough and widely known work on needs analysis is John Munby’s *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978). Munby presents a highly detailed set of procedures

for discovering target situation needs. He calls this set of procedures the communication Needs Processor (CNP). The CNP consists of a range of questions about key communication variables (topic, participants, medium etc) which can be used to identify the target language needs of any group of learners.

The work marked a watershed in the development of ESP. with the development of the CNP it seemed as if ESP had come of age. The machinery for identifying the needs of any group of learners had been provided: all the course designer had to do was to operate it. However, *Communicative Syllabus Design* proved to be a watershed in quite another way. By taking the analysis of target needs to its logical conclusion, it showed the ultimate sterility of a language-centered approach to needs analysis. It illustrated, in effect, not how much could be learnt from a scientific needs analysis, but rather how little.

The answer lies in the first of our questions about needs analysis: what do we mean by needs? ‘In the language-centered approach, the answer to this question would be the ability to comprehend and/or produce the linguistic features of the target situation’, for example the ability to understand the passive voice. Thus what the CNP produces is a list of the linguistic features of the target situation. But there is much more to needs than this.

B. Target Needs

In the first instance, we can make a basic distinction between *target needs* (i.e. what the learner needs to do in the target situation) and *learning needs* (i.e. what the learner needs to do in order to learn. We shall consider *learning needs* later, but even within the category of *target needs* we can identify further divisions under the general heading of need.

1. What are target needs?

Target need is something of an umbrella term, which in practice hides a number of important distinction. It is more useful to look at the target situation in the terms of *necessities*, *lacks* and *wants*.

a) Necessities

We can call ‘necessities’ the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. For example, a businessman or-woman might need to understand business letters, to communicate effectively at sales conferences, to get the necessary information from sales

catalogues and so on. He or she will presumably also need to know the linguistic features-discoursal, functional, structural, lexical,-which are commonly used in the situations identified. This information is relatively easy to gather. It is a matter of observing what situations the learner will need to function in and then analysing the constituent parts of them. (Chusnul et. al. 2011)

b) Lacks

To identify necessities alone, however, is not enough, since the concern in ESP is with the needs of particular learners. You also need to know what the learners know already, so that you can then decide which of the necessities the learner lacks. One target situation necessity might be to read texts in a particular subject area. Whether or not the learners need instruction in doing this will depend on how well they can do it already. The target proficiency in other words, needs to be matched against the existing proficiency of the learners. The gap between the two can be referred to as the learner's lacks (Hutchinson, Waters and Breen 1987).

c) Wants

It can be seen from this analysis that objective and subjective views of needs can, and do, conflict, with a consequent de-stabilizing effect on motivation. What should the teacher do in such a situation? There can be no clear-cut answer. Each situation must be judge according to the particular circumstances. What is important is that the ESP course designer or teacher is aware of such differences and takes account of them in materials and methodology. There is little point in taking an ESP approach, which is based on the principle of learner involvement, and then ignoring the learners' wishes and views.

2. Gathering information about target needs

It follows from the above account that the analysis of target needs involves far more than simply identifying the linguistic features of the target situation. There a number of ways in which information can be gathered about needs. The most frequently used are:

Questionnaires,

Interviews;

Observation;

Data collecting e.g, gathering texts;

Informal consultations with sponsors, learners and others.

In view of the complexity of needs which we have seen, it is desirable to use more than one of these methods. The choice will obviously depend on the time and resources available. It is also important to remember that needs analysis is not a once-for-all activity. It should be a continuing process, in which the conclusions drawn are constantly checked and re-assessed.

The analysis of target situation needs is in essence a matter of asking questions about the target situation and the attitudes towards that situation of the various participants in the learning process. Detailed procedures for gathering information are beyond the scope of this book. The simple framework below outlines the kind of information that the course designer needs to gather from an analysis of target needs.

A target situation analysis framework

Why is the language needed?

- for study;
- for work;
- For training;
- For a combination of these;
- For some other purpose, e.g. status, examination, promotion

How will the language be used?

- medium: speaking, writing, reading, etc;
- channel: e.g. telephone, face to face;
- types of text or discourse: e.g. academic texts, lectures, informal conversation, technical manuals, catalogues.

What will the content areas be?

- subjects: e.g. medicine, biology, architecture, shipping, commerce, engineering;
- level: e.g. technician, craftsman, postgraduate, secondary school

Who will the learner use the language with?

- native speakers or non-native;
- level of knowledge of receiver: e.g. expert, layman, student;
- relationship: e.g. colleague, teacher customer, superior, subordinate.

Where will the language be used?

- physical setting: e.g. office, lecture theatre, hotel, workshop, library;
- human context: e.g. alone, meetings, demonstration, on telephone;
- linguistic context: e.g. in own country, abroad.

When will the language be used?

- concurrently with the ESP course or subsequently;
- frequently, seldom, in small amounts, in large chunks.

In view of what has been said earlier in this chapter about needs and wants, it is clear that interpretations of needs can vary according to the point of view of the particular respondent. ESP, like any educational matter, is concerned with people, and as such is subject to all the vagaries and foibles of human behavior. For example, in analyzing the needs of students, it would be normal practice to ask both the lecturers and the students about their English needs. There may be a tendency on the part of the lecturers to exaggerate the need for English, since English-medium instruction is often considered to have higher status. The lecturer, in other words, has a personal investment in giving the impression that the level of English needed is high. The students, on the other hand, may give a much lower indication of the need for English, because they know (or would prefer to believe) that it is not really necessary. They might consider their interest to lie in English for their future employment, for social purposes or even in not having English at all.

3. Learning needs

Till now we have considered needs only in terms of target situation needs. We have been considering the question: 'what knowledge and abilities will the learners require in order to be able to perform to the required degree of competence in the target situation?' using our analogy of the ESP course as a journey, what we have done so far is to consider the starting point (lacks) and the destination (necessities), although we have also seen that there might be some dispute as to what that destination should be (wants). What we have not considered yet

is the route. How are we going to get from our starting point to the destination? This indicates another kind of need: learning needs.

To understand what is meant by learning needs, let us look a little more closely at what happens in the analysis of target situation needs. In looking at the target situation, the ESP course designer is asking the question: ‘what does the expert communicator need to know in order to function effectively in this situation?’ this information may be recorded in terms of language items, skills, strategies, subject knowledge etc.

What the analysis cannot do, however, is show *how* the expert communicator *learnt* the language items, skills and strategies that he or she use (smith, 1984). Analyzing what people do tells you little, if anything, about how they learnt to do it. Yet, the whole ESP process is concerned not with *knowing* or *doing*, but with *learning*. It is naïve to base a course design simply on the target objectives, just as it is naïve to think that a journey can be planned solely in terms of the starting point and the destination. The needs, potential and constraints of the are going to have any useful analysis of learner needs.

In the target situation they may need, for example, to read long, dull or complex texts, but their motivation you do so may be high because:

- they like the subjects in general;
- examinations are looming;
- job/ promotion prospects may be involved;
- they may be going on to do very interesting experiments or practical work based on the texts;
- They may like and/or respect the subject teacher or boss;
- They may be very good at their subject, but poor at English.

For all manner of possible reasons learners may be well motivated in the subject lesson or in their work, but totally turned off by encountering the same material in an ESP classroom. The target situation analysis can determine the destination; it can also act as a compass on the journey to give general direction, but we must choose our route according to the vehicles and guides available (i.e. the conditions of the learning situation), the existing roads within the learner’s mind (i.e. their knowledge, skills and strategies) and the learners ‘motivation for traveling.

4. Analyzing learning needs

To analyse learning needs, we can use a similar checklist to that used for target situation analysis:

A framework for analyzing learning needs

Why are the learners taking the course?

- compulsory or optional;
- apparent need or not;
- are status, money, promotion involved?
- what do learners think they will achieve?
- what is their attitude towards the ESP course? Do they want to improve their English or do they have to spend on it?

How do the learners learn?

- what is their learning background?
- what is the concept of teaching and learning?
- What methodology will appeal to them?
- what sort of techniques are likely to bore/alienate them?

What resources are available?

- number and professional competence of teachers;
- attitude of teachers to ESP;
- teachers' knowledge of and attitude to the subject content;
- materials;
- Aids;
- opportunities for out-of-class activities

Who are the learners?

- age/sex/nationality';
- what do they know already about English?
- What subject knowledge do they have?
- What are they interest?
- What is their socio-cultural background?

- What teaching styles are they used to?
- What is their attitude to English or to the cultures of the English speaking world?

Where will the ESP course take place?

- are the surroundings pleasant, dull, noisy, cold, etc?

When will the ESP course take place?

- time of day
- every day/once a week;
- Full-time/part-time;
- Concurrent with need or pre-need.

Methodology

A. Need Analysis Method

This study is a kind of descriptive research that applied quantitative method in data analyzing. Data analyzed and tabulated by using Microsoft Excel.

B. Setting of the Study

This analysis conducted at biology department of FKIP UMPAR . It is located on Jalan Ahmad Yani KM. 6 Parepare. The researcher spend eight months in conducting this study. A month for observation, four months for treatment and test, two months for analyzing data, and the last a month for finishing the report.

C. Population and Sample

The population of this study is all of the students of the second level of Biology department of FKIP UMPAR in the academic year 2015/2016. Where class A consists of 20 students, and class B consists of 20 students. In this study, the researcher chooses class A as the sample. It means, the sample take based on cluster random sampling as the technique.

D. Procedure of Collecting Data

In data collection, the researcher was use questionnaires and interview. In this research, the researcher use three kinds of test, and it formed like the simple forms of multiple choices. The test will measure the student's opinion, difficulty, what actually they need. The tests

consists of 3 items of multiple choice, 10 items of observation checklist, 8 items of questionnaires and 6 items of interview.

E. Technique of Analysis Data

In data analysis, the researcher analyzed data by using frequency formula. Its means that the researcher pays attention about the students answer and determines how many percent of students choose every choice in the paper. Beside that the data also tabulated by using Microsoft Excel.

Findings and Discussion

This chapter deals with the result of data analysis. It is describing into different graphs. The first figure shows the result for question checklist, the second describes the questionnaire, and the third is focus on the result of the interview.

1. Question checklist

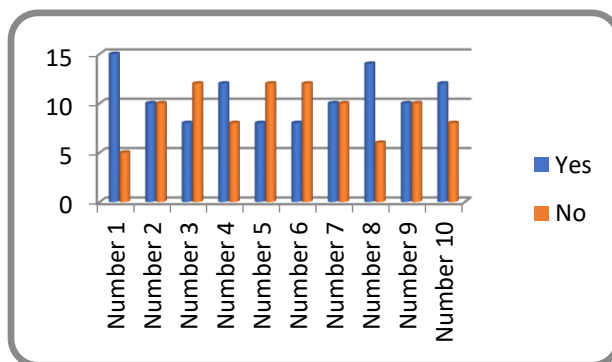


Figure 1. The Description of Question Checklist

Based on the chart 1 above, question number 1 shows that 50% of the respondent stated that learning English is difficult, in other side, 50% stated it is not difficult. Number two indicates same opinion. In number three, more than 50% of the respondents said that the English material given in the classroom was not suitable with their department. This is the main point of this study. Next to number four, most of the students argue that the learning process in the classroom is not effective. Moreover number five, they are stated that the material given by the lecturer was difficult to comprehend. Next to number six, most of them

said that they are not interest with the materials. In other side, number seventh focus on time allocation in learning process. The result shows that half of the respondents are agree about the time allocation. Question number eighth concern about the available references. Most of the students argue that during the learning process, the supporting references are quite enough. Number nine ask about the problem in learning English. Fifty percent of their answer indicates that they are solving it based on the lecturer solution. The last point of this chart is about the role of the lecturer in helping their problems. Most of them realized that the contributions of the lecturers are really appreciated.

2. Questionnaire

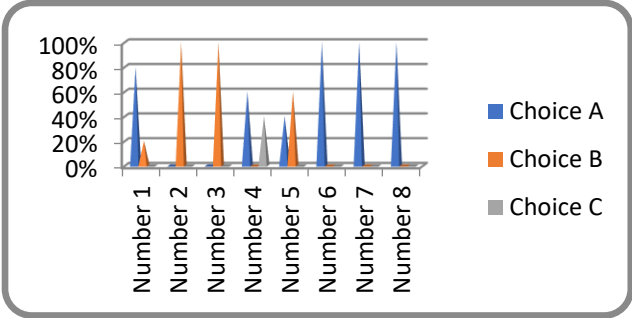


Figure 2. The Result of Questionnaire

This second figure deals with the result of eight numbers of questionnaires. Each number offers three choices.

3. Interview

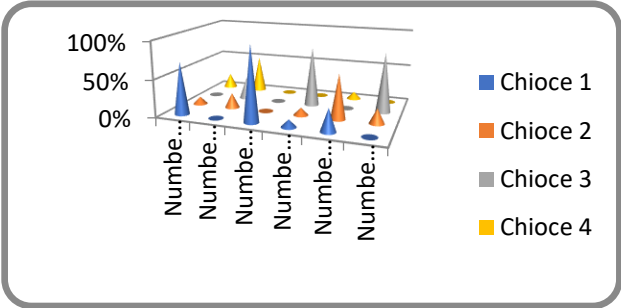


Figure 3. The Result of Interview

Conclusion and Suggestion

A. Conclusion

English is very important for students of Biology department to develop their career as a teacher candidate. Especially in speaking ability it will very useful in workplace/school. They need many of vocabulary based on their major to fluent their speaking. Unfortunately, their environment is not support them. Especially, the media and the method at the campus are not adequate. Therefore the students need take an English course to make them focus in learning English based on their need. The English course has a good environment because the student will be more motivated to practice their English every time. Finally the English learning acquisition of the students will be effective and support their career later.

B. Suggestion

Based on the conclusion above, the researcher would like to present some suggestion as follows:

1. For the educational policy, the result of this research may be useful information for the education government in case constructing the curriculum. Also in composing the national examination (UN).
2. For the English lecturers, the result of this research indicates that the lecturers of English at Biology department have to find the suitable materials to the students. They also have to apply need analysis first before implementing the available curriculum at the campus. It is better if need analysis conducting in every year for different new students.
3. For the students, it is suggest to motivate their self to study more about English and realize how important English for their future. As we know that the output of English subject are really important for their future career, especially in teaching process.
4. For curriculum designers, the result of this research is expected to be a reference in composing and developing the curriculum.

5. For the next researchers, the result of this research is expected to be meaningful information and to give motivation for the next researchers in creating another research concern to English for Specific Purposes.

Bibliography

- Boroujeni, Samira Atefi and Fard, Fateme Moradian. 2013. *A Need Analysis of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Course for Adoption of Communicative Language Teaching*, in International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention, Vol. 2, Issue 6, June 2013, pp 35-44.
- Brown, Roger . 2014. *A First Language: The Early Stages*. Oxford, England: Harvard U. Press.
- Clark, Beverly A. *First and Second Language Acquisition in Early Childhood*.
- Clark, Eve V. 2009. *First Language Acquisition; second edition*. United Kingdom; Cambridge University Press
- Cohen, Andrew D. 1994. *Second Language Learning and Use Strategy*. Minneapolis: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.
- Corder, S. P. 1974. The Significance of Learners' Error. In Jack C. Richard, (ed). *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman Group Limited
- Ellis, Rod. 1990. *Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell
- Gay, L. R., et al. 2006. *Educational Research*. USA: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hariwijaya, M. 2007. *Metodologi dan Teknik Penulisan Skripsi, Thesis, dan Disertasi*. Yogyakarta: eLMATERA Publishing.
- Hutchinson and Waters. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Hossain, Md. Jamal. 2013. *ESP Need Analysis for Engineering Students: A Learner Centered Approach*, in Presidency University, Vol. 2, No. 2, July 2013, pp 16-26.
- Labov, W. 1970. *The Study of Language in its Social Context*. Middlesex: Pinguin Books Ltd

- Mahsun. 2005. *Metode Penelitian Bahasa*. Jakarta: PT. Raja Grafindo Persada.
- Munby. Jhon. 1978. *Communicative Syllabus Design*.
- Richards, Jack C. 1974. *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*.
London: Longman Group Ltd
- Seedhouse, P. 1995. *Need Analysis and the general English Classroom*, in *ELT Journal*, 49/1,
pp.59-65.
- Songhori, Mehdi Haseli. 2008. *Introduction to Need Analysis*, in *English for Specific Purposes*
world, Issue 4, 2008.
- Sugiyono. 2007. *Statistika Untuk Penelitian*. Bandung: Alfabeta
- Westerfield, K.2010. *An Overview of Need Analysis in English for Specific Purposes*, in *Best Practices in ESP E-Teacher Course*, Oregon: University of Oregon, 2010, pp. 1-6.