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Title

Of Learning beyond the Class:
A Survey on Millennial Generations of Indonesian Pre-Service Teachers

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Introduction

Different circumstances of learning English as a foreign language in any places regardless those where authentic and meaningful exposure as well as is difficult to access due to its status have already been widely made by rapid development of technology and media. The technology and media had led the millennial generation (or generation Y) who epitomize *'the digital native'* to unavoidably get into unintentional use of English since they often interact with people across the state borders. This generation has more positive view of technology, which might influence the characteristic of their learning English, especially in the context of EFL. Even though Indonesia is one of the *expanding circle* countries (according to Karachi concept of world Englishes) where English exposure for learners is much subjected to classroom teaching since the status of English is not as the nationwide lingual franca, for the millennial generations it has virtually given much richer English exposure since the technology helps them optimize their learning English through social media. Thus, out-of-class mode of learning becomes big promise as a panacea for solving one of the problems in escalating the success of teaching and learning English in the expanding countries. The out-of-class learning, which theoretically was based by autonomous learning and self-directed learning, in fact offers a new path in recent atmosphere of EFL learning. Many research findings told the importance of out-of-class learning, for instance, the important role of teachers' advice on motivating students' attempts to do out-of-class learning

(Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010), how learners' activities after class go on through utilizing technology, or how students use technology for any activities beyond the class after joining their teachers' use technological resources in class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011). Obviously, the use of technology is really helpful for empowering students to explore learning beyond the class. In the context of ELT in the expanding country, for example, Al-Shehri (2011) identifies potential use mobile phones and social networking to contextualize language learning. Another researcher, Al-Shahrani (2012), also highlights the urgent need for Saudi EFL teachers to consider such technologies in their teaching. It is apparent that relating in-class learning to the out-class learning in ELT means significant in the context of accelerating the students' accomplishment. Pre-service teachers as the future teacher candidates need to be empowered in terms of maximizing how to manage out-class atmosphere to help students' learning in class. This study aims at surveying how pre-service teachers of the millennial generations viewed learning beyond the class and what *in-class* efforts they took to drive students' *out-class* learning when they do practice teaching. Specifically, the study answered the following research questions:

- How do EFL pre-service teachers empower the students to make *out-of-class* speaking practices through home-assignments?
- How are EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the *out-of-class* practices with students through daily-talks outside the lesson hours?
- How do EFL pre-service teachers believe about media that the students used for self-directed learning outside the class?

Review of Literature

The defined concept of learning beyond the classroom always relates the concept of learner's autonomy. It refers to the mode of learning which give more spaces on *out-of-class* learning, *out-of-school* learning, *after-school* learning, *extracurricular and extramural* learning, *non-formal and informal* learning, *self-instructed* learning, *non-instructed and naturalistic* learning, *independent* learning, or *self-directed* learning (Benson, 2011). In regard with EFL acquisition, learning beyond the class is helpful for the L2 acquisition, according to Ellis (2008), can happen most rapidly via a combination

of formal instruction and exposure to the target language. This mode of learning in fact meets the learner's needs and preferences, as it is believed to be very helpful to for accomplishing better achievement learners (Victori & Lockhart, 1995). There have been many researches supporting the effectiveness of out-class learning, i.e. some findings revealing that learners with better proficiency often admitted their success to out-of-class learning (Benson 2011; Lamb and Reinders 2008; Ushioda 2001, Yorozu 2001, Wenden 2001, Lamb 2002; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Pickard 1995); others showed the important role of teachers' advice on motivating students' attempts to do out-of-class learning (Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010). In addition, other studies confirmed that after joining their teachers to use technological resources in class, students tend to use them for any activities of learning beyond the class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011); however, because of a lack of technological resources or ability to use them, learners are not confident to engage out-of-class learning (Gamble et al., 2012; McKinney, Vacca, Medvedeva, & Malak, 2004). Therefore, some teachers still need knowledge or skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources, which finally can drive them for the *out-of-class* use (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

Furthermore, the role of learning beyond the classroom is extremely useful in increasing quality of the L2 learning outcomes since it is help utilize to obtain ample exposure of the target language. Bialystok (1981) said that out-class exposure is really helpful for learners to achieve language tasks. This idea was supported by many research findings, i.e. Scarcella and Oxford (1992: 183) who assured that target language community provides information about L2 registers helping development of proficiency for learners; and Rubin and Thompson (1994: 22) who revealed that target language discourse beyond the classroom offers learners appropriate use of language and the nature of conversation.

A shifting ground occurred in the terminology of teacher education for the past 30 years. By the mid-1980s, studies on teacher education put their main focus on how the teachers engaged in complex thinking and interpretation when they taught their students in the classroom (Elbaz, 1983; Clandinin, 1986). Other recent researches suggested to put the term '*teacher education*' into the superordinate terms of *teacher training* and *teacher development*. This concept told the absence of the dichotomous and

sequential programs in the teacher training and teacher development; instead, they have to serve as complementary and integrated strategies (Freeman, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Freeman, 1989). In regard with this notion, Johnson (2009) said that knowledge base of L2 teacher education encapsulated at least three broad areas, i.e. 1) knowledge about what L2 teachers need to know, 2) knowledge about how L2 teachers should teach and 3) knowledge about how L2 teachers learn to teach. All these knowledge need to be given to the students of L2 teacher training in order to prepare them in the anticipation of being professional L2 teachers after they graduate. Studies focusing on L2 teachers and activities of L2 teaching urged that the essential knowledge which is critical for L2 teachers is the content of L2 teaching itself (Freeman and Johnson, 1998); pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987); or practitioner knowledge (Hiebert et al, 2002). The content of L2 teaching per se has been connected to the disciplinary knowledge about SLA theories and how to apply these to language instruction in the classroom. Many studies revealed a long-made claim telling that SLA plays a critical role in how L2 is taught (Chaudron 1988; O'Malley and Chamont 1990; VanPatton 1989). Pedagogical content knowledge is methodological knowledge in L2 teaching, which classified by Freeman et al (2009) as the *pedagogical content knowledge* (capacity to transform content into accessible or learnable forms – curriculum/syllabus) and the *pedagogical practical knowledge* (teaching itself—teaching methods, classroom management, and evaluation). Practitioner knowledge means the one that is generated from L2 teachers who experienced more real practices in L2 teaching and learning. In addition, there are also more findings (Burns 1999; Cochran-smith and Lytle 1999; Edge and Richards 1993; Freeman 1998) that legitimated practitioner knowledge as an important thing for L2 teacher education.

The emergence of TESOL in 1960s brought about a debate on the two strands of the core of curriculum in L2 teacher education, whether focusing more on the *content* or *delivery* (Burns & Richards, 2009), the *practical teaching skills* or *academic knowledge* (Johnson, 2009). However, more recent literature argued that the main goals of L2 teacher education focused on examining the students' mental processes and situated and social nature of L2 learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991); thus L2 teachers have to consider the target language as a means of mediating thinking (Vygotsky, 1978; Leont'ev, 1981); or as Gee (1996, 2004) labeled '*social language*' which means language can serve

different functions in society; or as in line with what Bhaktin (1981) said that any L2 utterance creates contexts of use and genre. Furthermore, Freeman and Johnson (1998) supported that direction of teaching and learning in the L2 teacher education give more attention to how language learners acquire L2, rather than on how L2 is practiced and learned. In this mode of learning, L2 teacher educations should stress the importance of teacher proficiency and professional development (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), language proficiency (Lavender, 2002), or language skills maintenance program that engages L2 teachers-in-preparation in independent language task (Barnes, 2002). Burns & Richards (2009) gave the perspective that L2 teacher education should not be viewed as translating knowledge and theories into practices but rather as constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes. As a consequence, L2 teaching and learning process occurred through social interaction within a community of practice.

Learner autonomy has been becoming the general concept that illuminated the discussions of EFL *out-of-class* learning. Among the various definitions of learner autonomy, Benson (2008), Garrison (1997), and Stolk et al (2010) summarized two layers of autonomy, namely: the students' abilities to self-regulate by empowering surrounding opportunities, and abilities to self-regulate across contexts. Various researches told the results on the importance of teachers' advice in encouraging learners to do learning outside class (Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010). Others found that after joining their teachers to use technological resources in class, students tend to use them for any activities of learning beyond the class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011). In addition, the influence of assignment, assessment and materials given in class toward both the quality and quantity of learners' autonomous learning beyond the class (Fukuda & Yoshida, 2013; Guo, 2011; Saad, Yunus & Embi, 2013; Zhan & Andrews, 2014). However, some learners do not have more confidence in engaging the out-class learning due to the lack of technological resources or ability (Gamble et al., 2012; McKinney, Vacca, Medvedeva, & Malak, 2004); thus, teachers still have to get the skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources which finally are able to drive them for the *out-of-class* use (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

There has been growing interest in investigating teacher's cognitive aspect (i.e.

teachers think, know, and believe) and its connection to classroom activities in L2 teaching for the last 30 years (Woods, 1996; Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2006). The investigations used insights from the science of psychology to argue that understanding teacher's cognition is the vital to understand teaching. Teacher belief which is latent was often unconsciously used in making the assumptions about learning activities (Kagan, 1992: 65, cited in Ferrell, 1999: 2). In addition, according to Richards "*teacher beliefs form a set of principles that are derived from experience, school practice, personality, education theory, reading, and other resources*" (Richards, 1998: 66-67). Evidently, more research findings revealed the significance of belief about in-class learning activities to the language learner success in both inside and outside class (see Feiman-Nemser and Floden 1986; Richards, et al. 1991; Freeman 1992a; Johnson 1992a; Yang, 1999; Horwitz, 1988; Farrell, Thomas S.C. and Bennis, K., 2013; Zare-ee, A & Salami, M. 2014; Lamb, 2008; Lai, Lai, Wang, & Lei, 2012).

Method

Participant

The current study used pre-service teachers (i.e. students of faculty of teacher training) from three different Indonesian universities, i.e. Mulawarman University, Borneo University, and Widyagama Mahakam University as the respondents. There were 150 participants consisting of 44 students taken from faculty of teacher training in Mulawarman University, 57 students from Borneo University, and 49 students from Widyagama Mahakam University (table 1). The participants were either those who have experiences in teaching English in schools/courses while they studying or those who have already taken the *micro teaching* course and *internship teaching* course as a part of the prerequisite credits for the Bachelor Program (or *Sarjana - SI*) of English language education. The sampling technique used was random sampling. In addition, the participants have provided their informed consents to account for research ethic.

Table 1: Distribution of sample

No	Name of University	Number of samples
1	Mulawarman University, Samarinda	44
2	Borneo University, Tarakan	57
3	Widya Gama Mahakan University, Samarinda	49
Total		150

Instrument

The questionnaire was developed by combining items adopted and adapted as well from various existing questionnaires about belief references, *out-of-class* ELT learning, and autonomous learning in EFL class (Kaypak & Ortactepe, 2014; Richards & Lockhart, 1992). There were two parts of the questionnaires: 1) close-ended (Appendix 1), and 2) open-ended (Appendix 2). The close-ended contained 13 statements on four-point Likert scale (*strongly agree, agree, disagree* and *strongly disagree*), consisting of 4 items asking the way EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make *out-of-class* speaking practices, 4 items asking the way EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the *out-of-class* practices with students, and 5 items asking how EFL pre-service teachers believed about media the students used for self-directed learning outside the class. Meanwhile, the open-ended consisted of the same statements that have been put in the open-ended questionnaire, but asking the reasons why EFL pre-service teachers chose the item with least agreement on them.

The questionnaire were piloted to other 15 undergraduate students of the faculty of teacher training, Mulawarman University. The purpose of the piloting was to have comments on the unclear or ambiguous items from the participants of the pilot groups. On the basis of the results of the piloting, the revisions were done for the betterment of the questionnaires before they were used. When they were used in real field, the questionnaires was translated in Indonesian language for the purpose of complete comprehension.

Data Collecting Procedure and Analysis

The data were collected by distributing questionnaires to the participants. The process of fulfilling the questionnaires was tightly supervised by enumerators to ensure the participants' seriousness in answering the questions and to avoid misinterpretation. There were twice administration of distributing questionnaire; first, the participants were asked to fulfilled the close-ended questionnaire; then based on the result of the first questionnaire, the participants were classified into two groups: 1) high group, i.e. those who have high total score of agreement and 2) those with low total score of agreement. The score was < 50 for the low, and above > 50 for the high. Those with low total score of agreement were then given chance to answer the second part of the questionnaire. The data from the close-ended questionnaire were then analyzed by using SPSS 14.0 program. Descriptive statistics (i.e. to know the minimum and maximum score and the mean of the items answered in the questionnaire) were used. In the meantime, data from the open-ended questionnaire were calculated by using frequency analysis and themes of reasons.

Findings

Results of open-ended questionnaire

To answer the first research question, the result of the close-ended questionnaire revealed various answers expressing the EFL pre-service teachers' agreements on the statements given. As shown in table 2, the mean score of the statement '*I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home*' was the highest (*mean= 2.16*) among the four ways EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make *out-of-class* speaking practices. It means that most EFL pre-service teachers do attempts to maximize the *out-of-class* speaking practices by giving their students more English reading materials to read at home. On the other hand, the statement of '*I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home*' was the statement that gained the weakest agreement (*mean=1.26*). It can be drawn that less EFL pre-service teachers gives assignments related to practice speaking with native English speakers found in surrounding their home place.

Table 2: The way EFL pre-service teachers empowered their students to make out-of-class speaking practices through home-assignments

Statement	# of items	Min	Max	Mean
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home	4	1	4	2.02
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home		1	4	1.72
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class		1	4	2.16
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home		1	4	1.26

n = 150

For the answer of the second research question, EFL pre-service teachers in fact also have ways in which they did practices with learners outside the class. According to the result of close-ended questionnaire (table 3), participants were asked whether they were involved themselves in four activities as their daily talks with learners outside the class in four options, i.e. 1) "in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places", 2) "in the extracurricular activities such as English conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular advisor", 3) "in routine small talks outside the lesson hours", and 4) "in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.". Of all statements given, the smallest agreement was put by the participants on the statement of "the daily out-of-

class talking" (mean=1.300); meanwhile the biggest agreement was put on the statement of *"in the extracurricular, such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser"* (mean = 1.787). This means that being an adviser of curricular activity such English conversation club seems favorite to the EFL pre-service teachers for their means of being involved in practicing their English with their students outside the lesson hours. Interestingly, they are not interested *in routine small talks outside the lesson hours*, which is in fact also the way of outside class practice with the students. Compared to the extracurricular activity, the *routine small talks outside the lesson hours* is more freely done, instead of not being formally managed; therefore it is too informal to involve. Evidently, it the formality which tends to lead the EFL pre-service teachers to do speaking practice with the students outside the lesson hours.

Table 3: *The way EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the out-of-class practices with students through daily talks*

	# of items	Min	Max	Mean
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</i>	4	1	4	1.60
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser</i>		1	4	1.78
I have daily talks with my students <i>in routine small talks outside the lesson hours</i>		1	4	1.30
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</i>		1	3	1.60

n = 150

In terms of how do EFL pre-service teachers believed about media their students used for self-directed learning outside the class, participants under study were given 5 statements to which they had to give their agreements. As shown by table 4, the strongest

agreement was put in the statement of “*I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class*” (mean=3.21); while the statement which had least agreement was “*I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class*” (mean=2.67). It means that according to EFL pre-service teachers beliefs, EFL learners in this region have no problem if they want to utilize authentic media such as broadcasting programs for enriching L2 exposure. However, most EFL learners do not often meet foreigners as sources persons for practicing to speak English.

Table 4: How do EFL pre-service teachers believed about media the students used for self-directed learning outside the class

	<i># of items</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>
I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class	5	1	4	3.20
I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class		1	4	3.21
I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class		1	4	2.84
I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class		1	4	3.14
I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class		1	4	2.67

n = 150

Results of open-ended questionnaire

On the basis of the result of the first questionnaire, there were 50 participants who were classified as the low group. To these 50 participants, the second questionnaire was given. The result showed various reasons expressed by the EFL pre-service teachers of the low score group. The typology of reasons are presented based on each research question.

For the first research question, the reason typologies appeared in the answers of the open-ended questionnaire are: 1) *being pessimistic with the students' willingness to do the assignments*, 2) *do not want to burden the students*, and 3) *other reasons*. As shown in table 5, for the statement of *"I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving their students English reading materials to read at home"* the dominantly given reason typology was *'do not want to burden the students'* (frequency=60%), followed subsequently by *'being pessimistic with the students' willingness to do the assignments'* (frequency=33%), and *"other reasons"* (frequency=7%). For the second statement, i.e. *"I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with peers at home"* the dominant reason typology was *"being pessimistic with the students' willingness to do the assignments"* (frequency=85%); while the reason typology of *"do not want to burden the students"* was 10%, followed by *"other reasons"* which was only 5 %. For the statement of *"I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving their students assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class"*, the dominant reason reason typology was *'do not want to burden the students'* (frequency=80%); while the reason typology of *"were pessimistic with the students' willingness to do the assignments"* was 22%, followed by *"other reasons"* which was 8 %. In the meantime, for the statement of *"I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home"* the reason typology dominantly chosen by the participants was *"being pessimistic with the students' willingness to do the assignments"* (frequency=55 %), followed subsequently by reason typology *"do not want to burden the students"* (40%), and *"other reasons"* (5 %).

Table 5: Reasons why EFL pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement the way EFL preservice teachers empowered the students to make out-of-class speaking practices

	<i>The results of frequency analysis and theme coding</i>		
	<i>Being pessimistic with students' willingness to do the assignments</i>	<i>Do not want to burden the students</i>	<i>Other reasons</i>
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home	33%	60%	7%
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with peers at home	85%	10%	5%
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class	22%	80%	8%
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home	55%	40%	5%

n=50

For the second research question, similarly there were various reason typologies; however, each statement revealed different reason typology after theme coding was conducted. As shown in table 6, for the first statement, i.e. *“I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places”*, dominantly participants expressed the reason typology why they put less agreement was because of *“not being used to”* (frequency=65%); meanwhile others said they *‘were afraid of violating the consultation content’* (frequency = 29%); and only 6 % of them said *“other reason”*. In addition, for statement *“I have daily talks with my students in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities”*, dominantly participants used *“Extracurricular is only for students ”* (frequency=87%) as their reason typology ; and others, i.e. 32% of them, said the reason typology *“not being used to”* (frequency=32%); while other small number (frequency=8%) of respondents expressed *“other reasons”* as their reason typology. For the third statement, namely, *“I have daily talks with my students in the daily out-of-class talks”*, dominant participants (frequency=87%) chose *‘not being used to’* as their reason typology; and the other (10%) said they *“are shame to others”* if they speak English outside class; and only 3 % said *“other reason”*. Furthermore, for the statement of *“I have daily talks with my students in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.”*, most participants (90%) chose *“not being used to”* as their reason typology, and only 6% of them said the reason typology why they do not speak English in such outside-class activity was *“for efficiency”*; while 4 % expressed *“other reason”*.

Table 6: *Reasons why pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement in involving themselves in the out-class practices with students*

	<i>The results of frequency analysis and theme coding</i>		
<i>I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</i>	Not being used to	Be afraid of violating the	Other reasons

	consultation content		
	65%	29%	6%
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities</i> as a curricular adviser	Not being used to	Extracurricular is only for students	Other reasons
	32%	60%	8%
I have daily talks with my students <i>in in routine small talks outside the lesson hours</i>	Not being used to	Being shame to others	Other reasons
	87%	10%	3%
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</i>	not being used to	For efficiency	Other reasons
	90%	6%	4%

n=50

The third research question showed another different reason typologies made by the participants in the open-ended questionnaire. As seen in table 7, for the first statement, the biggest percentage (88%) of the reason typology is on *'almost everyone has cellular equipped with internet, but they are not thinking of utilizing it for learning'*; meanwhile there were 10 % saying *"they are not used to"*; and 2% said *"other reasons"*. For the second statement, there was 66% of the reason typology said *"they have such TV channels, but they prefer watching Indonesian TV channels to English TV Channels"*; 30 % saying *"they are not used to"*; and 4% said *"other reasons"*. The third, fourth and fifth statements have only two the reason typology: *"they do not subscribe such magazines or newspapers" as the reasons* is the dominant reason typology for statement 4; *"they do not like western songs/films"* for the dominant reason typology for statement 3; *"they cannot find such expatriates"* is the dominant reason typology for statement 5 (table 7).

Table 7: Reasons why pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement in involving themselves in the out-class practices with students

<i>The results of frequency analysis and theme coding</i>			
I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class	Almost everyone has cellular equipped with internet, but they are not thinking of utilizing it for learning	They are not used to	Other reasons
	88%	10%	2%
I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	They have such TV channels, but they prefer watching Indonesian TV channels to English TV Channels	They are not used to	Other reasons
	66%	30%	4%

I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	They do not subscribe such magazines or newspapers	Other reasons
	78%	22%
I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	They do not like western songs/films	Other reasons
	67%	33%
I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class	They cannot find such expatriates	Other reasons
	87%	13%

n=50

Discussion

The process of utilizing courses of L2 exposure in the forms of *out-of-class* speaking practices in the EFL teaching can be partly accelerated by the teachers as it was seen in the ways EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make *out-of-class* speaking practices. As it was found in the study, '*giving students English reading materials to read at home*' is their favorite way; while '*giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home*' is the uninterested way. Moreover, the ways EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the *out-of-class* practices with students also becomes one of the attempts that the EFL pre-service teachers used to enrich their students' L2 exposure outside the class. As it is

found, the favorite way is being involved in '*the extracurricular, such as English conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser*'; meanwhile, the uninteresting one is being involved in '*the routine small talks outside the lesson hours*'. However, there was psychological condition which could hinder EFL pre-service teachers to utilize all teaching views about the role of *out-class* learning in EFL teaching; it was expressed in their reason typologies expressed by the low-scored group. From those findings, one could conclude that in the context of remote schools, since technological resources is lack and human mindset for hard-working (both teachers and students) is still poor as well, then the *in-class* learning atmosphere - let alone the *out-of-class* one, is not well-developed for better attempts as it was showed in the participants' reason typologies why they did not frequently give such out-of-class practice assignments. Obviously, psychological problems seem to be dominant in this context, that is to say mindset of always being pessimistic to see learners which finally causes them to feel awkward to the learners. Similarly, psychologically teachers' habits of not doing the activities, fears, and feeling inconvenience with students are becoming dominant reasons why teachers did not make habits of speaking with students outside classroom as daily practices in important school events such as teacher-student consultations, extracurricular activities, or daily talking outside the class in school time.

However, even though facing with problems of being pessimistic in using L2 environment *in-* as well as *out-of class* exposure, EFL pre-service teachers still have great efforts to motivate learners by assigning the out-of-class assignment in order that they maximize their the use of L2 exposure as well as make the learners immersed in L2 practices as a habit beyond the class. This principle is in line with some previous research findings which assured that the degree to which a learner is immersed in L2 (e.g., Carroll, 1967; Flege et al., 1999), the extent of L2 exposure (e.g., Birdsong, 2005; Genesee, 1985; Kohnert, Bates, & Hernandez, 1999; Weber-Fox & Neville, 1999), or extent of on-going L2 use (e.g., Flege, MacKay, & Piske, 2002; Jia et al., 2002) are all very influencing in attaining the L2 proficiency. Moreover, some other previous research findings (see Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010) confirmed the importance of teachers' roles to motivate students' attempts to do out-of-class learning. In addition, apparently teachers' knowledge or skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources finally are able to drive the *out-of-class*

use of technology (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

Especially for the beliefs, EFL pre-service teachers of millennial generations had strong beliefs about media that the students used for self-directed learning outside the class, even though there was still a small number of them who are not sure about their beliefs. The current study found that English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc are believed as the favorite media for L2 learning beyond the class; meanwhile expatriates (native speakers) as source persons for practicing L2 learning beyond the class is believed to be the uninteresting way used by the students. It implies the fact that millennial generations who were born as *'the digital native'* get more in touch with digital world as their daily life fashion do influenced the way they believe about the media for self-directed learning outside the class. Consequently, the EFL pre-service teachers were sure that those media can be found easily in their regions and can be used as a means of learning L2 both in- and outside-class although in the actual teaching actions, they still have problems in applying such beliefs. This suggests a good future teaching fashion for the next generations of NNESTs since they drive the EFL class by utilizing the courses of L2 exposure in the forms of *out-of-class* speaking practices. Evidences on the power of beliefs in the enhancement of successful L2 teaching have been shown by some researches (i.e. Woods, 1996; Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2006; Feiman-Nemser and Floden 1986; Richards, et al. 1991; Freeman 1992; Johnson 1992a; Yang, 1999; Horwitz, 1988; Farrell, Thomas S.C. and Bennis, K., 2013; Zare-ee, A & Salami, M. 2014; Lamb, 2008; Lai, Lai, Wang, & Lei, 2012).

Conclusion

The three main tenets discussed in this study obviously bring about two pedagogical implications. First, it is important that EFL teaching and learning be directed to real acquisition both in- and out-of class. Psychological burdens such as bad habits in learning, fears, unsecured feeling, unwillingness, etc., should be broken down soon if the teachers have held good beliefs about learning. Consequently, L2 classroom atmosphere should be very enjoyable so that learners do not feel they are learning, which finally increases their motivation to acquire the L2 outside class as the ways to maximize utilizing opportunities of L2 exposure. Second, it is the time for the remote school decision-makers to have more moment for *L2 real-life practices* in which all schools

components (headmaster, teachers, students, janitors, or even student parents) are obligated to speak as the lingua franca at that moment. This can help decreasing everyone's feeling of being shame to speak English, or good habit of doing good things in learning.

The methodological limitation that should be informed from the current study is that the data were obtained through only one instrument (i.e. questionnaire). Pre-service teachers' classroom actions described in this study were on the basis of the participants confessed as fulfilled in the questionnaire. Therefore it is paramount that the study revealing early data suggests further more crosschecks from classroom observation.

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APPENDIX 1:

The Close-Ended Questionnaire

Instruction

* Check (v) one of the columns after the statements under provided options (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree) as describing your real agreements!

STATEMENT	Options			
	Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home				

I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home				
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class				
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home				
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</i>				
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser</i>				
I have daily talks with my students <i>in routine small talks outside the lesson hours</i>				
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</i>				
I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class				

I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class				
I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class				
I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class				
I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class				

APPENDIX 2:

The Open-Ended Questionnaire

Instruction

* *Write your reasons (in the right column) why did you put less agreement on the statements (in the left column)*

Statement	My reasons
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home	
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home	
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or	

read English Newspapers and report the works in class	
I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home	
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</i>	
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities</i>	
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the daily out-of-class talks</i>	
I have daily talks with my students <i>in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</i>	
I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class	
I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	
I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	
I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class	

<p>I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class</p>	
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Title

Investigating Preferred English Teacher Characteristics of Asian Millennial Students

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Abstract

Asian Millennial English Language students live in a world that is significantly different from past generations, as globalization becomes normalized; ; the ease and speed of information has molded a new type of English student and customer, whose classroom mannerisms and instructor characteristics have unexplored preferences. A Students preference of the best language teacher enhances their educational performance (Horwitz, 1985; Yu, 2006; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Chan, Chin & Suthiwan, 2011; Truitt, 1995; Tuponsky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Nikatina & Fumitaka, 2006; Kuntz, 1996). Discounting or ignoring Asian millennial sensitivities can cost both the students and the institutions that serve them by neglecting to tap into their potential and most importantly, pose a loss of resources by reduced English acquisition in students (Bambacas, Sanderson 2011). This study attempts to make known the leanings and preferences of these students in regards to white privilege (Moussu, 2006) for the native speaker teacher (Hackert, 2013; Mahboo 2010), colourism, and more, so administrators and decision makers remain viable in this new age.

Keywords: *student preferences, millennials, colourism, gameification, native speaker*

1. Introduction

The Economic impact of the millennial aged students success or failure in English is too significant for administrators to not take into consideration the

preferences in regards to a successful language learning experience (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005) (Brain, 2013).

- 1.1. A 46 question trial study was executed with 240 participants; Malaysian Millennial aged University Engineering students of which a 50% split of Ethnic Malays and Chinese Malaysians with 50% gender split: “Investigating; Preferred English Teacher Characteristics of Malaysian Students” (Litowski, Haroon, 2016). The purpose was to survey the students for preferences and characteristics of English teachers; in order to determine if racialisation towards Caucasians is in effect in this generation especially in regards to their English teachers. The purpose for the quantity of questions with wide ranging categories was to eventually narrow down for a more focused strategy in future research. The final question of the survey was an open question; a qualitative instrument where the question was posed “Please describe the characteristics of a good English teacher and explain why.”

This qualitative portion of the survey was highly successful in regards to gathering feedback from these millennial students and this anonymous communication tool overshadowed the results of the data in the survey in regards to validity and authenticity. 90% of the Millennial Asian Students indicated a need for more engagement in the classroom environment with equal opinions of Malays, Chinese Malaysians, Males and Females gave the same or similar answers. There was a unanimous lack of interest in a race preference for their ideal English Teacher.

1.2 Why in Malaysia?

Malaysia is a multicultural country that is home to a diverse ethnic landscape. Over 600 thousand expatriate students studied in Malaysia in 2014 and most of them require English training. Malaysia is peaceful (Salleh, Lokman & Rahman, 2013) has a comfortable tropical climate and understands diversity due its own ethnic mix of 60.3% Malays, 22.9% Chinese Malaysians, 10% other Malaysians (including mixed race and Eurasians), 6.8% Indian Malaysians (Mahari, 2011). Having gained independence from British rule in 1957, Malaysia, in contrast to some of its previously colonized neighbours, accepted influence in its country particularly by the British (Dubois, 1935; Yacob & White, 2011; Pailey, 2014),

one such influence is in the area of English language learning. The Malaysian government has stated on occasion, that English is a required alternative language for all of its students.

1.3 Millennials

Each generation grouping is for a period of 18 years and each has its own personality (Dang, 2014), quirks, culture and each is labelled accordingly. The group is often given a generic nick name until their characteristics and differences evolve differentiating them from generations past. They are affected by wars, lack of wars, economic times (Cosseboom, 2015) parenting trends, products, technology and a plethora of other factors.

Millennials were first called Gen Y, lazily named alphabetically after Gen X, until their characteristics became more for front. Millennials as a nick- name describes the time of their birth more than their personalities. They were kids all around the time of the millennial year turn over which was a distinctive time period. As they aged their particular character traits are being recognized throughout the world. Millennials in Asia have some similar characteristics to millennials in the western world. Some of the alternative nick names are: Generation Rent (they have jobs but the hope of purchasing their own homes are slim), Google generation, Digital Natives, Gen Why?, Their characteristics according to (Debard, 2004) are: special, sheltered, confident, team oriented, high achieving, pressured, conventional, accepting.

Millennials' educational needs due to their easy access to the internet and hours spent with screen time must be understood to know how to cater to them. It stands to reason that those in decision making roles in their lives are not Millennials and unless they understand the dynamics of this generation it is difficult to motivate, educate (Price 2009) in the the same way its been done for years. It is practical and students fronted to adapt the delivery of lessons not to the style of the teacher but to the style of the learner (Stanley, 2001).

2. Original Research questions

- What are the preferences of Asian millennial students in regards to their English teacher characteristics?

- Are there differences in the characteristics across genders?
- What factors contribute to these teacher characteristic preferences?

These questions were the starting point but not necessarily the ending point of the research. Using the BALI Survey from 1986 (Horowitz, 1985) we learned that students learn best when they think they have the best teacher. This research delves into the preferences of the Asian millennial English student with the following questions but swerved over time due to the grounded approach's adaptation, due to experience and evidence.

2.1. Methods of Research

This research will utilize the qualitative method (Jensen, 2010) of research applying the grounded approach based in the social sciences. The qualitative approach will be used to analyse all of the data from all of the instruments. This study will search for a set of interrelated concepts and definition and propositions that presents a systematic view of events or situations by specifying relations among variables. The ideas come from grouping categories, spotting trends as ideas emerge from the grouped information and data points and not simply from numbers and calculations

The process of coding and labeling all of the data whether from surveys, open questions, case studies will all be grouped and compared related to other pieces of information in the reports. There will be a process of generating words and phrase lists for analysis.

A survey may not typically understood as being useful for a qualitative approach (Pope, Mays, 1995; Pollit, Harrison, 1990) but the nature of the subjects, participants sensitivities (Devo, Bayyurt 2010) and the defining physical characteristics of the researcher caused a limitation during the research period. So observations of students required paying careful attention to their words and opinions but not being in the room with them other than the two case studies. The design of the surveys and open question and case studies still allows for categorizing, coding and indexing of similar ideas and phrases. These ideas written in English or another Language; pointing to white privilege, racialisation,

colourism, classroom management, are not fully developed concepts for the participants to comprehend and thereby reduce to numbers. Instead the data can be collected free of controls and in their natural environment with careful observation and understanding. This research required a great deal of adaptation as plans for data collection sometimes failed and often due to the context of the research itself. A responsive and flexible approach to the grounded theory of research is perfect for this situation. The research was then pursued to the point of saturation.

2.2. Participant Summary

- Four different English teaching facilities from different states in Malaysia participated in this research.
 - a) 1 Technical Training Institute
 - b) 1 University
 - c) 1 International language centre as a division within a university
 - d) 1 Independent private language centre
- Similar age bracket aged 18-23 years old (Millennials)
- 9 Ethnic groups all from the Asian Region naturally selected based on enrolment demographics.
- 301 total participants
- All studying English in Malaysia as full time or part time

2.3. Instruments

Case study - Malaysian University students

Survey –Malaysian Technical students, and Expatriate students

Part A -Likert 5 Scale- 8 questions survey (Likert, 1932)

Part B -Open Question

3. Case studies

Following the successful trial survey open question for Malaysian University students was an apparent void in the responses regarding the factors that contribute to the teacher characteristic preferences. The lack of the students' English ability in writing the response and expressing themselves on a deeper level may have been a factor. The

grounded approach to research led me to try a new instrument of Case Study, to get to the bottom of the question and find explanations for their preferences.

3.1 Procedure and Participants

The University of Perlis Malaysia provided me with 10 names of Muet band 4 or 5 (a Malaysian English Proficiency grading system) students which is a sufficient English level to communicate ideas and explanations. Of the 10 names only 2 were interviewed. The two female Malay participants were selected because they were the only ones that responded to the emails, but only after reporting me to their Dean as “they were spooked”, said their Dean. Once they had the reassurance of their Dean they were shy but eventually helpful. I met them on campus and in a coffee shop. The meeting durations were over an hour long and the meetings were recorded and held in English and later transcribed, categorized, coded, grouped and analyzed.

The content of our discussions were set questions inquiring about their preferences for English teachers (direct questions about white native speaking teachers), their learning background, their English class experience, and their observations of being English students for over 15 years each (Shishavan, 2009).

4. Survey and Open Question

4.1 Survey Portion

Rationale for the survey 8 Likert Scale 5 (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree) statements; 5 categories are based on my literature review, trial survey and the case study. These are the subject categories that are immerging as most critical regarding student preferences.

- Western/ Native Speaker
- Colourism
- Exam oriented or not
- Classroom management
- Style and Execution

The Open Question is a private forum for the students to move past the content of the survey and give their frank reaction to a sincere inquiry. “Describe the characteristics of an ideal English Language teacher; and explain why?”

4.1 The instrument

- 8 question survey with 5 categories of statements and one open question
- Written in English and presented in English.
- 10-15 minutes duration to fill in these two sections.
- Reworked 3 times

4.2 Participants

The participants of this particular Survey and Open question were from three separate learning institutions

- The Polytechnic Technical Institute in a Northern state of Perlis. 300 surveys distributed, 287 were completed and filled in properly. Primarily Malay students with a few classmates from Thai, Chinese or Indian background. They are all millennial ages 18-23 and Asian. The teachers from this institution are all Malaysian and followed a highly structured syllabus. 60% of the student participants were female and 40% male.
- International Language Schools; one in Perlis and one in Penang for a total of 16 students. They are all aged 18-24 and come from the Asian region studying for different lengths of time. They are taught using a variety of teaching methods, and teachers speak in English only during the class, all of the teachers are non Malaysian and some are native English speakers.

4.3. Procedure

- The Polytechnic Director of English distributed 300 surveys to the English teachers for distribution; where they received instructions. It was important that the teachers not know this researcher but just follow the leading of their director. Due to risks of shyness, prejudice, and possibly xenophobia tendencies, it was important to remain removed from the process by name and appearance (the researcher is obviously a foreign white person) for these Malaysians also in order not to sway the data in advertently. The students had varying abilities in English. The teachers were instructed to assist vocabulary but not give opinions of the content.

Once completed the surveys were returned the same day to a delivery point given by the English department Director and then retrieved by the researcher at another location.

- The Language centres distributed the survey to the Intermediate level students via the teachers. The 15 minute survey was executed during their English class time and retrieved by the teacher immediately and passed to the Director then researcher in person. 100 % of each class filled in surveys and all were Asian Millennials.

5. Findings

5.1 Case study findings

- They stated that the typical English classroom that well over 50% of the students in every class are not engaged in the lesson but sleep or play around. Teachers lack skills or will to engage all the students. “every class there are two sets of students, those who that don’t care and sleep and a very few that do care”
- Report of consistent bullying for those that do speak English or try in class both in and out of the English classroom in Malaysia, from primary school well into University. Referring to classroom time: 1) “they bully when we try to speak well” , referring to after classroom time 2) “I have decided not to speak English on campus again because if I am over heard by someone then I will get teased a lot.”
- There is little variety in delivery of lessons “one time last semester we took a break from the text book and watched a movie and that was exciting because it was a different lesson”. “We learn how to answer questions on exams every day.”
- Some teachers teach in English, some have to teach in Malay but often due to “begging of the students”. “teachers ask the students what language they want to be taught in that day and often give in to the weaker students asking for language favours because the teachers do not want to upset anyone”

- Some teachers have a low speaking level of English “Often I cannot understand the English of my teacher” “I cannot learn more from my teacher because their English is not good.”
- They believed their peers would not want a native speaker’s teacher because of the lack of translation ability and the sharp difference in accent. They want English to be easy.
- They did not believe that white native speaking teachers would be superior at teaching but simply better at speaking English. “I want a native speaker to be a good example to me in speaking well”. They inferred in their body language and tone that all teachers teach the same.

5.2 Survey Findings

Excel chart of all the 8 questions and the total participant percentages of all 8 questions. The highest percentages are marked in grey. This survey shows a total number of the Asian students of 9 Asian ethnic groups. Gender split is 40% males, 60% females. Blue is the Male and the Pink is the Female percentages; the darker the colour the higher the percentage.

Investigating Preferred English Teacher Characteristics of Asian Millennial Students							
Question #	Survey Statements	Male or Female	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I think a native speaker is best to teach about western culture.	Male	1%	7%	48%	34%	6%
		Female	1%	7%	51%	33%	8%
2	A native speaker teacher can teach me English best.	Male	0%	7%	47%	44%	17%
		Female	0%	6%	25%	58%	10%
3	It’s important that an English teacher make class fun.	Male	0%	2%	10%	45%	37%
		Female	1%	1%	8%	50%	40%
4	I study English to communicate in English for travel and career.	Male	3%	2%	11%	50%	39%
		Female	1%	2%	12%	43%	44%
5	I want to learn English just to pass my exams.	Male	11%	31%	34%	15%	9%
		Female	10%	36%	23%	17%	6%
6	A lighter skinned teacher is best.	Male	11%	10%	50%	17%	11%
		Female	12%	18%	46%	17%	6%
7	A good English teacher should come from a western country.	Male	4%	25%	52%	17%	2%
		Female	3%	33%	52%	10%	1%
8	A good teacher should be able to keep all the students interested in	Male	1%	3%	13%	41%	48%
		Female	6%	1%	7%	49%	41%

Figure #1 All question Percentages
Litowski, 2016

5.3 Open Question

An open question was formed at the end of the survey to give the students a private forum. It is understood that Asians are often restrained and cautious about what is said so this forum was anonymous and private. The question revealed opinions and preferences similar to the trial survey's open question.

The student responses were categorized, coded, grouped, and analyzed. The categories adapted during the original process from the trial survey, as more evidence and information was understood. The category of fun and activities spun another category of discovery; Students who wrote a preference for one thing often gave a reason which sparked a new category and divulged a pattern. The question was, "Describe the characteristics of a good English Language teacher and explain why". This question had been revised and proposed in several ways but the final decision was to have this question mirror the one on the trial survey to expand the data collection information and see if the students from other Language schools answered similarly.

The response on the trial survey open question was successful in that most students took the opportunity to answer and were generous in their words. The only limitation that was evident was the level of English hampering their explanations, so students often just repeated themselves in the same passage which reveals their expression of being emphatic. This larger pool of participants has a variety of backgrounds and variety of English language levels. The results were more expansive and carried words of explanation that were very clear.

- 90% of students mentioned: Fun and activities. Almost every student that mentioned fun and activities also mentioned boredom prevention. It was a distinct theme in their responses.
" More activities and games would help me not be bored"
- 50% asked for polite teachers, who were patient, kind, sporting, not mocking.
"Teachers should be polite and help me when I don't understand something"

- 10% stated they wanted a teacher who did not show preferences for stronger students.
“help the weaker students more”
- 10% asked for teachers who could speak English more clearly and would speak more slowly, carefully and clearly.
“A good teacher should explain easily and speak with a nice accent”
- Some students used the space to about the survey statements. Some of the Asian International students seemed offended by the thought of colourism or fairness of skin playing a role in teacher preference, exclaiming,
“A teacher’s skin colour does not mater!”
- Males and Females gave similar answers and used a similar voice in explaining.

6. Analysis and conclusions

The original research questions have evolved over the process of the research though the essence of student preferences. The research questions have been answered and many other things discovered (Nigatu, 2009). There are no indications that one gender thinks differently than other in this regard. We have discovered student preferences for English teachers and some of the reasons why they feel the way they do.

Insight from the data collection was the basis of the emerging research design over a period of 6 months, four different learning institutions and over 543 Asian Millennial students’ participated until this topic reached saturation. The categories that evolved and were the final understanding of teacher preferences indicated classroom management abilities, gamification of educational material, colourism, a lack of enthusiasm for white native speaking teachers.

- Classroom management is an issue for the students. This issue was first raised in the case studies and confirmed in the survey results. 100% of students felt that the teacher should have the ability to engage the entire group

of students in the language class (Stanley, 2001). It became apparent in the open question that students felt held hostage by boredom. They wanted the teacher to pull the class together and get everyone involved. One of the characteristics of Millennials (price, 2009) is that they are good social citizens. There was a sense of feeling guilty in their comments. E.g.: “I want to be...” “ I should....” Etc.

- Gamification (Chou, 2012) of English class is the over whelming student request, asking for “fun” “ games” and “ activities” “ to keep us interested in English class”. This millennial generation is playful, has a short attention span, They were referring to their desire to be good students but felt trapped in the system of the lecture system that is typically Asian.
- Colourism refers to the preference for depth of colour and tone in a person’s skin. In Asian ads bombard society with prejudicial comments such as ‘Fair is beauty’. This is an issue only understood in the non Caucasian communities. To this researcher who has lived in Asia for 10 years it comes as no surprise that this creeps into the preferences of Language teacher preferences.
- Native speaker teachers and Western Teachers descriptions were inter woven in the trial survey and the responses were not consistent. The case studies shed some light on the issues by pointing to the lack of desire for a white teacher but one who was western by the high level students. Where as in the survey, more carefully worded statements that separated the two teacher descriptions showed some differentiation and preference to the term native speaker instead of Western teacher. Where students only were neutral or slightly agreed to a preference for a native speaker teacher a western one was not a preference and students leaned towards neutral and disagree. The presumption is that ‘westerner’ as a description of a person, has negative political world view connotations where as ‘native speaker’ just means someone with presumably a nice accent. The case study participants shared their opinions on the desires of their classmates to not have a white native English speaker teacher because they worried about not understanding or having translation ability from the teacher rather than just being more

evolved with their prejudicial issues. They were concerned about not performing well and did not even have the notion that a native English speaker perhaps may teach in a style that they actually desire. The reaction to even my emails to students in trying to get case study appointment set up with the admission of their own Dean, that they get 'spooked' with foreigners is most likely the biggest issue with some of the Asians. The International Asian students strongly preferred a native speaker teacher and were already in a class taught by one. The Malaysian students will never been exposed to foreigners and so have an adverse reaction when faced with the prospect of speaking to one. The Malaysian cultural virtue of shyness in regards to foreigners is displayed as xenophobia unbridled. People from a Asian Chinese cultural background even refer to white people in their mother tongue as 'white devils'. White privilege and white industrial complex theory does not appear to be in effect (Cole, 2012) as first thought.

- Being exam oriented (Sharp, 2013) is a common perception of the Asian community and a frequent explanation to this researcher by administration and teacher trainers as to why lectures are boring and one dimensional (Fok, Kennedy, Chan, Yu 2006). This study explored the preferences of the Millennial Asian students to see if they have the same sentiment as those in decision making positions. The trial survey , case studies helped develop firm statements for the final survey that students overwhelmingly strongly disagreed and disagreed as to why they were taking English classes at all. The statement was "I study English only to pass my exams". They overwhelmingly denied this on the Likert Scale. The balance question asked them about whether they study English for travel and career and they flipped their preferences to the agree side of the Likert scale. So it appears that Asian Millennial students are not only exam oriented, but their teachers might be, hence the students concerns over boredom and lack of engagement and enduring continual exam preparation for lessons.

7. Recommendations

The study revealed that students have slight interest in native speaker teachers but they do not feel it is for their educational purposes; that there is actually a greater fear that no translation abilities of the native speaker will reduce their academic comfort. There appears to be low racialisation or evidence of white privilege (Cole, 2012)

Adaptations to modernize Asian lesson design are necessary to meet the needs of these Millennial students so they feel they are getting the best teachers possible (Horwitz, 1985). Classroom management skills should be upgraded to fulfil the educational desires for the entire class to be entirely engaged.

This generation even though being coined the 'digital natives' seem to feel a need for personal connection. They asked for kind, patient, sporting, skilled, fun teachers who could teach them to love English and help them make English useful for life and not just for exams. It is notable that in all the participants that no one wanted a more tech savvy teacher or wanted a computerized teaching system.

The indication of colourism that the Malay ethnic groups demonstrated is a societal issue based in distinctive cultural, political correctness and not educational. Therefore it should, or should not, be addressed at this time depending on their particular society's tolerance for skin deep prejudice and time lines for societal reform.

An educational retraining for teachers to understand the educational application of games and activities in young adult learners and how to implement it in their day to day lessons would be helpful to the millennial students and their comfort and educational advancement.

Regular monitoring and mentoring of teachers for the purpose of speech quality in classroom with students should be done on a regular basis along with teacher skills evaluation to prevent stagnant behaviors and lack luster lessons.

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Title

Learners' Perceptions on the Effectiveness of VideoScribe on Improving Listening and Speaking in Rural School of Sarawak

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Abstract

Teaching listening and speaking in a rural school especially where English is learn as a second language is a challenge for teachers. Learners in rural school of Sarawak considered English Language as a foreign language instead of a second language. This study attempts to investigate the learners' perceptions on the effectiveness of Videoscribe on improving the listening and speaking skills. The author sees a need to carry out this study as it provides an effective way to teach and motivate

learners to listen and speak in English. The respondents of this research comprised of 6 Form Five learners in one of a school in the District of Dalat, Malaysia. A semi-structured interview and participant observation approaches were used to collect the required data from the 6 respondents. The analysis of the data indicated positive perceptions from the participants on the use of Videoscribe in improving their listening and speaking skills. The result of this study may be useful to ESL educators who wanted to integrate ICT such as Videoscribe into their teaching. In addition, more studies are needed to explore the teachers' perceptions on the use of Videoscribe in teaching and expand the skills not limited to listening and speaking but also reading and writing.

Introduction

This study aims to examine how interactive ICT platform such as Videoscribe able to create fun environment in language learning and how it motivates learners to improve their listening and speaking. The development of listening and speaking skills are required in order for English as Second Language (ESL) learners to communicate effectively. According to Dehghani and Jowker, (2012) as cited in Rashasoor et. al (2016) stated that listening to be the heart of both first and second language learning. Meanwhile, experts assume that the ability to communicate orally is equal to knowing the given language since speaking is the main means of human communication (Lazarton, 2001; Asakereh and Afshar, 2016). Listening and speaking skills are essential elements for learners to communicate with each other. Both skills interrelated towards each other. Rivers (1966) as cited by Nombre et. al. (2012) claimed, speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person. Learning to communicate among one another requires these two skills to work side by side. Once this is achieved, then the learner will be able to use the language.

The usage of Information and communication technologies (ICTs) covers a broad range of technologies, such as audio visual aids, computer, mobile devices, communication device or application, Internet as well as the various service and application associated with ICT. ICTs refer to technological tools and resources which are employed to communicate, create, disseminate and manage information (Thierer, 2001; Nordin, Embi & Yunus, 2009; Nordin, Embi & Yunus, 2010). The Malaysian Government introduced a range of initiatives to assist the implementation of ICT to

improve every field, including into the education system. According to Melor (2007), these measures include the enhancement of education and training programmes, provision of an environment conducive to the development of ICT, provision of incentives for computerization and automation. The Ministry of Education knew that education no longer limited to a traditional setting, whereby teachers and learners confine in a classroom. Thus, they invested millions of Ringgit for the usage of ICT in education to prompt the improvement of education. As Khaddage and Knezek (2013) stated that education today takes place in a much broader context than the confines of school walls or traditional curricula.

Integrating ICT in language learning allows teachers to plan and design suitable teaching method and create a learning environment for the learners, hence preparing them in a real-life application for the future. Kozma and Anderson (2002) as cited by Ghavifekr et al. (2014), had claimed that ICTs are transforming how schools and classrooms work, by bringing in new curricula based on real world problems. This is similarly to Hepp et al. (2004) also cited by Ghavifekr et al. (2014), who stated that the roles ICTs play in the educational system can be pedagogical, cultural, social, professional and administrative. Hence, ICT should not be seen as a burden among the language teachers but as a helping hand to nurture not only the learners', but also the teachers' creativity to improve their teaching and learning.

Literature Review

Use of ICT in Education

The Ministry of Education views ICT as an instrument to change the education system, enhance it not only curricula but also pedagogies. Carmen et al. (2003) as cited in Raman and Yamat (2014), stated that integrating ICT tools in teaching could enhance students' learning competencies and provide opportunities for communication. ICT allows learner to be more effective in language learning as ICT enable learners to bridge the gap and empowering the learners' capabilities. According to Chuah Yoon Fah (2000) as cited in Melor et al. (2009), the impact which has been brought by this media, is very visible and stiffening. The way we learn nowadays has changed and altered by the use of ICT in language learning. ICT provides a variety of learning opportunities for students

to learn language (Melor 2007, cited in Melor et al. 2009). ICT is a tool for both teachers and learners in language learning.

ICT in Malaysian Education

Since the Independence of Malaysia, the education system in the country has changed to cater the need of the country economic expansion and over the last three decades, there has been dramatic growth of ICT in the country. Chan (2002) states that, in order to support the country's ICT master plan and in line with the country's drive to fulfil Vision 2020, the education system has to be transformed. Driven by the long-term vision of "Vision 2020", the Ministry of Education upgraded the education system to prepare the learners for the global economic of the 21st century. According to Gryzelius (2015), the Malaysian Ministry of Education has invested over RM6 billion on ICT in education initiatives – among initiatives invested by the Ministry of Education are the Smart School Roadmap and the 2010 Policy on ICT in Education. The recent initiative by the Malaysian Ministry of Education is the 1BestariNet project launched in 2011 (Gryzelius, 2015). These initiatives and efforts introduced by the Ministry aimed to provide the ideal use and implementation of ICT in classroom learning environment.

What is Videoscribe?

Video scribing, also known as Whiteboard animation, is an engaging new form of storytelling which replicates a 'stop-motion capture style'. Videoscribe software, created by Sparkol, allows you to create this style of animated videos quickly and easily (Manchester Metropolitan University). Videoscribe is an interactive ICT platform technology, which can be rendered as video and use in lesson or in learning. It is the same as using PowerPoint in lesson, yet it creates more advantages for learners to use them in listening and speaking. Using interactive ICT platforms allow learners to grab the opportunities for immediate feedback, which can, for example, be used to making drill and practice learning more engaging and effective (Gryzelius, 2015). By using Videoscribe in lesson, it garner more interest among the IT-savvy learners as they felt closely relate to ICT.

Project-Based Learning

Project-Based Learning (PBL) is define as a systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions and carefully designed products and

tasks (BIE, 2003; Dooly & Sadler, 2016). Keeping track with the 21st century learning, incorporating project based learning especially language learning provides opportunities for learners to engage in real-life communication with real people. Hence, PBL offers learners the benefits to be creative and explore their potential in the target language. In addition, students demonstrate increased self-esteem, and positive attitudes towards learning (Stroller, 2006; Tsiplakides & Fragoulis, 2009), and most importantly improved language skills (Levine, 2004; Tsiplakides & Fragoulis, 2009). This is supported by Haines (1989) as cited in Tsiplakides and Fragoulis, (2009), that students engage in purposeful communication to complete authentic activities, they have the opportunity to use language in a relatively natural context.

Methodology

As the aim of this study was to determine if using Videoscribe in learning can improve listening and speaking skills, this study employed a methodology that is qualitative in nature; exploring learners' perceptions on the use of Videoscribe. Participants' observation was conducted to observe learners attitude while they carry out the language learning project or also known as Project-based Learning (PBL). Participants' observation was conducted as it can provide us with a yardstick against which to measure the completeness of data gathered in other ways, a model which can serve to let us know what orders of information escape us when we use other methods (Becker & Geer, 1957). A semi-structured interview was conducted to collect feedback from the learners after they conduct the activity. A semi-structured interview was chosen as it is the most appropriate strategy to elicit insight towards understanding a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Raman & Yamat, 2014). The interviews were transcribed and analysed.

Participants

The participants were seven secondary school students from a school in Dalat, Sarawak in the East Malaysia. Majority of the participants are Melanau and their mother tongue is their local dialect, meanwhile their second language is the Malay language. English language is their third language even though it holds a status as second language in Malaysia. Four participants were male and three were female, and each participant

were chosen purposively for this study, as they are from different level of proficiency ranging from low competency to high competency in the English language.

Design

The study was conducted in two stages; the first stage was planning and second stage was implementation. The duration of the study took two weeks. During the planning, the selected participants were instructed to explore Videoscribe, as an exposure to the ICT interactive platform. Later, the researcher provides a topic for the participants to create a presentation video using Videoscribe as their Project-Based Learning (PBL). According to Dooly and Sadler (2016), the project endeavoured to create learning opportunities that allowed the students to become immersed in the use of the target language while learning to work in groups (face-to-face and via online collaboration). Here, the Project-Based Learning carryout by the participants is to create a video presentation using Videoscribe. In the second stage; implementation, the participants would plan among themselves on how they would create the presentation video using Videoscribe. While the participants were creating and doing voice over for their presentation video, the researcher will conduct an observation over the participants' behaviour and attitude. In the end of the project, a semi-structured interview was conducted to collect the participants' responses and feedback on the use of Videoscribe.

Findings and Discussion

Participants' observation was the first tool, which was used in this research. To obtain information on the learners' behaviour, the researcher engaged in direct conversation with the learners as they were doing their project. While the learners were doing their project, the researcher was taking notes about some particular behaviour. At the end of the process of the participants' observation, it was found that all most of the learners were actively involved in the project. One particular finding is the willingness to actively participate among the learners. It is common that learners who actively participate in any language activity do better and will progress faster than others. Even though the weaker learners have the tendency to make errors during recording, they were seen actively mingle much more with the rest while doing the project. Their eagerness to explore the Videoscribe platform suppressed their fear of making errors.

Another finding from the observation was the learners' ability to peer check or do error correction. The learners were able to identify their friends' mistakes especially in pronunciations. As Russell and Spada (2006) cited by Tomkova (2013), learners can help each other especially with accuracy and form. From observation, the learners would listen attentively to the recording trying to detect slightest pronunciation mistakes made. Not only they were aware of each other mistakes, they would cooperate with each other to correct their mistakes, teaching each other on how to pronounce the corrected word together. As Tomkova (2013) in a research of error correction in spoken practice, she adds that peer correction supports cooperation and mutual help and makes learners more independent from teachers. This finding is consistent with a study on corrective feedback in meta-talk activities (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) where learners have been observed to successfully provide each other with accurate and useful corrective feedback (Burton & Samuda, 1980; Samuda & Rounds, 1993; Russell & Spada, 2006).

Second tool used in this research is the semi-structured interviews. Several themes were sorted out from the seven participants.

Themes	Excerpts from transcripts
Motivation to communicate in English language.	<p><i>“I really like using Videoscribe, it is very interesting. I really want to learn using Videoscribe, it make me feel expose to English subject. In the class, it is very hard to speak English because I am afraid my friends judge me but using Videoscribe, I don’t have to see their faces when I speak in English”.</i> (Student B)</p> <p><i>“I am embarrassed each time I speak in English. My classmates are not really supportive with each other while speaking in class. This project gives me a chance to speak. I like doing this”.</i> (Student C)</p> <p><i>“I agree with Student C, this project is more motivating for me to speak in English. I feel safe to show off my ability, nobody is looking at me when I am speaking”.</i> (Student E)</p> <p><i>“This project is very fun and motivating. It is very awesome using Videoscribe, doing the recording”</i> (Student F)</p>

Prospect of using Videoscribe as teaching and learning tool to improve listening and speaking skills.

“Usually we will use PowerPoint and Movie maker for presentation in our ICT class. It is getting boring using them. Videoscribe is something new and fresh for me. It is very interesting and fun to do”. (Student A)

“This project helps me to be more sensitive of our pronunciation. Each time we finish recording, I will focus on the pronunciation, I have to listen carefully to the way we speak”. (Student B)

“At first, it was very hard to use Videoscribe. After getting use to it, it gets easier. In Malay language class, we do our presentation using PowerPoint, with this (Videoscribe), I can do something different and way more exciting for presentation later”. (Student D)

“The most frustrating part about this project, we have to record our voice over and over again. Each time we done with our video, we will check our recording and there are always mistakes in pronunciation. All of us want our video to be perfect, no errors at all”. (Student E)

Motivation to Communicate in English Language

Rubin (1975) listed motivation as one of the variables in a good language learning. This is also supported by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), who claimed that motivation has long been recognised as one of the key factors that determine second language achievement and attainment in the foreign / second language learning. Motivation is the most important factors required for learners to be successful in language learning, especially communicative aspect. The participants generally agreed

that they are motivated to use the language after using Videoscribe. Both Student B and Student C stated that Project Based activity using Videoscribe made them feel exposed and secured to use the language, as the environment is different from the classroom. In classroom environment, they feel embarrassed to communicate in the language with their friends. Introducing ICT as platform for language learning allow them to feel safe and increase their motivation to use the language in their environment. In the study made by Kreutz and Rhodin (2016) on influence of ICT on learners' motivation toward leaning English language, explained that by incorporating information and communication technologies such as computers and tablets able to increase students' motivation in the foreign second language learning. Their study also shows that the majority (95%) of the learners enjoy the use of ICT during the lesson and it affects their motivation (Kreutz & Rhodin, 2016). This is also supported by Noor-Ul-Amin (2013), which stated that ICT would provide the rich environment and motivation for teaching and learning process which have a profound impact on the process of learning in education. The 21st century learners are better motivated in language learning when the tools they use in everyday life are used as a teaching tool. Hence, introducing ICT in language learning increase learners' motivation as it enhances the learning environment for the learners.

Videoscribe as teaching and learning tool

According to Majumdar (2015), ICT opens up opportunities for learning because it enables learners to access, extend, transform and share ideas and information in multi-modal communication styles and format. Today ICT is being used as a tool for improving the quality of life by improved efficiency and enhanced effectiveness (Mishra, Sharma and Tripathi (2015). No doubt that ICT in this case, Videoscribe is a useful tool in teaching and learning. As stated by Student A, he is used with the idea using PowerPoint and Movie Maker in presentation. However, these two methods has become something that is common for him. By using Videoscribe, it provides new and fun learning experience for him. This is cohesive with a study made by Nguyen and Tri (2014) on students' perception of ICT use in English language learning, whereby the students reported that using technology brought more fun to English learning, thus it brought motivation to them (80.6%).

Meanwhile, both Student B and Student E show that using Videoscribe as their Project Based learning made them more aware of their mistakes and were eager to make

amendments for the mistakes they made. This subsequently allows them to improve their listening and also their pronunciation. This statement was in agreement with the study made by Melor et al. (2010) where majority (89.4%) of students agreed that ICT help them using English to communicate in their daily conversation. Also a study by Nguyen and Tri (2014), 85.2% of the students in the survey agreed that ICT enhance their ability in listening. In general, ICT platform such as Videoscribe has the capability to improve learners' listening skill and allowing learners' to do corrective feedback for their speaking skill, in this case their pronunciations.

Conclusion

The integration of ICT platform such as Videoscribe in teaching and learning provides endless opportunities for learners to engage more in the lesson as it creates fun environment and motivates learners. Use of ICT tool should not be underestimated in language learning, especially where ICT plays a role in education in this 21st century. ICT can influence the way learners nowadays are taught and learn, and as teachers it is important for them to improve and adapt ICT in their teaching. Utilizing ICT in teaching and learning should not be seen as a nuisance by teachers but instead as a helping hand to foster a better teaching and learning processes.

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Title

Flipped Learning: A Possible Model in the Vietnamese EFL Tertiary Context

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Abstract

Flipped learning approach, with the inversion of the way in-class and outside-class activities are organized, has been applied in a number of disciplines. In the field of EFL teaching, research on flipped learning is still limited, especially in Asian context. This research project aims to investigate students' perceptions towards flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL higher education setting, through which, a consideration of the feasibility of this model in the surveyed context is made.

Participants of the study were six EFL second-year students at a university in Vietnam. The study contained three stages of online data collection: the initial interviews for a general understanding of the surveyed students' current EFL practices, the experimental flipped lessons to obtain students' opinions towards this model, and the wrap-up interviews for a deeper understanding of the students' perceptions. The study found out that flipped learning could be a possible model in the investigated Vietnamese EFL tertiary context, taking into consideration its benefits and challenges perceived by the participating students. In details, the students recognized the key benefits of flipped learning such as deeper learning, feeling of readiness before attending the lesson, and this model's strength of catering for mixed-level classrooms. However, besides the

advantages, the research participants also expressed their concerns about accomplishing homework load. Based on these findings, the study suggests a combination of the flipped and non-flipped method at the initial stage of implementation.

Key words: *flipped learning, EFL, Vietnam*

Introduction

The term “flipped learning” originated back to 2000 with Baker’s college context in southwest Ohio, United States (Cockrum, 2014; Pilling, 2013). As a resolution to reduce class time wasted on students copying down slides, Baker’s idea was to let students access learning materials online before class and spend class time assisting them with the difficult exercises (Pilling, 2013). With this initial model, he hoped to change the role of the teacher from a mere lecturer to a guide-by-the-side (Pilling, 2013). With the homework-in-class and classwork-at-home model through the exploitation of lecture videos, this learning approach has been shown to bring benefits to students in a number of fields in different countries (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hamdan, P. McKnight, K. McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013; Honeycutt & Garrett, 2014). In the field of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), studies on flipped learning have started to gain attention; however, the number of researches in this area is still limited (Hung, 2014; Webb, Doman, & Pusey, 2014). In particular, studies on flipped learning in EFL in Asian context are of rarity. This calls for more research into this field in the Asian context.

This paper seeks to answer two research questions:

- What are students’ experiences of flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?
- How might a flipped classroom be possible in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?

Literature Review

Conceptual Framework

Basically, the theoretical underpinnings of flipped learning lie in the justifications for not using class time to deliver traditional lectures but to focus on deeper learning activities (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hamdan et al., 2013; Honeycutt & Garrett,

2014; Ng, 2015). With this learning approach, simple and basic activities are allocated to homework tasks with the aid of technology, while deeper learning activities are implemented in the classroom with teacher or peer assistance. In a simple way, the two factors that help form this learning approach are the deep interactive group activities inside the classroom and technology-based individual activities outside the classroom (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). This approach is built upon a number of learning theories, the most prominent of which is theory of active learning (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Ng, 2015). Theories of Bloom's Taxonomy and Zone of Proximal Development also build up the conceptual framework of this learning approach (Ng, 2015).

Methodological review

Regarding the use of flipped learning in EFL teaching in Asian context, recent literature has witnessed new studies on the topic. A study by Hung (2014) investigating the effects of flipped learning on EFL learners' academic performance, learning attitudes and participation levels at a Taiwanese university has demonstrated students' satisfaction towards this model. Another study conducted in an English-medium university in Macau, China by Webb et al. (2014) with the participation of 135 first-year high-intermediate EFL students and four EFL teachers revealed a positive shift in students' attitudes towards flipped learning between the initial and end of the applying period. The study divided the sample population into experimental and control groups with the use of two questionnaires to investigate students' experience with flipped or non-flipped learning at the beginning and end of the semester. Students' perceptions were elaborated in terms of the initial difficulties and how they gradually adapted to the new method and enjoyed learning more.

From the preceding discussion, there seems to be a lack of empirical research on flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context. At the time this research project was implemented, to the author's knowledge, there was no official research paper on flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context in general, in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context in particular. That inspired me to conduct a study into students' perceptions towards flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL higher education context and assess its feasibility in our context.

Methodology

There are three stages of data collection methods in this study.

- *Step 1: Initial interviews:* Six voluntary second-year students at Banking Academy of Vietnam were interviewed online about their experience of their current English language learning classroom practices.

- *Step 2: Experimental flipped lessons:* The six students joined three online flipped learning English lessons, which lasted one-hour each. In addition, the students completed their learning diaries after each experimental lesson through Google forms.

- *Step 3: Wrap-up interviews:* After all the online lessons had been conducted, there was a semi-structured interview with each of the six students who attended the lessons to confirm their beliefs about flipped learning.

Results and Discussions

In this part, a discussion of the results in connection with the two above-mentioned research questions will be presented forthcoming.

RQ1: What are students' experiences of flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?

The collected data demonstrated the surveyed students' perspectives on the benefits and challenges of flipped learning. In details, the first benefit that was recorded was a sense of deeper learning. Most students (5/6) mentioned the chances to be exposed to many brainstorming activities as well as deeper pair and group discussions when taking part in the flipped lessons. The second advantage perceived by most students (5/6) was the readiness before attending a flipped lesson. Coming to class with some ideas about the lesson was less stressful than having no or little idea what the coming lesson was about. The third merit of flipped learning that some students (2/6) recognized was that flipped learning could narrow the gap between students of different levels. One student said that if in a traditional classroom, when high and low performers access the lesson content simultaneously in class, the high performers would be more outstanding because they could handle teachers' tasks quickly while the low performers would feel left behind. With the flipped model, low performers could spend more time watching the clips and preparing for the tasks at home, thus, they could feel more confident to join in-class discussions and the gap between them and their better-performing peers could be narrowed.

In addition, the participants also recognized the challenge of the flipped model. In response to the question of what challenges flipped learners could face, all the six participating students shared the same answer that if they did not prepare for the lesson beforehand, they would not be able to catch up with other peers and the speed of the lesson. The feelings of “lost”, “left behind”, or “hard to follow”, etc. were what the students described when talking about the challenges of the flipped lessons.

RQ2: How might a flipped classroom be possible in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?

The findings gathered from the initial interviews, the experimental flipped lessons and the wrap-up interviews suggested that flipped learning could be a possible approach in the surveyed Vietnamese EFL higher education context. Firstly, data from the initial interviews showed that most of the surveyed students had regular habit of using the internet to access multi-media materials. Therefore, in the setting where the internet is currently a popular culture, flipped learning that requires students to interact with multi-media materials online before attending the lesson could be a reality. Secondly, as the interviewed students seemed to occupy an active role in the language lesson with a great deal of their talking time in class in the form of pair or group discussions, they are expected to adapt to the flipped classroom well. Thirdly, the overall optimistic feedback from the participants on the experimental flipped lessons is a sign that flipped learning might be a successful approach in our context. The participating students supported a possible flipped model at their EFL higher education context and desired for a combination of the traditional approach and flipped learning based on their awareness of its benefits and challenges.

Conclusion

Despite having certain limitations such as being a small-scale study and the data being collected in an online classroom rather than a physical one, the findings of this study have brought optimistic views on the possibility of flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context. Taking the mentioned benefits and challenges into consideration, teachers could make appropriate plans for a steady but effective realization of this method in our context. A combination of flipped and non-flipped lessons at the initial stage of implementation might be a good approach to help teachers and students get started with

this learning model. Providing training workshops could be another way to support teachers in applying flipped learning in our context. Creating comfortable learning conditions where students' role is promoted is also one positive way to facilitate the implementation of flipped learning. Regarding researchers carrying future research on flipped learning, a longitudinal study that lasts at least one semester or one academic year might help bring out an overall picture of the situation. Such longitudinal projects can record students' perceptions at different stages of their learning process. In addition, as they take place in real classroom environment with real assessment and classroom pressure, students' perceptions could be recorded more accurately.

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Title

Language Learning Styles among TESL Undergraduate Students in Universiti
Kebangsaan Malaysia from Different Gender Groups

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Abstract

Language learning styles is one of the main factors that help to determine how well students learn a second language. Learning styles are general approaches that students used in acquiring a second language or in learning any other subjects. This study provides details on the language learning styles among TESL undergraduates in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia from different gender groups. The study discusses the differences in language learning styles among male and female TESL undergraduates. It

also illustrates and focuses on the four main types of learning styles which are visual, aural, reading and kinesthetic. The research methodology chosen is the quantitative method which based on the VARK questionnaires. The VARK questionnaire offers sixteen statements that describe a situation and asks the respondent to pick one or more of three or four actions that the respondent would take based on their understanding and interpretation of the questions. The total of all four scores ranges from 13 to 48, with individuals having a preference for one, two, three, or all four of the learning channels. The findings of this study revealed that a majority of 89% of the male respondents are either exclusively visual, aural, reading or kinaesthetic learners. The female respondents, on the other hand are majority reading learners (31%).

Keywords: *Language Learning Styles, VARK Questionnaires, TESL Undergraduates*

1 Introduction

1.1 Background study

Language learning styles is one of the main factors that help to determine how well students learn a second language. It is the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior (Cornett, 1983). Learning styles are general approaches that students used in acquiring a second language or in learning any other subjects. Students take in information in different ways and use different cognitive schemes. This study focuses only on sensory preferences that can be broken into four main areas which are visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile.

Oxford (2003) defines sensory preferences as the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is the most comfortable. Visual learners prefer to take in knowledge via sight. Auditory students enjoy and profit from factual lectures, conversations, and oral directions. Kinesthetic and tactile students like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards.

This study also focuses on the different learning styles used between male and female. Jill, Heidi and Stephen (2007) stated that, students have specific learning style preference that may differ between male and female students. Understanding a student's learning style preference is crucial when designing classroom instruction.

This research will be based on Neil Fleming learning style model. He introduces the VARK (Visual, Aural, Read/Write, and Kinesthetic) learning style inventory. His model is basically based on Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory. It was first published in Howard Gardner's book, *Frames Of Mind* (1983), and quickly became established as a classical model by which to understand and teach many aspects of human intelligence, learning style, personality and behavior - in education and industry.

1.2 Problem Statements

According to Halizah Omar, Mohamed Amin Embi & Melor Md Yunus, less competent language learners often face great difficulties in expressing their thoughts and ideas when interacting in second language. Identifying learning styles can help teachers and lecturers to find the most suitable way to teach their students and achieve better results. The findings of the study by conducted by Nurhuda Mohamad Nazri, Melor Md Yunus & Nur Dalila Mohamad Nazri (2016) revealed that good language learners were high users of language learning strategies. This study stresses importance in finding out the differences in language learning styles between male and female TESL undergraduates. Claxton & Murrell (2003) stated, "...learning styles can be useful in improving students learning" (p.1). This paper also intends to find out the respondents' preferred learning styles. Claxton & Murrell (2003) stated that this is important because knowledge about learners' learning styles can "serve as a guide" (p.1) when educators plan or design activities for them. Finally, this research will seek to find out if there are significant differences in the language learning styles of male and female undergraduates. According to Oxford (2003), "language learning and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how – and how well – our students to learn a second or foreign language" (p.1)

1.3 Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are to find out:

- differences in language learning styles between male and female TESL undergraduates' students.
- learning style that TESL Undergraduate students' used the most (visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic)
- significant differences in the language learning styles between male and female TESL Undergraduate students'

2 Literature Review

2.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

Oullette (2000) found that only 62% of males are visual learners as compared to 82% of females. This shows that women prefer visual learning styles more than males. Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006) used the VARK model that was developed by Neil Fleming to analyze the differences between the male and female learning styles. Their findings show that 87.5% males prefer a combination of learning styles (visual, auditory, read-write and kinesthetic). 54.2% of the female respondents are kinesthetic learners who prefer a “single mode of information transformation”.

Dybvig & Church (2010) found that males often employ a mix of visual, tactile and kinesthetic learning styles while females prefer kinesthetic learning style. Mohammad Reza Sadeghi (2012) found that males prefer visual learning style whereas females preferred both visual and hands-on kinesthetic learning styles.

Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) found that females prefer kinesthetic style. The read/write learning style was the second most preferred single style for both genders. In addition, the study found that female students also prefer visual and aural learning styles. Male students inclined more to multimodal learning style, while females favored single learning styles. Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) also found that the quad and bi styles were the most preferred learning styles in the female group, followed by the tri style. The preferred single styles for both groups were the kinesthetic style followed by the read/write style, with a higher level of preference for each style shown by the female group.

Zamri Mahamod, Mohamed Amin Embi, Melor Md. Yunus, Maimun Aqsha Lubis and Ong Sze Chong (2015) found that collaborative, dependent and participative style of learning is preferred by both genders compared to independent, avoidant and competitive style of learning when it comes to learning language.

2.2 ESL Students' Preferred Language Learning Styles

Joy M. Reid (1987) found that ESL students strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles. She also found out that “graduate students indicated a significantly greater preference for visual and tactile learning than undergraduates” (p.93). Reid (1987) also shows that “undergraduates were significantly more auditory than graduates”

(p.94). Her data also shows that both graduates and undergraduates strongly preferred to learn kinesthetically and tactilely.

Jawahitha Sarabdeen (2013) found that a majority of students are readers/writer learners whereas the rest are kinesthetic, auditory and visual learners. Most of the students prefer more than one learning style, the tri style being the most popular (a mix of reading/writing, kinesthetic and auditory).

Hessam Moayyeri (2015) found that reading style is the dominant learning style among Iranian EFL learners and there is a significant relationship between learners' fields of study and their learning styles. Students with reading style have the highest language achievement and the students with visual personality type have the lowest performance. Nurul Hamida (2013) in Semarang State Polytechnic in Indonesia showed that 72.1% of the students prefer multiple learning styles when it comes to learning English.

2.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles among Males and Females

Maubach & Morgan (2001) as cited in Macaro (2003) stated that "although some male and female tendencies may exist, in terms of learning styles, more significant differences appear to relate to individual characteristics than to the gender divide" (p. 100-101). Nada Michel Salem (2006) also found that there is no significant role for gender in the overall use of language learning strategies.

Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) stated the differences between learning style preference of males and females may diminish when the number of learning style categories increase. He found no significant differences in learning styles between male and female students classified to their VARK7G group preference. VARK7G categorizes students into seven learning style groups that consisted of visual, aural, read/write, kinesthetic, bi, tri and quad styles.

Hessam Moayyeri (2015) found that learning styles is affected by learners' majors. The percentage of style learning preferences among learners with different majors varied significantly. Kinesthetic learning style was preferred by only 6.6 percent of students of humanities, 18.3% of students of basic sciences, and 25 % percent of engineering students. Such a difference might be because of the nature of these fields and the contents of the materials which they receive.

3 Methodology

3.1 Methodology

Quantitative method is used to access the language learning styles among students as they engage in the complex process of acquiring a second language which is English. Quantitative method uses statistics, tables and graphs to present the results.

3.2 Participants

The sample of the study consists of 50 students; male and female undergraduates undergoing the TESL degree program in the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). They are randomly selected among the third and fourth year students. Only TESL students are selected to determine the homogeneity of the samples. It is most appropriate to focus on this sample because they do learn English language as their major.

3.3 Instruments

The VARK questionnaires developed by Flemings (2001) will be used to assess language learning styles in this study. This questionnaire alerts people to the variety of different approaches to learning. It supports those who have been having difficulties with their learning and has particular applications in sport, training and education.

4 Data Analysis

4.1 Respondents' Profile

The respondents for this research paper consist of 50 undergraduates undergoing the TESL degree program in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). They are third year and fourth year students of the Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language. The selected respondents are 25 male and 25 female undergraduates.

4.2 Research Findings

4.2.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

The data from this research shows that a majority of both the male and female respondents have one learning style preference. Figure 1 & Figure 2 below shows the comparison between the male and female respondents' preferred learning styles.

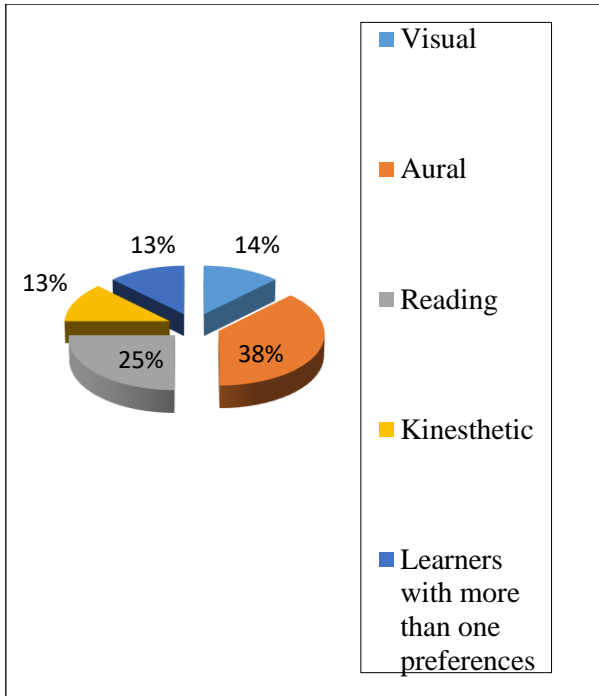


Figure 1: Single Preference (Male)

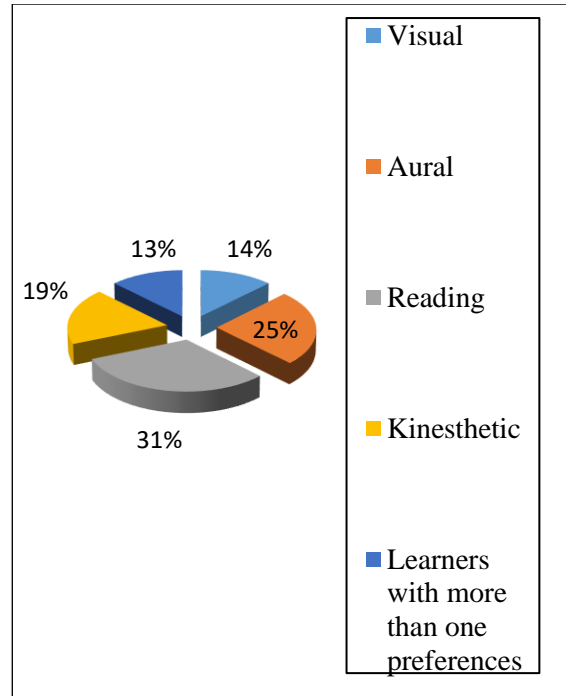


Figure 2: Single Preference (Female)

Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, a majority of the respondents are single-preferenced (preferring one learning style). Only 13 % of the male and female respondents are learners with more than one preference.

Next, the researcher used a pie chart to illustrate the bi-modal preferences among the male and female respondents of this research. It is shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4 below:

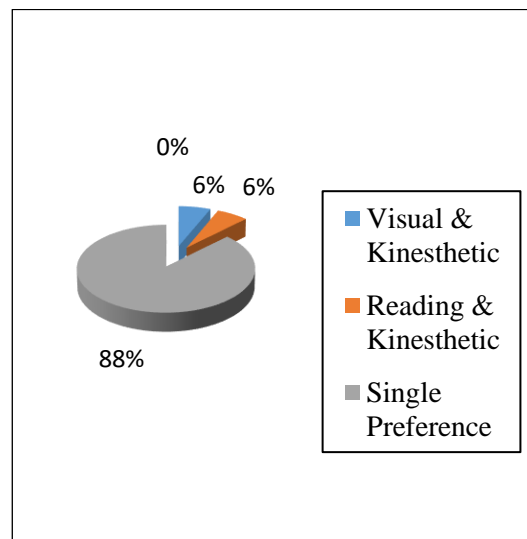
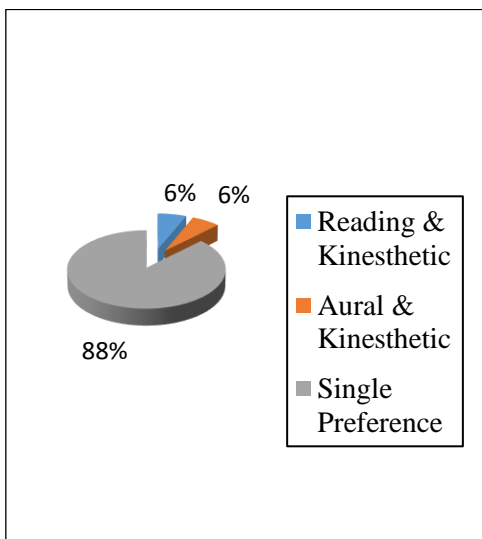


Figure 3: Male respondents with Bi- Modal Preferences (choosing 2 learning styles)

Figure 4: Female respondents with Bi- Modal Preferences (choosing 2 learning styles)

Figure 3 shows 6% of the male respondents choose a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning styles. Another 6% choose a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning styles. The rest of the male respondents (89%) are single- preferred learners. Figure 4 shows 6% of the female respondents have a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning style whereas another 6% are a combination of visual and kinesthetic learners. The remaining majority of 89% of the female respondents are single preferences learners; visual, aural, reading or kinesthetic learners as shown in Figure 1.

4.2.2 Male Versus Female TESL Undergraduates Preferred Learning Style

Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, the researcher compares the male and female respondents' learning styles. Table 1 illustrates the differences between males and females.

Table 1: Male vs Female Preferred Learning Style (single preference)

Learning style	Males (%)	Females (%)
Kinesthetic	12 %	19%
Aural	38%	25%
Reading	25%	31%
Visual	13%	14%

For learners with bi- modal (two) preferences, the researcher finds that the same percentage of male and female respondents chooses a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning styles. Another 6% of the male respondents choose a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning styles whereas another 6% of the female respondents are a combination of visual and kinesthetic learners.

4.2.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles among Males and Females

Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, the researcher can see the difference between the males and females learning style preferences. The differences can be summarized in the Table 2 below:

Table 2: Differences between males and females learning style preferences
(single preference)

Learning Style	Male vs Female Differences (%)
Kinesthetic	7 %
Visual	1%
Learning	6%
Aural	13%

Based on Table 2, the researcher can conclude that the differences in the learning preferences among the male and female respondents are low in significance for the visual learners and moderate in significance for the visual, reading as well as aural learners. Table 3 shows the differences in percentage between males and females with two learning style preferences.

Table 3: Differences between males and females learning style preferences
(bi- preference)

Learning Styles	Male vs Female Differences (%)
Reading and kinesthetic	0%
Aural and kinesthetic	6%
Visual and kinesthetic	6%

Based on Table 3, the researcher concludes that the significance between the differences of learning style preferences of the male and female respondents is moderate.

5. Findings and Discussions

5.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

Oullette (2000) show that women prefer visual learning styles more than males do; 82% as compared to 62%. In this research paper, the findings show that only a minority of 13% of the male respondents and 14% of the female respondents are visual learners. This differs from the results by Oullette (2000).

Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006), show that 87.5% males prefer a combination of learning styles; a combination of visual, auditory, read-write as well as kinesthetic. 54.2% of the female respondents, on the other hand, are kinesthetic learners. They prefer a “single mode of information transformation” rather than “multiple modes of information transformation”. This research finds out that a majority of 89% of the male and female respondents are single-preferenced; they choose one particular learning style. Unlike the study by Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006), only 12% of the male and female respondents are bi-modal preferenced. The results show that none of the respondents are tri-modal and multi-modal. Moreover, this study found that most of the male respondents are aural learners (38%) while the female respondents are mostly reading learners (31%).

Dybvig & Church (2010) found that males often employ a mix of visual, tactile and kinesthetic learning styles whereas females prefer kinesthetic learning style. This research shows that only a total of 12 % of the male respondents employ a mix of reading and kinesthetic learning styles as well as aural and kinesthetic learning styles. Majority of 89% of the male respondents are either choosing exclusively visual, aural, reading or kinesthetic learners. The female respondents, on the other hand are majority reading learners (31%).

.2 TESL Undergraduates Preferred Learning Style

Joy M. Reid (1987) found that “undergraduates were significantly more auditory than graduates” (p.94). The findings of this research paper are somewhat similar as they show that 89% of the male and female respondents either choose visual, kinesthetic, reading and aural learning style. Reid (1987) also showed that both graduates and undergraduates strongly preferred to learn kinesthetically and tactilely. This research differs from Reid (1987)’s because only the remaining 12% of the male and female respondents choose a combination of two learning styles; reading and kinesthetic, aural

and kinesthetic as well as visual and kinesthetic learning styles. This research found that 38% of the male respondents are aural learners and 31% of the female respondents are reading learners.

.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles Among Males and Females

Nada Michel Salem (2006) found no significant role for gender in the overall use of language learning strategies. Macaro (2003) cited Mauubach & Morgan (2001), saying that “although some male and female tendencies may exist, in terms of learning styles, more significant differences appear to relate to individual characteristics than to the gender divide” (p. 100-101).

This means that there are no significant differences in language learning styles between males and females. The findings of this research support the literature reviewed in the above paragraph. Not much difference in the learning styles of male and female TESL undergraduates is found. Table 3 below shows a summary of the differences of learning style preference between the single-preferenced male respondents and the female respondents.

Table 3: Summary of differences (single-preferenced)

Learning styles	Male (%)	Female (%)	Differenc
Visual	13	14	1
Aural	38	25	13
Kinesthetic	12	19	7
Reading	25	31	6

From the table above, the readers can see that there are not many differences in the learning style preference between the males and females. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that the differences in the learning preferences among the male and female respondents are low in significance for the visual learners and moderate in significance for the visual, reading as well as aural learners.

Table 4 below shows the differences in the bi-modal preferred male and female respondents.

Table 4: Differences in bi-modal preferences

Learning style	Male (%)	Female (%)	Difference (%)
Reading & kinesthetic	6	6	0
Aural & kinesthetic	6	0	6
Visual & kinesthetic	0	6	6

From the table above, there is no difference in terms of males and females who chose reading and kinesthetic learning styles. However, there is a 6% difference when the males prefer a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning style and no females choose that combination. The females choose visual and kinesthetic learning style, while no males prefer that style of learning.

5.4 Limitations and Strength

Some of respondents did not give full cooperation while answering the questionnaires. They felt forced to answer it. They simply answered and circled the answers without reading carefully. Moreover, there were a lot of complaints regarding many other researchers whom already given them tons of questionnaires. The strength of this study is some of the respondents said that the VARK questionnaires are fun and related to their daily life.

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Title

Enhancing English Grammar and Writing Competence through a Big Book Project

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Abstract

English grammar is not easy to learn especially for non-native speakers. When English grammar is not sufficiently mastered, many non-native speakers become too shy to speak the language. This is particularly true for most of the thirty childcare providers who recently completed three levels of a Communication English course. This short course is part of a two year Knowledge Transfer Programme (KTP) research project from the Centre for Modern Languages and Human Sciences (CMHLS) of Universiti Malaysia Pahang. These educators are members of Association of Pahang State Childcare Providers (PPNP) and their ages range from 21 to 53. Despite English being a second language in Malaysia, for many of these participants, English is more of a foreign language. This paper aims to describe a more unconventional approach of teaching English grammar and Writing skills through a big book project. This approach introduced English grammar in stages through poetry writing and focused on Haikus. At the end, participants produced a big book as a group in class and another big book individually as an assignment. To ensure that their illustrations were cohesive, they were given an art technique to choose from. Feedback received shows that the educators enjoyed learning grammar and writing this way and are inspired to write big books for their respective daycares.

Keywords: *teaching English Grammar, Big Book Project, Haiku*

Introduction

For years, English has been blamed as one of the primary reasons why many Malaysian graduates are unemployable (Syed Jaymal Zahiid, 2015; Teoh, 2011; Kassim & Ali, 2010). The number of unemployed graduates is reported to have multiplied since 2013 from 52,282 to 161,000 unemployed graduates as of 28 September 2016, according to OfficeParrot (2016), an online resource and platform to research on prospective employers beyond company websites.

The standard of English language proficiency is believed to have been declining since the 1970s when the medium of instruction was switched from English to Malay (Teoh, 2011). This is because since the 70s, Malaysian children have been getting less and less exposure to English. Only when they started working would they realise how important English is, particularly if they worked in the private sectors.

It is obvious that the solution to this matter is not at tertiary level. It would be too late, as by the time high school leavers enter tertiary level, they should already be proficient in English as many of their references are in English. Therefore, it is crucial to find ways to improve English language mastery at a much earlier stage, preferably at the formation years stage of children (i.e., before the age of 4). The Permata Negara website speaks of Neuroscience studies which show that the formation years of children are essential to the success of their future due to the exposures they receive at this stage that lead to synapses or interconnection of brain cells or neurons to form when they are stimulated. The more these neurons are used, the more permanently connected they will be (<http://www.programpermata.my/en/negara/about>).

Furthermore, in the English Language Education Reform in Malaysia: The Roadmap 2015 – 2025 published by the English Language Standards and Quality Council, the Ministry of Education (English Language Standards and Quality Council, 2015), it was reported that “special attention has to be paid to early learning because this is when the foundations are laid for lifelong learning” (p.23). While this is true, many kindergartens or daycares are not equipped to teach toddlers English primarily because the caregivers themselves are lacking the confidence to use English, particularly in the case of many of the participants in this paper. The reality is that although English is supposedly a second language in Malaysia, for many Malaysians, English remains more of a foreign language. That is why there must be efforts made to improve the quality of English language among daycare educators. While parents work, their children spend an average of eight hours in daycares.

This is where KTP Kindy, a knowledge transfer programme research grant project steps in. It is a two year project that is funded by Ministry of Higher Education, aiming to enhance the English language proficiency of 30 daycare educators under Persatuan Pengasuh Negeri Pahang (PPNP) or the Association of Pahang State Childcare

Providers by developing their self-confidence in using the target language with the children at their daycares.

KTP Kindy offers two modules: English Communication Skills (Module 1) and Effective Storytelling Techniques in English (Module 2). Both modules consist of 3 levels. However, the focus of this paper will only be on the Big Book Project, one of the project-based activities in Module 1 Level 2 (Poetry writing activities) and Level 3 (Big Book Exhibition).

Literature Review

When non-native speakers feel that they lack English mastery, it affects their self-confidence to speak it. This is reflected in statements like “I think I could have confidence while I’m speaking if I know about grammar well” (Lockley and Farrell, 2011, 176). Lockley and Farrell (2011) also cited many prior studies that showed that learners’ anxiety are linked to face preservation (Tomizawa, 1990) and high performance expectations (Liu & Littlewood, 1997) and how they wished to be corrected (Katayama, 2007).

Literature also shows that learning difficulties among Asian learners are often grounded in weaknesses in students’ prior learning experiences – focused on grammar and reading skills in teacher-centred classrooms, not conversational skills – and in beliefs about language learning instilled during schooling (Erlenawati Sawir, 2005). Nishimuro and Borg’s (2013) study revealed that when teaching grammar, the lessons were teacher-centred and lacked communicative activities. Despite believing in the utility of such activities, the teachers felt such activities were time-consuming (Nishimuro & Borg, 2013).

Considering how many learners had been learning grammar and how their grammar anxiety could affect their confidence to communicate, KTP Kindy decided to take a project-based approach towards grammar and writing that is communicative, hands-on and relevant to their job responsibilities. This paper focuses on describing the big book project and how it enhances participants' writing and grammar competence through poetry writing, particularly haikus. It will also provide some feedback from the participants on the effectiveness of the approach.

Big Book Project Approach

During Module 1 Level 1, the participants realised that they were not learning English the way they learned in school, *i.e.*, the conventional way through ‘chalk and talk’ and grammar exercises. They were initially taken aback but soon admitted that they liked learning English using this more communicative approach, including the refresher course on grammar to introduce different parts of speech and how to write simple sentences through the Big Book Project approach.

The first activity was to write Category Poems, followed by 2-word Poems, Everyday Poems and lastly Haikus. All of these poetry writing activities with exception of Haiku, were inspired by Prof Alan Maley of British Council at the 2007 Malaysia International Conference for English Language Teaching (MICELT) during his workshop. All the activities were done in groups. The class was divided into six groups of five participants. However, within the group, they were also allowed to work in pairs or individually.

In Category Poems, participants were asked to think of a category and list as many words in that category. If necessary, they could repeat the words to give it rhythm. Then they had to recite their poems with feeling. For example, the category is shapes. So the poem could be as shown below:

Shapes

Circle

Diamond

Square

Triangle

Octagon

The 2-word Poem consists of two activities. Each group had to select 3 words from their Category Poem and pair it with another word making it a 2-word poem. The other word can be placed either before or after the existing word. Each group has to write three 2-word poems for each word they have selected. An example of the outcome would be as follows (the original words are in **bold**):

Diamond ring

Bright **diamond**

Expensive **diamond**

After each group had presented, then there would be a discussion on noun phrases. Participants were asked to think how placement can affect meaning. They would learn that nouns can also function as adjectives. They also learned about collocations, how some words can go together.

The proceeding activity was to combine two 2-word poems to make five sentences out of them. If that proved to be difficult, they were allowed to make sentences out of one 2-word poem instead. The ensuing discussion was on the importance of verbs and how sentences without verbs are not considered as English sentences. They were also introduced to subject verb agreement.

The next activity was to write Everyday Poem in stages – a verse of five lines at a time. There are four verses all together. The first verse must begin with Every day, I... The second verse must begin with But now, I..., followed by Yesterday, I... and lastly, Tomorrow, I... Through this poem, learners learned about tenses, and the difference between one tense from another.

The last group activity was to write a Haiku. A haiku is a Japanese inspired poem of three lines and fixed syllables of 5, 7, 5 each line. Participants learned to count the syllables and be selective of their word choices. At the end of the lesson, they produced a group haiku. The given theme was Safety as it was the national theme for early childhood education for 2016.

On the final day of Module 1 Level 2, they worked as a group to produce a Safety-themed big book of between ten and fourteen pages, that must be big and colourful. They were given two hours and selected art techniques to choose from so that their illustrations would be consistent from one page to another.

The next level for Module 1 was a month away. During that period, their take-home assignment was to individually write their own big book. The first meeting of Level 3 was the Big Book Exhibition where they showcased their big books and explained the idea behind the book. The advantages of the big books are many. Apart from the main aim of the activity, which was to build the participants' confidence level and give them a sense of achievement, the big books could be used in their respective classes and in follow-up activities in Module 2. Moreover, the books were created and written by them, they are a source of pride. In fact, the daycares educators recently

showcased their big books on 16 October 2016 during Safety Carnival in conjunction with Children's and Daycare Day 2016.

Methodology

Instrument

A set of questionnaire was developed by the researchers with 16 Likert-scale items for Part A and 4 closed-ended questions for Part B. Part A comprises 4 effectiveness items, 4 confidence items, 4 enjoyment items and 4 understanding level items. The questionnaire was distributed to 26 participants who attended Module 2 Level

Participants

The actual participants of KTP Kindy who attended Module 1 Level 2 and Level 3 were 30 and their age ranged from 21 to 53 years old. As mentioned, when the questionnaire was distributed, only 26 participants were available as respondents. Of the 26, the majority are Malaysian Certificate of Education or Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM) Form 5 school-leavers (50 %). Only 11.5 % or 3 participants are degree holders and 26.9 % (7 participants) are Diploma holders. The other participants are with Malaysia Lower Certificate of Education or Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (SRP), taken in Form 3 (1 participant) and other qualifications (1 participant).

Table 1: *Participants' Educational Qualification*

	Frequency	Percentage (100%)
Degree	3	11.5
Diploma	7	26.9
SPM	13	50.0
SRP	1	3.8
Others	1	3.8
Total	26	100.0

Data collection and data analysis procedures

Participants were asked to rate their agreement on the items using a 5-point Likert-scale (1=Strongly Agree to 5=Strongly Disagree). Data were entered in *IBM SPSS Statistics version 22* for descriptive analysis. In addition to that, reliability of the

questionnaire was also checked. The Cronbach Alpha value of 0.89 obtained in this study shows that the scale is reliable.

Results and discussion

The effectiveness of the big book approach

Table 2 discusses the effectiveness of using the big book approach based on the four types of poetry writing participants were required to do. It is evident that all participants agree that the most effective poem for them to learn was writing the category poem. This is no surprise as it is the easiest of all the poetry types. As they progressed from one level to the next, the grammar component they were introduced to became more complex, especially in the Everyday Poem activity. They were introduced to *at least* four different types of tenses: Simple Present, Present Continuous, Past and Future. For each tense, they had to produce five sentences, whereas for Haiku, the whole poem could be only one sentence written in three lines.

Despite the complexity, majority of the participants still gave positive feedback towards the effectiveness of the other types of poems with varying percentage of agreement and uncertainty: 2-word Poem, 91.3 % agreement and 7.7 % uncertainty, Every day Poem, 84.6 % agreement and 15.4 % uncertainty, and lastly Haiku, 88.5 % agreement and 11.5 % uncertainty.

Table 2: *The effectiveness of the Big Book Approach*

	Category			
	Poem is an effective way to learn different groups of nouns	2-word Poem is an effective way to learn nouns and adjectives	Everyday Poem is an effective way to learn different types of tenses	Haiku is an effective way to enrich my English vocabulary
Strongly Agree	34.6	15.4	15.4	23.1
Agree	65.4	76.9	69.2	65.4
Not Sure	0	7.7	15.4	11.5

Percentage (%)	Disagree	0	0	0	0
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
	Total	100	100	100	100

The confidence level of using correct language

Table 3 illustrates the confidence level of the participants using correct language. 61.5 % agree that category poem gave them the confidence in identifying nouns. 73.1 % of the participants also believed they were confident in writing correct phrases using nouns and adjectives in the 2-word poems. Learning the parts of speech and being able to apply them in writing 2-word poems helped the participants a lot as they could see how the placement of words could affect the meaning. However, when asked whether they gained confidence in writing correct tenses, it is not a surprise that 84.6% responded with ‘Not sure’. Tenses, as revealed, was the most difficult part of grammar elements for them. Similarly, 53.8% of the participants also admitted to lack of confidence in writing Haikus. The difficulty of writing Haikus would be the counting of syllables and careful word selection to meet the Haiku syllable requirement.

Table 3: *Confidence level*

Percentage (%)	Confidence Level	I am confident			
		writing correct phrases using nouns and adjectives in 2-word Poem	I am confident writing sentences using correct tenses	writing sentences using correct tenses	I am confident to write Haikus
	Strongly Agree	19.2	7.7	0	7.7
	Agree	61.5	73.1	15.4	38.5
	Not Sure	19.2	19.2	84.6	53.8
	Disagree	0	0	0	0

Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100

The enjoyment level in writing poems

Table 4 illustrates the findings on the participants' agreement on their enjoyment engaging in the activities. All participants (100%) claimed to enjoy writing Category poem. Although 7.7 % participants were not sure whether they enjoyed writing 2-word poem, the majority of the participants (92.3 %) liked writing 2-word poem. Similar findings were reported for writing Everyday poem and Haikus where 88.2 % of participants enjoyed the activities, however 11.5 % were uncertain of their level of enjoyment in the activities.

These results support the idea of Susikaran (2013) who posits that teaching of grammar elements through poems can promote “enjoyment, involvement and interest” (p. 17) among ESL learners. It has been suggested by Jeffery and Wilcox (2014) that writing poetry activity which allow expressions of voice and opinions can encourage positive attitudes towards writing. The results of this study also appear to support the statement. The findings show that the participants of this project enjoyed writing short poems (Category and 2-word poems) slightly more compared to writing longer poems (Everyday Poem and Haikus).

For both Everyday and Haiku poems, findings recorded showed 11.5 % uncertainty towards the level of enjoyment. A possible explanation for this might be that the participants' low levels of English language proficiency hindered them from expressing their views at length through poetry writing. It could also be a possibility that when writing longer sentences, the chances of making mistakes are higher. So this decreases the enjoyment of writing longer sentences. Furthermore, the lack of grammar confidence may affect their writing enjoyment.

Table 4: *Enjoyment in writing poems*

	I enjoyed writing 2-word Poem	I enjoyed writing	I enjoyed writing Haikus
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		Category	Everyday		
		Poem	Poem		
Percentage (%)	Strongly Agree	23.1	11.5	19.2	19.2
	Agree	76.9	80.8	69.2	69.2
	Not Sure	0	7.7	11.5	11.5
	Disagree	0	0	0	0
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
	Total	100	100	100	100

Levels of understanding grammar concepts

Table 5 indicates that 80.7 % of participants understood that nouns are names of things, places, people, animals and abstract ideas. However, there are 19.2 % of the participants who still did not understand the concept of nouns. When asked whether they understood that phrases could consist of nouns and adjectives, 69.2 % claimed that they did understand the concept, but 30.8 % of them were unsure of the concept. Half of the participants reported that they understood the differences between tenses. The other half were still unsure (46.2 %) or did not understand (3.8 %).

In response to being aware that words are made up of syllables, 76.9 % of the participants agreed that they were aware, but 23.1 % were still not sure that words consisted of syllables. Findings from this study which show that participants were able to grasp the concept of nouns and syllables from poetry writing support Susikaran's (2013) beliefs that poems can be an effective tool in teaching certain grammar components. Nevertheless, the participants of this study still could not quite understand the notions of phrases as well as tenses. This result may be explained by the fact that the construction of phrases and tenses is more complicated and that they involve many elements.

Table 5: *Understanding of grammar components*

I understand nouns are	I understand that phrases can be made	I understand the differences	Haiku makes me aware that
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	names of things, places, people, animals and abstracts ideas	from nouns and adjectives	between present, past and future tenses	words are made up of syllables
Strongly Agree	19.2	15.4	3.8	19.2
Agree	61.5	53.8	46.2	57.7
Not Sure	19.2	30.8	46.2	23.1
Disagree	0	0	3.8	0
Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100

Questions regarding the Big Book Approach

4 closed-ended questions were also asked to the participants as shown in Table 6. Of the four questions posted, two questions received complete agreement from the participants in terms of their preference of learning grammar in groups and that writing big books enhanced their creativity. In terms of learning different art techniques to help them in enhancing their creativity, 80.8 % agreed that it did. As for the rest, perhaps these art techniques are already familiar to them. In terms of having written their own big books, only about 38.5 % of the participants have attempted it. This is very encouraging for the KTP team as most of the participants were so shy about their abilities to speak and write at the beginning of Module 1, and that they have managed to write their own books outside class time is a moment of pride.

Table 6: *Regarding the Big Book Approach*

Closed-ended questions	Options	Percent
Do you prefer learning grammar in group?	Yes	100.0
	No	-
	Yes	80.8

Did learning different art techniques enhance your creativity?	No	19.2
Did writing Big Book project enable you to apply your creativity?	Yes	100.0
	No	-
Have you written your own Big Book?	Yes	38.5
	No	61.5

Conclusion

Indeed the unconventional approach of teaching English grammar and writing skills through a big book project has increased KTP Kindy participants' competence to the extent that 38.5 % has gained the confidence to write their own big books. The majority understood grammar concepts better, having followed this approach. Tenses and other grammar concepts will be addressed in future levels through other relevant activities to further enhance the participants' grammar knowledge and awareness of the language they are using. Even though the number of participants who have dared to do what they would never have dreamed of doing is about one third of the participants, for the KTP Kindy team, that is already a big accomplishment. This illustrates that the approach of teaching English grammar through poetry writing and Haikus was successful because they learned in stages and the product is very relevant to their needs. Furthermore, getting the participants to learn grammar through working in groups boosts their confidence because they can collaborate on exercises that are meaningful. This approach has successfully attracted the participants in learning grammar and writing and it is hoped that KTP Kindy participants' grammar and writing competence will further increase and improve at the completion of the programme in September 2017.

Acknowledgment

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Appendix A



Figure 1: Big Book (Individual)



Figure 2: Big Book Exhibition

Title

Students' Perception of Online Reading Quizzes and Paper Based Test

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Abstract

The objectives of this study are: (1) to investigate the students perception toward different types of online reading quizzes relative to paper-based test; and (2) to investigate the students most preferred toward types of online reading quizzes. Design of this research is a mixed methods design. The researcher conducted this study at VIII 1 of SMP Negeri 1 Kendari. Techniques of procedures are first students are asked to do the paper-based reading comprehension test. Second, they take the online reading quizzes. Following the two tests, fill out the questionnaire for online reading comprehension. The study shows that the students like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test. They most prefer online reading quizzes type 4 (matching). The fact that students prefer online reading quizzes to paper-based test may be attributable to a number of factors. First, some of the students say that sometimes the questions involve pictures in paper-based test are unclear after photocopy. Second, students occasionally use correction pen to erase their errors on paper. It makes their worksheet are dirty. Third, paper-based test needs some times for corrections. Besides, there are some students

which like paper-based test. They like paper-based test because it has been familiar for them, and it is easy to back and forth the papers.

Keywords: *online reading, and paper-based test.*

Introduction

In evaluation, quizzes are also used as an incentive to keep up with the material between exams. There are two kinds of quizzes, namely paper-based and computer-based quizzes. Paper-based quizzes have a number of advantages. To begin with, students are familiar with this type of test. Hence, they are not confused to do the test. Second, some of them used pens to help them read on the paper. They can underline certain lines, circle some words, or leave few marks on the paper. Besides the disadvantages of paper-based test are first the large numbers of students complicate teachers to examine student answer sheet. Second, sometimes students score out their worksheet hence their worksheet gets dirty. Third, some questions may not be readable due to papers being photocopied. Finally, students' worksheet may sometimes be lost.

There are a number of advantages of computer-based quizzes. First, the teacher can examine students' work in a matter of second. Second, it provides some pictures and animation. Furthermore, we can save a lot of paper without printing and we don't need to worry about poor printing quality.

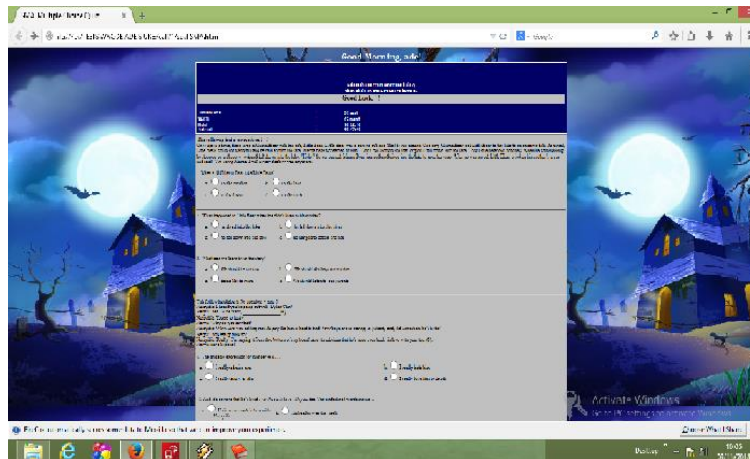
Literature Review

Online Reading

Online reading can offer new challenges and opportunities both of the teacher and students. It can provide some information on the screen of computer. (Tseng: 2008) states that online reading is non-linear activity; it enables readers pick and choose blocks of text by interacting the machine. Online reading consists of texts, pictures, sounds, graphics, and animations. (Hodgson, 2010).

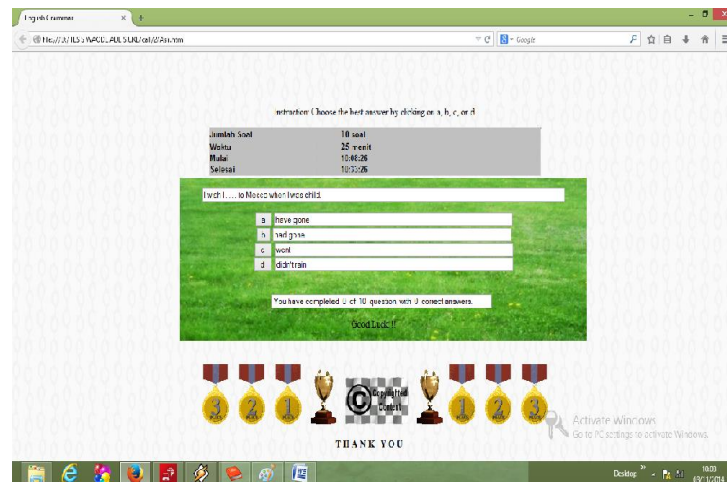
There are five kinds of online reading quizzes which are focused in this study. Such us:

- Multiple choice type 1



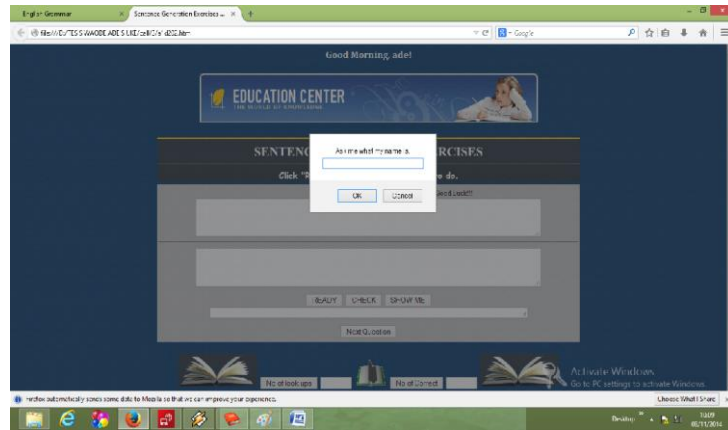
Quiz type 1 consists of some multiple choice questions in one page. The student answers some question by clicking one of the option. After doing the test, the students will get the score directly and know the key answer by clicking **get score**.

- Multiple choice type 2



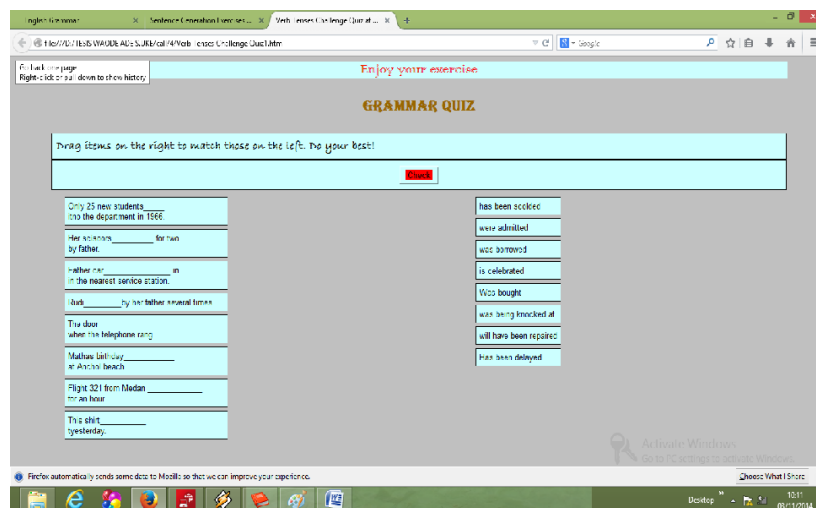
The student answers a question. After that, the student clicks one of the options. Directly, computer will comment whether the students' answer is right or wrong. If the students' answer is wrong the computer will comment "Sorry, you're wrong. The correct answer is : ...". Meanwhile, if the students' answer is right the computer will comment "That's right".

- Sentence Generation Exercises



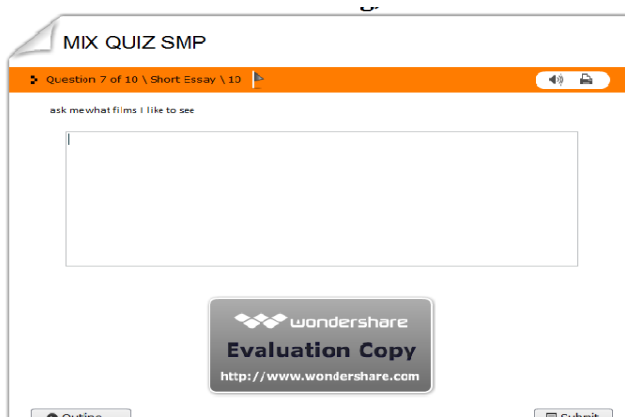
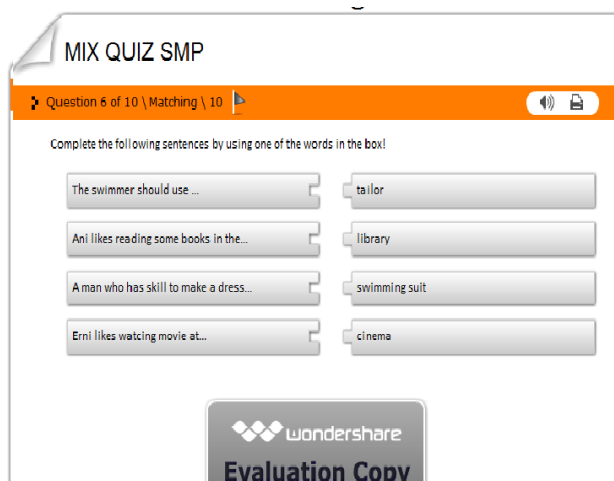
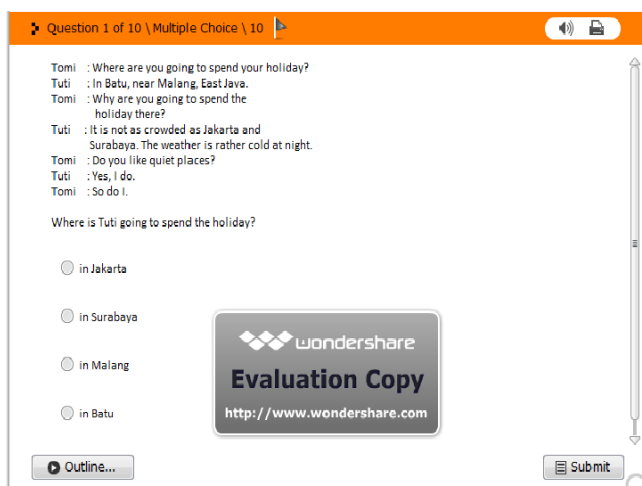
The student answers a question by clicking **ready**. The student tries to write the answer, and then click **ok**. Student clicks **check** to know the key answer. Directly, computer will comment whether the students’ answer is right or wrong. If the students’ answer is wrong the computer will comment “Sorry, you’re wrong”. Meanwhile If the students’ answer is right the computer will comment “That’s right”. The student can know the key answer by clicking **show me**. However the computer automatically will give notification at the icon of **look ups**.

- Matching



Quiz type 4 consists of question on the right hand and the key answers on the left hand in one page. The student answers the question by moving the cursor answer to the question. After doing the test, the student clicks **check**. Directly, computer will give the total of score.

- Mix Quiz



Quiz type 5 consists of multiple choice questions, matching and short essay. The student answers the question. After that, the student clicks one of the options then click **submit**. Directly, computer will comment whether the students' answer is

right or wrong. If the students' answer is wrong the computer will comment "wrong".

Methodology

Design of this research was a mixed methods design. The participants were thirty two students. Their language proficiency level was junior high school. In taking the sample of this study, the researcher applied purposive sampling. The research instruments in this study were questionnaire and interview. Computing the questionnaire was analyzed by using Paired-Sample Test.

IV Findings And Discussion

4.1 Findings

Table 1 Paired Samples Test Part I

Pair	Question	Statement	Mean	Interpretation
1	Q1	It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on paper.	3.3125	It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on computer screens.
	Q2	It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on computer screens.	3.8125	
2	Q3	If I have the choice, I would prefer to read articles printed on paper.	3.2813	Students would prefer to read articles on computer screens.
	Q4	If I have the choice, I would prefer to read articles on computer screens.	3.6563	
3	Q5	I like to read articles on computer screens.	3.8750	Students like to read articles on computer screens.
	Q6	I like to read articles on paper.	3.2500	

Moreover, to know the students' reactions toward online reading quizzes, the researcher compares the mean scores between Q1 and Q2, Q3 and Q4, and Q5 and Q6, (see Table 1). Mean score in Q3 (3.2813) > Q4 (3.6563), it concludes that students prefer to read articles on computer screens whether they are asked to do a reading comprehension test or read an article. Moreover, Q5 and Q6 show that mean score Q5 (3.8750) and Q6 (3.2500). It concludes that students are like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test.

Types of Online Reading Quizzes Most Preferred

Table 2 Types of Online Reading Quizzes Most Preferred

Report

	Q21	Q22	Q23	Q24	Q25
Mean	4.0000	3.8125	3.5625	4.2188	3.5938
N	32	32	32	32	32
Std. Deviation	.76200	.53506	.75935	.65915	.97912

Based on the table, the highest mean score is the fourth quiz (Matching). The second is the first quiz (Multiple Choice Type I). The third is the second quiz (Multiple Choice Type II). The fourth is the fifth quiz (Mix Quiz). The last one is the third quiz (Sentence Generation Exercises).

4.2 Discussion

Students use internet for browsing their tasks, chatting on social media, playing game, and watching you tube. Moreover, they think when reading article online, it helps them to increase their knowledge, and do their tasks. However, the internet access is not always good. They most preferred online reading quiz is type 4 (matching), because it is easy to do. They just match the key answers to the questions. They think matching is like a game.

Conclusion

To conclude, the study shows that the students are like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test. Most of them like online reading quizzes type 4 (matching). Online reading quizzes report the student's score automatically after the end of every

quiz. Meanwhile, there are some students which like paper-based test. They like paper-based test because it has been familiar for them, and it is easy to back and forth the papers.

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Title

The Translation of Person Deixis in *Harry Potter and the Sorcerers Stone* into Indonesian

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to find out how power, distance and social status influence the translation of person deixis, “I” and “you”(singular pronoun) in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and the Sorcerers Stone*. The data were taken from the novel both in English and Indonesia. There are some findings after analyzing the data. The word “you” is translated differently as well as “I”. Power, social, status and distance of speaker and addressee determine the translation of the deixis.

Introduction

Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permits all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to

communicate or to interact. (Finocchiaro, 1974, p.3). In fact, there are many different languages used in the world so that in communicating with other people, one needs English as the most widely used in the world. Being an international language, English should also be used by Indonesian to create interaction. Unfortunately, English as a foreign language in Indonesia becomes a barrier for Indonesian to communicate with others.

To overcome the problem, a translator is needed. However, to be a translator means a hard worker because to translate some texts is not easy as one expects. Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). (Cat Ford, 1974, p. 20). In translating a text, one should be able to produce a natural text which can be accepted in the nature of both source language and target language. It should be also implemented when one translates person deixis because the translation of person deixis will influence the reader's perception toward the characters in the texts.

“ Each language has its own patterns to convey the interrelationships of persons and events; in no language may these patterns be ignored, if the translation is to be understood by its readers” (Callow, 1974, p. 30 cited in Baker, 1992, p.180)

Research Questions

- How is person deixis, “I” translated in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and The Philosopher's Stone*?
- How is person deixis, “you” (singular pronoun) translated in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and The Philosopher's Stone*?

Literature Review

Deixis

Deixis is pointing or indicating and has as prototypical or focal exemplars the use of demonstrative, first and second person pronouns, tense, specific time and place adverbs like now and here, and a variety of other grammatical features tied directly to the circumstances of utterance. (Levinson, 1983, p.54). Deixis is the property of a restricted set of demonstratives such that their reference is determined in relation to the point of origin of the utterance in which they occur. (Grundy,1995, p.15)

Person deixis

Person deixis primarily makes reference to the speaker as the deictic center of the speech event and the addressee; for example ‘I’, ‘you’ and ‘we’. (Marmaridou, 2000, p.74-93)

Power, Distance and Social Status

power relates to powerful participants controlling and constraining the contributions of non-powerful participants. (Fairclough, 1992, p.46). Holmes (2013) said that distance relates to how well do the persons know each other. It determines the intimacy between them. Wardaugh (2006) said that social status can be looked from one’s education, occupation, and income. If one has high education, good occupation and high income, he will have high social status.

Methodology

Data

The all data are taken from a novel entitles *Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone* by J.K Rowling both in English and Indonesian. The data are collected from utterances containing of person deixis, “I” and “you” (singular pronoun).

Procedures

In the study, there are five stages that have been done; they are

- finding out utterances in the novel, contain person deixis, “I” and “you”
- comparing the data between English and Indonesian
- analyzing the data by looking at social status, power, and distance
- making interpretation
- drawing conclusion

Findings and Discussion

First Person Pronoun, “I”

“I” is translated into “aku” or “saya” because of :

- social status with its various situations written bellow:
- The speaker is older than the addressee
- The utterances involves a husband and a wife either as addressee or speaker

- The speaker is a parent and the addressee is a son/ a daughter. It will show an intimacy and it is common in Indonesia.
 - The speaker is an uncle/an aunt and the addressee is a nephew or a niece
 - The speaker is a brother and the addressee is a sister or vice versa
 - power and its situation bellow
 - The speaker has higher position than the addressee
 - The speaker is a teacher and the addressee is a student (s)
 - The speaker is a master and the addressee is his follower
 - and distance with the following condition
 - The speaker and the addressee are close friends
 - The speaker and the addressee are children
 - The speaker and the addressee are colleagues who have the same position
- On the other hand, “I” is translated into “saya” because of ones’:
- social status such as the speaker is younger than the addressee
 - power with these various condition:
 - The speaker is a student and the addressee is a principal of Hogwarts
 - The speaker is a student and the addressee is a teacher
 - The speaker has lower position than the addressee e.g. The addressee is a principal of Hogwarts while the speaker is a teacher
 - and distance with this various condition:
 - The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger
 - The speaker and the addressee meet each other for the first time
 - The speaker considers the addressee as a great hero and he deserves to be respected
 - The speaker considers the addressee as a great hero and he deserves to be respected
 - The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger and vice versa
 - The speaker as a commentator and the addressees are the audiences in a competition

Second Person Pronoun (singular), “You”

“You” in Indonesian can be translated into some words such as “kau”, “anda”, mum, “paman” or “paman and bibi”. In this case, “you” (second person singular) is translated into “kau” because of :

- social status and its various situations as follow
- The speaker is a husband and the addressee is a wife or vice versa
- The speaker is an uncle/an aunt and the addressee is a nephew or a niece
- The speaker and the addressee are cousins
- The speaker is a parent and the addressee is a son/a daughter
- The speaker is older than the addressee
- The speaker is a brother and the addressee is a sister or vice versa
- power and its various situations as follow
- The speaker is a teacher and the addressee is a student (s)
- The speaker is a principal of Hogwarts and the addressee is a student
- distance and its various situation as follow
- The speaker and the addressee are friends
- The speaker and the addressee are children
- The speaker and the addressee are colleagues who have the same position

While “you” (singular pronoun) is translated into “anda” because of

- power and its situation bellow
- The speaker is a student and the addressee is a teacher
- The speaker is a student and the addressee is a principal of Hogwarts
- The addressee is a principal of Hogwarts while the speaker is a teacher
- distance and its situation bellow
- The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger
- The speaker and the addressee meet each other for the first time
- The speaker as an announcer and the addressee is the passengers in a train

In addition, “you” is translated into kinship when there is a kin relationship between the addressee and the speaker such as “uncle/aunt and his/her nephew/niece, or dad/mum and his/her son/daughter. It is more acceptable in Indonesian than translating “you” into ”kau” which is less polite or “anda” which is too formal.

Conclusions

The finding show that “I” and “you” are translated into some Indonesian words. Their translation are influenced by power, social status and distance. Further, researchers recomended English teachers to explain this matter in translation class. Finally, future

studies are needed to investigate on the translation of others person deixis into Indonesian.

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Title

The Implementation of Multimodal Assessment to Measure the English Learners' Receptive Skills and Appraise their Academic Literacy¹

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Abstract

Multimodal assessment deals with the employment of inter-semiotic elements in measuring as well as appraising learner's competences. It focuses not only on verbal language but also on visual images. Although learning processes have benefited from the advancement of communications technology, such assessment generally remained mono-modal. This study aimed to reveal the learners' perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy, which is relevant to the multidimensional teaching-learning processes. It includes (1) the need of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners' receptive skills, (2) the relevance of employing multimodality in teaching-learning processes, (3) the importance of multimodal assessment to appraise the learners' academic literacy. Locating in Universitas Negeri Semarang, this study focused on the teaching-learning processes and multimodal assessment implemented to measure the learners' receptive skills and appraise their academic literacy.

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Questionnaires were employed to explore the respondents' perceptions regarding the implementation of the multimodal assessment and an interview to reveal their opinion about the particular type of assessment. The data were analyzed quantitatively as the basis of qualitative interpretation and inferences. Among the results were argumentative description and explanation about the need, the relevance, and importance of multimodal assessment in measuring the learners' mastery of the two skills.

Key words: *multimodal assessment, receptive skills, academic literacy*

Introduction

This research was initiated by an assumption that a lot of studies have focused on the comprehensibility of written passages owing to facts that texts are generally presented in verbal form. Visual images are merely thought of as an additional ornament just to make the verbal text representation looks more eye-catching. The presence of visual entities is oftentimes reckoned solely as a complement to the verbal form in meaning-making. Assuming that visual images play a significant role in aiding readers to better understand the respective verbal texts, a number of multimodal studies have been conducted so far.

Multimodal Assessment focuses on inter-semiotic components including verbal facet and such elements as audio, visual, spatial, temporal, kinetic, aesthetic ones. Although learning processes have been following the development of teaching techniques which are based on the advancement of communications technology, such assessment generally remained monomodal.

In line with the application of communications technology in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning, this study intends to reveal the implementation of multimodal assessment in appraising receptive skills and academic literacy which are naturally multidimensional. It aims to reveal the learners' perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy including the need of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners' receptive skills, the relevance of employing multimodality in teaching-learning processes, the importance of multimodal assessment to appraise the learners' academic literacy.

Literature Review

Exploring the multimodality in EFL teaching-learning processes, Bezerra (2011) studied the multimodal nature of communication. Liu & Qu (2014) explored the multimodality with the purpose of comparing their verbal and visual modes. Souzandehfar, et al. (2014) showed the meanings of advertisements in specific contexts. The employment of multimodal resources had enabled the enhancement of language and literacy skills.

Studying the role of multimodal in EFL students' autonomous listening comprehension and multi-literacy, Ruan & Leung (2012) showed that the new model proved to be capable of effectively improving the students' independent learning ability. Then, integrating multimodality into classroom practices, Choi & Young (2015) suggested that little is known about how EFL teachers integrate multimodality into their existing curriculum.

Besides the aforementioned studies, Nørgaard (2010) studied the relations between multimodality and the literary text; Herman (2010) conducted a case study concerning word-image versus utterance-gesture in multimodal storytelling. Ajayi (2012) questioned, "how teachers deployed multimodal textbooks to enhance English language learning". Huang (2015) conducted research concerning "the intersection of multimodality and critical perspective".

In the field of multimodal assessment, a number of studies had been conducted by Jewitt (2003); Hsiu-Ting Hung, et al. (2013); Lee (2014); and Fang-O Kuo, et al. (2015). Other experts who strive to relate learning and multimodal as well as authentic and performance assessment include Finch (2002); Lynch (2003); Abedi (2010). Most of these studies show the importance of integrating verbal texts and multimodal perspectives in creating learning atmospheres that encourage the students to accelerate the process of effectively mastering the components of language skills.

In order to answer the question posed in the introduction, a number of references were taken into account as the referential basis of the study. Among such references are comprehensive studies found in Kress, et al. (2001); Kress, et al. (2005); Schalkwyk (2008); Page (Ed.) (2010); Kress (2010); O'Halloran & Smith (Eds.) (2011); Camiciottoli & Fortanet-Gómez (2015). Such studies were considered to be the theoretical basis to make the theoretical framework for this current study.

Methodology

This research took place at the English Department of the Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang, employing the lecturers and active students in the

department as the research subjects. The object of this study was the need, the relevance, and importance of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners' receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy. This study aimed to reveal the learners' perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy, which is relevant to the multidimensional teaching-learning processes.

The main instruments of this study were (1) observation guide to record the application of teaching techniques and multimodal assessment, (2) questionnaires to explore the respondents' perceptions regarding their needs, the relevance, and importance of visual images in the implementation of the multimodal teaching and assessment, (3) an interview to reveal the respondents' opinion about the assessment types. Data were analyzed quantitatively as the basis of qualitative interpretation and inferences. The expected results were argumentative description and explanation regarding the implementation of multimodal assessment.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

The dependence level of verbal passages on visual images was determined by considering the respondents' answers to the questionnaires distinguishing very low, low, moderate, high, and very high levels of needs, the relevance, and the importance of multimodality. The indexes of the students' needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting the process of assessing receptive skills and enhancing the students' levels of academic literacy were thus used for predicting the respondents' levels in perceiving the three components of multimodal assessment, i.e. the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting the comprehensibility of verbal passages.

Using very simple descriptive statistics it was found that the students' needs, relevance, and the importance of visual images to understand verbal passages scores 142.45, 143.5, and 144.3 respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Average scores of the students' needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting their understanding of verbal passages.*

Scores	Needs of Visual Images	Relevance of Visual Images	Importance of Visual Images
Total Scores	5698	5740	5772
Average	142.45	143.5	144.3

Table 1 shows the average scores of the respondents' perception about (1) the needs of visual images to support the process of receptive skills assessment, (2) the relevance of teaching-learning strategies implementing visual images to enhance their academic literacy, and (3) the importance of visual images in enhancing the students' levels of academic literacy. If the three average scores are consulted to the table, the three components score high. It implies that visual images are not only highly required to help them make meaning but are also relevant to support them in enhancing their academic literacy.

The Students' Needs of Visual Images:

Considering the students' needs of visual images in the reading and listening assessment, the ANOVA output for regression showed that the F-value was 1.605653, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 18) was 0.221254. Therefore, the students' need of visual images to understand verbal messages was unable to predict their needs of visual images to comprehend audio messages. It implies that the need of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by their need of visual images in comprehending verbal texts.

Comparing the students' need of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the students' need of visual images to understand listening materials was relatively homogeneous, while their need for visual images to understand listening material varies.

The Relevance of Visual Images to Enhance the Students' Academic Literacy:

Considering the relevance of visual images to support the process of enhancing the students' academic literacy, it was found that the F-value was 14.30374, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 17) was 0.000228. It can be inferred that the degree of the relevance of visual images to understand verbal messages was capable of predicting the relevance of visual images to understand audio messages. It implies that the relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to comprehend audio materials.

Comparing the relevance of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand reading materials were relatively similar to the relevance of visual images to understand listening material.

The Importance of Visual Images to Enhance the Students' Academic Literacy:

Considering the importance of visual images to support the process of enhancing the students' levels of academic literacy, it was found that the F-value was 2.510163, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 18) was 0.130526. In other words, the degree of importance of the visual images to enhance the students' capability of understanding verbal messages was incapable of predicting the importance of visual images in understanding audio messages. In other words, the importance of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by the importance of visual images to comprehend audio materials.

Comparing the importance of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand reading materials were relatively similar to the importance of visual images to understand the listening material.

Interactions among Variables:

Based on the two-factor ANOVA with replication, the output for the sample (i.e. reading and writing), the F-value was 7.867, while the F-critical based on df (0.05, 1, 114) was 3.924 with the p-value of as much as 0.006 (see Table 2). It can be inferred that there is a significant difference in the respondents' perception about the dependence of verbal texts on visual images between reading and writing.

Based on the ANOVA output for the three columns (i.e. the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in receptive assessment and enhancement of academic literacy), the F-value was only 0.295, while the F-critical based on df (0.05, 2, 114) was 3.076 with the p-value of as much as 0.745. It implies that there is no significant difference in the respondents' perception about the dependence of verbal texts on visual images among the average scores of the respondents' perceptions about the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images on verbal texts.

Table 2. *The interaction between variables*

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication						
<i>Source of</i>						
<i>Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Sample	918.533	1	918.533	7.867	0.006	3.924
Columns	68.867	2	34.433	0.295	0.745	3.076
Interaction	64.867	2	32.433	0.278	0.758	3.076
Within	13310.900	114	116.762			
Total	14363.17	119				

As for the interaction between the receptive skills and the respondents' perceptions about the needs of visual images to understand verbal messages, the relevance as well as importance of visual images to academic literacy enhancement, the F-value was only 0.278, much lower than the F-crit (3.076) or the p-value (0.758) was well higher than the alpha value of (0.05). Therefore, there is no interaction between the students' needs, and the relevance as well as the importance of visual images to enhance their levels of academic literacy specifically in comprehending receptive skills, including listening and reading ones. Chart 1 shows that the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images to understand written texts, represented in reading, are averagely much higher than to comprehend audio messages, which are represented in listening.

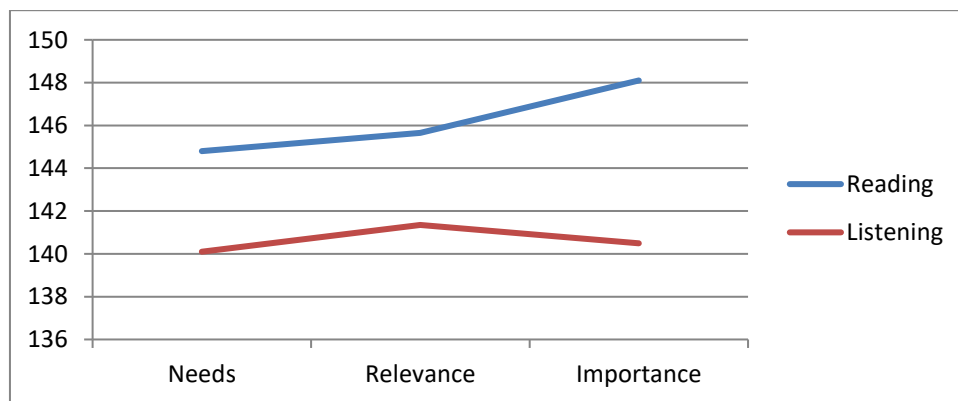


Chart 1. *The interaction between the students' needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images to comprehend receptive skills.*

Discussion

Answering the question of the need for the application of multimodal assessment in measuring the receptive skills of English learners, the need for visual images to understand the verbal messages can not be used as a basis for predicting their need of visual images to understand messages delivered in listening skill. It implies that text understanding either in the reading or listening skill does not depend on the presence or absence of visual images even though the visual images are needed by the language learners. This is in line with Wyatt-Smith & Kimber's claim (2009) that 'the valuation is still dominated by the use of printed materials that represent the verbal language.'

However, the respondents' response to the high level of visual images required to understand the text conveyed verbally and text presented in listening skills are relevant to Matthiessen's statement (2007: 4-6) about the existence of 'inherent multimodality of language as demonstrated by the 'body language' and 'paralanguage'. Thus, as stated by such experts as Scollon & Scollon (2003), O'Halloran (2004), Baldry & Thibault (2006), Kress & van Leeuwen (2006), Bateman (2008), and Unsworth (2008), there is a close relation between the use of verbal language and that of semiotic elements to support the delivery and understanding of the verbal language more effectively and efficiently. Therefore, the absence of a significant relation between the need for visual images to the effectiveness and efficiency of understanding verbal texts can be traced to other factors. In addition, multimodal assessment is necessary to gain an insight into the expectations of the quality of the learners' performance.

Concerning the relevance of multimodal techniques, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand verbal text is able to predict the relevance of visual images to understand the message delivered with the help of the audio device. This implies that the relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to understand the teaching materials equipped with the audio images. The high perception of the relevance of these two aspects demonstrates that the relevant assessment includes elements presented in the learning process.

Furthermore, the importance of visual images to enhance the students' skills in understanding verbal messages was unable to predict the importance of visual images in understanding the messages delivered by audio devices. Although the multi-literacy theory in learning processes has been implemented in these last two decades, it did not necessarily apply to the learning and assessment of listening and reading skills. Thus, the concept of conventional reading and writing, digital literacy, visual literacy, and critical literacy is an important aspect

of the multi-literacy practice despite the theoretical concept faces several non-academic constraints.

Concerning the interaction between the needs, the relevance and the importance of visual images for the students to mastery of listening and reading skills in order to increase their academic literacy, there are significant differences in the verbal text dependence on visual images between reading and writing. First, there was no significant difference regarding verbal text reliance on visual imagery between the needs, the relevance and the importance of visual images in verbal texts. Secondly, there was no significant difference regarding verbal text reliance on visual images between the needs, the relevance, and importance of visual imagery in the verbal text. Thus, Van Dyk & Wiedeman's claim (2004) is not always realized in learning and assessment activities of listening and reading.

Conclusion

Visual images are not only highly required by the students to help them make meaning but are also relevant as well as important to support them in enhancing their academic literacy. While the students' needs of visual images to understand listening materials were relatively homogenous, their needs of visual images to understand listening material vary.

The relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to comprehend audio materials. The importance of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by that of visual images to comprehend audio materials. There is no interaction between the students' needs, and the relevance as well as the importance of visual images to enhance their levels of academic literacy specifically in comprehending receptive skills, including listening and reading ones.

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Title

A Case Study of Cross Cultural Adjustments among Indonesian Scholars in the United States

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Abstract

The development of joint degrees and other international education programs between Indonesia and the United States often aims at recruiting both degree-seeking and short-term post-graduate students. Living in a new cultural environment, Indonesian scholars are bound to face challenges in adjustments in order to communicate well (Ward & Rana Deuba, 2000; Zakaria, 2000). Challenges are inevitable due to differences in cultural backgrounds. This investigation adopts a case study approach to enable the researcher to focus on particularities and complexities and, thus, to better understand an activity and its significance (Stake 1995). Two primary methods are used in data collection: interview and observations conducted at a mid-sized public university in the United States where eight Indonesian visiting scholar participants were living for three months while they pursued mentored research sponsored by Indonesia's Ministry of National Education. The findings reveal that obvious misunderstandings in cross-cultural adjustment are language barriers, academic stress, food, climate, religious differences, and forms of address, nonverbal communication, and time. Cultural misunderstandings are at their height in the beginning of the academic sojourn, a result of struggling to cope with language barriers and the unfamiliar academic and sociocultural environment. This is not a generalizable process; there are differences not only in experience

among the students but also in the individual subjective senses of success in different aspects of life in the new country. The adjustment journey as a dynamic process experienced differently among sojourners, and fluctuating throughout the sojourn as a result of individual, cultural, and external factors.

Keywords: *cross-cultural adjustment, a case study, cultural misunderstanding, dynamic process.*

Introduction

The development of joint degrees and other international education programs between Indonesia and the United States often aims at recruiting both degree-seeking and short-term post-graduate students. This expansion has also been accompanied by a growth in educational research looking at how international students fare when abroad. Van Hoof and Verbeeten (2005, p. 54) provide some justification for this:

It is important for the study of international education to start analyzing the perceptions of the students involved in such programmes, not only to corroborate predominant ideas about the benefits and challenges of international education but also for purely practical reasons.

One reality of the international education experience is the presence and the perception of cross-cultural misunderstandings. Even when we are thoroughly aware of all the barriers to effective cross-cultural communication and make use of available aids and tools to assist us in communicating with people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, misunderstandings can still occur. An important skill for international academic sojourners is to know how to respond when misunderstandings occur and to learn from these events.

Asian international students appear to experience more academic and nonacademic challenges than do students from other regions (Church, 1982; Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Li & Gasser, 2005; Nilsson, Butler, Shouse, & Joshi, 2008; Poyrazli, Kavanaugh, Baker, & Al-Timimi, 2004; Sato & Hodge 2009; Trice, 2004). While a substantial number of previous studies have addressed academic and nonacademic challenges experienced by many international students, most of them have focused on the international students in general and tend to place Indonesian students in one group with other Asian students (Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Liu, 2001; Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004; Zhai, 2002). For example, Fritz, Chin, and DeMarinis (2008) found that Asian students had difficulties in dealing with the new language and in making new friends. Meanwhile, Liu (2001) reported

that linguistic, sociocultural, cognitive, pedagogical, and affective factors influenced Asian international graduate students' classroom engagement. The participants in this observational study were all academic pursuing doctoral research and sponsored by the Indonesian government.

There is so much to take into account when communicating with somebody coming from a different cultural perspective, and it is important not to jump to hasty conclusions. As even early cross cultural theory tells us, culture shock isn't like the mumps. You get it repeatedly. The most effective way forward is to develop the habit of looking for the resolution of misunderstandings arising from perceived differences through reflection, increased understanding, and the creation of helpful solutions (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

Living in a new cultural environment, Indonesian scholars are bound to face challenges in adjustments in order to communicate well (Ward & Rana Deuba, 2000; Zakaria, 2000). Challenges are inevitable due to differences in cultural backgrounds, and American social culture is decidedly different from Indonesian social culture. Patience and a desire to observe and adjust are required for a successful academic stay. Cross culture adjustment theorist such as Grove and Torbiorn (1985) and Lysgaard (1955) tell us that sojourners usually bottom out after several weeks or months in their new environment. Awareness of such a phenomenon could be created through various efforts to lessen the challenges for Indonesian scholars living in the USA during a short term academic program.

The discussion below is based on results from a qualitative case study examining the perceptions by Indonesian students of American culture in relation to learning experiences while spending three months in the United States. As Gao (2002) notes, a transfer of the culture of one language into the other may very likely lead to language misunderstanding, confusion, and even conflicts. Cross cultural misunderstandings or cultural clashes that occurred in the process of adjustment can help to identify issues that may cause conflict in communication. Ultimately, a structured cross cultural understanding program could be devised to improve sojourners' functional skills and minimize clashes.

Language and Culture

Language is inseparable from culture. Language is itself a cultural entity. Conversely, the influence of language on culture is that, without language, a certain level of cultural knowledge or cultural development could never arise (Langacker, 1994: 30). As early 20th century language theorists have noted, knowledge of a language implies awareness of the

totality of associations carried by expressions in the language, particularly in the context of situation and context of culture (Malinowski, 1935, pp. 51-2; Firth 1957, p.36). One example might be the degrees of indirectness used in English requests (Clark & Schunk, 1980, p. 111), including imperatives (“Tell me the time.”), indirect requests (“Can you tell me the time?”), and statements (“It must be getting late.”)

In discussing the communication problems in relation to language differences, Pederson (1983, p. 405) presents the following example:

Even when the words in Chinese and English were the same the contexts in which the words were interpreted were completely different. Some of the more common counseling words such as concern (e.g., “I am concerned about you.”) simply do not exist in Chinese.

The ability to recognize these differences, to make correct interpretations, and to react properly to people or situations in these communities constitutes the essence of cross-cultural understanding. As Elashmawi (1993) states, when an individual experiences difficulties understanding the effect of his or her own cultural values towards his or her behavior, that individual will have a problem understanding another person’s behavior.

Cross Cultural Adjustments

Researchers interested in cross-cultural adaptation have examined the psychological phases people go through when entering a foreign culture, the traits that contribute to adjustment in a new culture, and the process of becoming an intercultural or bi-cultural individual (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Furnham, 1988; Kim & Ruben, 1988; Nwanko & Onwumehili, 1991; Searle & Ward, 1990). Most of this research addresses the issue of adaptation from the perspective of long term adjustment to cultural differences (Freedman, 1986; James, 1992; Kohls, 1984; Oberg, 1960). For example, Kim and Ruben (1988) argue that a person goes through a process of stress and adaptation that leads to growth in intercultural communication skills over time. They contend that most individuals in most situations adapt to the stress of cultural differences.

Cultural Competence

Cultural competence involves a process of developing cultural awareness, knowledge, and skills (Campinha-Bacote, 2011; Luquis & Pérez, 2006; Pesquera, Yder, & Lynk, 2008). Campinha-Bacote’s model of cultural competence includes five constructs:

- a) Cultural awareness is the self-examination of beliefs, values, and personal biases.
- b) Cultural knowledge is acquired to understand other cultural aspects.
- c) Cultural skills are abilities used to collect assessment information.
- d) Cultural encounters are direct interactions as learning situations.
- e) Cultural desire is a motivation to become involved in the learning experience.

Throughout the analysis of introspective data collected for this research, these constructs have been kept in mind and implicitly guide the organization of the discussion.

Methodology

This investigation adopts a case study approach because it enables the researcher to focus on particularities and complexities and, thus, to better understand an activity and its significance (Stake 1995). Two primary methods are used in data collection: interview and observations.

Research Site and Participants

The study was conducted at a mid-sized public university in the United States where the Indonesian visiting scholar participants were living for three months while they pursued mentored research sponsored by Indonesia's Ministry of National Education (Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, or DIKTI). To be eligible for this international research opportunity, participants met rigorous selection criteria set by DIKTI, including academic qualifications and English language proficiency (TOEFL minimum of 500). The host university has a long-standing relationship with Indonesian scholars and a multi-year history of hosting visiting scholars through similar programs. In addition, it has a large international student population and several academic specializations that include a Southeast Asian focus. This setting is, therefore, somewhat atypical in its enduring interest in regional studies in Southeast Asia, but also very typical in its location and mission as a public university enrolling over 20,000 undergraduates.

In contextualizing the comments of the participants, it's important to understand some of the generally accepted socio-cultural differences between the Indonesia and the US. Indonesia is considered a collectivist society or high-context culture, whereas the United States is considered an individualistic society or low-context culture. High-context cultures have more internalized understanding of one another through "shared physical context, implicit communication, and greater concern for interdependence," (Stobbe, p. 115) indirect face

negotiations, and focus on mutual or other-face maintenance. Low-context cultures are characterized by concern for privacy and autonomy, explicit communication, greater concern for independence, direct face negotiations and focus on self-face maintenance (Augsberger, 1992; Jandt, 2004; Stobbe, 2006.). Misunderstandings and conflict can result if one does not understand these cultural characteristics. The level of culture shock experienced by these scholars from Indonesia was dictated by their preparation, their understanding of the process, their willingness to take risks, and their acceptance of the need to modify their behavior.

Participant demographics are presented in Table 1. All participants were adult (over Age 25) faculty members at Indonesian universities in pursuit of their doctoral degrees in Indonesia. To ensure anonymity, they are referred to in this study as Participants 1-8. During the time of their stay, participants were housed in a large residence hall populated almost exclusively by undergraduates. They took their meals in the dining area and had access to all the other residential life facilities. While the housing situation may not have been ideal for international scholars, it did provide them with numerous opportunities for cross-cultural encounters.

Table 1. Participants

	Major	Sex	Identifier
Participant 1	English	Male	SH
Participant 2	English	Male	LS
Participant 3	English	Male	MY
Participant 4	English	Male	TS
Participant 5	Economics	Male	ED
Participant 6	Economics	Female	EL
Participant 7	Economics	Male	MN

Participant 8	English	Female	IS
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Data Collection

Each individual participating in the study was contacted and arrangements for a 30-45 minute interview were made. These interviews took place between mid-November and mid-December near the end of the participants' sojourn in the US. Although framed with a set of semi-structured guiding questions, the interviews were open-ended, allowing the participants to tell their stories in their own way. The guiding questions generally focused on cross-cultural scenarios or cultural clashes that may have been encountered by the participants; they also asked about participants' perceptions about studying in the US. Digital audiotape recording was used to record the conversations and interviews in the study. The interviews provide rich information regarding the Indonesian scholars' experiences during their sojourn. Each individual story reveals cultural differences, misunderstandings, and growth in adjustment. Participants were also observed interacting in organized culturally-related events and other daily activities...

Data Analysis

Following Miles and Huberman's (1994) within-case and cross-case displays and analyses, the interview data were analyzed contemporaneously with the data collection. This allowed for transcriptions to be reviewed and checked with participants to ensure accuracy of representation and to aid in explication of patterns and themes emerging from the data. All interview data were treated in the same way in efforts to find similarities and differences and to organize, group, or cluster the significant statements among the participants into themes and to reduce the repetitive data. To ensure the validity of the interpretations, emergent themes were checked with the participants; rich and thick descriptions (Merriam, 1998) of events and narratives also included verbatim examples from the transcribed interviews. Because one of the researchers shares a common language with the participants, interpretation of both language and cultural items was reliable, resulting in a more nuanced perspective.

During the data collection period, brief field notes were kept and initial coding was begun. The coding scheme was subsequently verified using the audio recording, observation notes, member checking, and peer consultation in order to maintain and strengthen the validity and reliability of the data.

Results and Discussion

The findings reveal that obvious misunderstandings in cross-cultural adjustment are language barriers, academic stress, and food. Other subtle differences include climate, religious differences, forms of address, nonverbal communication, and time.

Language Barriers

None of the Indonesian visiting scholars participating in this study had English as a native language. Satisfying a minimum TOEFL requirement, however, does not guarantee a mastery of English. As the participants expected, difficulties with both spoken and written English frequently got in the way of (or was perceived to be getting in the way of) successful interaction with native English speakers. Misunderstanding occurred not only in the academic activities but also in general interactions and when travelling, banking, and shopping. The following excerpts provide examples of the sorts of communications the participants encountered as well as their assessments of the encounters

Participant 1 notes:

“I have to pay attention more when interacting with young Americans in the residence hall because they speak less formal, and we have different culture.”

“To avoid misunderstanding, I mostly use my point (finger) pointing a certain food directly without asking because I do not know the name of the food.”

“When we arrive here, we actually do not clearly understand what the students here in the housing tell us, say something because they tend to use the daily talk or daily way of thinking. We have to pay attention very close. We have to pay attention in order to understand them what they are actually talking about. Because our hearing and the way how we talk in our country is very different because what we learn actually from the class until from the lower level up to the tertiary level, it is very formal but here in our daily speaking or daily communication they use somewhat less formal. I believe they have their own special dialect especially from African American group community.”

This participant’s sentiments were shared by many, indicating an initial language barrier leading to miscommunication as a result of being prepared for a different kind of English---the more formal version learned in school in Indonesia. Informality and new vocabulary were required for daily communication in the residence hall. Participant 2 has different story of language barriers when communicating with young Americans in the residence hall as noted below. This is a difficulty that, stemming from

vast differences in academic focus may not be specific to international visitors, but which is likely exacerbated by linguistic interference.

“I think it is challenging because of different age, it might be because I do not know their level of communication it is difficult. I want to communicate with them but it seems very difficult to make approach to them. When I told them I am a PhD student, they don’t want to talk. Later on they do not want to talk.

Participant 6 relates one encounter from her first day in the country, clearly indicating that misunderstandings can come at a high cost:

“Something funny happened when the immigration officer checked me at Chicago airport. Immigration officers have the task of deciding whether you’re permitted to enter the US and have the necessary documentation, including a visa if necessary. Even with a visa, you don’t have the right to enter the US; only the immigration officer can make that decision and I was asked something that I do not understand. He says “bla bla ...money”. What I was thinking at that time, the officer asked how much money I have, then I showed him all my money in my purse and he said; “you make me confused” then I replied: “me too.” Finally I showed him my LOA [letter of acceptance to study] and other documents needed.

This participant uses the word, “funny” here, but was more typically experiencing anxiety, fear, and embarrassment because of her English language limitations as noted in the following excerpts about her experiences in service and school encounters:

[realizing that she had taken someone else’s omelet from the service line in the residence hall food court] “I did not know that the omelet was not mine. I thought it was mine because I had ordered it and I saw the omelet in front of me but when I ate it, I just realized it was not mine as the ingredients were different with mine. I had no idea to ask because of my bad English I thought it was mine.”

“When I was in the bank, I had communication problem. I would like to withdraw the money but I had written what I wanted to say. I wrote that I wanted to withdraw the money but I did not know how.”

“I wanted to exchange what I have bought but I didn’t know how to tell”

“I thought it was an ESL class not.... I misunderstood; I thought it was a class of writing.”

Language barriers made Indonesian students feel helpless, and they caused students’ anxiety. The better English they had, the less likely they were to report encountering

problems or feeling negative emotional responses. However, the language barrier still remains until their English skills improve. In general, Indonesian visiting scholars who are not familiar with slang and colloquial expressions or with U.S. cultural or historical events have difficulties understanding interactions outside the classroom with American people.

Academic stress

Greater academic stress is experienced by Indonesian visiting scholars who have language barriers. Differences between the American education system and the Indonesian one include unfamiliar administrative procedures such as registering for a library card or attending lectures or regularly scheduled class sessions. Some of the scholars also had difficulties meeting unfamiliar expectations from instructors and participating in discussions with fellow students when they sit in classes.

The linguistic barrier is one of the contributing factors posing a challenge preventing these visiting scholars from engaging actively in classroom activities such as comprehension of long lectures, class participation, discussion groups, presentations, and one-on-one mentor meetings:

“If I don’t understand sometimes I just nod my head pretending to understand.”

[Participant 3]

“I got shocked because I had a lot paper to work and I had to revise again and again because my mentor asked me to change my paper again and again!” [Participant 5]

Most of the participants reported that they had problems from the start not only understanding classroom instructions and discussion but also with academic writing and expectations for academic research, including protection of human subjects and clear reporting of course materials.

For Indonesians, confrontation is seen as face threatening, and it is negatively perceived. Related to this are values of respect for seniors or elders and avoiding embarrassment to others by “saving face.” Because of this cultural norm to avoid conflict, it became difficult for many of the participants to engage in discussions of problems, whether academic or personal. They reflected that they would attempt either positive or impartial responses. For example, financial problems were often left unresolved, out of a reluctance to talk openly. Or scholars might ask their colleagues rather than their mentor about some class material they did not understand. This type of behavior is consistent with Hofstede’s (1980a;

1980b) dimension of uncertainty avoidance, whereby members of the society feel uncomfortable expressing their views in situations which are unstructured, unclear, and unpredictable.

The peak of academic stress was came late in the sojourn on the day when the visiting scholars presented their research progress to members of the university community. A great deal of daily discussion centered on this activity, as represented in this excerpt from Participant 4:

“I’ve been practicing my presentation whole day and I think I am still not sure about it! Have you practiced? Have you sent your power point to you our mentor? What does she suggest you?”

In short, most of students admit that their proficiency in English has affected their academic performance; even Participant 8, whose English proficiency is higher than most others had the worst academic stress on the day of the presentation.

Food

It was difficult for these Muslim visiting scholars to find halal foods, especially in the small Midwestern city where these scholars lived. Most of them found it difficult to adjust to the food of their host country. (Granted, residence hall food is not always of the best and most tasty quality.) The best way to avoid non-halal food was to eat only fruits, bread, and vegetables provided without dressing. They wound up cooking their own rice and boiled eggs:

“Food differences that is the most problematic things whether the food is halal or not. Some of the name of the food are uncommon so we have to know whether it contains pork and not. I try to avoid it by eating vegetables, peanuts and eggs.” [Participant 1]

For Participant 2 a misunderstanding took place with the food server. While pointing to one item, he names another. The communication failed because there was no clarification or repetition from either of them:

“Just not accustomed with the food, we have to change our custom. It might beWhen I have chicken tender, I wait for long time for the chicken, it seemed grilled chicken in my mind is chicken tender but the person gives me grilled chicken. I point the chicken tender while saying ‘grilled chicken’ I have to wait for long time because they grilled my chicken. We have to enjoy the food. Pork is taboo for me.”

Even seemingly helpful behaviors such as re-using a plate in the food service line become points for misunderstanding as the food service regulations require using different plates for different foods:

“I think this is good experience because you know I do need to use the same plate when I asked potato on my plate containing other food. He told me I could not use the plate. He took another plate.” [Participant 3]

And, of course, the large servings Americans are fond of are points of cultural difference, as noted by Participant 8:

“When I want little fries and wings they always give me more. I do not understand”

Nevertheless, even as they complained about food, all of the Indonesian visiting scholars gained weight during their sojourn, a fact perhaps accounted for as they eagerly try all various foods they have never found in Indonesia.

Climate

Because their research sojourn took place in the autumn, the Indonesian visiting scholars experienced the first tastes of winter. They found it difficult to adjust to the climate differences and to the unpredictable weather which increased their anxiety and depression. They had to adjust living in a completely new environment with its cold climate and open spaces, and they often forgot to check the weather forecast---something equatorial Indonesians are not accustomed to doing. Changing weather required changes to modes of dress and a reliance on inconsistent public transportation:

Participant 1 said it was a nightmare waiting for a bus in a bitter cold snap:

“I am going to die! It is extremely cold. I just thought to call one of you to pick me up. My cheeks are freezing cold then I covered my cheeks by pulling my sweater up so I could breathe!”

There was a lively debate when all the participants walked a mile for shopping on a snowy holiday weekend:

Participant 1: “I think we are crazy enough! Nobody walks! This is a dead town.”

Participant 3: “Are we sure that we can continue to walk? I am deadly cold.”

Participant 8: “I am wearing 3 jackets at once! What a cold!”

It is common to experience temporary periods of anxiety, depression, and stress in adjustment of climate differences. The Indonesian scholars learned a lot about the local climate differences in three months. They bought coats, socks, boots, scarfs, and also hats to protect themselves from the cold. They became accustomed to checking the weather forecast before

they pursued outdoor activities, and the eagerly-awaited first snowstorm lost much of its magic after about 10 minutes and a few tossed snowballs.

While language barriers, food availability, and climate differences occupied much of the discussion from these visiting scholars, they also indicated other linguistic and cultural sites for potential culture-clash.

Religious Differences

Participants were asked where they thought tensions between the Muslim and Western worlds originated, and answers varied. Of those who say Muslim countries have unfavorable views of America, they probably say it is based mostly on misinformation provided by the media and government in those countries about life in the US.

Notably, all the scholars felt welcome in the US despite religious differences. Here is what most of the participants describe in the discussion. [Note that a new mosque was being built just 2 blocks from campus during the scholars' sojourn. During this time a local church and a campus building offered space for daily and Friday prayer.]:

“They don't have a problem with the opening a mosque in DeKalb, just in front of one of our mentor's house. It doesn't bother the surroundings because Americans think we have a right to practice our religion. It is not what I've been imagining for years by reading the media that hatred grows against Muslims in America. We can even do Friday prayer in the church. Alhamdulillah! The tolerance is incredible!”

“Americans give us chance to do Friday prayer and Christian community also supports, and the committee says: you can do that in the upcoming event. So tolerance is there. The problem is not the society but the government, the politics, the policy.” [Participant 1]

“I think [it's] welcoming, we can pray Friday prayer in church.” [Participant 2]

“Everybody respects when I say my name is Mohammed. It is not the same on TV that American society does not like Muslim.” [Participant 3]

“My imagine about America, Americans is closed society but they very welcome with different religion. I think it is good experience when I take Jumat prayer in the church.” [Participant 4]

“It seems they welcome us wearing hijab. They appreciate us.” [Participant 6]

“They are very welcome. I have ever been complemented by student in Ibu A's class. They admire my hijab. They accept me, they don't mind to have me in the classroom!” [Participant 8]

The religious tolerance that the US is purported to value was, in fact, made apparent for these participants.

Forms of Address

“This is I think I have some experiences with my mentor. The first is the use of “Sir” for addressing people. “Sir” here is giving respect, and my mentor did not want to be respected. He just makes me like friend. When I first time said: “Good morning, Sir.” He replied me while smiling: “Good morning, Sir?” so his intonation is rising. This is makes me, what happens with him?...my mentor didn’t agree about that.”

Participant 3 here points to a cultural mismatch between Indonesia and the US. In general, Indonesians do not address people by directly calling people by name, preferring versions of “Sir” or “Madam” as a sign of respect. The informality of American posed challenges to Indonesian visiting scholars since they are accustomed to acknowledging the title or position of the person with whom they are speaking. Such clashes of formalities and intimacies may also act as a gap or a barrier in communication, and in some instances make the social interaction uncomfortable. For Americans, informal address often indicates the value of equality. Participant 4 acknowledged the communication difficulty that can ensue:

“Hmm...ya, I also sometimes we do not know how to call a person I mean our partner when speak with us, should we call them by what for example a mentor, should we call Mr. or Professor or only the name, that’s the problems sometimes we face in doing conversation....”

In Indonesia, when addressing people for the first time, the expectation is to adhere to a power distance and be polite and respectful, always use the formal terms of *Bapak* for males and *Ibu* for a woman before their given names.

Non-Verbal Communication

When meeting, Indonesians touch their heart in greeting, often after a handshake. It is a respectful gesture also used when meeting officials also. At the same time, physical distance is greater in the US culture than in Indonesian and most of the scholars did not immediately notice that they had to carefully maintain the same physical distance from each other during a given interaction. This was particularly noticeable when in encounters outside the university such as shopping or banking, and participants reported a number of times that they forgot to keep the space with Americans. Americans might find themselves backing away trying to

regain space, while Indonesians move closer Americans to maintain their social space. As Participant 1 says:

“Actually we have already known because we have study especially American culture but we usually do it by unexpectedly, we did it by unexpectedly, incidentally, that is because it is common to us...”

Another body language behavior that surprised the Indonesian scholars is was they call “cowboy style”: putting legs on the table, while sitting in the chair can be considered relaxed and comfortable for Americans, but to an Indonesian, it is arrogant and impolite:

Participant 1 says:

“In the residence hall also it happens while we are eating in the dining room, sometimes we can see the students... let I what just say now they raise their foot and put on the chair while eating talking and the other students did not bother they don’t care, but we are still uneasy about that...”

Participant 2 says:

“In Indonesia we seat neatly, here students freely to sit. Might be they put their legs on the table. I have a friend got seminar in Ambon, one of them put the foot on the table.
“

Time

The importance of punctuality is not universal and varies from culture to culture, and this fact was reflected in the scholars’ occasional late arrivals to mentoring meetings, classes, public lectures, and private events. In Indonesia, those of higher status (e.g., bosses, elders, professors) might exercise the privilege of being on “jam karet,” --- literally, “rubber time,” time that can be stretched. A number of comments from participants recognized this potential cross-cultural violation of norms:

“We have to come on time otherwise we got reprimand. One of presenter is talking in front us then we start keep talking. Here is not the custom. We cannot behave like that because they feel unrespected by us. And it happens many times.” [Participant 1]

“I think I always came late...but the end of the class [meaning three-month sojourn]... recently I came earlier. This is I think not good for people who come late.” [Participant 3]

“Ya, it is about time, still sometimes influenced by Indonesian culture that if we make agreement, appointment I mean, in Indonesian culture, it might be canceled from one side but here...” [Participant 4]

“When I attending the concert, one of the concert in [University] because I am with my friend at that time. We are coming late at the time and the concert has begun at the time and the gate, I mean the door has been closed and the front desk prohibits us to have get in the hall. Because we were late and we wait until break for the first performance, we wait until the door open.” [Participant 5]

The scholars also found some opportunities for cultural *faux pas* in such things as adhering to deadlines for assignments, jay-walking, and taking photographs without permission, seen as an issue of privacy in US law.

General Impressions

While the participants’ comments above situate them as navigators in a new cultural milieu, they were also willing to share some general impressions about living in this US setting and their reactions to how their interactions with the culture satisfied their wants and needs. Overall, the participants positively ranked the following features of the US culture as perceived through their lived experience:

- the higher education system
- human rights
- cleanliness
- discipline
- security
- hospitality and helpfulness

As noted in the participant comments, food and climate were the most difficult aspects of their lives in the US to navigate and to adjust to.

Conclusion

Previous studies have documented that the characteristics and degree of Asian international students’ educational and sociocultural experiences vary for many reasons: race/ethnicity (Abe, Talbot, & Geelhoed, 1998; Sato & Hodge, 2009; Trice, 2004; Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005); length of stay and major of study (Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008); social support and social contacts (Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004; Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005); and English language proficiency (Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Liu, 2001; Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004). Although these studies provide readers with useful information about what Asian students experienced during their transition processes in

American higher education, few researchers (e.g., Awasilah, 1991) have specifically examined the lived experience of Indonesian visiting scholars. The Indonesian scholars who come for short-term sojourns, such as those who participated in this study, have particular needs as they have limited time to adjust personally and limited opportunities to familiarize themselves with a new environment. The intent of this study was to better understand the experiences of these visiting scholars in both academic and daily life contexts. How they negotiate cultural misunderstandings and miscommunications in the United States can inform their ultimate success as short-term sojourners. Their assessments of their own success in navigate this unfamiliar setting can also inform a developing awareness of cultural difference. Most of the participants intended to share their cultural experiences with their Indonesian students --- as lessons in cultural diversity, as a means for helping them develop intercultural competencies, and as a window into a culture whose broader media representation is not consistent with their lived experiences. As university teachers, the participants returned to their home institutions with a renewed commitment to encouraging students to consider international travel and study abroad. Participants also expressed a tendency to be more tolerant and optimistic in their attitudes towards cultural differences that occur in a cross-cultural environment. They understand that cross-cultural misunderstandings are common occurrences and that they are not insurmountable problems.

Chesterton (1936) observed that people first use their own culture as a lens to understand the world around them. The first-hand observations of the visiting scholars afforded them insights into both the Indonesian and the US systems. The sojourner knows the value of setting a direction and charting a course, but also recognizes the value of observing the way of life, the attitudes, the landscape, and the unexpected (Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2011). Participants in this study confirm that the experience increases their global views and reduces negative stereotypes.

Ultimately, this small-scale case study provided insights into the meaningful experiences and challenges of adjusting to the US academic culture and its physical and social environment. The findings have implications for programs that aim to enhance intercultural friendship formation to promote understanding by explicating some of the issues involved in adjusting to a new culture. Of course, as an introspective, ethnographic endeavor, this study may be questioned as to the possibility of reporting bias. However, bias was purposefully not controlled for, but the researchers are confident that participants made honest reports and evaluations of their cross-cultural encounters. However, the outcomes of the interviews and

their resulting narratives, as well as of the general assessment of aspects of US culture, provide numerous threads from which more objective surveys could be developed. Finally, it must be made clear that cultural adjustment is a dynamic and often reflective process that is manifest differently in different individuals at different times in their sojourn.

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Title

Need Analysis to Cross-Cultural Understanding Syllabus for English Department of
Pancasakti University

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Abstract

This study aims to identify the quality of the existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus, and to investigate needs-based course design to improve more effective cross-cultural syllabus. There are 47 students, 6 teachers of the cross-cultural understanding class involved in the study conducted in Pancasakti University from August to December 2015. This study collected data through classroom observations, teachers' questionnaires to know their perception about the existing syllabus, and students' appraisal form to provide feedback on teaching performance. The findings show that the existing syllabus lacks of 1) basic information, 2) clear of the distinction among objectives, competences and learning outcomes, 3) recommended or supplementary texts and other materials, 4) guidance for teachers, students' center learning process, and 5) clearly defined assignments and assessment. The most important finding is teachers consider it is important to incorporate the richness of students' cultural backgrounds into the cross-cultural understanding syllabus. Using cross-cultural comparison to compare students' cultural backgrounds with the target language's culture is not

just to understand two divergent cultures and describe the similarities and differences between them. The purpose is to answer sociological questions by examining different societies. With an understanding of their own culture as a starting point, learners gradually decenter from their own culture (Byram, 1989; Kramsch, 1993) and develop necessary skills and knowledge to achieve decentering (Liddicoat et al., 2003).

Keywords: *cross-cultural understanding syllabus, cross-cultural comparison*

Introduction

Approximately 375 million people speak English around the world and there are more than 50 English speaking countries, where English is either the official or the primary language. Global awareness and international collaboration encourages students to see things from different perspectives and helps them to make informed decisions, acquires skills that will be useful to them and will remain with them for life. However, they still need to be guided through the process of discovery so that a deeper understanding of their own place in the world is developed. Fostering global awareness and international collaboration in the classrooms are so beneficial to our students.

In EFL classrooms where what is communicated, practiced, and perceived greatly affect and influence students, it is imperative that teachers learn how to effectively communicate cross-culturally in diverse contexts. Classroom teachers should adequately prepared to teach students to interact with culturally and linguistically diverse population.

It has been suggested that language learning is enhanced by the study of the culture associated with it (Risager, 2007). This provides a mixed picture of English use, as it is used both to communicate with native speakers and with non-native speakers, who may not share the cultural assumptions of native speakers, therefore, cultural awareness to communicate the intended message to bridge culture gap is necessary.

In an EFL class, students are usually monolingual and they learn English while living in their own country (Krieger, 2005). They have a little access to the target culture and therefore a limited ability to become culturally competent. Importantly their aim for learning English is not only to communicate with native speakers of English but also with non-native speakers of English, which is why EFL learners such as students in Pancasakti University Tegal are typical learners of English as an International Language (EIL). By learning English, they become users of International, or rather intercultural, communication. The target language becomes a tool to be

used in interaction with people from all over the world where communication in English takes place. It is obvious that in order to successfully function in a culturally diverse environment, students need to develop intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002).

So far, there has not been a standard model of training or a rigorous cross-cultural understanding (CCU) syllabus in Pancasakti University Tegal, which is manifested in well-developed materials that prove effective in terms of intercultural awareness. As a result, providing an effective cross-cultural understanding syllabus that meets the learners' needs is necessary for a cross-cultural understanding class through need analysis.

Due to knowing the needs of teachers and students in a cross-cultural understanding course, need analysis concerns with the investigation of the present cross-cultural understanding syllabus as well as students' needs and wants is conducted. One of the basic assumptions of curriculum development is that a sound educational program should be based on an analysis of learners' needs (Richards:2001). This phase is to help determine if an existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus adequately addresses the needs of the students and to collect information about particular problems experiencing for the future construction of a course for improving effective cross-cultural awareness skills as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill particularly in English Department of Pancasakti University.

Problem Statement

It is necessary to provide EFL students in Pancasakti University with a systemic cross-cultural understanding class, and not only the culture of the main English speaking countries if they are to become successful intercultural communicators. They will gain a solid knowledge of the different world cultures to develop the ability to compare their own native culture to other cultures, to evaluate critically and interpret the results of such comparison to apply the knowledge successfully in both verbal and non-verbal communication.

To achieve successful intercultural communicators in cross-cultural understand class in Pancasakti University, need analysis was conducted to get students' and teachers' perspective about learning process is needed. Assessment of need from the individual learner's perspective is an important part of any instructional program design and it can benefit both teachers and students alike (Lytle, 1998). The learner-centered approach to language learning builds on the premise that teaching/learning programs should be responsive to the learners' needs. By using

needs analysis, this study attempts to identify what kind of syllabus that meets the students' needs in a cross-cultural understanding course in English Department of Pancasakti University.

Research Objective

In line with the background of the study, the objectives of this research were formulated is to find out teachers and students' needs in cross-cultural understanding class to develop a useful cross-cultural understanding syllabus aiming at intercultural competence as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill at English Department of Pancasakti University.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following research question is what are teachers and students' needs in cross-cultural understanding class to develop a useful cross-cultural understanding syllabus aiming at intercultural competence as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill at English Department of Pancasakti University?

Review of Related Literature

Need Analysis

Needs analysis is a procedure for collecting information about learners and classroom activities to design a syllabus (Nunan 1988). It is an important part of designing a language course. When a language course is designed, it is important for a teacher to have reliable information on their learner variables so that it can reduce any gap among learners, teachers, and teaching materials. West (1994) states that it helps the syllabus designer to find out the discrimination among various types of learners and to design courses based on their common needs. In other words, it can be used to gather different perspective among learners about information of learning process to know the learners needs to design the syllabus.

Richards (2001) claims that in a language teaching program NA can be used for the following purposes. a) To find out the required language skills for a learner to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, a university student. b) To find out a gap between their present proficiency level and required proficiency. c) To find out problem areas of the learners. It is highly important to consider the 'need' in relation to the unique characteristics of the educational context in which the study takes place (Holmes & Celani, 2006). Students' needs in different contexts are diverse and the analysis of needs can be effective if the academic

language needs are accurately defined and seek utmost specificity within the specific target use (Deutch, 2003).

From the above discussion, it can be said that needs analysis is a process that gathers information from learners, teachers and language courses to find out what language skills the learner's need to develop, why they should develop those skills and how they develop those in the best ways. When need analysis is done well it can be beneficial to curriculum development, particularly in syllabus design.

Cross-Cultural Understanding

Cross-cultural Understanding is the ability to understand others' culture. Cross-cultural understanding develops in situations that require negotiation of meaning and identity in the context of another culture. It is the ability to listen and accurately understand the thoughts, feelings, and otherness. According to Jant (2004: 39), cross-cultural generally refers to comparing phenomena across culture. Thus, a cross-cultural study of women's roles in society would compare what women actually do in diverse culture. The difficulties in communication with people from other culture are not only the problems in understanding their languages that we do not master but also those in understanding their cultural value.

Our success in communication depends on how far we understand others' feedback (Mulyana, 2005). This competency measures complexity and depth of understanding of other people, also including cross-cultural sensitivity. Information about other ways of life does not necessarily lead to constructive and mutually satisfying relations between men of diverse cultural backgrounds. Such relations can only occur when the individuals involved have some understanding of their own and each others' values, beliefs, perceptions of reality, needs, fears, and premises for a living.

In order to be able to communicate effectively, language learners need intercultural competence that has four components, knowledge, skills, attitude, and critical cultural awareness; It ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality (Byram; Gribkova; and Starkey: 2002)

Syllabus

Syllabus is a description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). According to Richards and Schmidt (2010),

language teaching syllabi can have their bases on such different criteria as grammatical items and vocabulary, the language required for different types of situations, the meanings that underlie different language behavior or the text types language learners need to master. Richards and Schmidt (2010) also define the term syllabus design, as a phase in curriculum development that deals with procedures for developing a syllabus.

Richards and Rogers (2001) state that the term syllabus traditionally refers to “the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course method” (p. 25). As they contend, the term this term is more closely associated with methods that adhere to product-centered rather than process discipline rather than a product-centered one. Likewise, Nunan (1999) defines syllabus as the subcomponent of a curriculum which is concerned with the selection, sequencing, and justification of experiential and linguistic content and makes a distinction between syllabus design and methodology. He defines syllabus design as being concerned with selecting, and sequencing, linguistic content and methodology as being concerned with selecting and sequencing pedagogical procedures.

Method

Research Site and Participants

This study was conducted at the English Department in Pancasakti University located in Tegal, Central Java, Indonesia. This study took place from August to December in the third semester in Pancasakti University. There were 6 cross-cultural teachers and 47 students of third semesters involving in this study. To protect their privacy and to ensure the ethical purposes of the study for the participants, pseudonyms was used to ensure their anonymity.

Research Procedure

To answer the question in this study I largely collected through questionnaire, and classroom observation (in which recording and note taking were done). In addition, the documentary sheet and interview were also used to enrich the data.

To know the quality of the existing syllabus, I analyzed through documents. I used two kinds of rubrics, the first was rating scale rubric used to know its strength and weak points of the document, and the second was checklist rubric; a simple list of requirements and whether the requirement of a syllabus was met adapted from (Altman & Cashin, 1992; Bauer, Gabriele, 2008; & Grunert O'Brien, J., Millis, B., & Cohen, M., 2008).

To design the syllabus needed for effective cross-cultural understanding skills, a five-point Likert rating scale system with closed-end and open-ended questions written in English

adapted from, (Bada, E. 2000; Brace, I. 2004; Foddy, W. H. 1994, Hinkle, D. E., Oliver, J. D., & Hinkle, C. A. 1985) was used. The questionnaire had two parts specifically designed to relate to the purpose of the study. The first part was composed of 9 items requesting information of satisfaction, acceptability, impact, helpfulness, effectiveness, cultural awareness, content, outcomes, and overall rating of the existing syllabus in Pancasakti university. The second dealt with the current level of need such as suggestions of topics, materials, teaching learning process, assessment, and how well current syllabus meet the objective of the course for more effective cross-cultural understanding syllabus development.

To know teachers' teaching performance and students' feedback as the important elements in the ongoing process of assessing and improving teaching in CCU class, students' appraisal adapted from Richard (2003) was used.

To see real life learning process situation in cross-cultural understanding classes, the observation was conducted in Pancasakti by using Sorcinelli observation guide adopted from Weimer (1991). Each class had been observed four times by directly attending the classes and video tapping. The purpose of doing the observation was to know the implementation of the existing syllabus of CCU in the classroom as explained by Weimer (1991) used for collecting evidence of students learning during the instruction to improve teaching practice.

Findings and Discussion

In line with the objective of the study, the findings were as follows;

1. Overview of the existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus structure of English Department in Pancasakti University

a. Syllabus Evaluation

The purpose is to evaluate the syllabus and develop the needed one based on the findings.

Tabel 1 Syllabus Evaluation

No	Criterion	Beginning	Emerging	Exemplary
1.	Course Description	Instructor name & contact info, class time and location.	in addition: course prerequisites (if any) course description	in addition, how the course fits into the larger program/department curriculum, field, supplemental readings, and resources

2.	Overall tone	Mechanical, dictatorial	teacher-oriented	student/learning oriented (eg: first person)
3.	Course Outcomes	not articulated	stated in general, but vague and unmeasurable terms	listed with appropriate, descriptive verbs that lend them to measurement and seek higher levels of learning
4.	Course Format	vague, or cryptic descriptions of course expectations and how class time will be used	mutual role expectations for students and instructor are explained, together with various teaching methods and modes	methods and modes role expectations and class format are explained in such a way that students understand the underlying rationale and benefits for them
5.	Instructor Beliefs & Assumptions	little or no accounting of the instructor's teaching philosophy, beliefs or assumptions about learning	the section describing the instructor's beliefs or assumptions about teaching and learning that guide the course	well articulated and thought out the rationale that includes the values and/or experiences that guide the instructor's teaching practice
6.	Class Schedule	little or no information on what course topics will be covered each week	course topics are broken down by class period	fully articulated and logically sequenced course schedule with chronological topics listed for each class, along with required readings and

				preparation necessary from students
7.	Assignments Required	course assignments listed but with no due date	course assignments listed with clear due dates	assignments listed with due dates, with explanation of late policy and other requirements that might affect grades
8.	Academic Policies & Procedure	little or no information	description of academic integrity policy	information about all pertinent academic policies, including academic integrity, accommodating students with disabilities, class attendance
9.	Assessment of Students' Learning	little or no information about how the students will be graded; any information that is included reinforces a grade-focus	Each graded assignment is clearly described with its relative value towards the overall course grade	Each assignment includes descriptions of its the rationale for inclusion in the course and what the student should get out of completing it; use of rubrics with quality criteria specified
10.	Alignment	no clear connection between stated course goals/outcomes and assessment schema	the connections between some assignments and stated course goals/outcomes are apparent	all assignments are linked with a specific course goal/outcome and are likely to provide sufficient evidence to adequately assess each goal/outcome
11.	Diversity of Teaching & Assessment Methods	course teaching and assessment methods are similar; eg: all lectures;	Evidence the instructor has employed a diverse set of teaching and	Diverse assessment methods and evidence that

		all tests	assessment methods	the instructor has taken into account the diversity of students in choosing teaching and assessment methods
12.	Continuity of Feedback to Students on Their Learning	little or very infrequent venues for giving students feedback on their progress in the course	adequate opportunities for students to get feedback on their progress in the course	all course requirements have sufficient means by which the instructor can keep students adequately appraised of their relative progress in the course
13.	Opportunities for Students to Provide Evaluative Course Input	students' only opportunity to provide input on their experiences in the course to the instructor is at the end of the course	Instructor has developed and scheduled a mid-semester course evaluation opportunity for the students	Students are encouraged to provide the instructor with regular input on how they are experiencing the course throughout the semester

(adapted from . <https://www.brown.edu/about/administration/sheridan-center/teaching-learning/course-design/creating-syllabus>, Woolcock: 1997)

Based on the findings indicated in bold typed highlighted by green color in table 1, it can be seen that first, the teacher needs to provide more detailed basic information to make the students have easy access to contact the teacher. Second, the syllabus provides indicators that do not show student-oriented learning process. Furthermore, eight out of the 14 meetings are used for lecturing. It does not set an active, investigative tone for the course because based on the syllabus document it can be seen that students will hear teacher's talk more; instead, they find the answers themselves, leading to deeper understanding.

Third, much confusion exists about the definition of competency, objectives, and learning outcomes so it is important to understand the differences in these terms (Hartel and Foegeding: 2004). The syllabus uses competence standard and its indicators to achieve to competence not using learning outcomes to achieve the objectives and it covers cognitive

domain only so it will be hard for students to have the intercultural competence that covers knowledge, skills, and attitude. A good syllabus covers all domains in Bloom's taxonomy.

The teacher also needs to specify verbs used in describing competencies. The word '*to comprehend, to understand*' are too general particularizing competencies. To recite or to identify are suggested instead of to understand or to comprehend. Those words are helpful to measure an observable action to avoid misinterpretation since learning outcomes" means statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process, which is defined in terms of knowledge, skills and *competence* (Moon:2002). Bloom's taxonomy's verbs can be used for curriculum mapping, assessment design, lesson planning, personalizing and differentiating learning.

Fourth, course format does not provide enough basic information and a list of book titles to indicate where students can purchase, borrow, copy, and/or download. It also lacks classroom courtesy of their students' behavior during the class, no additional information for the assignments for example deadline management so teachers can effectively manage their own workload. There is no explanation to schedule a make-up session for any subsequent lost or canceled class and how class time will be used.

Fifth, Instructor beliefs & assumptions indicate that teacher needs to develop a deep understanding of individual differences. Experienced teachers know that using the best of a variety of approaches benefits many learners. Instructional tools must be carefully and intentionally adapted to accommodate individual learners to achieve the objectives of the course.

Sixth, course topics of CCU syllabus are broken down by class period but it is not completed schedule of teaching and learning activities. The syllabus only provides a list of topics, total meetings, and teaching strategies. Teachers need to use some strategies to plan their course schedule (Fink, 2003).

Seventh, the assignment is listed but it does not have due dates. In facts teacher needs to consider intended assignments in relation to the academic calendar and decides how they can be reasonably spaced throughout the semester, taking into account holidays and key campus events. The assignment must be in line with the learning objectives to know what teacher wants the students to learn. Specific parameters for the assignment (e.g., length, size, formatting, and citation conventions) should be in assignment description. Then, to assess appropriately, teacher needs to use rubric or scoring guide

Eight, the syllabus lacks additional information about academic integrity policies such as academic dishonesty and its sanction. Any violation of academic integrity is a serious offense and is, therefore, subject to an appropriate sanction or penalty. Every teacher in Indonesia has his/her own policies for its implementation.

Ninth, assessment of students' learning has little information of how students will be graded each assignment does not include descriptions of its rationale for inclusion in the course and what the student should get out of completing it; use of rubrics with quality criteria specified.

Tenth, the syllabus has no clear connection between stated course goals/outcomes and assessment schema. In fact, all assignments should be linked with a specific course goal/outcome and are likely to provide sufficient evidence to adequately assess each goal/outcomes because aligning assessments with learning objectives increases the probability to provide students with the opportunities to learn and practice the knowledge and skills that will be required on the various assessments design. When objectives and assessments are misaligned, many students will focus their efforts on activities that will lead to good grades on assessments, rather than focusing their efforts on learning that is important.

Eleventh, the syllabus lacks diversity of teaching & assessment methods. Course teaching is not similar but mostly lecturing and it has no clear explanation especially about the assessment method; in fact offering variety gives students with opportunities to learn in ways that are responsive to their own communication styles, cognitive styles, and aptitudes. In addition, the variety helps them develop and strengthen other approaches to learning. Recent work by Cheminais (2002), Reid (2005) and Burnett (2005) identifies learning style as an important idea for inclusive learning and teaching in the classroom.

Twelfth is continuity of feedback to students on their learning. Based on the syllabus, there is little or very infrequent venues for giving students feedback on their progress in the course. Hattie and Timperley (2007) note that the most improvement in student learning takes place when students got "information feedback about a task and how to do it more effectively" and is clearly related to the learning goals (p.84). By contrast, the impact of feedback on learning achievement is low when feedback focussed on "praise, rewards and punishment" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.84). Hattie and Timperley (2007) also note that feedback is more effective when it addresses achievable goals and when it does not carry "high threats to self-esteem" (p.86).

The last is opportunities for students to provide evaluative course input. The teacher has developed and scheduled a mid-semester course evaluation opportunity for the students but students are not encouraged to provide the teacher with regular input on how they are experiencing the course throughout the semester. Administering an end-of-course evaluation that allows students to provide an anonymous evaluation of the course content and the quality of instruction is fruitful for the teacher to improve teaching process. Receiving student feedback can help teachers know what they are doing that facilitates the learning of the students and it will help make them aware of any difficulties they may be having with their instruction (Black, 2000).

b. Syllabus Check List

I simply reviewed the course objectives, course policies, course assignments, and the course schedule of the existing syllabus; in additions the course structure, topics outline, texts, materials, assignments, exams, additional course requirements, and additional course policies and other activities of the existing syllabus.

Tabel 2 Course Syllabus Production Checklist

No	Items to Consider	Have you included this? Yes (√) No (×)
Course Details		
1	Course name, number, & term	√
2	When and where the class meets	×
3	Instructor's name	√
4	Instructor's office location & phone number	×
5	Instructor's office hours	×
6	Teaching Assistant's name, office location, office hours, contact information	×
Course Overview		
7	Course descriptions (e.g. course catalogs)	√

8	Teaching Approaches/activities (how will students learn the material, in class/outclass, online/hybrid?)	√
9	Learning goals (what will students know, be able to do as a result of taking the class?)	√
10	Related, what skills will students develop?	√
11	How does the course fit within the program of study?	×
12	How do the course goals support the program goals?	×
13	How do the course goals align with the general education goals?	×
14	Course Requirement	×
15	Course prerequisites (what prior knowledge, skills do students need for success?)	×
16	Textbooks and other required materials	×
17	Detailed description of how grades is calculated	√
18	How will student assessment occur? (tests, quizzes, homework, papers)	×
19	How do assignments, exams relate to learning goals? (e.g., why weekly quizzes: how do they support student learning?)	×
20	Grading policies: How will assignments be graded? Rubrics to guide assignment development, clarify expectations?	√
21	Class management policies: What is expected from the students? (Attendance, makeup exams, late policy, academic honesty, participation, extra credit, cell phones & personal computer usage during class, clickers)	×

22	Course calendar: In what sequence will the course content be taught? e.g., exam dates, due dates for major projects, other special dates (guest speaker, field trip), required readings, service-learning component, internships.	×
Other Information		
23	Recommended readings	×
24	How will students receive timely feedback on their performance? (Instructor/TA? Self-assessment? Peer review? Online? In class?)	×
25	Related, how will students be informed about their progress and grades?	×
26	What resources are available to assist students? (Online lecture notes, study guides, sample quizzes, study groups, Academic Enrichment Center, Writing Center)	×
27	How will students be able to provide feedback about their learning experience?(e.g., student feedback early in the term, midterm? Short written feedback)	×
Also consider		
28	Are assignments connected to learning goals and teaching methods?	×
29	How detailed and explicit should the syllabus be?	×
30	Will there be some flexibility built into the schedule?	×

31	Is the syllabus “user-friendly?”	×
32	Is the language encouraging, does it invoke excitement for the course, does it communicate instructor passion for the material, concern for student learning?	×

adapted from (Altman & Cashin, 1992; Bauer, Gabriele, 2008; & Grunert O’Brien, J., Millis, B., & Cohen, M, 2008).

It can be seen from table 2 that the existing syllabus has not met yet some requirements for a good syllabus. The teacher needs to complete the syllabus to make students understand how the course fits into their educational plan and how it can eliminate misunderstandings and clarify policies, thus reducing student confusion and the incidence of the allegation. The teacher needs to clearly and efficiently communicate necessary information about the course, assignments, exams, and due dates clearly and efficiently. Specify titles and edition numbers of required texts and readings. Using gender-neutral and culture-neutral language as much as possible are also recommended to avoid expressions and abbreviations that some students may not understand.

2. Teachers’ Perception of the Existing Syllabus

Table 3 shows the finding taken from the questionnaire addressed to six teachers to know their perception about the existing cross-cultural understanding of the English Department in Pancasakti University.

Table 3 Teachers’ Perception of the Existing Syllabus

		Question	Note
1.	Satisfaction	How satisfied are you with the Cross Cultural Understanding syllabus used in your university	Satisfied (3) Very satisfied (1) No answer (2)
2	Acceptability	Please indicate whether you agree it is important to incorporate the richness of students’ cultural backgrounds into the Cross Cultural Understanding syllabus	Neither agree nor disagree (1) Agree (3) Strongly Agree (2)

3	Impact	To what extent do you feel that practice of English Language Teaching can unintentionally have the potential to impact students' attitudes?	To large extent (3) To moderate extent (2) No answer (1)
4	Helpfulness	How helpful is the use of local literature and of cultural comparison in promoting Indonesian culture?	Very helpful (5) Somewhat helpful (1)
5	Effectiveness	Please indicate the effectiveness of the use of local literature and cultural comparison between Indonesia and English speaking countries to create cultural awareness	Highly effective (3) Moderately effective (3)
6	Cultural Awareness	To what extent has the existing course helped you raise awareness about both your own and other cultures?	To a large extent (3) To moderate extent (2) To some extent (1)
7	Content	How important is it to compare and contrast Indonesian Culture and the target culture to shape students awareness of both cultures in the Cross Cultural Understanding Course?	Very important (5) Important (1)
8	Outcomes	How would you rate students' cultural competence using the existing syllabus?	Very Excellent (1) Satisfactory (2) Not sure (1) Needs improvement (1) Satisfactory (1)
9	Overall Rating	Please rate the existing syllabus and its current implementation.	Above average (3) Average (2) No answer (1)

Based on the questionnaire addressed to six teachers of cross-cultural understanding, here are the findings:

1. Three teachers were satisfied, one was very satisfied, and two teachers had no answer. The three teachers are satisfied enough with the syllabus used in Pancasakti University but it is doubtful that the syllabus has met the requirements of a good syllabus that understand the needs of the students. There are two teachers left with no answers and secondly, all teachers involved in this study recommended to have some revisions and improvements for better cross-cultural understanding syllabus by giving suggestions discussed later.
2. The important finding is teachers consider it is important to incorporate the richness of students' cultural backgrounds into the cross-cultural understanding syllabus. It can be said that when students study and compare culture, they actually begin a search for their own identity. The cross-cultural understanding course helps students better understand the culture that has formed them in relation to 'other' cultures by studying how one particular culture has itself been formed. Placing cultural texts in their social environments, this course is believed primarily introduce students to the international perspectives of comparative cultural studies in relation to other forms of presentation. This enables them to appreciate how a particular form of writing encodes, transmits and questions cultural values and hence to understand the forces that shape our world.
3. Teachers also realize that practice of English language teaching can unintentionally have the potential to affect students' attitudes. If teachers are to become effective cross-cultural communicators, it is essential to understand the role that culture plays within the multi-cultural school setting. Lustig and Koester (2003) define culture as "a learned set of shared interpretations of beliefs, values, and norms, which affect the behaviors of a relatively large group of people." Similarly, Samovar and Porter (1991) explain culture as a medium that touches and alters all aspects of human life, including personality, how people express themselves (which includes displays of emotion), the way they think, how they move, and how problems are solved. Indeed, culture goes far beyond the climate, food, and clothing of a student's native country.
4. Teachers believe that the use of local literature and of cultural comparison is helpful and effective in promoting Indonesian culture. Activities and materials should portray different aspects of the culture. In other words, teachers need to see different views of the culture to their students. Introducing deliberate contrasts within a culture can be useful (Cullen, 2004). In multilingual and multicultural settings such as Indonesia, English can actively take part in promoting the unity of the ethnic groups in Indonesia, as learners will have a wider view of the world around them. The learners will appreciate the culture of people whose language they are learning. Eventually, they have a positive attitude towards other cultures. This opens their mind that culture is universal in the human life, meaning that each ethnic group has a culture; one culture is different from the others.

5. The use of local literature and cultural comparison between Indonesia and English speaking countries is highly effective to create students' cross-cultural awareness. The teachers' opinion is in line with Hodgkinson, 1991 stated that in order to improve our cross-cultural interactions; teachers must learn not just the basic facts but even important nuances of their students' cultures. Challenges vary in achieving cross-cultural communication. The more teachers learn about their students of diverse backgrounds, the better they become as cross-cultural communicators and the more likely they will be to contribute to optimal student learning outcomes. Banks concurs: "If teachers are to increase learning opportunities for all students, they must be knowledgeable about the social and cultural contexts of teaching and learning" (Banks et al., 2001).
6. Teachers consider that the existing cross-cultural understanding course helps students raise awareness about both your own and other cultures. Increasingly, language teachers are recognizing the need to incorporate sociocultural factors into their classrooms (Palmer and Sharifian 2007); however, there is a lack of consensus on how to introduce cultural elements into the lessons. In fact, teachers can also find ways for their students to contribute their own cultural experience in the classroom. It means asking students to show how a topic connects to their lives or to give an example of a particular idea as they experience it in their native country.
7. Teachers consider it is very important to compare and contrast Indonesian Culture and the target culture to shape students awareness of both cultures in the content of cross-cultural understanding course but teacher faces are what approach to take. Many EFL teachers have had no formal training in incorporating cultural elements, and there is no universally accepted set of criteria that teachers can use as a guide (Byrnes 2008).

One approach, though, would be to adapt Michael Paige's (in Cohen et al. 2003, 53) dimensions of culture learning model. Paige groups culture learning into categories; 1) the self as cultural, 2) the elements of culture, 3) intercultural phenomena (culture-general learning), 4) particular cultures (culture-specific learning), and 5) acquiring strategies for culture learning. By exploring these dimensions, teachers can help students connect to the target culture, raise their awareness of cultural differences, and improve their "intercultural communicative competence" (Byram 1997).

Teachers should realize that all students are members of at least one culture. The culture they belong to affects how they think, interact, communicate, and transmit knowledge from one generation to another. The ability to ask and answer questions based on their own culture facilitates the process of making connections across cultures. English teachers can help students activate their "cultural antennas" by making them aware of important elements of their own culture and helping them understand how their culture has shaped

them (Byram 1997; NSFLEP 1999, 9). Kramsch (1993) calls this learning process establishing a “sphere of interculturality.”

Increasing cultural awareness means to see both the positive and negative aspects of cultural differences. Cultural diversity could be a source of problems; it increases the level of complexity and confusion and makes agreement difficult to reach. On the other hand, cultural diversity becomes an advantage when teachers expand its solutions and its sense of identity and begins to take different approaches to problem solving. Diversity in this case creates valuable new skills and behaviors.

8. Teachers believe there should be an improvement of the outcomes resulted by the existing syllabus. Using student learning outcomes in program evaluation has required an analytic model that links teacher preparation programs to student achievement outcomes (Gansle and colleagues: 2012, and Goldhaber and Liddle: 2012). Teachers need to communicate their expectations in several ways. Studies show when teachers provide objectives through multiple channels like syllabus, assignments, grading metrics, and then drive it home during office hours, students will grasp the goals of the course earlier and feel more empowered to reach them.
9. The last is three teachers say an overall rating of the existing syllabus is above average, two teachers feel that it is average, one is left with no answers, it does not mean the syllabus is not necessary to be developed because teachers give suggestions on the next discussion to improve cross-cultural understanding syllabus in Pancasakti University.

3. Teachers’ suggestions to improve cross-cultural understanding syllabus

Teachers suggestions of most important topics based on the list provided for students in CCU class are land, people, and history, thought and religion, literature and art, cuisine and traditional dress, gender, *courtship, and marriage, festival and leisure activities, music, dance and* traditional theater, and social custom and lifestyle. Other topics suggested by them are making initial contact across culture, Time management across culture, negotiation across culture, hospitality across culture, and stereotype across culture.

Teachers’ suggestions to improve the materials are first, combining local and target language culture, exposing students to real-life examples and current trend, and encouraging students to make judgment about their own cultural identity. Second, the need of cultural material comparison of CCU course to adopt the necessary one, inviting native speaker related to foreign culture, making comparison between Indonesian cultures with others, and comparing the syllabus with other universities. Third, focusing on a theme, helping students more aware

of culture shapes so much about their personality, perception, and their perspective, developing basic understanding how language and culture influence each other and the last is the importance of needs analysis for the students to improve the learning process.

Teachers’ suggestions to improve teaching-learning process are designing cooperative learning in a group discussion by using student -centered method to have more interaction between teachers and students in the classroom. Learning sources such as textbooks, cultural video or movie, cultural articles on the newspaper, and cross-cultural studies must be provided to support the learning process. Visiting abroad to learn the real culture is also suggested to enrich both teachers and students knowledge about different cultures.

Teachers’ suggestions for the assessment of the course is providing a more structured rubrics to assess students’ performance in the form of oral and written test such as personal reflective essay about cultural awareness by using portfolios of students perceptions of other cultures such as students worksheets, written work, video or photo events, students’ presentation, and role-play.

4. Students’ Feedback about Teacher’s Teaching Performance

Table 4 Students’ Appraisal Form

No	Questions	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree			T o t a l
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1.	Has communicated class materials clearly			10	23	10	4		47
2.	Has been well prepared for classes.	1	3	10	16	11	6		47
3	Has organized class time effectively	2	2	13	21	5	2	2	47
4	Has stimulated my interest in the subject	1	7	4	13	14	3	5	47
5	Has been responsive to students problem	1	1	6	18	16	3	2	47

No	Questions	Very poor	Poor			Acceptable	Very good		Excellent	Total
			1	2	3		4	5		
6	Having considered various aspect of the performance of the nominated teacher, how would you rate the teaching overall?		2	7	30	7		1	47	

Adapted from Richard (2003)

The findings show that 33 students state that they strongly disagree that teacher has communicated class materials clearly and 14 students strongly agree that teacher has communicated class materials clearly. It means that teachers need to pay attention more to the organization and clarity. 30 students strongly disagree that the teacher has been well prepared for the classes and 17 students strongly agree that teacher has prepared well the classes. It means that more students agree that teacher is not well prepared for class. The teacher needs to provide an overview of the class to make students understand the materials. He also needs to be able to present and explain content clearly. The teacher should provide transitions from topic to topic, make distinctions between major and minor points, periodically summarize important concepts or ideas in the lecture, and use examples and illustrations to clarify difficult or abstract ideas.

There are 38 students strongly disagree and 9 students strongly agree that teacher has organized class time effectively. Teachers need to manage time for an effective classroom environment. It is possible to keep up with the educational needs of every student, manage urgent situations immediately and avoid falling behind when unexpected events occur. Time management is an important part of providing quality education and meeting the needs of every student.

There are 25 students strongly disagree and 22 students strongly agree that teacher has stimulated students' interest in cross –cultural understanding class. It means it is a great

challenge for the teacher to create and maintain an interesting and intellectually stimulating classroom environment in which students eagerly learn and grow. The teacher needs to examine the teaching practice frequently to reflect critically in order to introduce changes needed for example the changes of teaching materials and teaching strategies.

There are 26 students strongly disagree and 21 students strongly agree that the teacher has been responsive to students' problem. It means teacher should establish more ties with all students. Teacher is to see and honor the individual. Always show students the courtesy of listening to and responding to their answers when they offer an idea. He should be supportive, encouraging, and respectful of student ideas in class. He can correct wrong answers or point out weaknesses without discouraging your students.

Having considered various aspects of the performance of the nominated teacher, 9 students rate poor, 30 students rate acceptable, 7 students rate very good, and 1 students rate excellent performance of overall teaching performance. Performance within this function area is consistently adequate or acceptable. Teaching practices fully meet all performance expectations at an acceptable level. Teacher maintains an adequate scope of competencies. However, teaching practices require considerable improvement to meet minimum performance expectations.

There are 40 students rate the content of the topic are very useful for them in understanding cross-cultural material, unfortunately, teacher provides very limited sources. 7 students agree that cross-cultural materials are not useful enough for them because they do not have enough learning sources. 20 students state that providing a textbook will be very useful for them to know more others' cultures especially American culture. 27 students declare that the lack of textbook makes the teaching-learning process is not useful. It is the duty of teacher to provide students with a wide range of materials at varying levels of difficulty, with a diversity of appeal, and representative of different points of view.

Students' suggestions to improve learning are:

- a. Introducing more comparison of Indonesian culture and other countries' culture in the classroom,
- b. Providing sources and textbooks of cross-cultural understanding,
- c. Giving topics in text book one week before the class, providing volunteers of many countries in cross-cultural understanding class,
- d. Providing more examples of cross-cultural understanding, and

- e. Visualizing the explanation with the real pictures or video of cross-cultural understanding materials.

5. Classroom Observation

Here are the results of classroom observation for teaching enhancement;

Knowledge of subject matter; teacher exhibited mastery of the content but failed to convey the message to the students since teacher used explanation without providing the clear example of cross-cultural understanding such as providing a video of cross-cultural topics in order to make students will understand the materials easily. Teacher gave general explanation and did not manage the time well for the students so the goals did not achieve well although teacher invited a guest speaker from German who speaks English well but it did not help students much in cross-cultural understandings.

Organization and Clarity; Structure: The teacher was well prepared for class but the teacher did not provide an overview of the class. Students complained that the teacher was unable to present and explain content clearly since teacher rarely used examples and illustrations to clarify difficult or abstract ideas and teacher's voice was fast and low.

Teaching Strategies: Most of teacher's teaching methods were lecturing then it really caused boredom in the classroom. There was a little discussion or questioning. Students were very quiet. Because of lack of students' response in the previous meetings, the teacher decided to ask the students to make a presentation of the visible and invisible of Indonesian culture. Students' presentation was for the three meetings in the syllabus but it failed to meet the goals since the lack of time management so not all students were able to do a presentation in the classroom. In short, the use of various teaching strategies (lecture, handouts, media) was not effectively integrated.

Closure; the teacher summarized and integrated major points of the lecture or discussion at the end of class but it was only at glance with no homework or reading assignments announced.

Presentation and Enthusiasm; According to the students, the teacher demonstrated enthusiasm for the subject but the voice sometimes could not be easily heard. The teacher raised or lowered voice for variety and emphasis. The rate of speech was fast although teacher maintained eye contact with students and he used facial expressions, posture, or motion to sustain student interest.

Student Behavior; Survey the class on occasion and note what students were doing shows that students took few notes, wrote down very little what teacher puts on board and they did not copy each other's notes in order to keep up with lecture. Not all students were listening attentively, they had random conversations among students, and some of them busy texting on their cellphone.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Based on the findings, the existing syllabus needs to be developed since it has not met the needs of the learners. The new developed syllabus of cross-cultural understanding course should consider the findings of the need analysis in this study. One of the ways to apply the approach to the EFL classroom is through topical or content-based syllabus since the teachers suggest themes, topics, or other units of content that serve the best basis for teaching skill areas. The emphasis is incorporating students' cultural background into cross-cultural comparison to get the similarities and the differences between the two cultures and deepening students' appreciation of the other culture and its speakers, and expand their understanding.

In short, a good syllabus communicates to students; 1) basic information about the course and contact information; 2) course purpose including goals and objectives; 3) instructor's teaching philosophy and beliefs; 4) assignments and course calendar; 5) required and optional materials including textbooks and supplemental readings such as journal articles; 6) methods of instruction and course delivery; 7) grading procedures; and 8) learning resources for students (see Altman, 1989; Appleby, 1999; Davis, 1993; Matejka & Kurke, 1994; McKeachie, 2002; Slattery & Carlson, 2005; Suddreth & Galloway, 2006).

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Title

Secondary ESL Teachers' Receptiveness towards ICT Integration

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Abstract

The integration of ICT into language learning classrooms is now an everyday occurrence especially with respect to the Malaysian demographics. With the recent implementation of the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025, ICT integration is believed to be of fundamental value as it ensures quality language education. Not only does ICT integration guarantee students' attainment of the language learned, but it also promotes 21st

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century skills among our Gen Z students. As stated in the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) framework model, it is required of teachers to possess positive perceptions towards ICT integration to ensure the real use of ICT tools in general. The perceived usefulness of ICT among ESL teachers acted as one of the variables in determining the behaviours to be adopted, subsequently reaffirming the actual use of ICT tools in their daily lives. Therefore, this paper aimed to investigate the secondary ESL teachers' receptiveness, specifically their perceptions towards ICT integration quantitatively. A total of 65 in-service secondary ESL teachers from the Sibul district, Sarawak were involved in this study and an adopted survey questionnaire was self-administered to the respondents in question. Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The data collected were analysed using descriptive analysis and the frequency percentages of each items were further tabulated. Based on the findings reported, majority of the teachers were aware of the many opportunities provided via ICT use; thus, showing positive perceptions towards ICT integration with respect to language learning

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

Introduction

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

Samuel & Zaiton (2006) agrees that interactivity advances create many virtual learning opportunities which in turn could improve English competency among Gen Z students as ICT

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

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

Literature Review

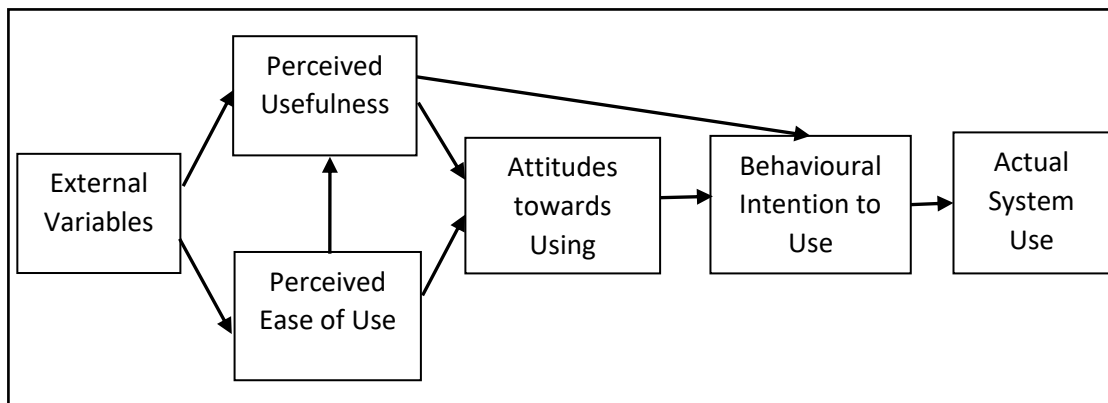
ICT Integration in Language Learning

Teachers' perceptions play a fundamental role in shaping and determining the dissemination of ICT-related knowledge among students. In other words, a teacher's attitudes and views with regards to ICT in language learning is very much the deciding factor for a successful integration, thus being in line with many governmental efforts undertaken to encourage actual ICT-integrated ESL learning. As attested by Hutchison & Reinking (2011), the need to achieve authentic curricula integrations of ICT resources is evidently unrealisable if teachers have shallow definitions or incomplete perceptions of ICT integration into

education. Indeed, teachers' perceptions towards ICT integration not only affect their level of use and tendency to use ICT tools in a learning classroom but also influence students' uptake of said implementation too. The teaching and learning processes are in fact interrelated and so teachers' possess the ability to impact the latter's performances.

Factors Contributing to ICT Integration

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



Teachers' Perceptions towards ICT Integration

Numerous studies are conducted to investigate teachers' perceptions towards ICT integration to show how the former affect the execution of the latter in classroom contexts. An example of such study in one by Al – Zaidiyeen, Leong and Fong (2010). The quantitative findings of the study proved that most teachers possessed positive attitudes towards the use of ICT for educational purposes. In fact, it is strongly believed that teachers' attitudes towards ICTs could determine the extent ICT resources are used in the teaching and learning processes. Buabeng-Andoh (2012) also ascertained that if teachers find ICT-related programs as neither fulfilling their own personal or professional needs, nor those of their students, then it is likely that minimal or no efforts will be shown by teachers to incorporate ICT into education. In his

study, majority of the responses indicated positive perceptions towards ICT integration in the teaching and learning processes. The above finding is also supported by Kosoko- Oyedeko & Tella (2010) as they argued that teachers' own pedagogical beliefs and values play an important part in shaping technology-mediated learning opportunities.

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

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

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

faced could affect teachers' perceptions towards ICT integration, being not completely conducive for effective teaching practices.

Methodology

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

Participants

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

Procedures

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

Instrument

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

Data Collection Method

The data collection process spanned across one month. The self-administered survey questionnaires were distributed and collected during schooling lessons. All respondents were

required to complete the questionnaires respectively and return them to the researcher in person.

Data Analysis Method

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

Findings and Discussion

Respondents' Demographic Information

Table 1: *Respondents' Gender*

Gender	Value (0 – 1)	Number (N)	Percentage (%)
Male	0	14	21.5
Female	1	51	78.5

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

Table 2: *Respondents' Teaching Experience in ESL*

Teaching Experience in ESL	Value (0 – 1)	Number (N)	Percentage (%)
Less than 10 years (<)	0	24	36.9
More than 10 years (>)	1	41	63.1

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

Table 3: *Respondents' Ethnicity*

Race	Value (0 – 3)	Number (N)	Percentage (%)
Malay	0	4	6.2
Chinese	1	55	84.6
Indian	2	2	3.1
Others	3	4	6.2

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

Respondents' Perceptions towards ICT Integration

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

Table 4: *Respondents' Perceptions towards ICT Integration*

Items	Perceptions	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)
P1	I don't use ICT tools as much as other resources for instructional purposes.	20.0	33.8	15.4	25.2	4.6
P2	I know what to do when using ICT tools in instructional environments.	0.0	1.5	18.5	63.1	16.9
P3	I am aware of the opportunities that ICT tools offers.	0.0	1.5	6.2	66.2	26.2
P4	I am not sure if I am ICT-literate in using said tools in my classes.	27.7	41.5	23.1	7.7	0.0
P5	I don't want to use ICT	38.5	40.0	15.4	4.6	1.5

tools.

P6	I think that I can use instructional technologies in class activities more effectively day by day.	3.1	9.2	15.4	49.2	23.1
P7	I believe that ICT tools such as e-mail, social networks and chat rooms will make communication with my students and colleagues easier.	0.0	7.7	10.8	53.8	27.7
P8	I think that ICT – supported teaching makes learning more effective.	0.0	4.6	16.9	44.6	33.8
P9	I think the use of instructional technologies in classrooms increases the students' interests towards learning.	0.0	3.1	6.2	63.1	27.7
P10	I think the use of instructional technologies increases the quality of teaching and learning.	0.0	3.1	13.8	53.8	29.2
P11	I think that the use of instructional technologies makes it easier to prepare subject materials.	0.0	4.6	3.1	61.5	30.8
P12	I can handle different learning preferences and styles of students by using instructional technologies.	0.0	7.7	23.1	44.6	24.6

Based on the findings above, it was discovered that majority of the respondents showed positive perception towards ICT integration. The results reported in this study was similar to Singh & Chan (2014) as more than half of the latter respondents agreed that ICT transforms classroom learning practices, thus signifying positive perceptions among ESL teachers in general. This study also complied with the results reported in a study by Raman & Mohamed (2013) as majority of its participants were reported showing positive perceptions towards ICT integration into English language teaching. In this study, the respondents believed that technology-supported teaching makes learning more effective and that the use of instructional technologies makes it easier to prepare course materials. These two findings were supported by Kandasamy & Mohd. Shah (2013) as majority of the respondents in said study also exhibited positive attitudes towards ICT integration into ESL teaching as those respondents generally agreed that ICT changes the ways teachers teach and students learn within the classroom contexts (Mohd. Shah, P. & Kandasamy, M., 2013). In fact, both authors attested that positive attitudes optimise ICT use among teachers, as advocated by Davis et al. (1989).

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

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

by Kandasamy & Mohd. Shah (2013) as it was revealed that the participants' level of ICT knowledge were of the moderate level as they were mainly proficient in certain applications such as word processing, spreadsheet, PowerPoint and emailing.

Conclusions

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords: *Teacher Cognition, Curriculum Innovation, Language Arts*

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Introduction

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

Literature Review

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

Methodology

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

Teacher	Academic Qualification	Years of teaching experience
A	Bachelor of Social Science (Sociology) MA in TESOL Diploma in Education (Economics)	31

B	BA in English Language and Literature MPhil in English (Literary Studies) PGDE	8
E	BA in Music PGDE in English MA in Music MEd in English Language Studies Postgraduate Diploma in Business	16
F	BA in English for Professional Communication PGDE	3
G	BA&BEEd	6

Table 1: Background information of teachers participating in the interview

Findings and discussions

Intrapersonal view of LA being influenced by content knowledge

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

Interpersonal factor: The interaction with different parties on LA integration

Most (9 out of 10) teachers in the current study were brought up with grammar translation pedagogy and were not exposed to learning literary texts in their secondary school years. Teacher G's reflected on how her learning experience influenced her cognition and teaching practice:

“In my education, I didn’t have a lot of exposure to LA, so when I became a teacher or learnt to become a teacher, I seldom used LA as a piece of teaching materials.”

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

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

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

Intergroup factors: LA integration being affected by exams

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

Conclusion

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

The present study aimed at determining the difference of pragmatic understanding among the masters degree students in Indonesia based on the fields of study and gender and exploring the causes of difficulties in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. The data were collected

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

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

Introduction

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

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

Accordingly, the present study aims at exploring: (1) the difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening section Part A TOEFL-like between male and female

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

Literature Review

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

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

Based on some score data summaries (ETS, 2012; ETS Researcher, 2008), TOEFL scores are inseparable from gender. The mean scores and standard deviation of each section categorised according to gender are always different. This finding implies that ETS realizes that gender potentially affects TOEFL scores.

Some studies show that gender affects the understanding of the pragmatic meaning of auditory utterances (Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012). In addition, Arifuddin's (2013) doctoral dissertation which examined the relationship between gender and implicature understanding of the short conversations in TOEFL listening involving a few English language

students from different semesters confirms that finding. Thijittang and Le (2009) suggest that more research on pragmatics, including the role of gender in pragmatics, need to be conducted.

Methodology

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

Participants

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

Instruments

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

Procedure

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

Data Analysis

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

Findings and discussion

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

Research Question 1

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

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

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

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

No.	Male	Raw Scores	Female	Scores
Masters Degree in English Language Education				
1	SA	15	NS	21
2	ANW	13	N	26
3	HM	9	NI	4
4	Sah	18	IS	5
5	MUK	18	LN	18
6	SAL	11		

7	UB	10		
	Mean	13.42	14.8	
Masters Degree in Science Education				
	Male		Female	
1	MHB	5	XX	10
2	LWA	8	HID	5
3	MH	7	XY	8
4	AH	3	HK	9
5	AG	8	YY	6
6	LLH	10	AF	16
7	FA	8	BQA	4
8	TW	12	BB	1
9	EK	5	BC	6
10	HER	6	SY	6
11	ZR	7	FES	18
12	LK	9	SS	20
13			RA	7
14			IM	11
15			HAS	6
16			FS	7
17			AAT	5
18			CS	9
19			YX	10
	Mean	7.33	8.7	
Masters Degree in Manegement				
	Male		Female	
1	MA	26	EY	7
2	YE	26	NP	7
3	MAF	6	MUL	8
4	MNR	13	NMD	11
5	IN	2	HS	13

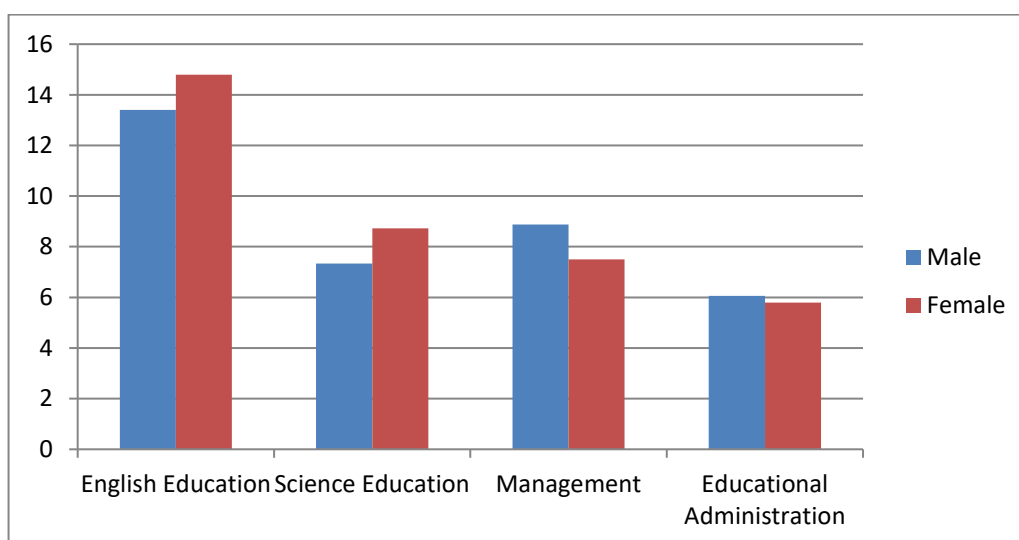
6	ZMT	7	AL	7
7	HN	6	NA	3
8	SF	2	RA	4
9				
	Mean	8.88		7.5

Masters Degree in Educational Administration				
	Male		Female	
1	SY	6	SF	5
2	SAP	3	TS	3
3	DP	7	SR	3
4	SAH	6	SK	5
5	HAF	7	AY	5
6	SUP	5	TL	7
7	SYAF	4	VM	9
8	LAY	5	BSY	8
9	MF	10	EZ	7
10	UA	3		
11	ZUL	7		
12	AM	7		
13	MS	5		
14	MUL	4		
15	DR	9		
16	MUN	9		
	Mean	6.06	Mean	5.8

Table 2 Summary of Means of Raw Scores of Pragmatic Understanding Tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of Masters Degree Students

No.	Study Program/Department			Total Means of Raw Scores	Ranks
		Male	Female		
1	English Language Education	13.4	14.8	14.42	I
2	Science Education	7.33	8.73	8.193	II
3	Management	8.88	7.5	8.19	III
4	Educational Administration	6.06	5.8	5.96	IV

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



Using the standard of converted scores, the converted scores and rankings of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Comprehension Part A TOEFL-like are as follows.

Table 3 *Converted Scores and Ranks of Pragmatic Understanding Tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like*

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

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

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
A	809.75	3	269.9	28.96
B	367.62	1	367.62	39.4
AB	75.03	3	4,485.2	481.2
Residual	671	72	9.32	

Study Program/Department Variable (A):

1. $df = (p-1)/pq(n-1) = (4-1)/8(9) = 3/72$.
2. Critical Value F at level of significance 0.05 = 2.76.
3. $F_{obtained} = 28.96$ and $F_{table} = 2.76$. Thus, there is a significant difference.
4. Conclusion: There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like among the diverse departments of the masters degree program.

Gender Variable (B):

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

AB (Interaction):

1. $df = (p-1)(q-1)/pq(n-1) = (4-1)(2-1)/8 (10-1) = 3/72$.
2. Critical value F at level of significance 0.05 = 2.76.
 $F_{obtained} = 28.96$ and $F_{table} = 2.76$. Thus, there is a significant difference.
3. Conclusion: There is an interaction between the programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like.

Based on the Analysis of Variance, it indicates that:

1. There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of diverse masters degree programs.
2. There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students the masters degree programs.
3. There is an interaction between the masters degree programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like.

Females' superiority in understanding pragmatic meaning appeared in the converted scores of Listening Part A TOEFL-like that they attained. The range of the scores of pragmatic understanding in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of the students from the various departments is 330 to 390. As described earlier, English Language Education (Female) (390) is in the highest rank followed also by the English Language Education (Male) (370). Management (Male) and Science Education (Female) position the third rank (350). Meanwhile, Science Education (Male) and Educational Administration (Male) place the fourth (337) and the fifth (332)

respectively. Finally, Management (Female) and Educational Administration (Female) place the lowest rank (330). Based on the obtained converted scores, it indicates that there is a different level of pragmatic understanding among the diverse masters degree students. Besides, based on the ranks, females outperformed males in understanding pragmatic meanings in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. The research findings just mentioned are relevant with studies conducted by Yate (2010), Cocco and Ervas (2012), John *et al.* (2003), Farashayian and Hua (2012) and Arifuddin (2013) which indicate that females outperformed males in pragmatic understanding, in answering inferential comprehension questions of auditory proficiency tests in particular.

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

Research Question 2

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

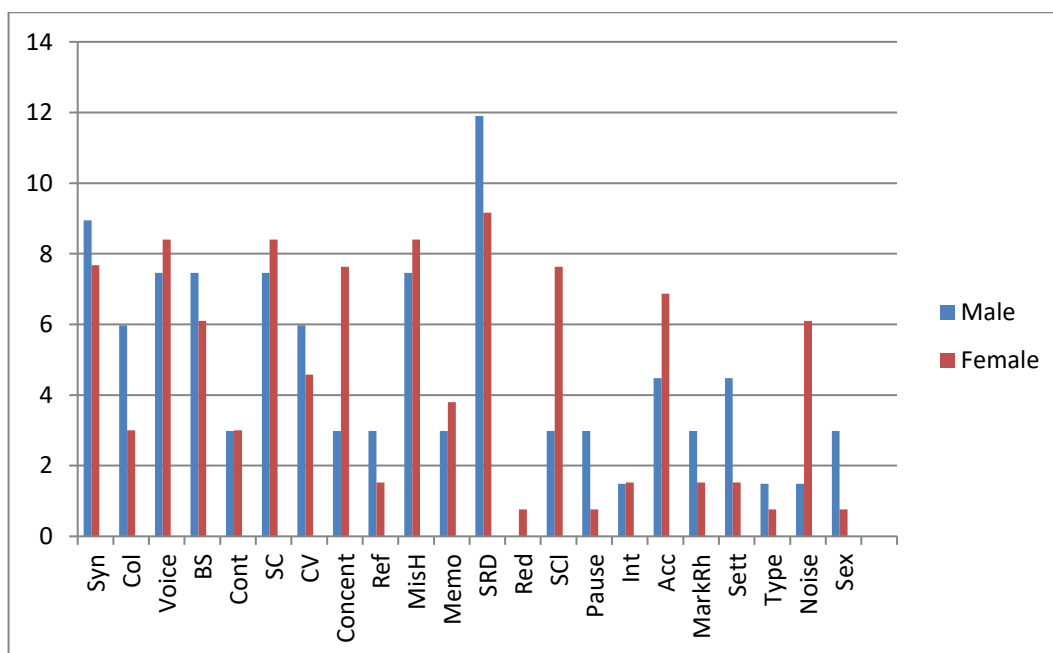
The following tables and graphs display the causes of difficulty of pragmatic understanding based on gender.

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

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Synonym (Syn)	6	8.95	10	7.68
Colloquial (Col)	4	5.97	4	3
Voice	5	7.46	11	8.4
Blended Sounds (BS)	5	7.46	8	6,1
Context (Cont)	2	2.98	4	3
Sentence Complexity (SC)	5	7.46	11	8.4
Cultural Value (CV)	4	5.97	6	4.58
Concentration (Concent)	2	2.98	10	7.63
Referent (Ref)	2	2.98	2	1.52
Mishearing (MisH)	5	7.46	11	8.4

Memory (Memo)	2	2.98	5	3.8
Speech Rate Delivery (SRD)	8	11.9	12	9.16
Redundancy (Red)	0	0	1	0.76
Sound Clarity (SCI)	2	2.98	10	7.63
Pause	2	2.98	1	0.76
Intonation (Int)	1	1.49	2	1.52
Accent (Acc)	3	4.48	9	6.87
Rhetoric Markers (MarkRh)	2	2.98	2	1.52
Setting (Sett)	3	4.48	2	1.52
Type of pragmatic question (Type)	1	1.49	1	0.76
Noise	1	1.49	8	6.1
Sex	2	2.98	1	0.76
Total frequencies	67		131	
Number of students	9		19	

Graph 2 *Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Science Education*



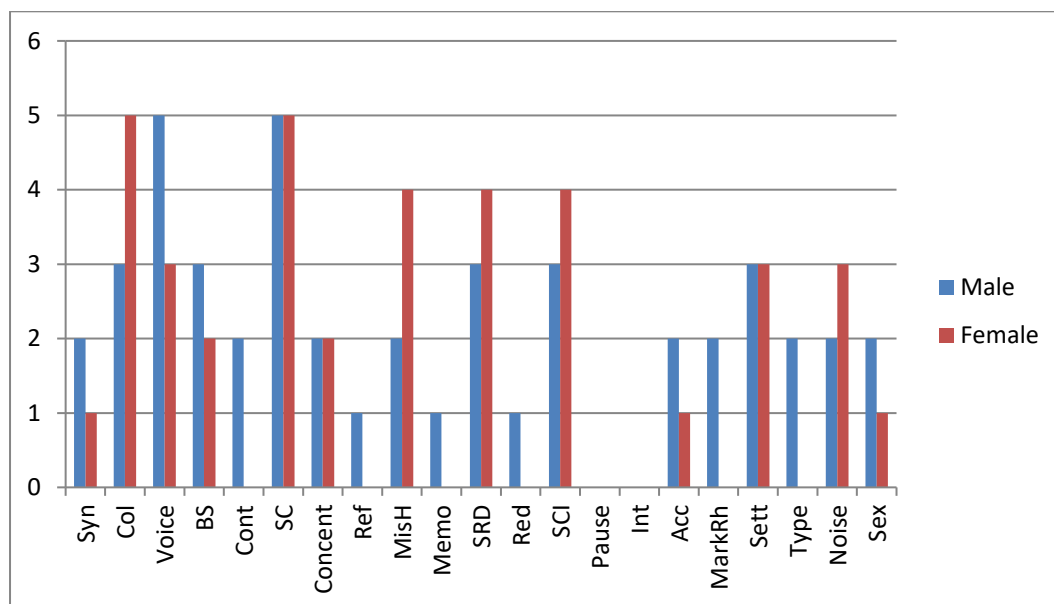
To the masters degree students of Educational Science, the primary causes of difficulty in understanding auditory pragmatic meanins are ‘Speech Rate Delivery’ (SRD), ‘Synonyms’ (Syn), ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’ (SC), ‘Mishearing’ (MisH), ‘Sound Clarity’ (SCI), and ‘Noise’. The least cause (or factor)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

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

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Syn	2	3.85	1	2.5
Col	3	5.77	5	12.5
Voice	5	9.6	3	7,5
BS	3	5.77	2	5
Cont	2	3.85	0	0
SC	5	9.6	5	12.5
CV	6	11.5	2	5
Concent	2	3.85	2	5
Ref	1	1.92	0	0
MisH	2	3.85	4	10
Memo	1	1.92	0	0
SRD	3	5.77	4	10
Red	1	1.92	0	0
SCI	3	5.77	4	10
Pause	0	0	0	0
Int	0	0	0	0
Acc	2	3.85	1	2.5
MarkRh	2	3.85	0	0
Sett	3	5.77	3	7.5
Type	2	3.85	0	0
Noise	2	3.85	3	7.5

Sex	2	3.85	1	2.5
Total frequencies	52		40	
Number of Students	7		5	

Graph 3 Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of English Language Education

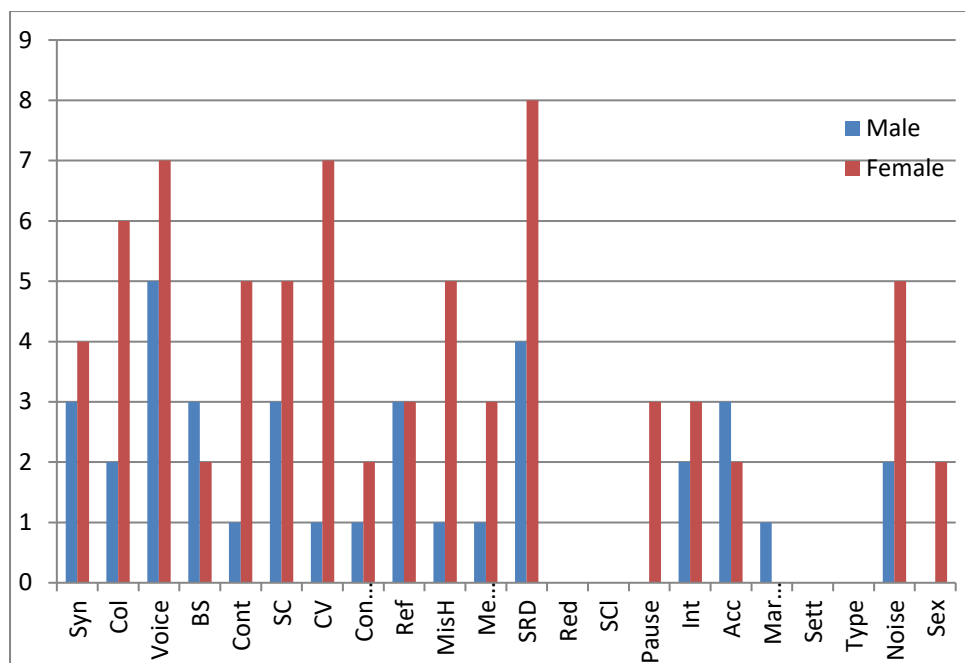


To masters degree students of English Language Education, the primary causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding include ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Voice’, ‘Colloquial’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Setting’ (Sett), and ‘Noise’. Two causes of difficulty do not appear, namely,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

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

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Syn	3	7.317	4	4.76
Col	2	4.88	6	7,1
Voice	5	12.195	7	8.3
BS	3	3.317	2	2.38
Cont	1	2.44	5	5.952
SC	3	3.317	5	5.952
CV	1	2.44	7	8.3
Concent	1	2.44	2	2.38
Ref	3	7.317	3	3.57
MisH	1	2.44	5	5.952
Memo	1	2.44	3	3.57
SRD	4	9.756	8	9.52
Red	0	0	0	0
SCI	0	0	0	0
Pause	0	0	3	3.57
Int	2	4.88	3	3.57
Acc	3	3.317	2	2.38
MarkRh	1	2.44	0	0
Sett	0	0	0	0
Type	0	0	0	0
Noise	2	4.88	5	5.952
Sex	0	0	2	2.38
Total frequencies	41		84	
Number of Students	16		9	

Graph 4 *Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding of the Masters Degree Students of Educational Administration*



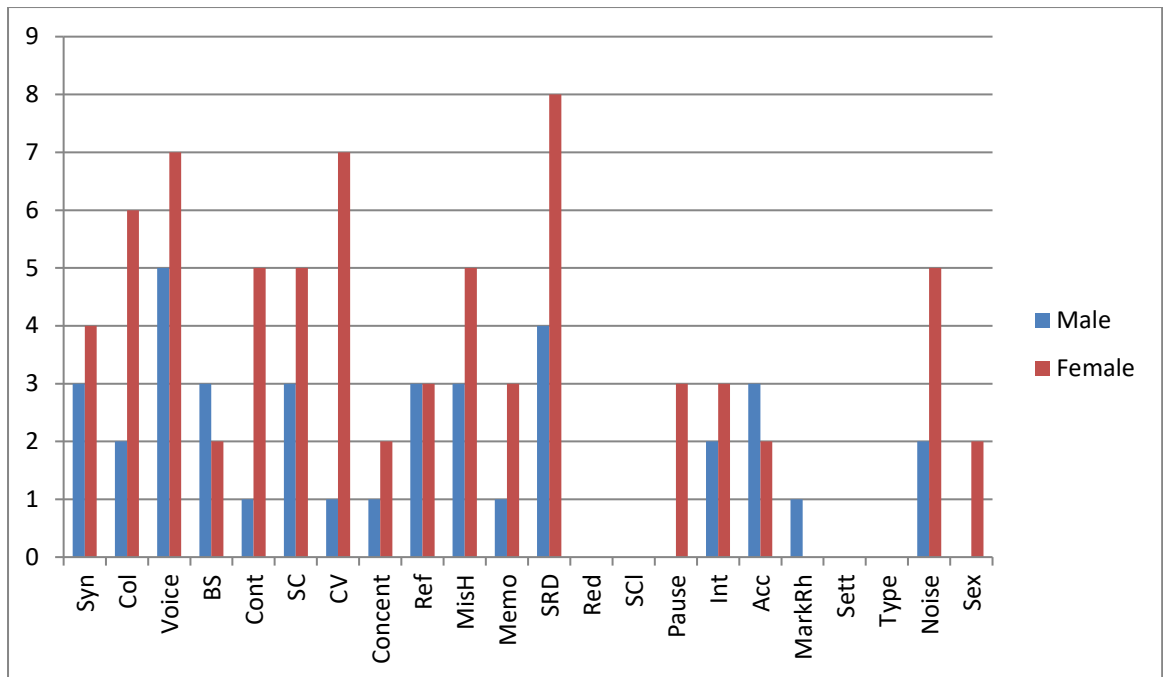
The primary causes of Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding the Masters Degree Students of Educational Administration include ‘Speech Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Cultural Value’ (CV), ‘Colloquials’, ‘Mishearing’, and ‘Noise’. Surprisingly, four causes of difficulty do not appear, namely, ‘Redundancy’,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

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

	Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Syn	3	7.317	4	4.76
Col	2	4.88	6	7.1
Voice	5	12.195	7	8.3
BS	3	3.317	2	2.38
Cont	1	2.44	5	5.952
SC	3	3.317	5	5.952

CV	1	2.44	7	8.3
Concent	1	2.44	2	2.38
Ref	3	3.317	3	3.57
MisH	3	3.317	5	5.952
Memo	1	2.44	3	3.57
SRD	4	9.756	8	9.52
Red	0	0	0	0
SCI	0	0	0	0
Pause	0	0	3	3.57
Int	2	4.88	3	3.57
Acc	3	3.317	2	2.38
MarkRh	1	2.44	0	0
Sett	0	0	0	0
Type	0	0	0	0
Noise	2	4.88	5	5.952
Sex	0	0	2	2.38
Total frequencies	41		84	
Number of Students	5		10	

Graph 5 *Causes of Difficulty of Pragmatic Understanding the Masters Degree Students of Management*



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

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

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

of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning is displayed in Tables 1 to 7 and Graphs 1 to 4. For practicality, below is the summary of the causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding of the students from the for departments or programs according to gender.

Table 8 *Rankings of Causes of Difficulty in Pragmatic Understanding*

Based on Gender

	Male		Female		Male & Female
	Total of Causes	Rank	Total of Causes	Rank	Rank
SRD	40	I	20	II	I
Voice	39	II	18	IV	II
SC	34	III	17	V	III
MisH	25	IV	21	I	IV
Col	23	V	19	III	V
SCI	22	Vi	20	II	V

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

Question	Meaning		Inference		Reference		Deictic		Presupposition		Prediction		Total		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Syn	5	5	6	4	4	3	4	4	2	2	2	0	23	17	41
Col	4	4	8	5	4	3	5	4	2	2	1	1	23	19	43 (V)
Voice	13	6	15	8	3	1	5	2	2	1	1	0	39	18	57
BS	4	3	4	5	2	1	2	2	2	0	1	1	14	12	27
Cont	4	3	4	5	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	13	13	27

SC	12	6	15	7	2	1	4	2	2	1	0	0	34	17	52	(III)
<i>Concent</i>	5	4	5	6	2	1	3	3	2	0	0	1	17	15	32	
<i>Ref</i>	3	3	5	4	1	1	2	2	0	1	0	0	11	11	22	
<i>MisH</i>	5	4	9	5	4	4	5	5	2	2	1	1	25	21	47	(IV)
<i>Memo</i>	4	3	5	3	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	10	10	21	
<i>SRD</i>	13	7	15	9	3	1	6	2	2	1	0	1	40	20	60	(I)
<i>Red</i>	1	2	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	6	4	11	
<i>SCL</i>	3	5	6	6	4	3	5	4	2	2	2	0	22	20	42	(V)
<i>Pause</i>	2	2	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	7	5	12	
<i>Int</i>	3	3	2	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	0	0	8	7	16	
<i>Acc</i>	4	3	5	4	1	1	2	2	0	1	0	0	12	11	23	
<i>MarkRh</i>	3	2	3	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	0	0	10	5	15	
<i>Sett</i>	3	3	4	5	1	2	2	2	0	2	1	0	11	14	25	
<i>Type</i>	3	2	3	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	0	0	10	6	16	
<i>Noise</i>	4	5	5	6	2	1	4	2	1	1	0	1	16	16	32	
<i>Sex</i>	1	2	1	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	5	8	
<i>Total & Rank</i>	99	77	124	91	40	26	61	46	25	22	11	7	367	266		
	II	IV	I	III	VI		VIII	V	VI	IX	X	XI				
					I							I				
	176		215		66		107		47		18		633			
	27%		34%		10.42%		16.9%		7.42%		2.84%					
	II		I		IV		III		V		VI					

Based on Table 8, the order of joint ranks of the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning of males and females is: ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquial’ and ‘Sound Clarity’. For each gender, the ranks are as follows. To males ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Voice’, ‘Sentence Complexity’, ‘Mishearing’, ‘Colloquial’ and ‘Sound Clarity’, while to females ‘Mishearing’, ‘Speed Rate Delivery’, ‘Sound Clarity’, ‘Colloquial’, ‘Voice’ and ‘Sentence Complexity’. In reference to the detail, it

shows that there is a shared rank of causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning between males and females. It means that males dominate every cause of difficulty in pragmatic understanding. In other words, males have broader opportunities to attain lower level pragmatic understanding than females. This research finding is consistent with that of Arifuddin (2013) and Safa and Mahmoodi (2012) which indicate that females outperformed males in pragmatic understanding. Furthermore, Mishearing, 'Speed Rate Delivery' and 'Sound Clarity' have been the primary causes of pragmatic failure. And based on the total percentage of each type of cause of difficulty of pragmatic understanding (See Tables 1 to 7), the percentage of each type of cause of difficulty in pragmatic understanding that female students experienced is lower than that of male students. Thus, it is urgent to train students which focuses on overcoming such difficulties, and implicitly, males should be trained more intensively.

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

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

Those findings seems inconsistent with other research findings which show that there is a correlation between lexico-grammatical competence and pragmatic competence

(Khamyod dan Aksornjarung, 2011; Kasper, 2000). In relation to language proficiency, low pragmatic competence affects foreign language proficiency. This statement is reasonable because based on some studies on foreign language learners' pragmatic development (Yoshimi, 2001), it proved that learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed those who did not. In the present study, the masters degree students of English language Education who were enriched with pragmatic-related knowledge achieved the highest pragmatic understanding.

A study conducted by Sirikhan (2011) shows that English proficiency is a variable which has a great effect on pragmatic ability. This agrees with Taguchi (2007) who supports that language background and English proficiency have influenced L2 pragmatic processing. The findings of this study also confirm the studies of Bardovi-Harling and Dornyei (1998) in that EFL/ESL learning content, and proficiency levels, affect the ability in pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Besides, the findings of this study correspond with some previous studies (Roever, 2005) in that the high language proficient participants had better performance in pragmatics tests than the low ones. This is similar to the findings of Matsumura (2003) who reveals that the overall level of proficiency in the target language plays an important role in the acquisition of pragmatic awareness. Other studies (Hill, 1997; Roever, 2005; Yamashita, 1996) indicate that the high proficiency participants show higher pragmatic competence than those with low pragmatic competence.

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

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

However, it is inconsistent with Liu's (2006) study indicating that the scores from other large-scale proficiency tests, like TOEFL and International English Language Testing System

(IELTS), do not correlate with pragmatic ability. Those who have higher scores do not seem to have correspondingly high pragmatic ability. A number of studies also point out that learners of English as a foreign language, who have excellent grammatical and lexical competence of the target language, still fail to convey their messages effectively due to, for instance, the lack of social appropriateness rules and pragmatic competence (Wolfson et al, 1989). This fact could be an important input for the orientation and strategies for the improvement of English language proficiency.

Of the four masters degree programs, there are three programs or departments which place 'Speech Rate Delivery' in the first rank of cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. This a 'novel' finding. The detail of the causes of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning is displayed in Tables 1 to 7 and Graphs 1 to 4.

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

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

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

The fourth rank of the causes of difficulty in pragmatic understanding is 'Mishearing', apart of sound or voice. 'Mishearing' is listening difficulty which may result from

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

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

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

Conclusion

It is concluded that: 1) There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like of diverse masters degrees; b) There is a significant difference of pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like between male and female students the masters degrees; c) There is an interaction between the masters degree programs of study and gender in affecting pragmatic understanding tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like. Thus, understanding pragmatic meaning relies on gender and the departments of the masters degree students; 2) Both for males and females, there are five primary causes of

difficulty in pragmatic understanding according to their ranks, namely, 'Speech Rate Delivery', 'Voice', 'Sentence Complexity', 'Mishearing', 'Colloquials' and 'Sound Clarity'. Based on the totals of the primary causes of difficulty that each gender faced, male students faced higher level of difficulty in pragmatic understanding than females. This figure also occurs in other causes of pragmatic difficulty. It means that males dominate every cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like, so that males need more intensive training. In addition, TOEFL should be introduced to the freshmen, particularly during the orientation program. Since males dominate every cause of difficulty in understanding pragmatic meaning tested in Listening Part A TOEFL-like, they need more intensive training. In other words, biologically, there is a crucial role of gender in pragmatic understanding. Therefore, TOEFL training based on gender should be integrated, at least, with articulation (or orientation) program provided for the freshmen of the diverse master's degrees programs. This is relevant with Arifuddin's (2015) proposal that pragmatic-based instructional models of listening are prospective for boosting the language proficiency of the Indonesian learners of English.

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Title

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

Author

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

At present, English is an importance part for the student and Thai people for communicating as a second language. It is because of the effects of ASEN community. For this reason, English will become a second language for ASEAN people together with their national languages (Cnwimon,2012).

English is necessary for living by using English as an equipment for communication and understanding other people. Because of these reasons, we must have knowledge, abilities

and skills in English to gain advantages on working in daily life , in formal class can make learners bored to learn English from teachers. This is due to the fact that they don't know the meaning and they cannot remember all vocabularies. The way that they can help learners remember vocabulary is using a picture that is arranged in categories so that the learners can read and memorize each category easily. In the present time, computers become an important part in teaching English. It is called Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). By using (CALL) , learners can learn English by themselves.

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

Research objectives

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

Literature reviews

1. CALL (Computer Assistant language Learning)

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

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

Nguyen Van Han & Henriette Van Rensburg (2014:32) mention about the benefit of the use of computer in foreign language classroom that it can attraction the teaching way and student interested

Duverger, (1995) Tell that CALL make the opportunity to student because it help student using they knowledge learned in one context as a knowledge base for other context as it help learner apply, integrate and transfer knowledge while fostering critical thinking.

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

2. Vocabulary teaching

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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Title

Self and Peer Revisions in Students' Narrative Paragraph Writing

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

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

Previous studies

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

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

suggest a pattern of behavior conducive to self-regulation among writers” (Villamil & De Guerrero, 1998; cf Liu, 2013, p. 51).

Data

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

Minimum requirements

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

Results

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

Instruction: Write a camera-ready, publishable narration (one narrative paragraph) based on one of the 20 topics listed on the reverse page. Circle your topic number. Give an interesting title. Be sure to edit your draft by yourself and by a classmate (as a peer reviewer) before submitting it. Be meticulous.

The My Happiest Days in My Life (draft)

The most beautiful thing in the world that ever happened to me ^{was} ~~or~~ the surprises that I got in the day I turned 18. At that moment, I got four ~~birthday~~ ^{delightful birthday} surprises. The first one was when I opened my eyes on ~~the day I turned 18~~ ^{my birthday}, and found my room was already decorated with balloons and my bed was full of presents from my family. They also brought me a cake and sang me happy birthday. What a glorious morning to be alive! Next, the second surprise was after the class ^{was} over. My friends shocked me ~~with a sudden~~ ^{by} ~~sang~~ ^{singing} me a birthday song and ~~gave~~ ^{giving} me cupcaker. After that, they also showered me with eggs, flour, and veggie juice ~~with~~ ^{which} I hate so much. It was a dirty and smelly birthday bombshell, but it was fun, though. The third ~~st~~ ^{unforgettable} moment was when I, my classmates, and my junior ~~mates~~ ^{mates} were having a garden barbeque party in my cousin's house, he suddenly walked towards me with a blackforest cake in his hands. At that time, there were around sixty people who sang me happy birthday and made speechless ~~in my~~ ^{with} ~~fears~~ ^{of}. The last but the most shocking surprise was at the moment I came home on the next day. I opened my room and was very shocked because there were my classmates again, with two other birthday cakes. They ~~were~~ also decorated my room with festival flags, balloons, and wishes ~~they'd~~ ^{cards} stuck on my wall. ^{flow out of it}


Checked by (full name): Theresia Marsha Prawaty ^{cards} (signature): 

Figure 1. Drafting, self-revision and peer revision

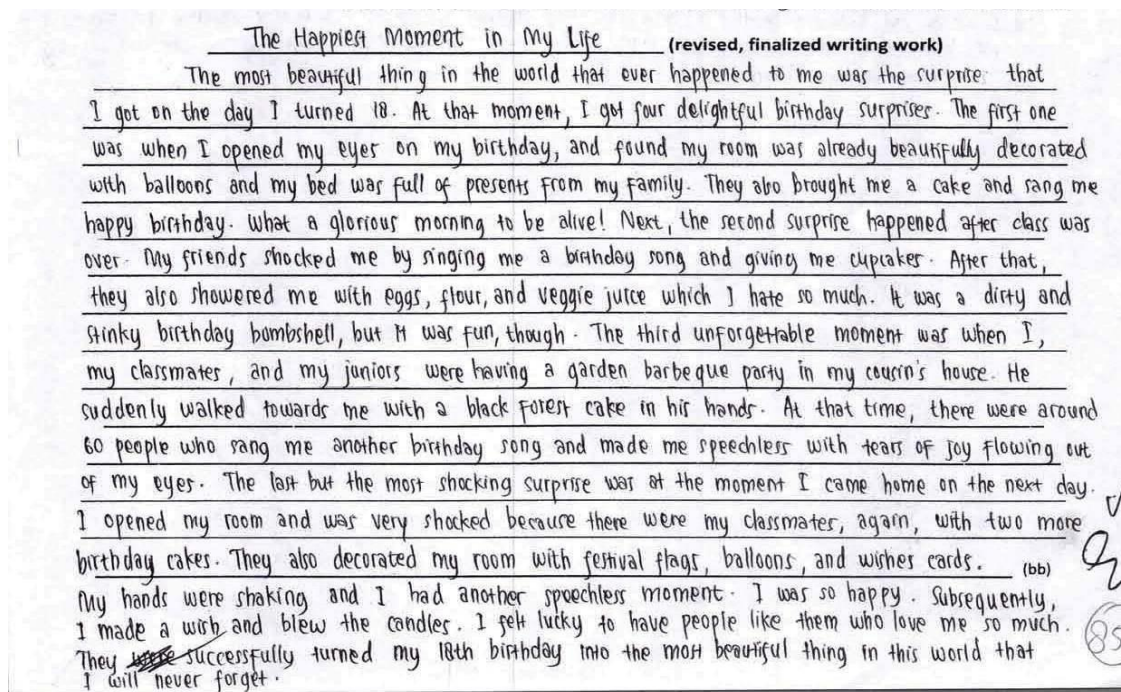


Figure 2. Finalized version

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

Conclusions

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

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, *English proficiency, EFL students*

Introduction

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

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

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

Methodology

Participants

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

Research Design

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

Instruments

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

Procedures

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

Data Analysis

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

Results and Discussions

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

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

Table 1. Summary of Language Learning Strategy Use

Strategies	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Memory	2.24	3.54	3.03	0.36
Cognitive	2.90	3.73	3.21	0.26
Compensation	2.88	3.84	3.40	0.38
Metacognitive	3.08	4.03	3.46	0.32
Affective	2.50	3.69	3.10	0.42
Social	2.88	4.08	3.32	0.43

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

RQ 3. The correlation between the six strategies and English proficiency

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

Table 3. Correlation between the LLS and English Proficiency

		TOEFL	STRATEGIES
TOEFL	Pearson Correlation	1	.188
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.056
	N	104	104
		<hr/>	
STRATEGIES	Pearson Correlation	.188	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	
	N	104	104

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

Conclusion

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

In terms of correlation between the LLS and the students' TOEFL score, the results of this study revealed that LLS has a low positive correlation. Therefore, the better level of LLS used by the students, the higher TOEFL score would be. Furthermore, among the six strategies used, cognitive and metacognitive strategies tend to have significant correlation with the students' English proficiency.

In short, considering the language learning strategy use in studying language is important due to the fact that using appropriate strategies could improve the English proficiency and therefore it is recommended to language learners.

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords: *accuracy, assessment, evaluation*

Introduction

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

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

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

To help ensure that self-assessment activities are pedagogically beneficial, Gardner and Miller (1999) suggest that they contain the following: the purpose of the assessment, a procedure for conducting and marking it, benefits to learners, a suggested marking scale, and a choice of follow-up actions related to the score achieved. Accordingly, these components were incorporated into the self-assessment/goal-setting activity.

Although the participants likely benefitted from evaluating their performance, the issue of accuracy has been identified as a key concern when implementing self-assessment activities in the language classroom. In this regard, validity and reliability can be severely affected and compromised due to other influences such as feedback from instructors or peers which, in turn, can have an impact on overall accuracy (Saito, 2009).

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

An increasing amount of research has focused on the extent to which student evaluations match those provided by instructors and standardized test scores (Oscarson, 2014). When comparing instructor assessment of students with students' own evaluations, there is a variability in findings with some studies reporting positive results with high correlations, while others suggest that learner self-assessments can be problematic due to a lack of accuracy and reliability.

In a study of multicultural and multilingual students in England, Blue (1988) found a significant discrepancy in performance ratings between learners scores and those of their tutors. Similarly, Pierce, Swain, and Hart's (1993) research revealed a weak correlation on the four language skills examined when comparing French students' self-assessments with standardized test scores. Other research has also found considerable diversity in learners' accuracy ratings and problems with reliability (Thomson, 1996; Janssen-van Dielen, 1989). However, despite issues of accuracy, these studies still maintain that self-assessments provide many benefits to learners.

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

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

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this pilot study were enrolled in small, student-centered, communicative classes with a primary focus on speaking. The classes were of mixed gender

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

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

Data Analysis

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

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

Findings and discussion

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

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

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	t	df	Correlation
Instructor	3.67	.26	101	-	-	-
Students	3.09	.42	101	-	-	-
(Diff./Results)	.58	.34	101	17.189	100	.588

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

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

positive correlation implies that assessment patterns were similar between students and the instructor.

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

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	t	df	Correlation
Instructor	3.61	.32	101	-	-	-
Students	2.93	.44	101	-	-	-
(Diff./Results)	.69	.37	101	18.621	100	.562

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

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

Given the small class sizes, the instructor was able to effectively monitor and accurately recorded observations – a task that would be more difficult with a large class. Some pedagogical benefits derived included the promotion of active learning which involved students being engaged in a process of monitoring their performance, reflecting on it by locating their

strengths and weaknesses, and deciding on appropriate follow-up actions in the form of choosing goals. In this way, participants had opportunities to act autonomously, viewed learning in personal terms, and received a form of personalized feedback. The self-assessment activity also appeared to help students with their retention rates and in understanding course objectives, although this type of claim could be ascertained with greater certainty by administering a relevant questionnaire.

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

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Title

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

Author

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

This study aims to investigate the effectiveness by posting students' work on facebook and wall magazine for enhancing students' motivation and its effect on students' motivation from listening and writing classes.

Current research into this research were the students from the third semester of English education department from a state university of Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa University, Banten Province. There were 2 classes from two subjects, they were: listening consists of 33 students and writing class consist of 32 students.

Literature Review

1. Listening

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

2. Writing

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

3. Motivation

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

Methodology

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

T1 X1 X2 X3 X4 X5 X6 X7 X8 T2

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

$$g = \frac{\text{Post Test} - \text{Pre test}}{\text{Maximum score} - \text{Pretest}}$$

(Hake, 1999)

There are several criteria for gain score g , they are:

Table 1

Score g	Criteria
$0.70 \leq n \leq 1.00$	High
$0.30 \leq n < 0.70$	Average
$0.00 \leq n < 0.30$	Low

(Meltzer, 2002)

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

Findings and Discussion

Findings

A. Questionnaires

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

B. Interview

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

C. Test

For the listening class, each test was consist of 20 questions: 10 questions in form of multiple choices A, B, C, or D and 10 questions in form of True or False. Then, for the writing class, the students had to

make texts related to the themes given. After calculated for its gain normalization score from listening class the gain score was 0.49 and from the writing class the gain score was 0.41.

Discussion

A. Questionnaires

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

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

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

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

B. Interview

In this interview, # S.10, she said that she got many advantages of using these media. She had motivation to focus to the materials from listening and writing. It means that these media had complete the first item in ARCS. Then, two answer the second question, from

#S.17; he said that he found relevance between subjects and students' need. In this part, it was developed students' motivation. Students #9 said that she had good confidence, especially when started to listen and write the projects then posted on facebook and wall magazine. And for the last student, #12 she said that she had satisfaction when she got comments and suggestion from their projects that posted on facebook and wall magazine.

C. Test

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

Table 2.Statistic from Listening Class

Statistics

		Pre	Post
N	Valid	33	33
	Missing	0	0
Mean		46.97	68.64
Std. Error of Mean		3.077	2.703
Median		50.00	70.00
Mode		50	70
Std. Deviation		17.675	15.526
Variance		312.405	241.051
Range		85	95
Minimum		0	0
Maximum		85	95
Sum		1550	2265

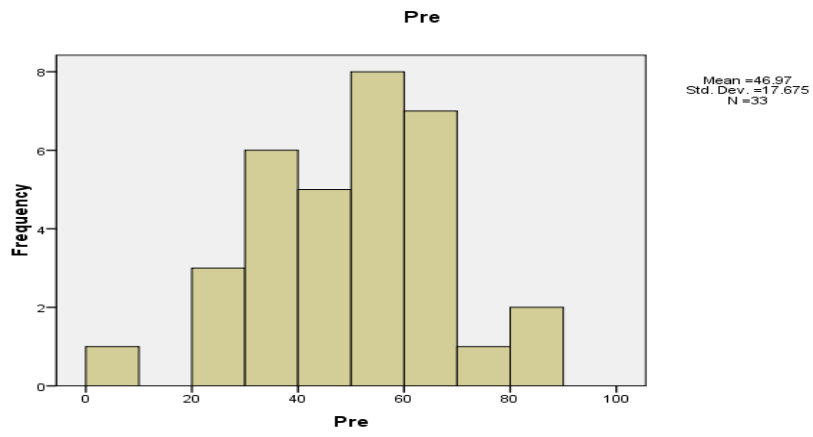


Figure 1. Score from Pre Test in Listening Class

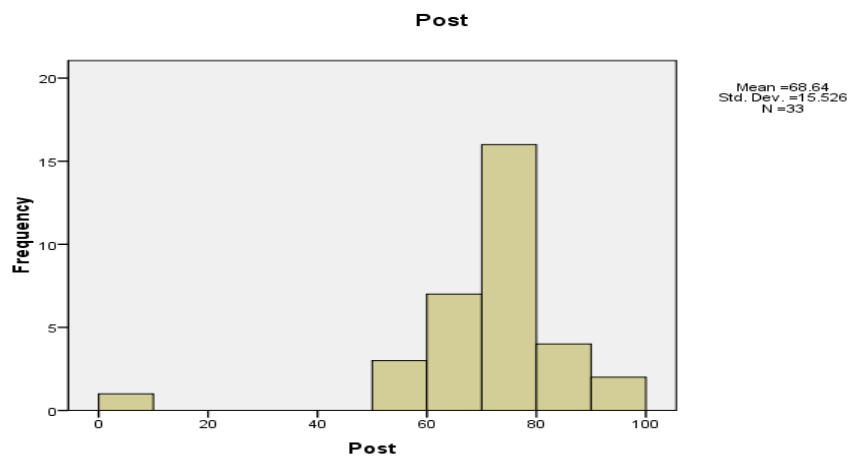


Figure 2. Score from Post Test in Listening Class

Table 3. Statistic from Writing Class

Statistics

	Pre	Post
Valid	32	32
Missing	0	0
Mean	60.31	84.41
Std. Error of Mean	.671	.627
Median	60.00	85.00
Mode	60	85
Std. Deviation	3.797	3.546
Variance	14.415	12.572
Range	20	10
Minimum	50	80
Maximum	70	90
Sum	1930	2701

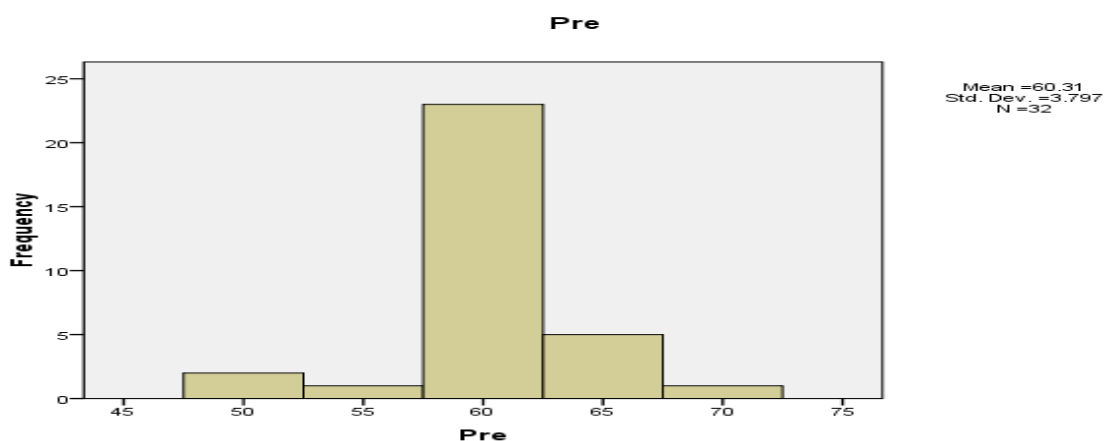


Figure 3. Score from Pre Test in Writing Class

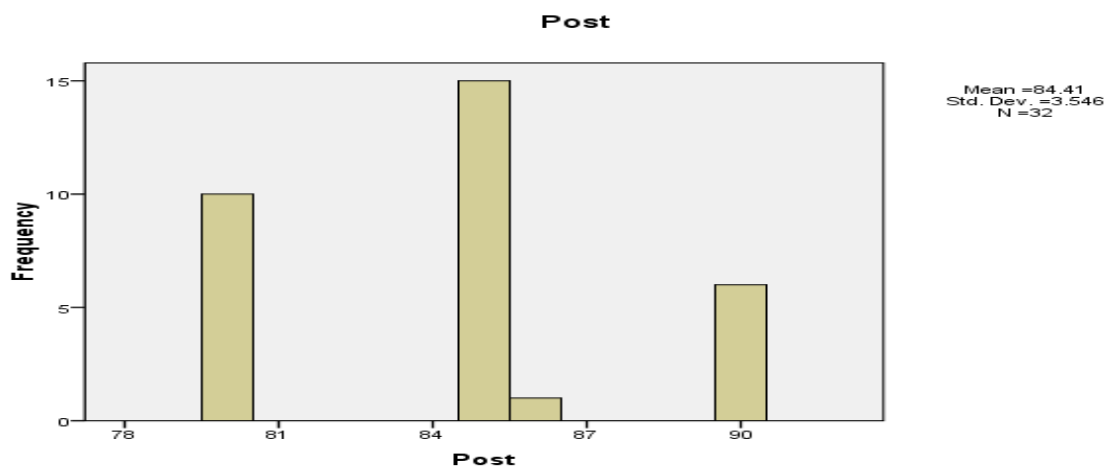


Figure 4. Scores from Post Test in Writing Class

Conclusion

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

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Title

Teaching Strategies in Writing Class: A good model in Islamic institution of Kendari,
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Abstract

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

methods (independent and guided writing) as well as employed many general teaching strategies to encourage students' involvement.

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

Introduction

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

Approaches to teaching writing

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

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

the teacher and students cooperate to create and write the paragraphs together. Farr recommends the teacher to have two-way conversations in making sentences and paragraphs, ask students to write more and demonstrate the writing in a way that students can read and understand them all.

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

Teaching strategy

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

In relation to the effective teaching, Oliva (cited in Siyakwaxi & Siyakwazi, 1999) contends that an outstanding effective teacher should be able to proof that he/she is capable and skillful in teaching and use his/her skills and teaching strategies as required according to students' needs and learning objectives. Tsui (2003) introduces three things to assess the effective language teachers; how the teachers can relate their knowledge of teaching to their act of teaching, how they adjust act and knowledge of teaching to specific context; and how

they can learn from their teaching experiences and be able to generate teaching theory based on their experience. I can assume that if the teachers have known that applying certain teaching strategies can facilitate the students' learning performance, and they employ certain strategies based on the students' needs and learning objectives, they more likely can be effective teachers.

Effective teaching strategies in writing class

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

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

Furthermore, since writing process demands a certain amount of time which is not enough in one or two meetings in the classroom, Hyland (2003) mentions about teacher and student conferencing apart from learning process inside the class. He said that the conference

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

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

skills which might make them actively engaged in the lesson. Katz (1996) mentions that active participation in writing class should be encouraged.

Methodology

Instruments

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

Participants

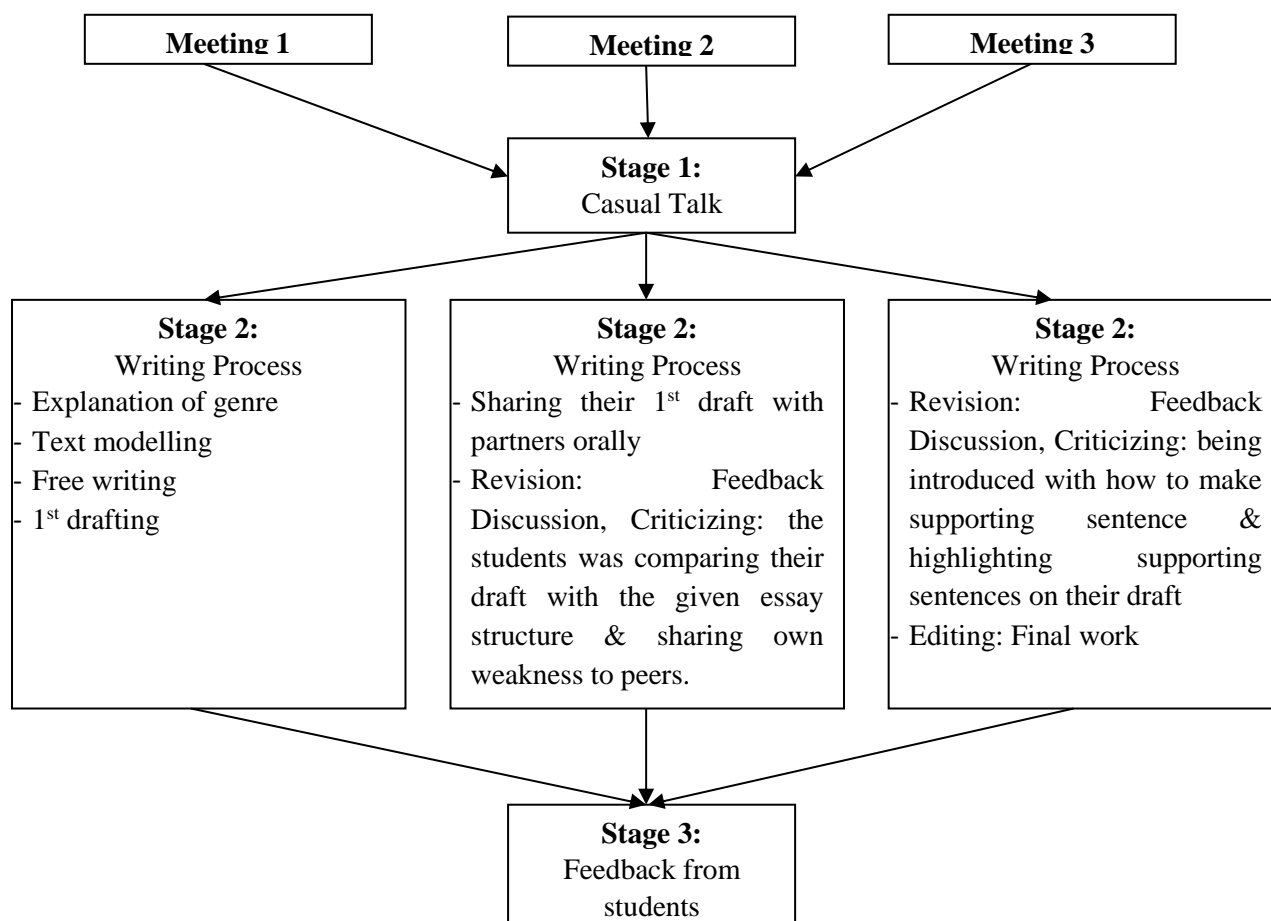
The lecturer participated in this small scale research completed his Master of Art (MA) in TESOL and Foreign Language Teaching in University of Canberra, Australia. Since 2000 he has been actively participating in numerous conferences and workshops related to English teaching. He also has many publications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

Findings and Discussion

Results and Data Analysis

Teaching Stages

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



Teaching Strategies

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

Stage 1

(Extract 1)

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

(Extract 2)

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

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

Stage 2

(Extract 3)

The extract 3 indicates that the lecturer uses sharing activity to help the students to review, understand, and convey what they have written to the peers (Caswell & Mahler, 2004; Scrivener, 2011). According to the lecturer, he has three reasons to do sharing activity; the students can retain what they have written, practice their vocabulary and speaking skill, and listen to other peer's ideas. He also repeatedly says not to be worried to combine their talks with Indonesian. I assume that is because the primary objective of this activity is to convey their ideas successfully to others. Another strategy can be drawn from above extract is the use of pair work. Using group or pair work as the extra activity in teaching writing can be good to make the students listen to other ideas (Seifoori, 2012).

(Extract 4)

The idea of monitoring in the extract 4 shows the other strategy that the lecturer used to manage the classroom. Besides, going around helping the students with their difficulty is in line with the idea of scaffolding which is crucial for the poor English proficient learners (Coyne, Kame'enui, & Carnine, 2007).

(Extract 5)

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

(Extract 6)

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

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

Stage 3

(Extract 7)

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

Effective Teaching Strategies in Writing Class

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

1. One-to-one consultation

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

between lecturer and students (Katz, 1996). This lecture is quite similar to what Katz (1996) mention on her research; Sara, one of the teachers she observed who emphasize the personal contact which can build a good relationship between teacher and students so that her students will enjoy learning and not feel under pressure.

2. Frequent feedback with different forms

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

3. Sharing activity

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

4. The idea of 'Love'

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

Discussion

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

He considerably used some teaching strategies in general and specifically for writing class. Based on the findings, the lecturer seems to have knowledge about different strategies in teaching in a writing class and know what he is doing in the classroom. He knows what kind of teaching strategies he chose to improve students' performance better in a writing class. Some of his strategies are the use of sharing activity in which the students tell their personal stories to the whole class and tell what they have written on their draft to other peers, the use of certain structure checklists of the essay to make the students criticize their writing and aware of their weaknesses and strengths in writing, the use of different forms of feedback; written and oral

feedback on the students' draft, and personal one-to-one consultation outside the classroom in which the students have to come to his office to consult their writing products. The basic idea of his strategy is that he wants to build up a good relationship with his students. Once the students feel comfortable with their lecturer/ teacher, learning can take place more effectively.

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

Conclusion

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

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

“If one should seek to name each particular one of [the emotions] of which the human heart is the seat, it is plain that the limit to their number would lie in the introspective vocabulary of the seeker, each race of men having found names for some shade of feeling which other races have left undiscriminated. If we should seek to break the emotions, thus enumerated, into groups, according to their affinities, it is again plain that all sorts of groupings would be possible, according as we chose this character or that as a basis, and that all groupings would be equally real and true” (James, 1890, p. 485).

From the quotation above, it is obvious that meaning of emotions is so much depending on the cultural value of the community from which the emotions derived. According to Hochschild (2003), the members of a community share the same emotional expressions and experiences. However, interpreter from other language and culture will sometimes have no direct equivalencies for the emotions being interpreted in his own language and culture. Wierzbicka (1999) argues that people conceptualise emotions into each of their languages differently. Thus, people from different culture or speech community have to be very careful in interpreting emotion words which are not traditionally belonged to their language and culture. The relation between emotions and culture is also pointed out by Johnson-laird and Oatley. Johnson-Laird and Oatley (1989) argue that emotions are culturally variable.

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

Literature review

The importance of “happiness”

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

developed emotions. Hence, understanding one community’s concept of “happiness” is likely to contribute to the success of community development and health promotion programme. This paper is devoted to reveal Indonesian’s concept of “happiness”.

Indonesian happiness discourses; bahagia, senang, and gembira

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

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

Dictionary Definition	
<i>Bahagia</i>	(1) keadaan atau perasaan senang dan tenteram (bebas dari segala yang menyusahkan)
<i>Senang</i>	(1) puas dan lega, tanpa rasa susah dan kecewa, dan sebagainya. (2) betah. (3) berbahagia (tidak ada sesuatu yang menyusahkan, tidak kurang suatu apa dalam hidupnya). (4) suka; gembira .
<i>Gembira</i>	(1) suka; bahagia ; bangga; senang .

Beside the definition from the Indonesian monolingual dictionary, the definition from the bilingual dictionary is worth to examine.

Table 2. Definition of *bahagia, senang, and gembira* from an online version of bilingual

Indonesian-English dictionary (Indonesia, 2016).

English Translation	
<i>Bahagia</i>	(1) happy . (2) lucky. (3) glad.
<i>Senang</i>	(1) appreciative. (2) happy . (3) nice. (4) glad.
<i>Gembira</i>	(1) glad. (2) happy . (3) delighted.

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

Indonesian Translation		
Happy	(1) <i>bahagia</i> , (2) <i>senang</i> , (3) <i>gembira</i>	(Echols & Shadily, 1992)
Happy	(1) <i>bahagia</i> , (2) <i>senang</i> , (3) <i>gembira</i>	(Hornby, Siswojo, & Parnwell, 1984)

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

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

through the NSM explication. This phenomenon is referred to as “experience-near concept” (Ye, 2014). Hence, this study adopted the NSM theory to describe the meanings of the three Indonesian emotion words named above.

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

(1) *setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup **bahagia** untuk selama-lamanya.*

(2) ??*setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup **senang** untuk selama-lamanya.*

(3) ??*setelah menikah, pasangan itu hidup **gembira** untuk selama-lamanya.*

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

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

Methodology

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

fundamental aspect in the studies of emotions and value concepts is the understanding of the local perspective.

Findings and discussion

The statistical data from the Indonesian corpora of Leipzig University

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

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

	Frequency	Rank	Frequency Class
<i>Bahagia</i>	73,735	2,175	9
<i>Senang</i>	6,486	14,524	12
<i>Gembira</i>	44,783	3,302	10

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

Bahagia in Bahasa Indonesia

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

1. *Pak Hari merasa **bahagia** melihat putranya diwisuda.*
Mr. Hari feels **bahagia** to see his son graduates.
2. *Ini hari bermakna bagi saya, dan saya pribadi merasa **bahagia**, begitu pula dengan keluarga.*
This is a meaningful day, I personally feel **bahagia**, and my family **too**.
3. *Para ahli sepakat bahwa pernikahan yang **bahagia** bisa saling meringankan beban.*
The experts agree that **bahagia** marriage can alleviate each other’s burden.

Source: LU Indonesian corpora collection (Corpora, 2013b)

In the examples above, it is obvious that *bahagia* is an emotion that arises as the result of the occurrence of good events/things in the experiencer’s life. *Bahagia* is a prolonged

personal emotion. *Bahagia* is also an emotion that involves caring for others. The others here are the people who have a close relationship with the experiencer, such as son, daughter, wife, husband, parents or other family members. Hence, *bahagia* can be explicated as follows.

NSM explication of *bahagia*

- a. Someone X feels *bahagia* for some time

This someone (X) feels something good for some time

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

- b. “many good things are happening to me now

I can do many things now as I want

this is something good

at the same time, I know that I want someone to feel this something

- c. this someone is like this:

I know this someone

I know that I can be with this someone at many times

I feel something good when I think about this someone

this someone thinks something good towards me

I want to do good things for this someone

- d. Because of this, this someone (X) feels something good for some time

like people can feel at many times when they think like this

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

for the experiencer: Something very good is happening to someone, I want this good things to happen to this someone and I feel something very good because of this.

***Senang* in Bahasa Indonesia**

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

1. *Saya senang melihat anakmu mendapatkan pekerjaan.*
I am *senang* to see your son/daughter gets a job.
2. *Bu Risma senang melihat warga Surabaya menikmati taman kota.*
Madam Risma is *senang* to see the Surabaya people enjoy the city park.
3. *Setelah dua minggu, saya senang melaporkan bahwa kedua keluarga itu telah dipersatukan kembali.*
After two weeks, I am *senang* to report the family was reunited.

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

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

NSM explication of *senang*

- a. Someone X feels *senang* for some time at this time
This someone (X) feels something good for some time at this time

Because this someone (X) thinks like this at this time:
- b. “something good is happening to some people now
I want this

I want people to know this
I think it’s good for people to know this”
- c. Because of this, this someone (X) feels something good for some time at this time
like people can feel at many times when they think like this

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

Gembira in Bahasa Indonesia

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

1. *Para wisudawan begitu gembira. Mereka melemparkan topinya ke udara sebagai tanda kelulusan.*
The graduates are so *gembira*. They throw their hats as a sign of graduation.
2. *Para fans Real Madrid bernyanyi gembira merayakan gol Ronaldo.*
Real Madrid fans sing *gembira* celebrating Ronaldo’s goal.
3. *Sabari yang begitu gembira berlari secepat kilat ke pelabuhan menjemput Zoro anaknya.*
Sabari that is so *gembira* run as fast as lightning to the harbour to pick up his son, Zoro.

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

NSM explication of gembira

- a. Someone X feels *gembira* at this time
This someone (X) feels something very good at this time

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

the others to know his/her feeling. *Gembira* is the most intense emotion compared to the two others. It requires physical action as the result of the feeling. The experiencer also wants people to know this feeling. Besides, *gembira* has the shortest duration compared to *bahagia*, and *senang*.

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

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

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

Methodology

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

Findings and Discussion

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

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

Table 1: The Self-Rating of Importance and Competence on Language Proficiency

No	English Language Knowledge and Skill	Rating of Importance	Competence		Threshold
			Rating of Competence	Meaning	
1	Comprehend the texts accurately	3.750	2.940	Incompetent	Level of competence: 3=competent
2	Provide language-enrichment experiences for learners	3.750	2.900	Incompetent	
3	Give the vocabularies and grammatical structures by using	3.730	2.795	Incompetent	Level of importance: 3=important
4	accurate explanation	3.585	2.675	Incompetent	
5	Be good language model	3.550	2.670	Incompetent	
6	Monitor my speech and	3.645	2.655	Incompetent	
7	writing for accuracy	3.615	2.615	Incompetent	

8	Give explanation in English Introduce and explain the tasks in English Use English in the classroom	3.61	2.595	Incompetent
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This self-rating shows that of the eight sub components in language proficiency, the teachers rated comprehend the text accurately and provide language enrichment experiences for learners highest in importance. Meanwhile, the teachers perceived be good language model and monitor speech and writing higher in importance than giving explanation in English and explaining the tasks in English. One of the English teachers' roles is as a model of English. Teachers should provide young learners with good model.

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

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

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

The self-rating of importance and competence in the component of classroom language could be seen in table 2.

Table 2: The Self-Rating of Importance and Competence in Classroom Language

No	English Language Knowledge and Skill	Rating of Importance	Competence		Threshold
			Rating of competence	Meaning	
1	Understand the various strategies to communicate effectively and	3.665	2.815	Incompetent	Level of competence:
2	politely Maintain the use of English in the classroom	3.545	2.595	Incompetent	3=competent Level of
3	Give correct feedback in English	3.600	2.580	Incompetent	importance: 3=important

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

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

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

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

Conclusions

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

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

Lately, self-assessment has become an important part of teaching and learning foreign language. As cited by Kavaliauskien'e (2007: 152), it is an important part of alternative assessment since it is usually presented in the form of reflections on students' performance. He defines it as the utilization of non-traditional approaches in judging students' performance which may include self-assessment of performance in listening practice, written essay, oral presentation, or various contributions to either paper or portfolios. The students' reflection on

their performance will be useful for them in order to be aware for self-directed learning which relates to about what they have learnt and what they want to learn in a further learning. Additionally, those reflections can be utilized by the students for knowing their progress of learning. Then, students are able to assess their ability by themselves about what their strengths and weaknesses and it can be helpful for the teacher for determining students' mark based on the teachers view and students' reflection. As a result self-assessment can encourage and motivate the students for learning for every level of education.

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

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

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

assessment of socio affective for young learners as well as how to implement it in English for young learners' classroom.

Literature Review

Teaching English for Young Learners

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Nature of Self-assessment

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

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

development of pattern of self-directed learning and of the methodology of self-access, as well as implying some degrees of learner training.

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

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

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

Self-assessment for English for Young Learners

How far language learners are be able to assess their own learning is one of the objective of self-assessment. Self-assessment is conducted to help learners in understanding the process of learning language and to promote independent learning (Cameron, 2001). In promoting independent learning, young learners are ready enough to be a part of it. Because by the age of five, they have already be able to talk what they are doing, tell what they have done or heard, argue for something, and tell about what they like or dislike (Scott and Ytreberg, 2004; McKay, 2006).

Despite being an independent learner, self-assessment also proposed young learners who learn to assess their own work move from being ‘other-regulated’ to being ‘self-regulated’ or autonomous learner (Cameron, 2001). In other-regulated learner, young learners are thought to be a dependable learners. Similarly, Cameron (2001) points out that the other-regulated language learner depends on the teacher to decide on activities, to control activities, and to evaluate how well the language has been learnt through the activities. Meanwhile, self-regulated or autonomous learner produces a responsible young learners who deal with their own learning from the very beginning of the teaching learning process until the end (Harmer, 2007).

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

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

Socio-affective Assessment

There are 5 types of self-assessment as defined by Brown (2003:271). The first is direct assessment or assessment of a specific performance. Here, the evaluation takes place immediately after the performance and the students typically monitors him or her in oral or written production. The second is indirect assessment where the students completed the questioner at midterm followed up immediately the meeting between teachers and students for identifying weaknesses and set goals for the remainder of the term. The third is metacognitive assessment which the evaluation is not just viewing past performance or competence but also setting goals and maintaining an eye on the process of their pursuit. The forth is socio-affective assessment which requires the students through psychological lens. Here, the students’ mental

or emotional obstacle is involved to improve their motivation in order to overcome their barriers. Thus an all-important socio-affective domain is invoked. The fifth is student-generated tests involved in the techniques of engaging students in the process of constructing tests themselves which can be productive, intrinsically motivating, autonomy-building processes.

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

4	3	2	1	I like memorizing words.
4	3	2	1	I like the teacher to explain grammar to me.
4	3	2	1	I like making charts and diagrams.
4	3	2	1	I like drama and role plays.
4	3	2	1	I like singing songs in English.
4	3	2	1	I like group and pair interaction.
4	3	2	1	I like self-reflection and journal writing.

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

Learning Preferences					
Think about the work you did in this unit. Put a check next to the items that helped you learn the lessons. Put two checks next to the ones that helped a lot.					
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Listening to the teacher	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Listening to the tapes and doing exercises
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Working by myself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Reading
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Working with a partner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Writing paragraphs
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Working with a group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Using the Internet
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Asking the teacher questions			

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

1. listening tasks

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

2. Speaking Tasks

The students can fill out their self-checklists and questionnaires, rating their oral presentation, detecting pronunciation or grammar errors on a self-recording.

3. Reading Tasks

The students can conduct self-assessment of reading habits. They also read passages with self-check comprehension questions following and take vocabulary quizzes.

4. Writing Tasks

The students revise written work with a peer and proofreading.

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

The Design of Implementing Self-Assessment

According to Luca and McLouglin (2002: 2) in order to promote the development of reflective, critical and evaluative skills on self assessment, the learning environment should be designed to encourage participant to:

- Have a clear understanding of the objective
- Identify valid assessment criteria
- Accurately and objectively evaluate success or failure on a given task

Additionally, in her research, the development of project management skills which are transferable to real world context is involved when self assessment occurs in the classroom. It will encourage the students to be more responsible for their own learning, but may need assistance through scaffolding and modeling. Then, the classroom activities should be design as appropriate as possible in order to make them to be able to responsible for their own work relate to the due date for submitting the task and what they have learnt. And the design of the learning environment for self-assessment shown in figure 1 as proposed by Luca and McLouglin (2002) which integrate a range of authentic, self-regulated and reflective activities in the learning activities.

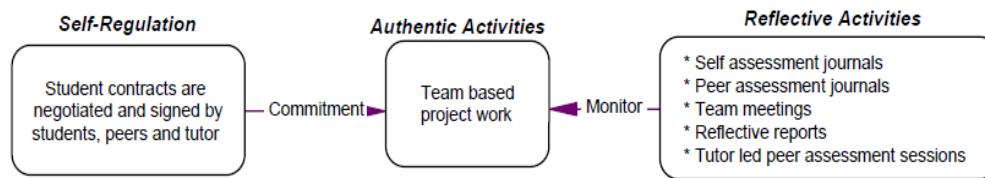


Figure 1: The design of the learning environment

Based on the design above, reflective activities are valuable to be involved when the teacher wants to engage self-assessment in their learning activities. The reflective activities will give students personal views of their progress were recorded. Then, it will lead them for considering their success in completing assigned task, the quality achieved, the successful of managing time, and justify their score. Moreover, in reflective report, the students are able to be asked to complete the report about how and what they have learnt, the strong and weak point of their learning, and their strategy for making self improvement. As a result, it will help the teachers in order to make decision about evaluating their students based on the self-assessment. The teachers do not need conducting formal assessment, but the teachers can perceived and assess their ability by investigating their performance of learning and response of how they learn.

Guidelines for Self-assessment

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

1. Tell students the purpose of the assessment

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

2. Define the task clearly

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

3. Encourage impartial evaluation of performance or ability

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

4. Ensure beneficial washback through follow up task

Follow up should be accomplished through further self-assessment, journal reflection, written feedback from the teacher, conferencing with the teacher, purposeful goal setting by the student, or combination of them.

The Benefit of Self-Assessment

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

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

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

Research Method

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

Findings and Discussion

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

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

Conclusion and Suggestion

Realizing the benefit of implementing self-assessment in teaching English for young learner, implementing it in the class is recommended for teacher. Young learners by the age of five have already met the criteria of implementing self-assessment. It can be seen from young learners' characteristics that have been discussed before. Young learners have been ready enough to implement self-assessment in teaching learning process in the class. Young learners should experience self-assessment in order to make a habit of it. And one of the simple type of self-assessment that can be conducted is socio-affective. This socio-affective self-assessment can be starting point for young learner due to its closeness with the young learners' behavior

itself. Therefore, as a teacher of young learners, we should not underestimate them relate to the implementation of self-assessment in English class especially.

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

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

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Title

Analyzing Students' Individual Problems in Speaking at IAIN Kendari

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Abstract

This study aims at assessing student's individual problems at Islamic State Institute (IAIN) of Kendari in increasing their English speaking skill. The data was obtained from 10 Islamic Education Students in 2015. The participants were selected due to their low English grade obtained from final-year examination and interview. The data was collected through interview and questionnaire. The finding showed that students' individual problems comprises into two parts, (1) lack of knowledge factors and (2) psychological factors. These problems were caused by the following factors; (1) often laughed by their friends when speaking English, (2) lazy to memorize vocabulary, (3) lack of speaking exercise, (4) fear of making mistakes in speaking and pronouncing vocabulary and sentence, and (5) insufficient knowledge on grammatical structure of English language. Few ways were suggested to solve

the problem; (1) motivating themselves to be more confident in talking, (2) recording unfamiliar vocabularies in personal vocabulary notes, (3) practicing speaking with friends and lecturers, (4) mixing the use English language and mother language, as well as (5) using technology such as electronic dictionaries.

Keywords: *Individual Problems, Speaking Skill*

Introduction

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

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

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

Literature review

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

Lack of Knowledge Factor

In classroom, the students are required to speak fluently. However, lack of knowledge, such as slow vocabulary, poor in grammar and pronunciation, becomes a stumbling block.

Vocabulary is one of the most important components in any language class. Without vocabulary, communication will be limited. Limited vocabulary leads the students to use their mother tongue instead of utilizing the target language (Cook, 1996). Pronunciation refers to the way the native speak language (Scrivener, 2005). The focus of grammar is not only on syntax but also how to put the language form in meaningful interaction (Terrell, 1991; Brown, 2000; Harmer 2007).

Psychological Factor

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

Methodology

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

Findings and Discussion

Findings

This section provides findings and discussion relating to the objective of the research. They might become short explanation through figure. The following table has four columnscomprises of (1) name of the student, (2) their self problems, (3) causes of students' self problems, (4) the strategies utilized in overcoming the problems.

Table 1:
Students' Self Problem, Causes and Strategies to Overcome

No	Subjects	Kinds of Self Problem	The Causes	Strategies Used
1	Subject 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of making mistakes ✓ Lack of motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Laughing by friends 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Practicing at home in front of mirror ✓ Having notes for new vocabularies ✓ Asking friends ✓ Having smart friend in English ✓ Using dictionary ✓ More exercises at home
2	Subject 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of mistakes in pronunciation ✓ Lack of confidence ✓ Less motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less vocabularies ✓ Lack of confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Using social media ex: facebook, SMS in English ✓ Build internal motivation: English as a habit
3	Subject 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of vocabularies ✓ Fear of mistakes in pronunciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less vocabularies ✓ Less ability to pronoun the words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Daily exercises (mixing with mother tongue) ✓ Asking friends ✓ Searching in the dictionary
4	Subject 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fear of making mistakes grammar and Pronunciation) ✓ Lack of confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less vocabularies ✓ Less ability to pronoun the words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Open dictionary ✓ Asking friends for the pronunciation

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (grammar) 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Independent study by reading vocabulary book or dictionary
5	Subject 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (less vocabularies) ✓ Fear of mistakes to converse ✓ Lack of confidence (less of confidence) ✓ Shyness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lazy to memorize vocabularies ✓ Poor in pronouncing the words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Asking friends ✓ Having note of the vobabulary then open dictionary ✓ Memorizing the vocabulary
6	Subject 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and pronunciation) ✓ Lack of confidence (Environment - laughing with friends) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ More task to be finished 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Finding out in the book ✓ Enjoyable to study English ✓ Asking friends, teacher or other people ✓ Exercise in front of mirror ✓ Open dictionary ✓ Memorizing words and sentences
7	Subject 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and grammar) ✓ Shyness ✓ Anxiety ✓ Lack of confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Feeling shy ✓ Fear to speak ✓ Laughing by friends ✓ Less practice for daily habit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Memorizing words ✓ Asking friends ✓ Using gadget ✓ Visiting friends for having exercise
8	Subject 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Nervous/anxious ✓ Fear of mistakes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Feeling anxiety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Mixing ✓ Open dictionary

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Less of vocabulary 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Language as a habit ✓ Using social media: Facebook ✓ Peer teaching ✓ Reading before sleep at night
9	Subject 9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies and Grammar) ✓ Nervous ✓ Fear of mistakes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Grammatical arrangement ✓ Fear of mistakes when having conversation to older ✓ Fear of mistakes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Using Personal Vocabulary Notes ✓ Asking friends ✓ Keep speaking by mixing the language ✓ Reading before sleeping at night
10	Subject 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Lack of knowledge (vocabularies) ✓ Feeling anxiety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Feeling worry to speak ✓ Less vocabularies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Taking note ✓ Mixing language ✓ Memorizing words

Based on aforementioned findings, it can be concluded that students' self problems were mostly related to their knowledge and psychological factors. Lack of knowledge includes slow vocabulary development, low proficiency in speaking, and poor in grammar. Psychological factors comprise of low self-confidence, unmotivated to speak, having anxiety and shyness to speak.

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

had. Besides, the students felt lazy to memorize words and also they had more assignments for other subjects.

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

Discussion

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

Conclusion

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

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Title

Promoting Meaningful Student Engagement in the ESL Classroom

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Abstract

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

Key Words: *Meaningful student engagement, motivation, active learning*

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Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

Active, not passive, learning is central in engagement. John Dewey once said, “Education is not an affair of ‘telling’ and being told, but an active and constructive process.” Active minds

are “dynamic participants in their learning and that they are reflecting on and monitoring both the processes and the results of their learning” (p. 12). “Engaged students examine, question, and relate new ideas to old, thereby achieving the kind of deep learning that lasts” (p. 17).

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

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

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

Discussion

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

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

Scaffold students’ learning and performance by communicating in clearest possible ways. Students need to understand the overriding goals of the lessons, the purposes of different activities, and the expected outcomes to help them channel their energies towards successful learning. Teachers need to use balanced and effective pacing (Marzano & Pickering, 2011), use

topics students can relate to meaningfully, use simple vocabulary and nonverbal ways to clarify points, use pictures, model the product expected, and demonstrate instructions or information step-by-step, either manually or electronically, to help them focus and progress with their tasks. *Create fun and creative activities that integrate games, songs and rhymes, storytelling, movement, and available technology.* “When classroom activities allow students to make choices relevant to their interests, direct their own learning, engage their imaginations, experiment with adult roles, and play physically, research shows that students become more motivated and interested, and they enjoy more positive school experiences” (Conklin, 2015). Games are meaningful ways of engaging students in a language classroom. Games that emphasize challenge instead of competition help and encourage many students to sustain and enhance their motivation and provide intense and meaningful language practice. (Wright, Betteridge, and Buckby, 1984; Cross, 1995). Where inevitably woven into the game, competition, under the right conditions, can be a source of fun, excitement, and motivation (Orsntein & Levine). Thoroughly planned games are fun ways through which students get immersed in the language unconsciously.

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

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

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

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

Allow students freedom to represent their learning. Students make appropriate choices on how to express their learning and use their multi intelligences in traditional and/or electronic modes. Students can represent their learning through their original videos, posters, role plays, presentations, songs, poems, and many other mediums. As Daniels and Bizar (2005) stated,

there are other ways for students to seek, engage, construct, probe, and store knowledge and share ideas—not just jotting down words.

Create an emotionally and intellectually safe as well as inclusive classroom climate that solidifies students' sense of belonging. “The climate we create has implications for our students...a positive climate can energize students' learning” (Ambrose et al., p. 6). When students and teachers interact in a way that ensures safety, cooperation, respect, and fair and equitable treatment, students feel a sense of community—welcomed and stimulated—and are therefore encouraged to participate (Barkley, 2010; Riggs & Gholar, 2009; Marzano & Pickering, 2011). One simple initial step is to address students by their names (Barkley, 2010). Also, encourage different perspectives and let diversity thrive; acknowledge achievement and encourage further improvement through timely and specific feedback; and tolerate errors in the process of learning. As Thornbury (1999) stated, errors are an “aspect of language learning... and are a rich source of material for language focus and consciousness-raising” (p. 126). Additionally, use humor as it can attract students' attention, aside from stimulating creative and flexible thinking, and facilitating learning (Glasgow & Hicks, 2009; Marzano & Pickering, 2011).

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

Conclusion

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

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