The Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles December 2016 Indonesian International Conference Edition Volume 2



Senior Editors: Paul Robertson and John Adamson

> Production Editor: Eva Guzman



Published by the English Language Education Publishing

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

http://www.elejournals.com

©English Language Education Journals 2016

This E-book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception, no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of the English Language Education Journals.

No unauthorized photocopying

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

Publisher: ELE Publishing Chief Editor: Dr. John Adamson Production Editor: Eva Guzman

ISSN 1738-1460

Table of Contents

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

1. Chan Hua Chien / Melor Md Yunus / Maslawati Mohamad5-18
'Who We Are' in Enhancing Rural Students' English as a Second Language (ESL) Learning
2. Dangin / Nurvita Wijayanti19-23
Mispronouncing Spelling-to-Sound Words by Indonesian College Students:
A Study on Phonology
3. Deby Irawan24-28
Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and
Strengthening Students' Language Proficiency
4. Desi Tri Cahyaningati29-33
Multimodal Text for Engineering Student
5. Dexter Sigan John / Melor Md Yunus
The Potential of Using Visual Aids in Reading Literary Texts
6. Diana Chitra Hasan46-50
Gender Differences in the Relationships between Students' Motivation and Achievement with their
Perception of Female Teachers' Classroom Behavior
7. Diani Nurhajati51-56
Project-Based Learning used to Develop Supplementary Materials for Writing Skill
8. Eka Fadilah
Oral Corrective Feedback on Students' Grammatical Accuracy and Willingness to
Communicate in EFL Classroom: The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Prompts
9. Ekaterina Tarasova
Professional English Teaching on the Basis of Blended Learning
10. Elok Putri Nimasari93-101
How do Undergraduate Students avoid Plagiarism?
11. Elvina Arapah102-106
English Lesson Planning of K-13 with Scientific Approach

12. Eny Syatriana107-111
Implementing a Design Model in Teaching Writing through Reflection Strategy for
Indonesian EFL Students
13. Eunice Barbara C. Novio / Nancy G. Catane112-116
Poetry in EFL Teaching: Perspective of the Students based on Gender
14. Fahrur Rozi, Ph.D117-134
Improving Communication Skills of Tertiary Level Indonesian Learners through a
Conversation Lounge
15. Fahrus Zaman Fadhly135-160
Reconstruction of Cognitive Process in Popular Article Writing
16. Feky R. Talahaturuson / Hendrik J. Maruanaya161-167
Maximizing the use of Wondershare Quiz Creator Program to Promote High School
Students' Engagement in EFL Reading Comprehension Lesson
17. Fibriani Endah Widyasari168-183
Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach English to Young Learners
18. Geminastiti Sakkir184-193
Interest and Writing Skill of the University Students on using Social Media- Facebook in
Writing Class (STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia)
19. Hairus Salikin / Muhlisin Rasuki194-209
Developing Second and Foreign Language Proficiency: Insight from the Learners
20. Hanna Sundari210-214
The Qualities of an Effective English Teacher: University Students' Perception

Title

'Who We Are' in Enhancing Rural Students' English as a Second Language (ESL) Learning

Author

Chan Hua Chien, Melor Md Yunus, Maslawati Mohamad Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Chan Hua Chien is a teacher of Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Oya, Dalat which is located in Sarawak, Malaysia. He has been teaching English and Malaysian University English Test (MUET) for nearly 5 years. He is currently enrolling in his M.Ed TESL program in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM).

Melor Md Yunus is an Associate Professor at the Faculty of Education, UKM. She has researched and published in the areas of technology-enhanced Language Learning and TESL. She is the first recipient of the National Higher Education e-Learning award for her contributions in Creativity (Blended Learning, Flipped Learning and Problem-based learning)

Maslawati Mohammad is a senior lecturer in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) under the department of innovation in teaching and learning. Her area of interest covers innovation in teaching and learning, e-learning, and English for specific purposes.

Abstract

'Who We Are' is a project which aims to familiarize rural students with English language by requiring them to create a graphic narrative about any unpublished folklore of their respective community in English language and consequently present them using various social media. The project is in line with the characteristics of 21st century learning as it promotes collaborative learning, integrates technological material and develops students' creative and critical thinking skills. Thus, this study aims to explore the use of 'Who We Are' to enhance rural students' English as A Second Language (ESL) learning through a case study. 24 Form 4 (16 years old) students from a rural secondary school in Dalat, Sarawak

were selected to participate in this study through a purposive sampling technique. The participants' feedbacks regarding the helpfulness of the project were collected through an open-ended questionnaire and the researcher's field note. The findings indicated that 'Who We Are' is an effective tool in improving the students' ESL learning. The students' interest in learning English language and their English reading, writing, listening and speaking skills have been enhanced. The findings of the study are hoped to provide rural school teachers with insights into the benefits of using graphic narrative in English language classroom in order to go in line with current Malaysia Education Blueprint which greatly emphasizes the use of English language among students.

Keywords: Graphic narrative, English as a Second Language, rural students, interest, language skills

Introduction

English language is given a considerably significant amount of importance and attention by the Ministry of Education in current Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) with the aim of producing world class individuals who are adequately competent and fully fledged with necessary communication skills to work in a globalised economy where English is critically required. In order to increase the exposure of English language among students and concurrently improve the quality of English language teaching and learning, the Ministry of Education Malaysia has taken several measures to ensure the target where 70% students achieve Cambridge 1119 or equivalent minimum credit in Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) English by 2025 is achieved. These measures include launching 'To Uphold Bahasa Malaysia and To Strengthen English Language' (MBMMBI) programme to strengthen the delivery of English lessons, implementing Oral Proficiency in English for Secondary Schools (OPS) programme to enhance students' English speaking and listening skills, introducing Comprehensive English remedial support, and incorporating differentiated language teaching. Besides, the Ministry of Education has also advocated for the integration of 21st century learning skills into current national education system with the aim of effectively enhancing and improving students' learning in English subject. These skills include: i) creativity and innovation, ii) critical thinking and problem solving, iii) communication, iv) collaboration, v) information literacy, vi) media literacy, vii) Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Literacy, viii) flexibility and adaptability, ix) initiative and self-direction, x) social and cross-cultural skills, xi) productivity and accountability, and xii) leadership and responsibility.

Despite the emphasis of the importance of mastering English language in current Malaysia Education Blueprint and 21st century learning, the English language proficiency among rural students in Malaysia is still averagely unsatisfactory (Wreikat, Kabilan and Abdullah, 2014). The failure rate of rural students in English language is still high with low English proficiency (Siti and Yunus, 2014). Low English proficiency level among rural students is also evidenced by the falling standard of English in all Malaysia public examinations, namely, Primary School Evaluation Test (UPSR), Form 3 Assessment (PT3) and Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM). According to Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025), the percentage of indigenous students who achieve at least a Credit benchmarked to Cambridge 1119 was only 23%. This percentage fall significantly short of the target of 70% proficiency target that is set in Malaysia Education Blueprint. According to an article by Hamzah (2014), among forty thousand Malaysian graduates from public Universities who could not get employment from private sectors, majority of them are from rural areas. This is due to their low level of English proficiency.

A key and heated issue that often arises in rural students' English language proficiency is their attitudes towards ESL learning. Their attitudes towards ESL learning are significantly influenced by their perceptions on the utility and relevance of English in their daily settings. Regardless of the officially declared status of English as a Second Language in Malaysia, English language is indeed a foreign language which is so 'alien' in most rural settings where English has no much relevance with their lives (Gobel , 2011). Besides, minimal exposure to the targeted language is also the major contributing factor to the increased level of anxiety among students in learning the language (Khattak, Jamshed, Ahmad, and Baig, 2011). Language anxiety has profound impact on students' language learning which would consequently debilitate and negatively influence their learning of English language. Moreover, the current socioeconomic status of their families also serves as an impediment for rural students to have sustainably sufficient access to a variety of English reading materials, online learning English tools, English movies, English songs and English educational programs shown on television which would greatly enhance their learning of English language (Akhtar, 2010; cited in Akram and Ghani, 2013).

In order to effectively enhance rural students' ESL learning, the need to enhance their interest in learning English language should be given a considerable amount of attention and priority. It is believed that graphic novels or comics do not only provide engaging learning

experience and improve essential language skills like writing and reading skills, but it also can enhance students' interest in learning English (Sofi, 2015). Similarly, 'Who We Are' is a project which requires the participants to create a graphic narrative or comics about any unpublished folklore of their respective community in English language and consequently present or publish them using various social media. This case study was carried out to explore the use of 'Who We Are' in enhancing rural students' ESL learning. Hence, the study seeks to examine the following research questions:

- 1. How can 'Who We Are' help to enhance the rural students' interest in learning English language?
- 2. How can 'Who We Are' help to enhance the rural students' English proficiency level?

Literature Review

Sociocultural Theory

'Who We Are' is designed with reference to Sociocultural Theory, which was pioneered by Vygotsky. This learning theory focuses on the roles of cognitive and social factors in the field of second language learning. As quoted from Vygotsky in 1978, he believed that "*Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with peers*" (1978; 90). In other words, this learning theory explains that learning takes places within the integration of social, cultural and biological elements in learning processes (Aimin 2013). Based on this theory, individual learns a new language through interaction with people, culture, objects and events in the environment. This theory also affirms that these prior cultural artifacts act as the basis for second language learning.

'Who We Are' is related to Sociocultural Theory as it involves the relationship between students' cultural folklore and their language learning. Folklore is a traditional culture that is preserved and passed on orally through many generations and each ethnic has each own folk traditions either in the form of tales, dance, myths, lifestyle practices, arts and music. According to Bendix and Rokem (2012), folklore is a mirror of culture as it expresses the way of life of the society who produces it such as their beliefs, customs, attitudes and way of thinking. Based on the arguments, it is undeniable that folklore is a culture. As stated earlier, second language learning is driven by cultural elements and Sociocultural Theory claims that possessing the access to the patterns and information gathered in first cultural norms can aid second language learning (Lantolf and Thorne 2007). In addition, 'Who We Are' is a collaborative task and students have to work together and learn to interact with each other in order to produce a graphic comic. This supports Vgotsky's presupposition where he stresses the essential role of social interaction in the development of cognition.

The Roles of Comics in ESL Classrooms

According to Recine (2013), comics can make language learning more conducive compared to clip art or stand-alone images which are minimally connected to meaningful language. Hence, comics appear more engaging and riveting to the students. Besides, the widely-known and globally appealing stories and characters of comics are beneficial tools to help create interesting, meaningful lessons in the English language. This is due to the reasons that the stories and characters of comics are normally rooted in popular culture with which the students are familiar. Furthermore, comics could be used to engage reluctant readers who need classroom support for their English language skills by providing them a useful visually supported learning experience. A study carried out by Bledsore (2010; cited in Yunus, Hadi, Asnarita, Syarifah and Shalini, 2011) revealed that creating comics can effectively motivate students who have inadequate written language skills in expressing their ideas through both drawings and written texts. Through comics, they can use images to support their language ideas. This has corroborated Faulkner's (2009) study where he found out that digital comics could be used to spur low achiever language learners' interest in writing. Their language ideas could be expressed through drawings with simple sentences despite their limited vocabulary knowledge and poor command of English grammar. This is also in line with a study carried out by Yunus, Hadi, and Amin (2012) whereby they found out that majority of the teacher trainees believed that digital comics can create an engaging learning environment which can attract and boost low achiever language learners' motivations to write in English. In addition, generating comic strips can help to promote students' imaginative skills which are crucial for writing as well (Zimmerman, 2010). Students would stay focused while manipulating characters and conceiving of suitable words for their comics. Thus this would provide them a gratifying personal experience which would enhance their imagination and creative writing skills.

The Roles of Graphics and Visual Aids in ESL Classrooms

The incorporation of graphics with linguistic devices would enable readers to reconstruct their post-reading knowledge and express it in a second language. A study carried out by Mathew and Alidmat (2013) also revealed that majority of the students (73.3%) found the need of integrating visual aids in ESL classroom as they can help to ease

their understanding of certain texts or words that are hard to be explained by teachers. Images or pictures that a student views on the screen can be easily comprehended and remembered by them compared to descriptive reading materials. Pillai and Vengadasamy (2010) also revealed in their study that graphics, illustrations, pictures, audio, and video are useful and effective tools in enhancing students' understanding of the literary concepts in the texts. Furthermore, graphics and visual aids are also able to arouse students' interests in learning the target language. This is evidenced by a study carried out by Yunus, Hadi and Dexter (2013) which revealed that 96.2% of the teachers demonstrated positive attitudes towards using visual aids as motivational tools to enhance students' interest in reading.

Methodology

The general purpose of this case study is to explore the use of 'Who We Are' in enhancing the rural students' ESL learning. 24 Form Four students (16 years old) from a rural secondary school in Dalat, Sarawak were selected to participate in this study through purposive sampling due to their averagely low English language proficiency level.

After a general introduction to 'Who We Are', the participants were required to accomplish a graphic narrative or comics about their community unpublished folklores in groups. Each week, the progress and change of the participants' interest in learning English language and their English language skills were recorded in the researcher's field note. After the participants had completed their project, they created a video presentation of their products by using Screencast-O-Matic, which is a digital recording of screen output. Consequently, they published their products on YouTube where the other participants' provided their comments. Upon completing the graphic narrative, the participants' perceptions on the use of 'Who We Are' in enhancing their ESL learning were collected through an open-ended questionnaire and document analysis of the researcher's field note. Pseudonyms are used when reporting the findings of this study. This is with the aim of reassuring and encouraging the participants to respond honestly as their identity and responses remained confidential (Creswell, 2013).

Findings and discussion

Primarily, this study has shown that 'Who We Are' can effectively enhance the participants' ESL learning. The results obtained are presented and discussed according to the following themes:

1. Enhancement of interest in learning English

- 2. Enhancement of English reading skills
- 3. Enhancement of English writing skills
- 4. Enhancement of English speaking skills
- 5. Enhancement of English listening skills

Enhancement of interest in learning English

The participants (95.83%) generally responded that this project has greatly enhanced their interest in learning English as this project has bridged the knowledge of their cultural background to their ESL learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) emphasized that culture does have a great role in enhancing learners' motivation in language learning when connections are made between language and culture. In addition, the students also found learning English language fun through this project as it provides authentic language learning opportunities. Some of the participants, RS2, RS3 and RS4 (pseudonyms) stated that: "We love using English to talk about our culture", "I can learn more English in this project" and "I know English better after doing this and English is fun". The aids of appealing visual images and readability make 'Who We Are' attractive to them. The language used is language used in every day conversation and is thus brief and familiar to them. These are evidenced by the responses given by RS9 and RS10: "We can learn English through 'Who We Are' as it contains more colourful pictures and simple sentence" and "I can use my daily dialogues in the comic". Besides, the participants also responded that the technology factor in this project They love using technology to create their project presentation and was interesting. consequently upload them on YouTube. The technological support has greatly enhanced their presentation skills. These are evidenced by the responses given by RS11, RS13 and RS19: "Screencast makes our presentation skills better", "Screencast is a cool technology and I love it", and "I like to use Screencast in this project as it is a new thing to me". This coincides with a study carried out by Maslawati, Azura, Supyan, and Zaini (2013) whereby it found out that technological supports can effectively improve one's reading, writing and presentation skills.

Based on the researcher's field note, it can be noted that the participants developed more interest in learning English when they were working collaboratively with their peers in groups to normal classes where they read textbooks or write essays. The participants were more active, engaged and they asked more questions and talked more. They played their assigned roles in each group effectively. This is akin to Pishol and Kaur (2015) where they contributed the success of using graphic novel in ESL classroom to collaborative learning experience among peers. The participants also actively participated in giving feedbacks and comments to their peers' video presentation on YouTube. This concurs with Maslawati's (2015) article which illustrated that online gadget and internet could enhance students' communication and learning. The students would be effectively motivated in learning when they are learning together with their peers through technological supports as they could get immediate responses from their peers for the problems that they have encountered. This also suits the characteristics of 21st century learning which greatly emphasize on technological supports and collaboration in learning.

Enhancement of English reading skills

Generally, the participants (95.83%) responded positively on the use of 'Who We Are' to enhance their reading skills. They stated that extensive reading done on both printed and online materials prior to drafting their graphic projects has enhanced their skills of extracting the main ideas from the lengthy texts. These are evidenced by the written responses given by RS7 and RS13:"We read a lot and try to scan for important details before we draw our comics" and "I read and I take down notes. Then I use the notes to do my comics". They have learnt how to skim and scan for important details by employing mind mapping strategy ("I use mind maps to organize the information before I create my story"). This coincides with Padang and Gurning (2014) who stated that mind maps work well in improving students' understanding of a topic by functioning as an effective visual design that enables them to see the relationship between ideas. They love reading their peers' projects as well as it requires less effort to read due to the aids of the visual images which could help them to infer in their reading. RS14 and RS20 stated that: "I enjoy reading comics when I see those colourful pictures" and "I like the comics with many colourful pictures. I like it". This is in parallel with Tiemensma (2009) who claimed that the format of picture and text in comics can hold a person's attention longer as the messages of the comics are often available in short and readable texts and with the aids of visual images which are more appealing than traditional text.

Based on the researcher's field note, it can be noted that the participants have employed different types of mind maps in analyzing and organizing the information that they had obtained through extensive reading before working on their projects. This is in line with the i-Think programme which is introduced by the Ministry of Education Malaysia and Agensi Inovasi Malaysia (AIM). This programme encourages the use of eight types of thinking maps (circle map, bubble map, double bubble map, flow map, tree map, brace map, multi-flow map and bridge map) in the learning process in order to promote critical, analytical and creative thinking skills among both teachers and students.

Enhancement of English writing skills

The participants (100%) demonstrated a positive attitude towards the use of this project in enhancing their writing skills. They found generating written dialogues in their projects interesting as they could write with their creativity. These are found in the responses given by RS5 and RS20: *"We imagine and write. I can write creatively"* and *"I like to create dialogues for my characters. I write dialogues with many ideas"*. They could also use images to support the expression of their ideas which can be hardly developed through writing. RS22 and RS25 stated that: *"I use words and pictures to tell stories"* and *"I don't write a lot because I like to use drawings to tell my story"*. The participants also stated that creating this project has helped them to develop various skills such as analyzing and synthesizing information and transfer them to comics"). This coincides with Courtis (2008) who claimed that composing a comic involves a range of skills and cognitive processes which include organizing, analyzing and synthesizing information. These can be found in their responses below:

Based on the researcher's field note, it can be noted that the participants showed great commitment and interest in generating the dialogues for their characters. They looked up the suitable English words to substitute their Malay and Melanau words in both printed and online dictionaries. They also consulted the teacher's help and used Google search engine to look for the suitable English words that they could write in their dialogues. They organized their written ideas and generated their storyline with the aids of mind maps. This conforms to Yunus and Chan (2016) who found in their study that mind mapping technique was perceived by students as an effective tool in enhancing their writing ability and organizing their ideas. The students had been putting much effort in generating interesting dialogues as they knew that they were writing for real readers. This is in line with Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory which advocates that language learning progress can be enhanced when social interaction and learners' cultural elements are integrated in learning (Vygotsky, 1978).

Enhancement of English speaking skills

The participants (95.83%) also responded positively to the use of this project to enhance their speaking skills. Their speaking skills have also been greatly enhanced by

participating in group discussion. They have learnt the skills of expressing ideas clearly, negotiating with confidence and exchanging ideas with courtesy. These are evidenced by the responses given by RS16 and RS21: "*I learn how to exchange ideas with others with confidence*" and "*I learn how to discuss in groups*."

Based on the researcher's field note, the participants had developed more confidence in their speaking. Their voice projection was clear and audibly loud despite the fact that there were still some grammatical errors and mispronunciation of certain English words in their video presentations. Furthermore, they were able to clearly narrate the storyline of their graphic narrative compared to their previous draft presentation whereby there were still uncertainties in the narration of their storyline. This is in line with Nugroho (2011) who stated that comic strips can effectively enhance the students' speaking skill in telling a recount text. Besides, they were able to speak more fluently in the video presentations when being compared to their previous oral presentation where fluency was not noticeable.

Enhancement of English listening skills

Most of the participants (91.67%) demonstrated a positive attitude towards the use of 'Who We Are' in enhancing their listening skills. Their listening skills had been enhanced by taking into their peers' oral suggestion into consideration during discussion and consequently transferring them to their project storyline. (*"We listen to each other and take down their main idea"*). They have learnt how to identify main ideas through their peers' sharing. Besides, they could identify the mispronunciation of certain English words by constantly listening to their own video presentation. (*"We listen to our videos for many times to check if our pronunciation is correct and clear"*).

Based on the researcher's field note, the participants were able to listen to their peers' video presentation and consequently provide comments and feedback. The participants were able to comprehend the main ides of their peers' graphic narrative as well as to identify their peers' mispronunciation of certain words by listening to their video and oral presentations. This conforms to Philip (2000) who also agreed that stories are excellent sources of developing the main idea and a source of knowledge. This is because good stories can hold a person's attention for a longer duration. This would help him or her to pinpoint the main ideas of a story.

Conclusion

Generally, the responses of the participants indicate an overwhelming support for using 'Who We Are' as a pedagogical tool to enhance their ESL learning. The integration of the participants' familiar culture and technological supports in this project might have promoted an active learning process among the participants. This conforms to Van Haren's (2010) study where she found out that the students felt motivated to present their research using technological tools and digital media. Sofi (2015) also claimed that incorporating multimedia, such as, movies, graphic novels and songs might prove to be successful in turning the traditional classrooms to communicative and student-centered classrooms. It yields an encouraging learning outcome as the students demonstrated a high level of engagement when integrating ICT skills in their presentation.

Thus, 'Who We Are' can be seen as a springboard for English teachers towards a more student-centred teaching and learning process. According to Van Wyk (2011), comics enhanced constructive learning, cooperative learning and collaborative learning among peers. As proven by this project, comics and graphic novels require students to do all the work while the teacher only monitors students' progress as well as the technical aspect of the language. This is indeed in line with the characteristics of 21st century learning whereby it requires the integration of ICT literacy, collaboration, self-direction, social and cross-cultural skills, and media literacy in the teaching and learning process.

References

- Aimin, L. (2013). The study of second language acquisition under socio-cultural theory. *American Journal of Educational Research* 1(5): 162-167
- Akram, M., and Ghani, M. (2013). The relationship of socioeconomic status with language learning motivation. *International Journal of English and Education*, *2*(2), 406-413.
- Bendix F. R. and Rokem H. G. (2012). *The Institutionalization of Folklore*. New Jersey: Willy-Blackwell.
- Courtis, A. (2008). *Tech Module: Using Comic Life in the classroom*. Retrieved on 20th March, 2015 from: <u>http://cnx.org/contents/xzq3jocL@1/Tech-Module-Using-Comic-Life-i</u>
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage.

- Farah, N. N., Syamsul, B. Z. and Norshuhada (2014). Exploring Digital comics as an Edutainment Tool: An overview. *Proceedings of the Knowledge Management International Conference (KMICe)*, 2014 (pp. 589-594). Langkawi, Malaysia.
- Faulkner, G. (2009). *Digital comics spur student's interest in writing*. Retrieved on 29th July 2016 from <u>http://www.nwp.org/cs/public/print/resource/2811</u>
- Gardner, R. C., and Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning* .Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Gobel, P. (2011). Attributions to Success and Failure in English Language Learning: A Comparative Study of Urban and Rural Students in Malaysia. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 9(2), 53-62.
- Khattak, Z. I., Jamshed, T., Ahmad, A., and Baig, M. N. (2011). An investigation into the causes of English language learning anxiety in students at AWKUM. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *15*, 1600-1604.
- Hamzah (2014) English Proficiency in Malaysia: Time for urgent action. Retrieved on 15th May, 2015 from <u>https://dinmerican.wordpress.com/2014/01/07/english-proficiency-in-malaysia-time-for-urgent-action/</u>
- Lantolf, J., and Thorne, S. L. 2007. Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. In.B. van Patten and J. Williams (eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition*. 201-224.
- Maslawati, M. (2015). *Gajet, Internet Sumber Rujukan Pelajar Abad 21.Berita Harian (Segmen Rencana)*, Retrieved on 7th August, 2016 from <u>http://myrepositori.pnm.gov.my/handle/123456789/3981</u>
- Maslawati, M., Azura, O., Supyan, H., and Zaini, A. (2013). Evaluating the effectiveness of e-learning in language classrooms. *Humanities, 3, 4*.112-117
- Mathew, N. G., and Alidmat, A. O. H. (2013). A study on the usefulness of audio-visual aids in EFL classroom: Implications for effective instruction. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2(2), 86-92.
- Nugroho, D. B. S. (2011). Using Comic Strips to Improve the Speaking Skill of the Eighth Graders of SMP Negeri 10 Malang. SKRIPSI Jurusan Sastra Inggris-Fakultas Sastra UM. Retrieved on 16th August, 2015 from <u>http://karyailmiah.um.ac.id/index.php/sastra-inggris/article/view/14916</u>
- Padang, J. S. M., and Gurning, B. (2014). Improving students' achievement in writing descriptive text through mind mapping strategy. *Register Journal of English Language Teaching of FBS-Unimed*, 3(2).

- Phillips , L. (2000)Storytelling : The seeds of children's creativity , Early Childhood AustrailaInc: *Austraila Journal of Early Childhood* , *25 (3)*, 1-5.
- Pillai, S. and Vengadasamy, R. (2010). Developing Understanding and Appreciation of Literature and Critical Reading Concepts through Multimodal Approaches. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research 6*. 133-166.
- Pishol Shahida and Kaur Sarjit. (2015). Teacher and students' perceptions of reading a graphic novel using the multiliteracies approach in an ESL classroom. *Malaysian Journal ofLearning and Instruction*, *12*: 21-47
- Recine, D. (2013). Comics Aren't Just For Fun Anymore: The Practical Use of Comics by TESOL Professionals (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-River Falls).
- Siti, S. C.and Yunus M. M.(2014). Attitudes and Motivation Towards Learning English Among FELDA School Students. *Aust. J. Basic and Appl. Sci.*, *8*(5): 1-8.
- Sofi, L. A. (2015.) *Teaching English in Saudi Arabia through the Use of Multimedia*. University of San Francisco.
- Tiemensma, L. (2009). Visual literacy: To comics or not to comics? Promoting literacy using comics. *In World Library and Information Congress: 75th IFLA General Conference and Council*, Milan, Italy.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Van Haren, R. (2010). Engaging learner diversity through learning by design. *E-learning and Digital Media*, 7(3), 258-271.
- Van Wyk, M.M. (2011). The Use of Cartoons as a Teaching Tool to Enhance Student Learning in Economics Education. *Journal of Social Sciences*, *26*(2): 117-130.
- Wreikat, Y. A., Kabilan, M. K., and Abdullah, A. C. (2014). The Rural Learning Environment and Pupils' Learning of the English Language. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 22(1), 35 - 56.
- Yunus, M. M., and Chan, H. C (2016). The Use of Mind Mapping Strategy in Malaysian University English Test (MUET) Writing. *Creative Education*, 7(04), 619-626.
- Yunus, M. M., Hadi, S, Asnarita, T., Syarifah, F.S. and Sri Shalini. (2011). Using Digital Comics in Teaching ESL Writing. Wseas. us, 53-58.
- Yunus, M.M., Hadi, S. and Amin, E. (2012). Effects of using digital Comics to improve ESL writing. *Research Journal of Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology*, 4(18): 3462-3469
- Yunus, M.M., Hadi, S., and Dexter, S.J. (2013). Using Visual Aids as a Motivational Tool in

Enhancing Students Interest in Reading Literary Texts. *Recent Advances in Educational Technologies*.114-117.

Zimmerman, B. (2010). Using Digital Comics for Language Learning. eLearn Magazine. Retrieved on 5th May, 2016 from <u>http://elearnmag.acm.org/archive.cfm?aid=1710033</u>

Title

Mispronouncing Spelling-to-Sound Words by Indonesian College Students: A Study on Phonology

Author

Dangin & Nurvita Wijayanti Sanata Dharma University Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Dangin and **Nurvita Wijayanti** got their master on Humaniora from Sanata Dharma University. They have different stream; the former is in education and the latter is in linguistics. They can be contacted at <u>dangin_forphd@yahoo.co.id</u> and <u>vita_janejana@yahoo.com</u>.

Abstract

This present study was aimed to investigate mispronouncing spelling-to-sound words by three groups of Indonesian university students from English education study program (freshmen, sophomores, and junior college students). The phenomenon of phonological error as the common sense in pronouncing the words not only happened among freshmen but also among the sophomores and junior college levels. In order to get the data, the respondents were given word lists that contained a number of words and then asked to pronounce them. These words were suspected as common mistakes pronounced by respondents. For example the word 'examine' is pronounced the same as the word 'mine', the word 'surface' is pronounced as 'face'. Then, in-depth interview was used to find out the learner's consideration pronouncing the words. In this study, the result revealed that the English learners tended to pronounce the words that referred to other words that contained the same orthography. By means of cross-sectional design, this study randomly selected 75 students divided into three groups. The study found that there were significant gradations among the groups. The amount of mispronouncing was in line with the level of those three groups. The lower the level the more frequent mispronunciation occurred.

Keywords: phonological study, freshmen, sophomores, junior college, mispronouncing, spelling-to-sound

Introduction

Mastery of spoken English is very transparent that means people can be easily recognized if they speak good English or not. It is by making them produce some English utterances (Alip, 2016). To be able to produce an utterance in English, foreign learner should be aware of the suprasegmental and pronunciation issue occupied in a single English word. The suprasegmental elements contain proper stress, intonation, and rhythm. Those three elements are significant for pronouncing an English word properly.

However, only considering suprasegmental aspect is not enough for a foreign learner to pronounce an English word properly. Proper pronunciation holds an important role for foreign learner to be able to produce good English. This fact leads to the realization that not all foreign learners are aware of this fact. They tend to ignore the suprasegmental information and to be worse, they also ignore the proper pronunciation for the sake of simplification (Finegan, 2004), fossilization (Finegan, 2004), and overgeneralization (Baldawi & Saidat, 2011).

Morphophonology is the key to solve the problem. To produce a good pronunciation, it is needed to consider the combination of morphology and phonology. In this case of *divine* and *divinity*, it needs to consider the phonological and derivational process. When *divine* [aI] gets a suffix –ity in *divinity* [I], the pronunciation and the length of vowel [aI] becomes different (Giegerich, 1991).

Literature Review

In this study, spelling-to-sound words are introduced as the result of inconsistency of words. Furthermore, Lee (2008) gives the examples in the words *made, jade* and *lade* that are pronounced the same while the words *wave* and *have* are not the same. There is a consistency effect in the word body -AVE and -ADE that the ease of pronouncing a word depends on the relative consistency of the pronunciation of the letter patterns in the words.

Spelling-to-sound is introduced in order to analyze the phenomena in phonology. The difficulty of pair of words with similar spelling and different pronunciations is consistent

with the view that phonological recoding takes place in part via spelling-sound rules (Treiman, 1983).

These two theories support the phenomena that one sound can influence another sound when the spelling is similar. However, the influence can be inconsistent as it depends on the relative consistency of the pronunciation and the letter patterns in the words. In this paper, not only the sound does influence another sound, but also a single sound as phoneme influences another sound that is part of the words. The example shows that the word *mine* [aI] should not influence the word *examine* since this word pronounces as [ig'zæm.In].

Methodology

The present study was intended to analyze students' mispronouncing of spelling-tosound words. For this reason, mixed-method study was adopted to gather the expected data. *Respondents*

The respondents of the present study were three groups of Indonesian university students from English education program (freshmen, sophomore, and junior college students). From those populations, the present study randomly chose 20% of each level of students, which were assumed as representative respondents. Thereafter there were 75 students divided into three groups partook in the present study.

Materials

The present study deliberately opted for particular list of words presupposed as spelling-to-sound words. These words contained one single phoneme that influenced another word that has same part as that single phoneme.

Procedures

The present study covered three main stages. The initial stage was materials selection. In this stage there were lists of words deliberately considered as the representative of spelling-to-sound words. The following stage was data gathering. The data were collected quantitatively and qualitatively. Ultimately the data were analyzed and discussed.

Findings and Discussion

Table.1. The participants' incorrect pronunciation

	Correct	Participants'	Affecti-	percentage		
words	pronunciati	pronunciation	ng words	Fresh-	Sopho-	junior
	on		worus			

				men	more	
Preface	/'pref·əs/	/prifeis/	Face	85 %	78 %	70 %
Cowardice	/ˈkaʊədɪs/	/ˈkaʊədɑɪs/	Dice	80 %	75 %	70 %
Caprice	/kə'priːs/	/kə'praıs/	Price	75 %	68 %	65 %
Designate	/'dez.ig.neit/	/dɪˈzaɪneit/	Design	65 %	62 %	58 %
Surface	/'sɜr·fəs/	/sərfeis/	Face	65 %	63 %	60 %
Opposite	/'ap·ə·zɪt/	/'ap·əsaıt/	Site	41 %	36 %	30 %
Novice	/'nav·əs/	/'navais/	Vice	35 %	30 %	25 %

Above table shows the distribution of percentage on how the three levels of college students pronounce the available words. The most error frequency is the word *preface* [əs] that is influenced by the word *face* [eI]. The second most error is the word *cowardice* [Is] that is influenced by the single phoneme *dice* [aI]. The level of error that is conducted by the college students and their level of study seem in line according to the table. Freshmen, as the youngest of the three, are in 85% of error frequency in reading *preface* and 80% for *cowardice*. It also happens to sophomores and junior that each has 78 % and 70% for the first word while 75% and 70% for the latter.

Study's feedback

The following sentences are the most answer of the students when they were asked related "the factors that affected their mispronunciation".

- Answer 1: I pronounced "preface" similar to "face" because I think they have similar sound.
- Answer 2: I pronounced that words similar to the single words because I think they have I think there was no difference between both words so I think I don't need to check dictionary.

From those findings, the study could provide feedback for the students. The error rank interview data indicated that they tended to overgeneralize, simplify and fossilize the spelling-to-sound words. For instance, answer 1 and 2 indicated that they tended to overgeneralize the rule of those spelling-to-sound words. It means that the students need to

be self-corrected leaners. They need to check the dictionary because there are various phonological rules in English language.

Conclusions

As it is seen in the result table, the foreign learners tend to pronounce the word based on what they know as the familiar word or morpheme and when they meet the word that has the same spelling as the familiar morpheme, they pronounce it with the same sound or phoneme. The familiarity leads to what so call overgeneralization, simplification, and fossilization. As the college students especially in English department, it is highly recommended to fight for overgeneralization, simplification, and fossilization by actively consult the dictionary and self-checking. For further study, it is recommended to analyze the formula of the phenomena.

References

Al-Baldawi, W. N., & Ahmad, M. S. (2011). "LINGUISTIC OVERGENERALIZATION: A CASE STUDY." International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences 1: 184-93. HRMARS. Web. <u>http://www.hrmars.com/admin/pics/103.pdf</u>

Alip, F.B. (2016). Language: theory, acquisition and application. Yogyakrta: sanata

- Coltheart, Max, Kathleen Rastle, Conrad Perry, Robyn Langdon, and Johannes Ziegler. "DRC: A Dual Route Cascaded Model Of Visual Word Recognition And Reading Aloud." *Psychological Review*: 204-56. Web. 12 Jan. 2015. http://psiexp.ss.uci.edu/research/teachingP140C/Papers/Coltheart_etal_2001.pdf
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research. 4th ed. Boston: Pearson,. Print.
- Ellis, R. (1997). Second Language Acquisition. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford UP. Print.
- Finegan, E. (2004). Language: Its Straucture and Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Giegerich, H. J. (1991). *English Phonology: an introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press
- Lee, Chia-Ying. "Rethinking of the Regularity and Consistency Effects in Reading." Language and Linguistics.9.1 (2008): 177-186. \
- Treimen, R. (1983). Phonological recording and use of spelling-sound rules in reading of sentences. *Journal of verbal learning and verbal behavior* 22, 682-700.

Title

Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and Strengthening Students' Language Proficiency

Author

Deby Irawan Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

BioProfile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Deby Irawan is a master student at the Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, majoring English for education. His research interest and current publications are in the areas of culture issue in ELT material, second language acquisition, and ICT-based teaching instruction. He can be reached at <u>debyirawan@outlook.com</u>.

Abstract

This study is aimed at (1) analyzing the current situation of English teaching in an Islamic University along with (2) the needs of the lecturer, students, and policy maker related to the expected teaching activity. Furthermore, this study is also aimed at (3) developing a syllabus of English Reading course in an Islamic institution by considering the issue of Islamic culture. By a case study design, needs and situation analyses were enrolled to gather necessary data from the students, lecturer, and policy maker. The findings indicate that (1) the institution has gathered a policy related to the Islamic culture content in teaching activity, yet still not operational for human resource issue. The policy appears to urge the inducement of Islamic culture in teaching activity as in order to have Islamic culture well-informed graduates. The students also stated that (2) they learning progress is slow for the unfamiliar text topic selection in reading course problem. The end product of this study is (3) a syllabus of an English reading course which has an adequate portion of Western and Islamic culture topic selection. By this, the students are expected to have a strong Islamic ideology basis and a good English language proficiency.

Keywords: culture and language, reading skill, needs and situational analyses, syllabus

Dr. Setiabudi Street 229 Bandung 40154 West Java - Indonesia

Introduction

This study is a response to the teaching policy miss-conduct in an Islamic university. It aims to examine the currently used reading course syllabus, students' opinion about the syllabus related to the culture augmentation in the teaching, and also the lecturer's belief and opinion in relation to the syllabus development. This study also aims to analyze the needs of the students, lecturer, and the policy makers related to culture-based language teaching. The analysis result then is used to develop a syllabus which considers the usage of culture in teaching reading.

A number of research suggest the application of language teaching materials nativization. It is reported as having numbers of positive effects. Some studies reported that providing a culture friendly materials can raise students' comprehension (Ibrahim, 2013; Tavakoli, Shirinbakhsh, & Rezazadeh, 2013). Meanwhile, others reported it as raising students' motivation (Liton, 2012; Nemati, Marzban, & Maleki, 2014). The application of culture-based language teaching in the concept of intercultural is also reported as enabling students to understand target language culture by using their culture as the filter which makes them more tolerance (Turvey, Yandell, & Ali, 2012). However, a misconduct of this culture-based language teaching might lead to demotivation of the students (Tavakoli et al., 2013).

Literature review

Needs analysis is the center of this research. The application is closely related to ESP. The results of the analysis are used to customize the teaching materials and or classroom activities. However, the issue in this study seems to have its own position between EGP and ESP. It makes the needs analysis procedures can be focused on a discrete aspect (see McGrath, 2002 for the analysis aspects). It is in line with Barnard and Zemach (2003) who pointed out that ESP should not be treated as a discrete division in ELT.

This research position as between ESP and EGP also affects the way the syllabus is developed. As in language courses, the content of a syllabus can be divided into linguistic and subject matters (Krahnke, 1987). Linguistic matter covers the skill focuses and the language features which is also known as linguistic schema (Ketchum, 2006). This aspect, however, can be assigned to the lecturers' decision. The subject maters, on the other hand, covers the topics in which the teaching of the skill and the language features are mediated. The realization can be done by reflecting to the needs and situational analyses results of the

students which include the information about the prior knowledge, culture, and education (Bock, 2006; Chang, 2006; Jalilifar & Assi, 2008).

The decision of the content selection above is based on an assumption that someone would talk more about things he knows and interests with. The usage of the students' culture in teaching reading might give them a more meaningful learning (Liddicoat, 2011). While the students are eased in comprehending the texts, it is expected that the skills and language features are well-internalized in the process. However, the foreign culture cannot be simply detached and replaced with the native culture of the students (Alptekin, 2002). The best possible ways is that through intercultural concept where the teaching of English is contextualized to local culture while still preserving some of the target language culture (Turvey et al., 2012).

Methodology

This study is qualitative in nature by employing case study research design. However, some data were also analyzed quantitatively. The data were collected by document analysis, questionnaires, and interviews. The participants include a reading course lecturer, students of the reading course, and a policy maker. In addition, two syllabi and a policy document of the institution were also analyzed as data sources.

Findings and discussion

The findings can be divided in three main discussions i.e. (1) the current culture-based language teaching application, (2) the needs of students, lecturer, and institution in relation to culture augmentation in teaching activity, and (3) syllabus that can be provided by considering the needs and situational analyses results. The results indicate that the current teaching activity did not induce any Islamic culture materials. It is reflected in the syllabus which is supported by the students' opinion of the current teaching activity, and the lecturer belief about culture-based language teaching.

The results of the needs analysis, in the other hand, indicate that the students demand the usage of Islamic culture in the teaching of reading for a number of reasons. Those reasons are (1) to ease their understanding, (2) maintain their reading interest, and (3) fulfill their expectation of enlisting in Islamic institution. The policy actually has already mandated such culture-based language teaching. It requires any teaching in the institution to always induce Islamic culture. It is necessary as supporting the institution to create Islamic future scientist. The application, however, is obstructed by the lecturer who are not into culture-based language teaching. The lecturer believes that the teaching of reading should only focus on the skill.

The end product of this study is a syllabus of an English reading course which has an adequate portion of Western and Islamic culture topic selection. The core materials which cover the skill focuses and the linguistic matters are adapted from the lecturer's current syllabus. Meanwhile, the topics are selected according to the needs analysis result which are supplemented by texts with intercultural consideration. It is expected that the students will have a strong Islamic ideology basis and a good English language proficiency.

Conclusion

This study concludes that the institution needs to adopt culture-based language teaching. The policy has already demand the augmentation of Islamic culture in every teaching activity. It is also supported by the students who expect to learn English while talk about Islamic culture. The human (lecturer) issue in the application can be managed by giving a clear definition of culture-based language teaching along with developing a good supervising system which can be started by formulating a well-stated learning outcome in department level.

References

- Alptekin, C. (2002). Toward intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal*, *56*(1), 57–64.
- Barnard, R., & Zemach, D. (2003). Materials for specific purposes. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing materials for language teaching* (pp. 306–323). London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Bock, T. (2006). A consideration of culture in moral theme comprehension: Comparing native and European American students. *Journal of Moral Education*, *35*(1), 71–87.
- Chang, C. (2006). Effects of topic familiarity and linguistic difficulty on the reading strategies and mental representations of nonnative readers of Chinese. *Journal of Language and Learning*, *4*(2), 172–198.
- Ibrahim, M. S. (2013). The effect of cultural background knowledge on learning English language. *International Journal of Science Culture and Sport*, 1(4), 22–32.
- Jalilifar, A. R., & Assi, R. (2008). The role of cultural nativization in comprehension of short stories in EFL reading contexts. *The International Journal of Language Society and Culture*, 26, 62–79.

- Ketchum, E. M. (2006). The cultural baggage of second language reading: An approach to understanding the practices and perspectives of a non-native product. *Foreign Language Annuals*, *39*(1), 22–42.
- Krahnke, K. (1987). *Approaches to syllabus design for foreign language teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Liddicoat, A. J. (2011). Language teaching and learning from an intercultural perspective. In
 E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 837–855). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Liton, H. A. (2012). Developing EFL teaching and learning practices in Saudi colleges: A review. *International Journal of Instruction*, *5*(2), 129–152.
- McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Nemati, A., Marzban, A., & Maleki, E. (2014). The role of intercultural competence in foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2(6-1), 8–12.
- Tavakoli, M., Shirinbakhsh, S., & Rezazadeh, M. (2013). Effect of cultural adaptation on EFL reading comprehension: The role of narrative nativization on foreign language attitude. *World Applied Science Journal*, 21(11), 1587–1596.
- Turvey, A., Yandell, J., & Ali, L. (2012). English as a site of cultural negotiation and contestation. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *11*(3), 26–44.
 The syllabus can be downloaded at <u>http://bit.ly/2cYRYYP</u>.

The EFL Professional's Written Form

Title

Multimodal Text For Engineering Student

Author

Desi Tri Cahyaningati dtricahyaningati@yahoo.com

Abstract

ASIAN

OURNAL

One of the challenges in the digital era is the rapid evolution of reading material from printed text to multimodal text which are highly visual because they integrate diverse modes of representation. Unfortunately, this challenge has not got significant attention during English teaching in Engineering classroom. The learning and teaching process in the classroom is still focusing the use of English text book which does not involve a range of modes. Therefore, this paper tries to justify the need to use multimodal text in English teaching for Engineering students. By integrating different learning modalities into classroom, English teachers may accommodate students differences in learning style specially those who have visual intelligence. Moreover, this study advocates the importance to re-conceptualizes the English teaching in Engineering classroom through multimodal practices that involves the opportunity to use the technology in language learning. Advancement in multimedia technology have created possibilities for integrating different modes into a textbook. Therefore, the aim of this paper is also to explore the practical applications used in implementing multimodal text in Engineering English classroom.

Key Words: Multimodal Text, multimedia technology, reading comprehension

Introduction

In the digital era, technology plays an important role in our daily life including in our language teaching. As the consequence, every modern language teacher will face new challenges in implementing technology throughout the learning process. One of the challenges is the rapid evolution of reading material from printed text to visual, electronic, or digital text. Thus, English teachers should be aware that the fast changing of information

technology has already shifted the use of traditional or printed text to multimodal text. By technology, students can access any information not only in the form of printed text, but also in the form of multimodal text.

Much research has been performed in investigating the use of linear text (monomode printed text) as opposed to multimodal text in extensive reading or intensive reading program. Mostly the result of those research are showing positive effect to the students' English proficiency (e.g., Day & Bamford, 2002; Rodrigo et al., 2007; Meng, 2009; Alzubi', 2014; Peel, 2015) However, little has been investigated concerning the effect of interacting with English multimodal text on English learners' development of English proficiency. Therefore this study try to justify the need of multimodal text for Englineering students.

Why Using Multimodal Text?

There are some reasons why the writer believes that multimodal should be used as the source of extensive reading program in increasing students' reading skills. First, every student has different learning style. As suggested by Gardner (1991) about multiple intelligences that students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways. Therefore, English teachers should accommodate students differences by integrating different learning modalities into classroom.

Second, teaching English for higher education especially for engineering students can not be separated from the fast advancement of multimedia technology. This condition has created the possibilities for the English teachers to integrate different modes such as images, words, colors and audio into textbook. They can select reading materials by using the available technology such as internet, smartphone, computer or other technology commonly used by the students. Third, the advantage of using multimodal text from internet in learning English is proven significant. A study on extensive reading through the Internet done by Pinto-Silva (2006) found that students could gain access to hundreds of newer and interesting articles.

Multimodal texts are those texts that have more than one 'mode' so that meaning is communicated through a synchronisation of modes (Walsh, 2006). It means that multimodal texts may combine spoken or written language, still or moving images. Furthermore, multimodal texts may also be produced on paper or electronic screen and may incorporate sound. Bearne (2007) describes any multimodal text might combine elements of: gesture, movement, posture, facial expression images, sound, writing. Thus, based on those definition of multimodal text, it can be concluded that there are two types of multimodal text; the printed text and non-printed text.

The printed multimodal text means the text which not only present letters but also pictures for example *picture books, information books, newspapers and magazines*. Non-printed multimodal text, off course, will automatically involve the use of multimedia technology such as internet and computer. The text will appear on screen rather than printed. Good examples of digital media are CD ROOMs or DVDs and texts through electronic screen such as e-mails and internet.

Implementing Multimodal Text

To activate the students' schemata, Extensive reading (ER) program has been advocated by many researchers (Wallace, 1992; McCarthy & Carter, 1994, Bamford & Day, 2002). It means that students' prior knowledge (schemata) can be boosted by a lot of reading in Extensive Reading program. Therefore, this study tries to bring the multimodal text in Engineering classroom by ER program. By this program students will receive extensive input to develop their language proficiency.

The attempts to implement multimodal text in the ER program for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) students should consider the reading materials suitable with students' background knowledge. The reasons of this study in using multimodal text from authentic materials during ER program are supported by many researches. Gilmore (2007) states that authentic materials are believed to generate greater interest among teachers, students and even publishers than do traditionally structured materials. Floris (2008) points out the necessity for incorporating authentic materials in the course design because they are more motivating, and engaging, and relevant to students' lives.

However, the quality of reading input influences reading development in a foreign language. Since there are so many authentic materials available on the internet, teacher should be careful in selecting the appropriate input for ESP students. Krashen (1982) and other reading specialists have drawn attention to the disadvantages of "broad" input for second language and foreign language teaching. It means that teachers should select readings with closely related topics. In theory, readings with such features are termed narrow reading.

This study would focus on the use of narrow reading as an intervention to help ESP students acquire meaningful input of reading materials suitable with their needs. Narrow reading describes a series of readings arranged around a related topic. Krashen (1985) argues that reading in a single topic, or a particular informational area has the advantage of a

familiar context, that is, familiar background knowledge that helps make texts more comprehensible. This study would like to select some specific topics of multimodal texts which are suitable with students' background knowledge as an engineer. It is assumed that each topic has its own vocabulary, and narrow reading on those specific topics can provide ESP learners many exposures to language items in meaningful contexts.

Conclusion

English teachers should be aware that the fast changing of information technology has already shifted the use of traditional or printed text to multimodal text. Therefore, multimodal text should be used as the source of extensive reading program in increasing students' reading skills.

Selecting materials in extensive reading program is very crucial since the quality of reading input influences reading development in a foreign language. In this study, authentic materials are chosen as the effective materials because it is believed to generate greater interest among teachers and students. However, narrow reading on those specific topics can provide ESP learners many exposures to language items in meaningful contexts

References

- Alzu'bi, Mohammad Akram. (2014) The Effects of an Extensive Reading Program on Improving English as Foreign Language Proficiency in University Level Education. English Language Teaching. 7 (1), 28-35
- Bearne, Eve and Helen Wolstencroft. (2007). *Visual Approaches to Teaching Writing*. UK: Paul Chapman Publising
- Day, R., &Bamford, J. (2002).Top ten principles for teaching extensive reading.Reading in a Foreign Language 14(2), 136-141.
- Floris, F. (2008). Developing English for general academic purposes (EGAP) course in an Indonesian university. K@ta, 10(1), 53-62. Retrieved from <u>http://puslit2.petra.ac.id/ejournal/index.php/ing/article/shop/16759/16740</u>
- Gilmore, A. (2007). Authentic materials and authenticity in foreign language learning. Language Teach, 40, 97-118.
- Gardner, H. (1991). The unschooled mind: How children think and how schools should teach. New York: Basic Books.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). The case for narrow readings. TESOL Newsletter. 12, 23.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman.

- Meng, Fanshao. (2009). Developing Students' Reading Ability through Extensive Reading. English Language Teaching, 2(2), 132-137
- Paul, Mamta. 2013. Top 20 Engineering Websites. Retrieved from http://www.durofy.com/top-20-engineering-websites/June, 26, 2016
- Pinto-Silva, J. (2006). Extensive reading through the Internet: Is it worth the while? Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 6(1), 85-96. Retrieved from <u>http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/silva/article.pdf</u>
- Rodrigo, V., Greenberg, D., Burke, V., Hall, R., Berry, A., Brinck, T., et al. (2007).Implementing an extensive reading program and library for adult literacy learners.Reading in a Foreign Language, 19(2), 106-119
- Susser, B., & Robb, T. N. (1990).EFL Extensive reading instruction: Research and procedure. JALT Journal 12(2) 161-185
- Wallace, C. (1992). Reading. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Walsh, M. (2006). Reading visual and multimodal texts: how is 'reading' different? Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 29, 24-37.
- Williams, R. (1986). "Top ten" principles for teaching reading.ELT Journal40(1), 42-45.

Title

The Potential of Using Visual Aids in Reading Literary Texts

Author

Dexter Sigan John and Melor Md Yunus Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Dexter Sigan John teaches English in a rural school in Betong, Sarawak, East Malaysia. He loves using available technology in his classroom to engage students in their learning process. Young and ambitious, Dexter has a passion for teaching and he himself hails from Kapit. He can be reached at dextersigan_john@yahoo.com

Melor Md. Yunus is an Associate Professor of TESL at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She holds a Ph.D. in Education (TESL) from the University of Bristol, UK. Her areas of concentration are TESL, language pedagogy and the use of technology in TESL. She can be reached at melor@ukm.edu.my

Abstract

Literature is a vital component in second language courses as it supports language development and cultural enrichment. Thus, the literature component has been incorporated in the Malaysian English Language Curriculum. However, the loss of reading interest in literary texts among students causes worry to everyone. This study aims to explore the potential of using visual aids such as videos, pictures, films and projectors in motivating students to read literary texts. A mixed-method approach was used to collect the relevant data. 52 English Language teachers from seven rural national secondary schools in Kapit, Sarawak were involved in this study and five of them were interviewed to get an in-depth perception. The findings indicated that majority of the teachers demonstrated positive attitude on the use of visual aids. It was also proven to increase students' reading interest, comprehension of the texts and aids in identification of literary elements and devices. This

shows that visual aids are effective in motivating students to read literary texts. These findings are in line with the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025, which emphasises and maximises the transformative potential of ICT in education.

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM, Bangi Selangor, Malaysia.

Keywords: Visual aids, motivation, reading, literary texts, ICT

Introduction

The advent of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 has drawn special attention to the essential role of English language in Malaysian schools. Even though English is officially stated and taught as a second language, the declining standard of English proficiency among Malaysian students over the years has caused greater worry and there is a need to arrest the decline in order to produce first class human capital (Azizan & Lee, 2011; Pawanchik, 2014). In an effort to address the importance of English, the 'Upholding Bahasa Malaysia and Strengthening the English Language' policy or better known as MBMMBI was instituted. Despite upholding the rightful position of Malay language as a national language, the policy aims to enhance English proficiency among students. A series of MBMMBI initiatives was launched to strengthen the delivery of English lessons.

Nonetheless, teachers face challenges in trying to make the English language less onerous to students, and where possible to maintain the natural and enjoyment in learning it (Aliman, 2012; Ahmad & Li, 2014). The incorporation of literature component in English language syllabus is seen as the best remedy to cure the problem because it has been proven in assisting the students to grasp the target language (Nair et al., 2012). The Ministry of Education Malaysia (2013) views this matter so seriously that Literature in English module is made compulsory at both primary and secondary school levels. The Blueprint also stresses literature as a resource paradigm as it is seen as an instrument to boost English language learning.

In spite of this good effort, the complexities of the language and cultural elements embedded in the texts often at mismatch with the students' language ability. This factor thus affects students' motivation to read the literary texts (Sidhu, Chan & Kaur, 2010). Adding to that, Yunus, Salehi and John (2013) and Maimun (2014) proposed that the use of visual aids serves as a good platform for the teachers to improve students' close engagement with the

literary texts. Hence, there is an apparent need to answer the following research questions to explore the potential of using visual aids in sparking students' interest to read literary texts:

- i. What are the types of visual aids that can be used as a motivational tool in triggering students' interests' in reading literary texts?
- ii. How can the use of visual aids benefit students in reading literary texts?

Literature Review

The Rationale for Incorporating Literature in Malaysian English Classroom

Incorporating literature as part of the English language subject has been a practice in many countries including Malaysia. The main argument for integrating literature in the English syllabus is that it can raise awareness among students about how the language works (Isa & Mahmud, 2012). In particular, literature opens up the opportunity for students to learn subtle and complex uses of idioms, literary knowledge and enriches their vocabularies. Language use in different genres such as short stories, novels and poems requires students to develop the ability to infer meaning and offer various interpretations. Beneficially, students gain familiarity with many structures of written language. It is through this exposition that students can broaden and enrich their own writing skills (Sidhu et al., 2010)

Another important benefit of using literature in Malaysian secondary classroom is that it enables students to learn, understand and at the same time appreciate different cultures and ideologies presented in the texts. Rai (2012) explains that literature offers a vivid context in which characters from many social or regional backgrounds can be depicted. Thus, it provides the opportunity for the students to discover the world outside on a larger scope.

Literary texts also act as a helpful tool for encouraging students' personal growth. Personal growth, based on the National Philosophy of Education, includes physical, mental, emotion and intellect aspects (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013). According to Young (2008) reading often involves an interaction between the reader and the text. In reading literary texts, students are placed in an active role with the elements presented in the texts. For example, by reading short stories, which is categorised under the simplest level of reading, it offers enjoyment, pleasure and relaxation. Hence, it can be a source of gratification for the students because this aspect helps to mould positive attitude towards reading.

Problems in Learning Literature

One of the major problems in learning literature could be due to the text itself; the language of the text. Literary texts contain a wide range of lexical or syntactic items (Hismanoglu, 2005). This exposes students to the linguistic features in the texts such as the syntax, semantics and discourse functions of sentences. Sidhu et al. (2010) found that students often find it difficult to fully understand the texts because they have minimal linguistic and literary competency to cope with the texts. Due to the linguistic complexities, students have a tendency to focus on the less important part of the texts as they have low motivation to read more.

Cultural elements embedded in literary texts may contribute additional difficulties for students. According to Parkinson and Thomas (2000, p. 11), 'texts can be remote from learners in all sorts of ways – historically, geographically, socially and in terms of life experience'. Modern learners may find it very difficult to understand and interpret literary texts written by native English speaker of the older era because they do not have cognitive framework about the political and ideological concepts of that era. The inclusion of American literary texts in Malaysian English syllabus for instance, could lead to students' confusion partly due their absence in American society and culture concepts (Ghazali et al., 2009). These cultural challenges affect students' motivation in reading literary texts.

Benefits of Using Visual Aids in Teaching Literature

The integration of information and communication technology (ICT) in today's classrooms is not a new phenomenon. The Ministry of Education Malaysia (2013) put a greater emphasis on the use of ICT in the Blueprint because it helps to create interactive and culturally-relevant contents for students of diverse needs. Apart from that, ICT also proves to be a useful tool in teaching and learning process especially literature (Yunus & Suliman, 2014). There are numerous benefits of using visual aids in teaching literature.

Firstly, the use of visual aids in literature teaching creates authentic learning environment (Macwan, 2015). The authentic materials used in the class enable real communication to take place. Liberto (2012) examined how the use of graphic novels reinforces students' understanding of literary terms. The findings indicated that the use of graphic novels help students to easily recall all the literary terms they learnt. Their understanding encourages full participation in classroom discussion.

Secondly, using visual aids in teaching literature relieves the monotony of learning literature among students. Cakir (2006) states that visual aids like videos and films enable

students to conceptualise ideas. Students also have better understanding of the target language because they can learn the use of contextual language in videos and films. Therefore, it allows the students to have deeper thoughts of the literary texts.

Thirdly, teaching literature using visual aids can foster stronger interaction between students and the texts. Allen and Marquez (2011) state that visual aids provide stimuli to the learners which assists them to easily grasp the gist of the abstract ideas presented in the texts. Struggling readers will not be at a disadvantage as they are able to comprehend with the complexities of the texts. Hence, it generates their interests in learning and reading literary texts.

Methodology

This study used mixed-method design in which the researchers collected both quantitative and qualitative data using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Some items in questionnaire were adopted from the studies done by Subramanian, Hamdan and Koo (2003) and Hwang and Embi (2007). Then, it was pilot-tested to three pre-service teachers who had teaching experience in schools before. Findings from the Cronbach's Alpha in the reliability statistic showed .070, indicating all items were reliable. To ensure the validity of the instrument, the questionnaire was examined by two subject experts in the field of TESL and ICT.

Participants

The selection of the participants was based on convenience sampling. The participants of the study were 52 English language teachers from seven national secondary schools in Kapit, Sarawak, East Malaysia. The teaching background of these teachers was ranged from novice to experienced teachers.

Instruments

The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents with the instruction given to administer them. One-on-one interview was conducted with five teachers of different schools to obtain specific information. The data from the questionnaire were gathered and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This computer software assembled the data into the percentage and presented them in the table form.

Findings

Types of Visual Aids

This section presents types of visual aids that can be used as a motivational tool in triggering students' interest in reading literary texts. A total of four items were discussed under this section to discover teachers' views on students' preference for animation videos, pictures, films and projectors in teaching literary texts. The results are shown in Table 1.

	Strongly Disagree		Agree and Strongly Agree		
Statement	and Disagree	Uncertain			
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)		
Animation videos	1 (1.9)	8 (15.4)	43 (82.7)		
Pictures		3 (5.8)	49 (94.2)		
Films		15 (28.8)	37 (71.2)		
Projectors		14 (26.9)	38 (73.1)		

The findings showed that the teachers (94.2%) were mostly interested in using picture as they thought it was the best way to motivate the students to read the literary texts. This finding was supported by one of the respondents, who said:

"I mean even the poor students who merely pass the test, they are able to comprehend well with the text because they are capable of understanding it through pictures".

Apart from that, pictures are accessible and multifarious. However, the participants (71.1%) were least interested in using films as they perceived it was hard to find any film that was suitable with the literary texts learned in the schools. Overall, majority of the teachers, with a range from 71.1% to 94.2% had positive perceptions on the use of the four visual aids listed as the useful tools in enhancing students' interest in reading literary texts.

Benefits of Using Visual Aids to Students

This section explains the benefits of using visual aids in teaching four main components of literature which are poems, short stories, novels and plays or dramas. A total of 12 items were asked to the respondents and each component consisted of three questions which aim to identify teachers' perceptions on the benefits of visual aids in teaching literary texts to their students in terms of their students' reading interest (interest), understandability of the texts (understandable) and identification of the literary concepts used in the texts (identifiable). The summary of the result are shown in Table 2.

	Strongly		Agree and Strongly Agree	
Statement	Disagree and	Uncertain		
	Disagree	N (%)		
	N (%)		N (%)	
Poems				
Interest		3 (5.8)	49 (94.2)	
Understandable	1 (1.9)		51 (98.1)	
The literary concepts are identifiable	1 (1.9)	8 (15.4)	43 (82.7)	
Short Stories				
Interest		3 (5.98)	49 (94.2)	
Understandable	1 (1.9)		51 (98.1)	
The literary concepts are identifiable	1 (1.9)	9 (17.3)	42 (80.8)	
Novels				
Interest		4 (7.7)	48 (92.3)	
Understandable		1 (1.9)	51 (98.1)	
The literary concepts are identifiable	1 (1.9)	(1.9) 7 (13.5)		
Plays or Dramas				
Interest	1 (1.9)	4 (7.7)	47 (90.4)	
Understandable		3 (5.8)	49 (94.2)	
The literary concepts are identifiable	1 (1.9)	8 (15.4)	43 (82.7)	

Table 2: Benefits of Using Visual Aids to Students

Based on the table above, for the poem component, 49 teachers (94.2%) chose 'Agree' and 'Disagree' in relation to their students' interest in reading poem when they used visual aids in teaching it. However, 3 teachers (5.8%) were 'Uncertain'. This was probably

because the students were second language learners and this factor made it difficult to get them to really read the poem thoroughly. In terms of students' understandability of the poem, 51 teachers (98.1%) agreed and strongly agreed to it. Meanwhile, only 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in an agreement of it probably because the poem involves flowery words and contains deep meaning, thus causing difficulty to explain it assiduously using visual aids. When asked whether their students could easily identify the literary concepts of the poem with the use of visual aids, 43 teachers (82.7%) opted for 'Strongly Agree' and 'Agree'. Conversely, 8 teachers (15.4%) had chosen 'Uncertain' and 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in favour towards the statement. This was probably because the students were unfocused during the lesson as the visual aids used failed to grab their attention in the learning process.

As for the short story component, 49 teachers (94.2%) were in agreement that their students showed interest in reading short stories when they used visual aids in teaching while 3 teachers (5.8%) chose 'Uncertain'. The latter's response could be most probably due to using the same visual aids constantly and it consequently failed to attract students' interest in reading the assigned short stories. With regards to students' understandability of the short stories, 51 teachers (98.1%) believed that their students understood the short stories well with the use of visual aids. However, 1 teacher (1.9%) was in disagreement of it probably because of the teacher's lack of skills in creating interesting and enjoyable lessons using visual aids. When it comes to the identification of the literary concepts, 42 teachers (80.8%) perceived that their students easily identified the literary concepts used in the short stories with the help of visual aids. On the other hand, 9 teachers (17.3%) opted for 'Uncertain' and only 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in favour of that statement. This phenomenon was probably because of the teachers being not technologically advanced in using and varying the use of visual aids in explaining the literary concepts used in the assigned short stories.

Additionally, for the novel component, 48 teachers (92.3%) believed that their students showed interest in reading novel when visual aids were implemented during the literature class meanwhile 4 teachers (7.7%) opted for 'Uncertain'. The latter's response was probably because either never or infrequently using visual aids to attract their students' attention to read the novel. In terms of understandability, 51 teachers (98.1%) were in an agreement towards the statement that their students understood well the novels with the use of visual aids but only 1 teacher (1.9%) chose 'Uncertain'. The latter's response was probably due to the preference in using other teaching aids to assist the students in reading the novel. For the identification of literary concepts, 44 teachers (84.6%) were in agreement that their students could easily identify literary concepts in the novel with the use of visual aids.

However, 7 teachers (13.5%) chose 'Uncertain' and 1 teacher (1.9%) was in disagreement with it. This was most probably because the teachers perceived that there were other important elements that needed to be explained via visual aids rather than literary concepts.

In response to the students showing interest in reading plays or dramas with the use of visual aids, 47 teachers (90.4%) agreed and strongly agreed with it. However, 4 teachers (7.7%) chose 'Uncertain' and 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in agreement with it. This was probably because the teachers perceived that real acting would attract more students to read the plays or dramas. In addition, 49 teachers (94.2%) were in agreement that their students understood better the plays when they used visual aids to teach the component. Although majority of the teachers were in agreement towards it, 3 teachers (5.8%) chose to be 'Uncertain' probably because they felt that their students would understand better if they acted the play out as the students could get the feel and gist of the story. In terms of literary concepts, 43 teachers (82.7%) believed that their students could easily identify the literary concepts of the plays when they implemented visual aids in teaching that component. In contrast, 8 teachers (15.4%) were 'Uncertain' and 1 teacher (1.9%) was in disagreement with it. This was probably due to the use of traditional methods of teaching literary concepts that students were not in favour with.

Discussions and Implications

Based on the findings of this study, it can be summed up that using visual aids in reading literary texts has proven to be beneficial. Most of the teachers had positive perceptions on the use of visual aids such as videos, films, pictures and projectors. Yunus et al. (2013) agree that the use of ICT, particularly visual aids, really helps to enhance students' understanding as well as their interest in literature learning. It is found out that majority of the teachers also perceived that the use of visual aids are beneficial in improving students' understanding of the texts and their ability to find the literary concepts. When students understand well, they have close engagement with the task. Thus, they manage to comprehend the literature texts. This is parallel with the findings from Allen and Marquez (2011) that state visual aids help to generate students' schemata which could assist ability to cope with the task. In short, these findings seem to be parallel with the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025's aspiration.

As for the implication, the study serves as a parameter for the teachers to implement learner-centred approach in their literature class. Traditional teaching methods such as "chalk and talk" no longer conform to the needs of the today's students. Yunus and Suliman (2014) also believe that the integration of ICT in literature teaching benefits students in motivational aspect. The elements of visual aids help to cultivate learning interest in literature among students. Other than that, the use of ICT in teaching and learning can promote independent learning. Since students these days are IT savvies, they can explore their own learning.

Conclusion

From the findings reported above, it can be concluded that the potential of using visual aids in reading literary texts is high. Overall, majority of teachers with a range from 71.1% to 94.2% had positive perceptions on the use of videos, films, pictures and projectors as the useful tools in boosting students' interest in reading literary texts. Besides, the teachers were in favour of using visual aids as they are advantageous to the students in terms of gaining their interest, boosting their understanding and helping them to find the literary concepts used in the literature components. These findings are a clear indication that visual aids act as a potential tool in motivating students to read literary texts. Teachers should fully utilise the use of visual aids in their teaching. This utilisation is equivalent to the Blueprint's aspiration to realise the transformative potential of ICT in education in Malaysian schools (Ministry of Education Malaysia 2013).

References

- Ahmad, A. E. & Li, S. J. (2014). Developing Students' Creative Response to Literary Texts In the ESL Classroom. *Pertanika Journal Social Sciences and Humanities*, 22(3), 763-774.
- Aliman, K. H. (2012). On the teaching of English. Retrieved on 1 November, 2015 from: <u>http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/opinion/khairie-hisyam-aliman/article/on-the-</u> teaching-of-english.
- Allen, K. & Marquez, A. (2011). Teaching vocabulary with visual aids. *Journal of Kao Ying Industrial & Commercial Vocational High School*, 1(9), 1-5.
- Azizan, H. & Lee, Y. M. (2011). *Minding our language*. Retrieved on 29 August, 2015 from: http://www.thestar.com.my/story/?file=%2F2011%2F4%2F10%2Fnation%2F835791 7.
- Çakir, D. I. (2006). The use of video as an audio-visual material in foreign language teaching
classroom. Retrieved on 1 August, 2015 from:
http://www.tojet.net/articles/v5i4/549.pdf.
- Ghazali, S., Setia, R. & Muthusamy, C. & Jusoff, K. (2009). ESL Students' Attitude towards

Texts and Teaching Methods Used Literature Class. English Language Teaching, 2(4), 51-56.

- Hismanoglu, M. (2005). Teaching English through Literature. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 53-66.
- Hwang, D. & Embi, M. A. (2007). Approaches Employed by Secondary School Teachers to Teaching the Literature Component in English. *Jurnal Pendidik dan Pendidikan*, 22, 1-23.
- Isa, N. H.& Mahmud, C. T. (2012). Literary Texts for Malaysian Secondary Schools: Needs versus Policy. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(7), 76 86.
- Liberto, J. K. (2012). Students and Graphic Novels: How Visual Aids in Literary Term Recall and Students' Perceptions of the Tools. Retrieved on 1 August 2015 from: http://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education ETD masters/210.
- Macwan, H. J. (2015). Using Visual Aids as Authentic Material in ESL Classroom. *Research Journal of English Language and Literature*, 3(1), 91-96.
- Maimun, A. A. (2014). Effectiveness of Audio Visual Aids in Language Teaching in Tertiary Level. Retrieved on 1 August, 2015 from: http://dspace.bracu.ac.bd/bitstream/handle /10361m/3288/13177014.pdf
- Ministry of Education Malaysia. (2013). Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (Preschool to Post-Secondary Education). Putrajaya: Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia.
- Nair, G. K. S., Setia, R., Ghazali, S. N., Sabapathy, E., Mohamad, R., Ali, M. M.,...Che Hassan, N. S. I. (2012). Can Literature Improve English Proficiency: The Students Perspective. *Asian Social Science*, 8(12), 21-27.
- Parkinson, B. & Thomas, H. R. (2000). *Teaching Literature in as Second Language*. Edinburgh:Edinburgh University Press Ltd.
- Pawanchik, S., Hilmi, M. F. & Yahaya, F. H. (2014). English Language Abilities and Knowledge of Adult Learners in a Distance Education Programme. *European Scientific Journal*, 10(2), 18-24.
- Rai, A. (2012). Use of Literature in Teaching English. International Journal of Educational Research and Technology, 3(3), 71-80.
- Sidhu, G. K., Chan, Y. F. & Kaur, S. (2010). Instructional Practices in Teaching Literature: Observation of ESL Classroom in Malaysia. *English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 54-63.
- Subramaniam, G., Hamdan, S. I. & Koo, Y. L. (2003). The Incorporation of the Literature

Component in the Malaysian ESL Syllabus for Secondary Schools: A Study of Pedagogical Implications. In Ganakumaran Subramaniam (Ed.), *Teaching of Literature in ESL/EFL Contexts* (pp. 62-87). Petaling Jaya: Sasbadi Sdn. Bhd.

- Young, T. (2008). *Studying English Literature: A Practical Guide*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Yunus, M. M., Salehi, H. & John, D. S. (2013). Using Visual Aids as a Motivational Tool in Enhanching Students' Interest in Reading Literary Texts. Retrieved on 1 August, 2015 from: https://arxiv.org/ftp/arxiv/papers/1305/1305.6360.pdf
- Yunus, M. M. & Suliman, A. (2014). Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Tools in Teaching and Learning Literature Component in Malaysian Secondary Schools. *Asian Social Science*, 10(7), 136-152.

Title

Gender Differences in the Relationships between Students' Motivation and Achievement with their Perception of Female Teachers' Classroom Behavior

Author

Diana Chitra Hasan Bung Hatta University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Diana Chitra Hasan is a senior lecturer Faculty of Humanities at Bung Hatta University in Padang, Indonesia. Her research interests include foreign language anxiety, L2 motivation, and teacher's classroom behavior. She has a Ph.D in language teaching from Monash University, Australia. She can be reached at diana_asril@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study examined the gender differences in the relationship between motivation, achievement teachers' behavior in the classroom. Participants included 340 grades 10 and 11 students (Boy = 108; Girl = 236) and eight female teachers, aged 35 to 59 in two senior secondary schools inPadang, Indonesia. The data were collected using the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), Preliminary English Test (PET) and student-reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS). The results revealed gender differences in the relationships between students' motivation,' achievement, and students' reported TSS.

Keywords: motivation, teachers' classroom behavior, gender

Introduction:

The principal objectives of this study were to explore gender differences in the relationship between students' motivation, achievement and teachers' classroom behavior in learning English in Indonesian high school context.

Bung Hatta University, Padang, Indonesia

Literature Review

The role motivation plays in influencing students' achievement in any subjects, including foreign language, is unquestionable. To better understand students' motivation in learning a foreign language, studies have focused on factors that motivate and demotivate

students. These studies reported that one of the key social figures in students' motivation to study a foreign language is the teacher. Teacher behavior was described by Oxford (2001) not only as a motivational tool, which could enhance students' motivation but also a powerful source of demotivation as well as in a 'motivational vacuum', when the motivation was not present (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011, p. 107)

In studies focusing on demotivation, involving participants learning different foreign languages in different countries, some factors identified as the sources such as particular teaching methods and learning tasks, school facilities, teaching materials, and teachers' behavior (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Ushioda, 1996). Among these factors, teachers' behavior was reported as the most prominent cause of students' demotivation. A large scale investigation conducted in Japan (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) reported that teachers' behavior and other aspects of teachers including teaching competence, language proficiency, personality and teaching styles were the most frequent sources of demotivation, similar to the findings of a study with Vietnamese learners of English (Trang & Baldauf Jr, 2007).

However, not all studies reported the same findings. For example, a study by Falout, Elwood and Hood (2009), investigating Japanese university students learning EFL, revealed that most students perceived the teacher positively and reported that their teachers were inspiring rather than having their motivation negatively influenced. Another study reported that teachers' motivational strategies had a positive impact on students' motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Methodology

Participants. Participants were eight English teachers and 340 grades 10 and 11 students (Boy = 108; Girl = 236). The age of the teachers ranged from 35 to 59 years and all of them were female. Their experience in teaching English ranged between 7 and 34 years (M = 12.25, SD = 8.66)

Students' Questionnaires. This study utilized Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie (1991) to measure students' motivation. The current study utilized 31 items from which constituted six subscales *Intrinsic Goal Orientation (IGO), Extrinsic Goal Orientation (EGO), and Task Value; expectancy components Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB)* and *Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance (SELP); and affective component Test Anxiety (TA)*. Students rated themselves on a 7-point Likert-type scale from "not at all true of me" to "very true of me"..

Students also completed student-reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS) developed by Watt and Richardson (2007, see Watt & Spearman, 2013) to measure students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behavior. The scale consists of four factors: *expectations, relatedness, negativity and structure*.

Achievement Measure. Students' achievements were measured by using Preliminary English Test (PET). PET was developed by the Cambridge ESOL Examination to measure students' ability to use English to communicate with native speakers for everyday purposes. To examine the relationships between the target variables, Pearson's product-moment correlation was employed. The correlations were conducted for gender subgroups. Classroom observation was conducted to provide insights into classroom teaching and learning processes.

Finding and discussion

The study revealed gender differences in the relationship between students' motivation, achievement and their perception on teachers' classroom behavior. Female students' *extrinsic goal orientation* correlated significantly and positively with *relatedness*, suggesting that their *extrinsic goal orientation* improved as their perception of *relatedness* increased. Conversely, none of the teachers' characteristics correlated significantly with boys' *extrinsic goal orientation*.

In terms of the relationship between students' achievement and their perception of the teachers' classroom behavior, it was also revealed that achievement was related differently to perceive teachers' classroom behavior by gender. Boys' achievement was affected by their perception of teachers' *positive expectation* and *relatedness* as indicated by positive correlations between these subscales. On the other hand, girls' achievement related only to their perception of teacher's *positive expectation* as the only significant correlation revealed.

The results of correlational analyses between students' achievement and teachers' classroom behavior added new empirical evidence in the field of foreign language teaching. It is interesting to note that girls' achievement was not at all influenced by their perceptions of teachers' classroom behavior as indicated by no significant relationships between any dimensions of students' reported TSS and girls' PET scores. On the other hand, for boys, all dimensions of student-reported TSS were significantly correlated with their achievement scores. There are some possible explanations why gender differences may occur. The first explanation relates to teacher's talk time. A large body of research has documented that teachers devote more time talking with boys than girls (see Dart & Clarke, 1991). These researchers have argued that this was due to differential teacher treatment rather than "discrimination" or "favoritism" (see Sunderland, 2000 a, p. 208). This was evident in some classroom observations conducted for this research and throws light on why boys' perception of teachers' classroom behaviors significantly influenced their achievement. Although girls outnumbered boys in the majority of the classes, teachers spent less time talking to girls. These noticeable differences in questioning of boys and girls may be due to the teachers' perceptions that boys were not expected to do well in a language and not as skilled in communicating (Clark, 1998), whereas girls are often perceived to be superior in language performance and achievement. Thus, devoting more time to directing more challenging questions to boys could be seen as one of the teachers' efforts to facilitate boys to perform better.

Conclusion

This study indicated that students' *relatedness* with the teachers affected boys' and girls' *extrinsic goal orientation* differently. In addition, gender differences may influence the role of motivation in influencing students' achievement in learning English as a foreign language. Previous studies have claimed that girls are better than boys at mastering a foreign language but the present study has shown that motivation is more influential for boys than girls in learning a language. This study should be replicated with learners of other foreign languages to better establish this finding. If this is confirmed, it may lead to new ways to motivate boys to be better language learners.

References

Clark, A. (1998). *Gender on the agenda: Factors motivating boys and girls in MFLs*. London: CiLT.

- Dart, B. C., & Clarke, J.A. (1991). Helping students become better learners: A case study in teacher education. *Higher Education*,22 (3), 317-335
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. New York: Routledge.
- Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Demotivation: Affective states and learning outcomes. *System*, 37(3), 403-417.http://dx.doi.org/ doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.0
- Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroomoriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 55-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.15457249.2008.tb00207
- Oxford, R. (2001). 'The bleached bones of a story': Learners' construction of language teachers. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contribution to language learning* (pp. 86-111). Harlow: Longman.
- Pintrich, P. R., Smith, D.A.F, Garcia, T., & McKeachie, W. J. (1991). A manual for the use of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Technical Report 91-B-004): The Regents of the University of Michigan. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED338122.pdf
- Sakai, H., & Kikuchi, K. (2009). An analysis of demotivators in the EFL classroom. *System*, 37(1), 57-69. doi: <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.09.005</u>
- Spearman, J., & Watt, H. M. (2013). Perception shapes experience: The influence of actual and perceived classroom environment dimensions on girls' motivations for science. *Learning Environments Research*, 16(2), 217-238. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10984-013-9129-7</u>
- Sunderland, J. (2000). Issues of language and gender in second and foreign language education. *Language Teaching*, 33(04), 203-223.
- Trang, T.T.T, &, Baldauf, R.B. (2007). Demotivation: understanding resistance to English language learning – The case of Vietnamese student. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 4,(1), 79-105.
- Ushioda, E. (1996). Developing a dynamic concept of L2 motivation In T. Hickey & J.
 Williams (Eds.), *Language, education, and society in a changing world* (pp. 239-245). Dublin/Clevedon: IRAAL/Multilingual Matters.

Title

Project-Based Learning Used to Develop Supplementary Materials for Writing Skill

Author

Diani Nurhajati University of Nusantara PGRI Kediri, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Diani Nurhajati is senior lecturer at the English Department, Faculty of Teacher Training, University of Nusantara PGRI Kediri, Indonesia. She is interested in researching ELT for young learners, Applied Linguistics, and Instructional Material Design. Her email address: <u>dianihamzah@yahoo.com</u>

Abstract

This is a descriptive research which answers the question: "How is the implementation of PjBL used to develop supplementary materials for writing skill to the seven grade students?" The implementation here covers the materials which is developed, the steps of teaching writing, and the students' writing ability after being taught using PjBL. The research was carried out to the seven grade students at a private junior high school in a district of East Java. The results of the research show that PjBL is suitable to teach writing skill as the students' writing ability improving significantly. They are able to develop their ideas in making a descriptive text, and they can create good sentences.

Keywords: Project-Based Learning, Supplementary Materials, Writing Skill

Introduction

Writing has taken the most complicated skill among other skills that faced by the EFL students. It is because the process of writing is not merely the matter of transcribing the language into a written form, but it is a skill in which the students have to express their ideas and organize them in written form. According to Richard and Renandya (2002, p.303) the difficulties of writing lies on how to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice

of vocabulary, sentence and paragraph organization, and translate these ideas into a readable text. Furthermore, based on Khoiriyah (2014) research, there are many problems faced by the Indonesian students in writing; they are developing and organizing ideas, understanding aspects of writing, such as syntax, grammar, content, word choice, organization, and also mechanic. Those aspects could not be learned only in a single day. The students need to understand and apply them before they plan to be a good writer.

There are many solutions which can be applied by writing teachers. One of them is by developing supplementary materials if the available materials are not appropriate with the students' ability. This research tries to answer the question: "How is the implementation of Project-Based Learning used to develop supplementary materials for writing skill to the seven grade students?" The implementation here covers the materials which is developed, the steps of teaching writing, and the students' writing ability after being taught using Project-Based Learning.

Literature Review

Teaching Writing

Based on the 2013 Curriculum (Kemendikbud, 2013), one of the goals of teaching and learning English at junior high school is: "Developing the communication competence in the form of oral and written texts to achieve the functional level." From the quotation it can be concluded that writing skill must be learned by the students.

In order that junior high school students have ability in producing a written text, English teacher should provide learning activities which train them to make a text. The activities should train the students to reach the goal of teaching writing which covers how to develop ideas, arrange good sentences, arrange sentences into a good text, etc. Teaching writing, therefore, means activities to facilitate students with learning activities in order that they are able to produce a written text

Writing teachers should provide activities in which students can follow the stages to create a text. Richard and Renandya (2002, p.304) state that they are four stages in process of writing: planning, drafting, revising, and editing. Seow in Richards & Renandya's book (2002, p.317-319) also stated that the process writing as a classroom activity incorporates the four basic writing stages – planning, drafting (writing), revising (redrafting), and editing – and three other stages externally imposed on students by the teacher, namely, responding (sharing), evaluating and post writing.

Project-Based Learning

Project-Based Learning (PjBL) is comprehensive deep learning approach to classroom and learning that engages students in the investigation of authentic problems According Patton (2012, p. 13), PjBL refers to students designing, planning, and carrying out an extended project that produces a publicity-exhibited output such as a product, publication, or presentation. Strippling et al. (2009, p. 8) say that PjBL is instructional strategy of empowering learners to pursue content knowledge on their own and demonstrate their new understandings through a variety of presentation modes. From the quotations above, it can be concluded that PjBl is one of the teaching models that helps students to the real world problems and real life situation, also they experience on how to solve the appeared problems.

In conducting PjBL, teacher should follow some steps. Here are the steps adapted from Kriwas (1999), as cited in Bell, (2010). They are: 1) **Speculation**, in this stage teachers provide the choice of project topics initially based on curriculum and discuss them with the students; 2) **Designing the project activities**, referring to organizing the structure of a project activity that includes group formation, role assigning, concerning methodology decision, information source, etc; 3) **Conducting the project activities** in which the students work what had been planned and designed in the previous stage; 4) **Evaluation** which refers to "the assessment of activities from the participants and discussion about whether the initial aims and goals have been achieved, implementation of the process, and final products".

Graphic Organizer

Graphic organizers are proven to be an effective strategy to help the students successful in their writing. Graphic organizers (a type of visual aid) help the students to organize their thought and applying thinking skills to the content in a more organized and order way based on rule of writing. Tacaiochta and Leibheal (2008) state that Graphic Organizers provide a visual method of developing, organizing and summarizing students' learning. They help to structure disjointed information. They facilitate the learning process by providing a scaffold for the development of ideas and the construction of knowledge. In other words, Graphic Organizers are an effective visual tool that facilitates method to develop the students' ability in organizing and arranging their ideas into the accurate writing text. They also serve as an effective device for helping students focus on the relationships between main ideas and details, main ideas and other main ideas, and so forth.

The concepts of Graphic Organizer is to facilitate learning strategy which include reading comprehension, writing strategy, organization strategy, and thinking strategy; and facilitating content learning which include think a head, think during, and think back. To teach writing, it help student develop ideas and make a draft before they write a complete text.

Methodology

This is an action research which employed both qualitative and quantitative approach. The qualitative approach was applied to describe the supplementary materials which were developed and the steps of teaching writing. The quantitative approach was applied to find out the students' ability after being taught using PjBL. The sample of the research was a class of seven junior high school students which consist of 28 students (12 boys and 18 girls). The researcher collaborated with the teacher in order to make teaching preparation, select the materials, construct the instrument, implement in the classroom, and evaluate the students. To collect the qualitative data, the researcher observed during the teaching and learning process, and to measure the students' ability after the treatment test on writing was distributed to the students.

Findings and Discussion

This research describes the implementation of developing supplementary materials using PjBL which covers the materials and the stages of teaching writing, and the students' writing ability after being taught using PjBL.

The first part is developing supplementary materials. To develop the materials the researcher cooperated with an English teacher of a junior high school. They evaluated all the aspects written in the lesson plan made by the teacher. The results of doing reflection, they formulated the teaching objectives, selected the appropriate materials for teaching writing, and provided the learning experience to create a text. The teaching objective is the students are able to describe their family in a short text. To reach the objective, the materials cover how to develop ideas, the structure of a descriptive text, the sentence structure needed to express the idea.

The stages of teaching writing followed the stages in PjBL. The first is speculating. In this stage the choice of project designed by the teacher was writing a short descriptive text about one's family which was adopted based on the curriculum and the students' ability. The next stage is designing the project activities. The teacher made a group of three students and assigned them to select the materials from various sources. The next is conducting the project. They were assigned to develop ideas based on graphic organizer and they discussed

to correct the ideas. After that, they practiced to create good sentences that they needed to express their ideas. The final stage is evaluation in which refers to assess their ability in writing.

The results of writing test shows\ that the average score of writing is 72. It can be classified as good. Among the students, 2 students got excellent score, 11 students got good score, 10 students got fair score, and 5 students got poor. After analyzing the data, the calculation of each aspect of writing can be seen in the table below.

No	Aspects of Writing	Total Score	%
1	Generic Structure	2	7
2	Developing Ideas	11	39
3	Accuracy (grammar and vocabulary)	10	36
4	Mechanic (punctuation and capitalization)	5	18

The Results on Aspect of Writing

PjBL facilitated the students to create a simple text. It can be seen from the average score. This finding is in line with Patton (2012, p. 13) and Ellis (2004) that PjBL gives opportunity to students to experience and engage themselves with real problems happened surround them and help them to get better critical thinking. Besides, in applying PjBL the teacher used graphic organizer as strategy to support the supplementary materials, and it helped them to develop their ideas and trained them to practice sentence structure. By using this technique the students could share ideas with other students in their groups to solve their problem.

Conclusion

Supplementary materials should be developed by considering teaching objectives and students' ability. PjBL is suitable to teach writing skill as the students are expected to create a product. This research proves that it helps the students write a simple text. They are good at the structure of the text and developing ideas. Besides, it can motivate them to work with other students and encourage their creativity.

References

- Bell, S. (2010). Project-Based Learning for the 21st Century: Skills for the Future. Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.
- Ellis, E. (2004). *What's the Big Deal with Graphic Organizers?*. (online). Available at http://www.Graphic organizers.Org. Downloaded on May 12th 2016.
- Kemendikbud. (2013). *Materi Pelatihan Guru Implementasi Kurikulum 2013*. Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.
- Khoiriyah. (2014). Increasing Students' Writing Skill through Mind Mapping Technique. Nusantara of the Research, Universitas Nusantara PGRI Kediri, Vol. 1, No. 02. 2014 http://lp2m.unpkediri.ac.id/jurnal/pages/research/vol1no2/index.html#
- Patton, A. (2012). *Work that Matters: the Teacher Guides to Project Learning*. London: Paul Hamlyin Foundation.
- Richard, J. C. and Renandya, W.A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching*. US: Cambridge University Press
- Stripling. B. et.al. (2009). Project Based Learning: Inspiring Middle School Students to Engage in Deep and Active Learning. New York: NYC Department of Education.
- Tacaiochta, S. & Leibheal, D. (2008). Using Graphic Organizers in Teaching and Learning. Second Level Support Service

Title

Oral Corrective Feedback on Students' Grammatical Accuracy and Willingness to Communicate in EFL Classroom: The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Prompts

Author

Eka Fadilah

English Department, Widya Kartika University Doctorate students of Post Graduate Program, Malang State University mref3k4@gmail.com

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Eka Fadilah is a Doctorate student of English Education at Universitas Negeri Malang. He is a full time lecturer at Universitas Widya Kartika, Surabaya. His research interests are language learning and teaching notably speaking and writing, language assessment, and educational technology.

Abstract

This present study aims at investigating the effects of focused and unfocused prompts in EFL classroom as one type of corrective feedback (CF). Three low intermediate intact classes are selected as focused prompt, unfocused prompt and control groups. Focused (intensive) prompt group emphasizes correction on simple present tense and degree of comparison, while unfocused (extensive) prompt group is emphasized on correction for any grammatical errors. Furthermore, control group is not given any feedback. The writer formulates research questions; (1) Do focused and unfocused prompt groups show significant differences over the control group on their grammatical accuracy and WTC? (2) Does focused prompt group show significant difference from unfocused prompt group on their grammatical accuracy and WTC? The researcher applies a statistical package, SPSS 20, by using repeated-measurement of ANOVA and post-hoc comparisons during pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test. Pre-test is given a week before the treatments, while delayed post-test is conducted three weeks after post-test. A set of test on grammar are given for the tests, while students' WTC is measured by using questionnaires focusing on motivation, anxiety, and confidence as variables affecting WTC. The results reveal that both focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform more than control group regarding grammatical accuracy and WTC, while there is no significant different statistically between focused and unfocused prompt groups on WTC. However, focused prompt group outperform more than unfocused and control group regarding grammatical accuracy. The results also indicate the confirmation of the previous results about the effectiveness of CF in facilitating learners. Therefore, implementing CF should be taken into account during teaching-learning in EFL Classroom to facilitate learners' improvement in SLA.

Key words: *oral corrective feedback, willingness to communicate, grammatical accuracy, focused prompts, unfocused prompts*

Introduction

Research interest in willingness to communicate (WTC) has been investigated by scholars for the past three decades. "A readiness to speak in the L2 at a particular time with a specific person", and as such, is conceptualized as the definition of WTC (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010, p. 162). The evolvement of WTC from trait-like variables to situational context has led to a number of variables affecting WTC either directly or indirectly. In the classroom context, WTC is seen as a dynamic situation and influenced by classroom environment and linguistic factors (Cao, 2014), error correction (e.g., see MacIntyre, 2011; Zarinnabadi, 2014) and interlocutors (teacher and peers) (Kang, 2005; Zarinnabadi, 2014; MacIntyre, 2011; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak's, 2015), motivation, confidence and anxiety (see MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei and Noels, 1998; Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002; and Liu and Jackson, 2009) are the variables believed to give the influence on learners' WTC in the classroom context.

Error correction is considered as one of the variable affecting WTC in the classroom. Zarinnabadi (2014) pinpoint that error correction given after learners finish their speech can increase learners' L2 WTC in upcoming situation. In addition, Kang (2005) studies four Korean male students. Her finding in pshycological condition, security, reveals that the participants feel secure from the fear when the tutor listens to them carefully, smiling or providing some other active responses (e.g., saying "uh-huh,' really," "that's great, etc). Error correction or corrective feedback (CF) has been a controversial issue that has been discussed by scholars for the past three decades. Sarandi (2016) pinpoints that CF studies yielded to the arguments toward the role of input, output and interaction in language acquisition. They notice whether learners' language development can get benefit from positive evidence or need to be clarified of their erroneous corrections via negative evidence (corrective feedback). The claims that CF during the classroom interaction give beneficial effects in developing second language acquisition (SLA) in the form of positive and negative evidence was focused on the interactional hypothesis (Long, 1996; Gass, 1997, 2007; Pica, 1994) opposing to those who claim that positive evidence alone is effective and efficient (Krashen 1981). Numerous studies on CF types are also conducted in comparing the effectiveness of the types of CF in the classroom interaction such as recast, explicit corrective CF can facilitate learners on their L2 development even though its effect may be limited by contextual factors and individual differences of learners (Lyster&Saito, 2010; Li, 2010). Harmer (1983), however, argue that when students are engaged in communicative activity, the teacher should not intervene by "telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy and asking for repetition" (p. 44).

Sheen (2011cited in Lee, 2015) suggests that future research on CF should take account on individual differences that are likely to influence whether and how learners process CF. Furthermore, Lee (2015) reports that teacher's oral CF has positive impact on students' affective variables namely anxiety, motivation and confidence. The similar finding is also reported by Ressaei (2015) pinpointing that oral corrective feedback in the form of recast and metalinguistic affect students' anxiety. The finding also postulates that students get benefit of oral CF indicating that low-anxiety learners benefit from both recasts and metalinguistic, while high-anxiety learners benefit from recasts. MacIntyre et al. (1998) propose a pyramid model in which anxiety, motivation and confidence as antecedent of L2 WTC. So the focus on this study also as an extention of Lee's finding about CF on those individual differences affecting WTC.

Strategies mostly used in CF are addressed into two categories namely explicit and implicit feedback, input-providing and output-providing feedback that are widely accepted in second language acquisition studies (Ellis, 2010a). Implicit feedback is given in an obtrusive manner that is the errors made by the learners are not overtly signaled, while explicit feedback is conducted by giving salient statements on the errors made by learners to notice. Input-providing feedback is intended by giving correct exemplars compared to the errors produced by the learners enabling them to compare those with the errors they made. Output-providing, however, allows learners to work out the correct form of their deviant utterances using their own language correction repertoire (Sarandi, 2016, p. 236).

In grammatical accuracy, Two types of CF mostly compared are recasts and prompts (see, e.g., Lyster, 2004; R. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam, 2006; Ammar and Spada, 2006; R. Ellis, 2007; Lyster and Saito, 2010). They both feedbacks were effective, while learners were more outperformed by providing prompts than recasts. Lyster and Izquerdo (2009) make comparison of Prompts and recasts in dyadic interaction using repeated measures ANOVA. Their finding postulate that by receiving recasts, learners benefit from the repeated exposure to positive exemplars and opportunity to infer negative evidence as well, whereas, students receiving prompts benefit from the repeated exposure to produce modified input as well. Similar finding is reported by Ahmad and Jarrah (2015) pinpointing that certain types of CF increase students acquisition of grammar. The combination of written corrective feedback and metalinguistic improves learners' accuracy in the use of simple past tense.

Lyster and Saito (2010, p.268) pinpoints the categories of prompts including elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition. Unlike recasts, providing positive and negative evidence prompts only provide negative evidence (e.g. corrective feedback). Prompts range from implicit to explicit CF moves starting from clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, metalinguistic clue and repetition or elicitation (Lyster and Saito, 2010). In term of linguistic information, however, prompts are assumed not necessarily give explicitly meaning that is by prompting, a teacher has provided cues for learners to their self-repair. deWinstanley and Bjork (2004) argues that providing prompts enables learners to modify their own errors and leads learners to remember them better.

In term of who should give correction, Lyster (2004) argues that prompts are encouraged to perform for learners to self-correct while recasts may be perceived less effective regarding the message being communicated rather than the problems in linguistic forms. In addition, Li (2014) postulates that self-correction or self-repair encourages and makes the classroom more dynamic and interactive and the solution is by eliciting selfcorrection by teacher correction if the forms fail.

The present research investigates two research questions namely

- RQ1 Do focused and unfocused prompt groups show significant differences over the control group on their grammatical accuracy and WTC?
- RQ 2 Does focused prompt group show significant difference from unfocused prompt group on their graamatical accuracy and WTC?

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is simply defined as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (Ellis, 2006, p. 28). Based on the descriptive study of teacher-student interaction in French immersion classroom, there are six different CF types which are broadly classified into two categories; reformulation and prompts (Ranta and Lyster, 2007). Recasts and explicit correction belong to reformulation, while elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition.

Focused and unfocused tasks

The issues of corrective feedback regarding focused and unfocused tasks have been taken into account. Different amount and type of feedback as well as opportunities for and production of modified output following feedback have been addressed (Gurzynski-Weiss & Revez, 2012; p.855). The term *focused and unfocused* tasks can be elicited as corrective feedback addressed to induce the use of particular construction or linguistic forms for the former and corrective feedback that do not have a predetermined language focus or certain linguistic forms for the later. Mackey and Goo (2007) suggests that feedback provided in focused tasks leads to L2 development. Little attention is addressed to the use of unfocused tasks due to the assumption of the insufficiency detailed task descriptions for categorizing task focusedness. Priority on a certain language form also becomes the reasons to more emphasizing on focused tasks.

Prompts

Prompts are defined as "a variety of signals that push learners to self repair (Lyster, 2002). Several studies reveal that prompts are more outperformed than recasts (Lyster and Mori, 2006; Lyster, 2007; Ranta and Lyster, 2007). They indicate that prompts provide signals that prompt learners to self-repair rather than providing them with a correct reformulation of their non target utterance, as do recast (Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009). Prompts consist of some movements namely clarification, repetition, metalinguistic clues and elicitation. Havranek and Cesnik (2001) reveal that prompts are the most corrective feedback in EFL classroom. The similar finding comes from Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) pinpointing that prompts are more outperformed than recasts on Students' use of the simple past tense in English.

Method Research context Participants

The present study was conducted in a private university in Surabaya, Indonesia. Three intact classes comprising 60 new English Department students were selected. The participants were male and female students between the ages 15 and 17. They attended either speaking or grammar class once a week with 100 minutes each. Two classes were put as treatment groups (20 participants as focused prompt group and 20 as unfocused prompt group), while one class was as a control group (20 participants). All participants have already learnt English since the fourth level of elementary school (9-10 years) including reading, grammar, speaking, listening and writing.

Instruments

Grammatical accuracy test

Three grammar and vocabulary tests during pre-test, post-test and delayed test were used in this study. The tests consist of two section namely 15 fill-blank-sentence (simple present), 15 fill blank sentence based picture (comparison) test and 30 multiple choice tests in grammar (simple present and comparison. Grammar tests consist of simple present and comparison, for example, the use of *V-s/es*, and tobe (*is*, *am*, *are*) and question forms, while in comparison, the participants were asked to answer the questions regarding the difference among *similar comparison*, *comparative and superlative*. For example in similar comparison, the questions cover the different use of *as* (*adjective*) *as* and *the same* (*noun*), *similar to*, *etc*. In comparative forms for example the different use of -er and *more*, while superlative forms such as *the...est* and *the most.*. The three tests were corrected and scored that yielded scores for individuals. There was no penalty for incorrect answers.

WTC Questionnaire

A set of questionnaire of WTC was deployed to the participants during pre-test, posttest and delayed test. The questionnaire is adopted from Li (2016) containing the variables influencing WTC such as anxiety, self-confidence, and motivation (see appendix A).

Groups	Number	of	Description
	questionnaires		

Focused prompt	Pre-test= 12	Pretest			
	Post-test = 38 Delayed-test = 12	Asking about anxiety, motivation and self confidence related to WTC			
		Post-test and delayed test Asking about WTC after getting corrective feedback (prompts)			
Unfocused prompt	Pre-test = 12 Post-test = 38 Delayed-test = 12	Pretest Asking about anxiety, motivation and self confidence related to WTC Post-test and delayed test Asking about WTC after getting			
Control	Pre-test = 12	corrective feedback (prompts) Pre-test, Post-test and delayed test			
	Post-test = 12 Delayed-test = 12	Asking about anxiety, motivation and self confidence related to WTC (with no corrective feedback/treatment)			

Table 1 questionnaires format for focused, unfocused prompts and control group

Focused and unfocused prompt groups have the same questionnaire in pre-test and delayedtest (12 questions). However, they have 38 questions in post test to get their response about the oral feedback they have received during treatments. All questions contain about the variables affecting WTC namely anxiety, motivation and self-confidence. In control group, they have the same questions of WTC during pre-test, post-test, and delayed-test askin about their anxiety, motivation and self-confidence without receiving CF. In addition, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire are calculated by using SPSS 20.

Treatment

Two treatment groups received treatments in the form of prompts (elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition). While a control group was not given feedback. It can be seen in table 1.

Types of prompts	Feedback types
Elicitation,	Focused prompt group
metalinguistic-clue,	
clarification requests,	
and repetition	Metalingistic
1. Elicitation	Gives technical linguistic information about the error
2. Metalingistic clue	<i>e.g.</i>
3. Clarification	S=the girl take some paper
4. Repetation	<i>T</i> = <i>the third singular person for verb should end</i>
	S=oh sorry takes, the girl takes some paper
	Elicitation:
	Prompts the students to self correct by pausing and students can fill in the blanks
	<i>e.g.</i>
	S=Ali's book is more thick than Andrea's
	T=comparative form for thick? One syllable?
	S=thicker
	Repetition
	Repeat the students' errors while highlighting the error or

	mistake through emphatic stress
	<i>e.g.</i>
	S=are you understand the picture?
	T=are you understand?
	S=ohhDo you understand?
	Clarification
	Creating opportunities for students to reformulate or repeat
	their ill-form utterance
	e.g.
	S=the novel is most expensive of all
	<i>T</i> =how to state superlative form in a sentence?
	S=the novel is the most expensive of all
Elicitation,	Unfocused prompt groups
metalinguistic-clue, clarification requests,	Elicitation
and repetition	e.g.
5. Elicitation	S=the woman is leaves to work by foot
6. Metalingistic clue	T=the woman is leaves?by foot?
7. Clarification	S=the woman leaves to work by foot (needs repair on
8. Repetation	preposition)
	Metalingistic
	e.g.

S=Ary book more expensive than Ani
T= put apostrophe - 's to show possessionyou need to use
tobe –is to show the singular subject
S=Ary's book is more expensive than Ani's book
Repetition
Repeat the students' errors while highlighting the error or
mistake through emphatic stress
<i>e.g.</i>
S= is she deliver the homework?
T= is she deliver?
S= does she deliver
T=deliver?
S=what is <i>mengumpulkan</i> in English sir?
T=oh you do you mean <i>submit</i> ?
S=ye submit
Clarification
e.g.
S=he always get up everyday at 5 o'clock
T= how to state a "verb" in the third singular person in simple present?
S= oh sorryHe always gets up

T=what about the sentence arrangement? is it ok to put
"everyday" in the middle of sentence?
S=you meanhe always gets up at 5 everyday?

Design and procedure

This study applies quasi-experimental design by using pre-test, post-test and delayed test in three intact classes. Two classes were experimental groups and one control group. The two experimental groups received treatment of corrective feedback, prompts, comprising one group receiving focused prompts and another one got unfocused prompts. While, there was no treatment given to the control group. The targets of this study are addressed to the participants' accuracy and willingness to communicate (WTC). Regarding accuracy, participants are tested their grammatical target of English including simple present, comparison, and vocabulary. While, participants' WTC is measured by using a likert-scale questionnaire adopted from Lee (2016). Both Grammatical accuracy and WTC were tested to find out the validity and reliability.

Periods	Procedures				
Week 1	All groups				
	Pre-test				
	Grammatical accuracy				
	WTC questionnaire				
	Duration : 90 minutes				
Week 2	Focused prompt group				
	Feedback was focused on comparison				
	unfocused prompt group				
	feedback was given to any errors (grammar and vocabulary)				

Control group

No treatment

Materials:

Picture-cued

Presentation

Duration for treatment = @60 minutes

Week 3 Focused prompt group

Feedback was focused on simple present

unfocused prompt group

feedback was given to any errors (grammar and vocabulary)

Control group

No treatment

Materials:

Describing persons

Comparing persons

Duration for treatment = (a) 60 minutes

Week 4 Focused prompt group

Feedback was focused on simple present and comparison

unfocused prompt group

feedback was given to any errors (grammar and vocabulary)

Control group

No treatment

Materials:

Describing a place

Comparing objects based on the picture

Duration for treatment = (a) 60 minutes

Week 4 All groups

Post-test

Grammatical accuracy

WTC questionnaire

Test duration = 60 minutes

Three weeks later <u>All groups</u>

Delayed-test

Grammatical accuracy

WTC questionnaire

Test duration = 60 minutes

Table 2 procedure of giving treatment and tests

Data analysis

A statistical package for the Social Science (SPSS) Version 20 was used in analyzing the data. The scores in both Grammatical accuracy and WTC were computed in descriptive and inferential statistics. One-way repeated measures of ANOVA was used to measure the effect of treatments given in the form of CF to the two groups, focused prompt and unfocused prompt groups during pre-test, post-test and delayed-test. A post-hoc comparison tests were conducted to investigate which group outperformed mostly during the treatment.

Results

Research question 1 Do focused and unfocused prompt groups show significant differences over the control group on their accuracy and WTC?

Willingness to communicate

To answer research question 1, the following are the results of the statistical calculation over WTC and accuracy (Grammatical accuracy). The test of reliability of the tests (pre-test and post-test) on WTC questionnaire is good with Cronbach's Alfa consecutively 0.76 and 0.82.

Measure: WTC							
Within	Mauchly's	Approx.	Df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
Subjects	W	Chi-			Greenhou	Huynh	Lower-
Effect		Square			se-Geisser	-Feldt	bound
Tests	.984	.882	2	.643	.985	1.000	.500

N	lauc	hly's	Test	of S	phericity ^a

Table 3 testing of variance

Table 3 indicates that Mauchly's test of Sphericity's value is .984 with chi-square .882, degree of freedom 2 and significant value (p > .05). It means that the assumption of *sphericity* pinpointing that the variances to test are the same (meet the assumption). There is an increase for the three groups from pre-test to post test such as focused prompts in pre-test (M=2.75) and post-test (M=4.05) but decrease in delayed test (M=3.70). It also occurs in the unfocused

prompts in pre-test and post-test consecutively (M=2.70 and M=4.15) and delayed test (M=3.80) (see table 4). The test interaction can be seen in table 3 that postulates that there is significant difference among the three tests with significant value (p < .05). it can be seen clearly in figure 1, profile plot, indicating the difference of mean among the three tests.

		Measure: WTC						
		Groups	Tests	Mean	Std.	95%	Confidence	
					Error	Interva	1	
						Lower	Upper	
						Bound	Bound	
			Pre-test	2.75	.147	2.456	3.044	
Tabel	4	focused	Post-test	4.05	.126	3.798	4.302	
means	т	prompts	Delayed- 3.70		.121	3.458	3.942	
means			test	5.70	.121	5.750	5.772	
			Pre-test	2.70	.147	2.406	2.994	
		unfocused	Post-test	4.15	.126	3.898	4.402	
		prompts	Delayed-	3.80	.121	3.558	4.042	
			test	5.00	.121	5.550	4.042	
			Pre-test	2.65	.147	2.356	2.944	
		Control	Post-test	3.35	.126	3.098	3.602	
		Control	Delayed-	3.20	.121	2.958	3.442	
			test	5.20	.141	2.750	J. 77 2	

comparison among the tests

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: W	/TC	
------------	-----	--

(I) tests	(J) tests	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence	
		Differen	Error	b	Interval fo	
		ce (I-J)			Difference ^b	
					Lower Upper	
					Bound	Bound

	Post-test	-1.150*	.107	.000 -1.415	885	
Pre-test	Delayed-	867*	.110	.000 -1.139	594	
	test	807	.110	.000 -1.139	394	
	Pre-test	1.150*	.107	.000 .885	1.415	
Post-test	Delayed-	.283*	.099	.018 .039	.528	
	test		.099	.010 .039	.520	
Delayed-	Pre-test	.867*	.110	.000 .594	1.139	
test	Post-test	283*	.099	.018528	039	

Tabel 5 mean differences on the tests

Post-Hoc comparison

To answer research question 1 and whether there is difference among the three groups, post-hoc comparison indicates that there is no difference between focused and unfocused prompt groups with mean difference (.05) and *p* value>.05. however, both group outperform more than control group with mean difference (.43) and *p* value<.05 (see table 4). It also answer research question 2 whether focused prompts are different from unfocused prompts.

Multiple Comparisons

Measure: WTC

Scheffe

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95%	Confidence
		Difference	Error		Interva	1
		(I-J)			Lower	Upper
					Bound	Bound
focused	unfocused prompts	0500	.11060	.903	3280	.2280
prompts	Control	.4333*	.11060	.001	.1553	.7113
unfocused	focused prompts	.0500	.11060	.903	2280	.3280
prompts	Control	.4833*	.11060	.000	.2053	.7613
Control	focused prompts	4333*	.11060	.001	7113	1553

unfocused	4833*	.11060	.000	7613	2053
prompts					

Table 4 post-hoc comparison on WTC

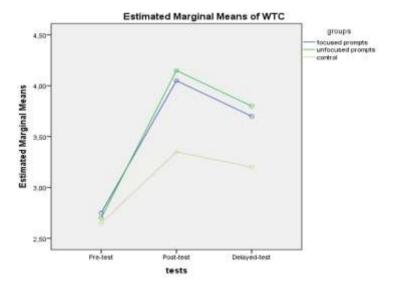


Figure 1 plot of WTC

Accuracy

Post Hoc Tests

Regarding the accuracy (Grammatical accuracy), it can be revealed that there is significant difference among the three groups with mean difference focused – unfocused prompt groups (MD=3.17 with *p value* <.05) and focused prompt – control groups (MD=11.7 with *p value* <.05) (see table 5).From the result of post-hoc test, it pinpoints that both focused and unfocused prompt group outperform more than control group in grammatical target. In addition, focused prompt group outperforms more than unfocused prompt groups. Table 6 pinpoints the different means among the three groups consecutively control group in subset 1 (M=69.42), unfocused prompts in second subset (M=77.9), and focused prompt group in the other subset (M=81.6). Figure 2 shows clearly the different scores among the three groups during pre-test, post-test and delayed-test. In focused test, there is an increase but not significant from post-test to delayed-test (post-test M=92.00 and delayed test M=92.5).

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: Accuracy

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean	Std.	Sig. ^b	95% (Confidence
		Differenc	Error		Interval	for
		e (I-J)			Differen	ice ^b
					Lower	Upper
					Bound	Bound
focused	unfocused prompts	3,667*	1,098	,004	,959	6,374
prompts	control	12,167*	1,098	,000	9,459	14,874
unfocused	focused prompts	-3,667*	1,098	,004	-6,374	-,959
prompts	control	8,500*	1,098	,000	5,792	11,208
	focused prompts	-12,167*	1,098	,000	-14,874	-9,459
Control	unfocused prompts	-8,500*	1,098	,000	-11,208	-5,792

 Table 5 comparison of mean difference among the groups

Homogeneous Subsets

Accuracy				
Scheffe				
Groups	N	Subset		
		1	2	3
Control	20	69,4167		
unfocused prompts	20		77,9167	
focused prompts	20			81,5833
Sig.		1,000	1,000	1,000

Table 6 homogoneous subset of the three groups

Profile Plots

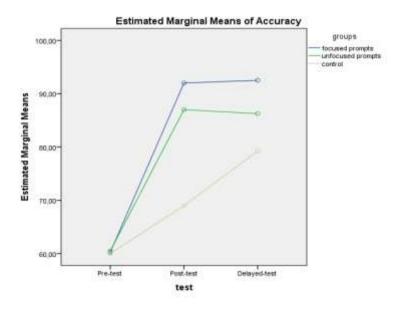


Figure 2 plot of grammatical accuracy

Discussion

Based on the finding, focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform significantly both in participants' WTC and accuracy over control group. Both groups receiving treatment show statistical difference in accuracy but not in WTC. Participants receiving CF in focused prompt outperform better than that in unfocused prompt group in post-test. The WTC questionnaire contains variables such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence influencing learners' to communicate mediating by focused and unfocused prompts. Many studies conduct the effects of CF and affect to students' anxiety towards WTC (see Aydin, 2008; Zgutowicz, 2009; Cutrone, 2009; Rashidi, Bashiro and Motlag, 2016) revealing that learners are reluctant to participate in the classroom due to afraid of negative evaluation. The present study, however, pinpoints that one type of corrective feedback, prompt, gives significant effect on students' WTC. It also confirms the finding reported by previous scholars (see e.g., Kang, 2005; Zarinnabadi, 2014; MacIntyre, 2011) that error correction gives an effect to WTC. Both focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform more than control group with mean differences consecutively 4.83 and 4.33. Even though there is no significant difference between focused and unfocused prompt groups, it depicts that CF contributes significantly on learner's WTC. The mean increase in focused prompt group from pre-test (2.75) to post-test (4.05) indicates significant effect of the CF given to learner's WTC. The similar increase also occurs in unfocused prompt group with pre-test (2.70) and post test (4.15).

The finding also confirms the effectiveness of prompts that are assumed to be more outperforming than the other types of CF. Cassany (1993 as cited in Torresan, 2011) yields

that correction must never be ambiguous and adequate to the learners' skills as well as relevant to the content errors. Learners' participation to promote involvement, self-confidence, anxiety and motivation are variables which contribute significantly on learners' WTC. Krashen (1982) argues that CF is potentially detrimental to L2 learning due to the increase of learners' anxiety. In addition, he adds that giving learners' CF during oral communication can hinder language acquisition as it provokes learners' anxiety and raises affective filter. Contrary finding is reported by Ellis (2009) that reveals that CF has positive effect on learners, lower their anxiety level and thereby facilitate L2 learning if teacher and learners know what they are doing and what the purpose of CF is. The present study confirms Ellis' argument that CF, prompts, gives positive effect on students' WTC regarding their anxiety, self-confidence and anxiety.

Regarding accuracy, it reveals that the three groups have have significant difference in pre-test, post-test and delayed test. Both focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform more than control group with mean differences consecutively 12,7 and 8.5. While focused prompt groups outperforms more than unfocused prompt groups with mean difference 3.7. Ellis (2009) points out that it is likely to be more difficult in unfocused CF if the learners are given any correction of any errors they make without reflecting much on their errors, so focused CF is considered to be more effective to examine a single error made by the learners in a certain linguistic form. Focused CF can promote not only attention, but also understanding of the nature of the error rather than unfocused CF that may more superior in the long run but not in short one. Hedge (2000 cited in Li, 2014) suggests that teachers focus on the "errors" made by learners due to the lack of knowledge about a linguistic item, rather than "mistakes", which are non systematic and occur as a result of factors such as fatigue. Therefore in the form of linguistic error, it will be beneficial to focus on a certain form of grammar that causes the problems in communication rather than any errors which do not.

Lyster and Sato (2013) argue that prompts may be particularly effective for learners who have already known grammatical structure, but not yet mastered. Focused prompts enable additional practice in retreieving existing knowledge and therefore assist learners to construct their interlanguage through contextualized practice. All participants have already known grammatical structure e.g. simple present and comparison previously. From the plot profile (see figure 2), it reveals that the means of focused, unfocused prompt and control groups are consecutively 60.2, 60.5, and 60.25. it rises during the post test after getting treatment for the two groups (focused and unfocused prompt groups) with consecutively (focused prompt M=92, unfocused promp M=84.5 and control M=75.25). it postulates the effectiveness of CF,

prompts, for the acquisition of grammatical structure. Shonghori (2012) suggests the teachers to modify their grammar teaching method regarding EFL classroom context. The teacher should carefully selects the correct instruction in teaching grammar.

Conclusion

The present study provides the confirmation of the effectiveness of CF in general that theoretically relevance to L2 acquisition, practically relevance to L2 pedagogy and researchable in the classroom (Ellis, 2010). The result shows different target of language ragarding learner's WTC and accuracy. Focused and unfocused prompt treatment shows significant improvement over no treatment group in both WTC and accuracy.

The rejection of the effectiveness of CF that can hinder learner's communication and raise anxiety is answered by the present research that CF facilitates learners' acquisition and learning in L2. It will be meaningful when teachers give a effective feedback by prompting, for instance, rather than correcting learner's errors by using "why?", how can?, "what", etc..that may raise learner's anxiety and decrease learner's WTC.

Limitation of this study is that the variables measured in WTC only focuses on motivation, self-confidence and anxiety by using questionnaire. Because there are many variables influencing students' WTC, further research may take other variables to give more comprehensive finding to the effectiveness of CF on WTC. Regarding accuracy, further research may consider about the use of CF to the new Grammatical construction to see the effectiveness of CF.

References

- Ahmad, S., and Jarrah, S. (2015). The Impact of Direct Corrective Feedback Type on the Linguistic Accuracy of EFL Students' Writing. *The ASIAN EFL Journal Quarterly*, 17 (2), 8-36
- Ammar, A. and N. Spada. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28, no. 4: 543–574.
- Asadi, A (2010).Prevalence of anxiety and its relationship with self steem among Zabol University students, Iran Educational Research. 1(5). 140-144 retrieved from http://www.interesjournals.org/ER
- Aydin, S, (2008). An Investigation on the Language Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Turkish EFL Learners, *The ASIAN EFL Journal Quarterly*, 31 Professional Teaching Articles October 2008

- Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, 39, 468–479.
- Cao, Y. (2014). A Sociocognitive Perspective on Second Language Classroom Willingness to Communicate. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48 (4), 789-814.
- Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language* acquisition: A collection of empirical studies (pp. 407 – 452). Oxford : Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., Erlam, R. (2006). *Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Researching the effects of form-focused instruction on L2 acquisition. AILA Review 19 Themes in SLA Research, 18–41.
- Ellis, R. (2010). Cognitive, social and pshycological dimensions of corrective feedback in R.Batstone (ed.). sociocognitive perspective on language use and language learning.Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Gurzynski-Weiss, Laura. (2014). Spanish Graduate Instructors' In-Class Cognition and Feedback Provision over Time. In Selected Proceedings of the 2012 Second Language Research Forum, ed. Ryan T. Miller et al., 227-239. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project. www.lingref.com, document #3099.
- Kang, S. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System 33*, 277-292.
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Harmer, J. (1983). The practice of English language teaching. London: Longman.
- Hashimoto (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: the Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies 20* (2), 29-70.
- Krashen, S. (1981). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Lee, E., J. (2016). Reducing international graduate students' language anxiety through oral pronunciation corrections. *System*, 56, 78-95.
- Liu, M. & Jackson, J. (2009). Reticence in Chinese EFL students with varied proficiency levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, 26 (2), 65-81.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. Long, M. (2007). Problems in SLA. Ny-London: Erlbaum Associates.

- Lyster, R., & Satio, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition 32*(2), 265–302.
- Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher-student interaction . *International Journal of Educational Research*, *37*, 237 253.
- Lyster, R., & L. Ranta. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*, 37-66.
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *26*, 399-432.
- Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content: A counterbalanced approach*. Amsterdam : Benjamins.
- MacIntyre, P., Dornyei, Z., Clement, R., Noels, K. (1998). Conceptionalizing willingness to communicate in a L2: a situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal 82* (3), 545-562.
- MacIntyre, P.D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System, 38*, 161-171.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: a qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(1), 81–96.
- Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA. A meta-analysis and reserach synthesis. In a Mackey (ed.)., *conversational interaction in SLA: a collection of empirical studies (pp* 408-452). Oxford: England: Oxford University Press.
- Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak. (2015). Investigating the Dynamic Nature of L2 Willingness to Communicate. *System*, 50, 1-9.
- Rassaei, E. (2015). Oral corrective feedback, foreign language anxiety and L2 development. *System*, 49, 98-109.
- Sarandi, H. (2016). Oral corrective feedback: A question of classification and application. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50, 1, p. 235-246.
- Songhori, M., H. (2012). Exploring the congruence between teachers' and students' preferences for form-focused instruction: isolated or integrated? *The ASIAN EFL Journal Quarterly*, 61(July), 4-23.
- Shaofeng, L. (2014). Oral corrective feedback. ELT Journal, 68, 2.
- Shaofeng, L. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 62, 2, 309-365.
- W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), Handbook of language acquisition (pp. 413-468). San

Diego: Academic Press.

- Yashima, T., (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: the Japanese EFL context. *Modern Language Journal* 86, 54-66.
- Zarinnabadi, N. (2014). Communicating in a second language: Investigating the effect of teachers on learners' Willingness to communicate. *System*, 42, 288-295
- Zgutowicz,R. (2009). What Effects Does Language Anxiety Have on ESL Students' Decisions to Speak English in a Middle School Classroom, retrieved from http://www.hamline.edu/Content.aspx?id=2147502383.

Appendix A

Pre-test

The following items measure your affective variables regarding Willingness to communicate (WTC) such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. Please rate your affective variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6		7					
	Low			medi	ium				h	igh			
1.	Anxiet	y about	speaki	ng Eng	glish		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Fear to	speak	n fron	t of clas	ssmate	S	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Being English	embarra n	assed 1	to com	munica	ate in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Enjoy	particip	ating ii	n class	discuss	sion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Positiv English		tude	toward	d lea	rning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Motiva	tion to	develo	p oral I	English	l	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Willing	gness to	comm	unicate	e in En	glish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Excited	d to imp	prove s	poken l	Englisł	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Self-co	onfidenc	e to sp	eak in	Englis	h	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Enjoyn	nent of	learnin	g oral]	Englisł	1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Confidence to initiate conversation in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
English							
12. Self-confidence to communicate in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
English							

Delayed-test Affective variables after getting teacher's oral feedback

The following items measure your affective variables regarding Willingness to communicate (WTC) such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. Please rate your affective variables after getting your teachers' oral feedback

	1	2	3	4	5	6		7		-			
	Low			med	lium				ł	nigh			
1.	Anxie	ty abo	ut speak	ing En	glish		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Fear to	o speal	k in fron	t of cla	issmates		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Being Englis		rrassed	to com	nmunica	te in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Enjoy	partic	ipating i	n class	discussi	ion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Positiv Englis		ttitude	towar	d lear	ning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Motiva	ation t	o develo	op oral	English		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Willin	gness	to comm	nunicat	e in Eng	lish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Excite	d to in	nprove s	spoken	English		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Self-co	onfide	nce to sj	peak in	English		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Enjoyı	ment c	of learnin	ng oral	English		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Confic Englis		to initia	ate con	versatio	n in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Self-co	onfide	nce to	comr	nunicate	in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

English				
e e				

Post-test affective variables and corrective feedback (prompts)

The following items measure your affective variables and corrective feedback (prompts) regarding Willingness to communicate (WTC) such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence. Please rate each items from **strongly disagree** to **strongly agree**

7

1	2	3	4	5	6	

Strongly disagree somewhat agree			stror	ngly	agre	e	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I don't think good about getting my teacher's corrective feedback on my oral English error							
 I have high anxiety about receiving my teacher's oral corrective feedback 							
3. When the teacher corrects my errors, it makes me embarrassed to communicate							
4. I am afraid of the other students will laugh at me when the teacher corrects my utterance errros							
5. I don't want to get any corrective feedback from my teacher, since it makes me feel tense about speaking English							
6. I am afraid of speaking right after the teacher corrects my errors							
 My teacher's oral corrective feedback makes me feel anxious about learning communicating in English 							
8. Whenever I get the teacher's oral correction, my fear of initiating to speak increases							
 9. I am generally nervous when I get my teacher's oral corrective feedback on my English errors or mistakes in front of my classmates 10. My teacher's oral corrective feedback makes me feel 							

			· · · · ·	 · · · · ·
uncomfortable in initiating to speak				
11. When my classmates present their topic, I often pay				
attention to their oral English errors or mistakes				
12. To improve my English, it is necessary that I learn				
from my own errors				
13. I want my teacher to correct all of my errors when I				
speak English				
14. I think I learn more when my teacher corrects my				
speech				
15. I really enjoy getting my teacher's oral corrective				
feedback in the class				
16. I want my teacher to correct only the errors that I				
make most often when I speak English				
17. I have a very strong desire to receive my teacher's				
corrective feedback on my utterance errors or				
mistakes to develop my oral English				
18. I always look forward to my teacher's oral corrective				
feedback				
19. I try to correct my errors after the teacher corrects				
me by repeating after him/her.				
20. When my classmates make errors, I try to think of				
the correct answer in my head				
21. Knowing my oral errors significantly motivates me				
to develop my oral English proficiency				
22. Whenever I receive my teacher's oral corrective				
feedback, I am willing to communicate in English				
23. Teacher's oral corrective feedback helps to increase				
my motivation to speak English more often				
24. I am motivated to learn English by means of				
teachers' oral corrective feedback				
25. I think teacher's oral corrective feedback have an				
influential impact in developing my oral English				
		I		

26. Oral corrective feedback involves me more in			
interaction with my teacher			
27. Being aware of my spoken English errors via			
teacher's oral corrective feedback makes me become			
a more competent EFL learner, even outside of the			
classroom			
28. More oral corrective feedback of my English means			
more investment to develop my oral English			
29. The more teacher corrects my oral English, the more			
self confidence I have to sepak English correctly			
30. Teacher's oral corrective feedback facilitates me to			
speak out in front of my classmates during in class			
presentation			
31. Oral Corrective feedback on my English enables me			
to speak without any hesitation or fear of making			
mistakes			
32. Whenever I get teacher's oral corrective feedback, I			
realize that I can speak English fluently with more			
confident			
33. My teacher's oral corrective feedback lets me speak			
to native English speaker with more confident			
34. My teacher's oral corrective feedback encourages me			
to engage positively in classroom discussions and			
activities			
35. Whenever I need to talk to others in English outside			
the classroom, my teacher's corrective feedback			
boost my self-confidence to communicate fluently			
with them			
36. I think my teacher's oral corrective feedback is			
connected with improvements in my self-confidence			
to speak English			
37. My teacher's oral corrective feedback allows me to			
ask or question in class confidently without any			
ask of question in class confidently without ally			

hesitation				
38. Thanks to my teacher's oral corrective feedback, I				
feel like a competent and confident English speaker				
whenever I speak with other ESL speakers				

Title

Professional English Teaching on the Basis of Blended Learning

Author

Ekaterina Tarasova National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University, Russia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Ekaterina S. Tarasova is Associate Professor, Department of Foreign Languages, Institute of Power Engineering, Tomsk Polytechnic University. Her research interests include Translation and Translation studies, Blended Learning and English Teaching. She has a Ph.D. in Foreign Languages Teaching. She can be reached at <u>maybelle@tpu.ru</u>

Abstract

The following article describes Professional English teaching using the concept of Blended Learning. Blended Learning is a new concept in teaching foreign languages however as every new thing it has certain advantages and drawbacks. The Moodle-based electronic course was developed for Master students with Power Engineering as the major in order to implement the Blended learning approach and to obtain the feedback from the students. The author will analyze positive and negative sides of her experience as well as discuss main challenges to be solved for successful application of Blended Learning approach in the foreign language teaching as a whole and in professional English Language teaching to students with non-linguistic major (on the example of Power Engineering) in particular.

Key words: Blended learning, English teaching, flipped classroom, electronic course, Master students

Introduction

Foreign language has been one of the first university subjects to introduce information technologies. This advance was especially evident in engineering education where there is a shortage of class hours allocated for the foreign language (English) learning. This gave the impetus to the development of e-learning and Blended Learning (BL) in particular as the means stimulating students' academic autonomy. Moreover it has been reported that BL is remarkable for its possibility to use individual approach to every student on the one hand and to manage large number of students on the other hand.

In terms of foreign language teaching BL is efficient as it combines face-toface approach with interactivity within the electronic platform (e.g. Moodle, Blackboard, etc.), thus increasing the motivation of the students. BL allows students to organize and plan their study, search for the relevant information, make decisions concerning their independent work, and to develop the skills of presenting the projects.

The disadvantages of BL are that it requires considerable amount time and efforts from the teaching staff to ensure the electronic course updates. It's worth mentioning that BL is a system of teaching and learning which combines the best practices of face-to-face and e-learning. The teaching process is structured as a system consisting of different parts communicating with each other where one part of information is obtained in class and controlled by the teacher whereas another part is provided on the electronic platform and is focused on the development of the students' academic autonomy of either individually or as a team.

In Garrison & Kanuka (2004) study, the blended learning is a student-centered approach to creating a learning experience whereby the learner interacts with other students, with the instructor, and with content through thoughtful integration of online and face-to-face environments (R. Garrison & H. Kanuka,). TPU approach: BL - is a way of organizing the course the way that some of the classes are delivered purely online, i.e. 80% of the classes use both F2F and Electronic resources and 20% are delivered online.

BL Model for Foreign Language Teaching

Research Goals and Tasks

The goal of this article is to analyze the experience of the author in using the BL for foreign language teaching to engineering students, discuss positive and negative results. The research was carried out in the National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University (TPU) which is one of the pioneers of engineering education in the Russian Federation. The necessity to launch the course of professional English was stipulated by the lack of allocated class hours and different level of the English language knowledge. In our study we chose the Master students of the Institute of Power Engineering (TPU) for two main reasons:

- Power Engineering is one of the most important branches of industry and the graduates should have high foreign language competence as they work both in Russia and abroad. Moreover high English language competence is conditioned by the fact that a qualified engineer always tries to search for new information in target sphere.
- 2. In our opinion, Master students are the most suitable for this type of research as they have already an experience in planning their study and certain life experience. Most of them are focused on their future career and thus are highly motivated to be competitive on the job market.

The tasks of the research were the following:

- develop the target-specific e-course which will serve as the basis for Blended Learning;
- run the Blended Learning model and analyze the results;
- get the students feedback and adjust the course according to their responses.

Description of the experiment

This research involved one group of Master students with Electric Power Engineering as the major. According to the tasks of the research we developed the Moodle based e-course "Economics in power engineering". The main goal of the course is to provide knowledge and understanding of professionally-related vocabulary in the field of Economics of Power Engineering, competence in making presentations and conducting research in the area of scientific interests. This semester course consists of 4 main units divided in two modules. It combines individual and team work, elements of case-study and problem based learning. Total number of hours is 64 (32 contact hours and 32 self-study) where 6 hours out of 32 contacts hours were removed from the class and delivered online. Students were informed of the syllabus and instructions to each part. This step is of crucial importance because students should clearly see their progress (number of points for every task and learning outcomes upon completion of the module/unit) (see Figure 1). The Figure 1 shows the sample syllabus, where F2F stands for traditional classroom mode of delivery and EE – electronic mode. Though the syllabus does not specify synchronous/asynchronous modes of delivery, nevertheless both modes were successfully applied.

Instructional strategies/Activies	Points	Delivery	Date Sth week	Group Index 5AM54
Chat Discussion "What do you think on these ways of energy saving?"		656		
Energy efficient technologies, Workshop (reports) Energy Efficient technologies Workshop (peer assessment)	2	EE	5th	5AM6
Lecture. Electricity Trading in Competitive Power Market An Overview and Key Issues	2	ee.	6th week	5AM5 ⁴
Guided Discussion	1	F2F	6th week	54M5
Abstract Writing	2	EE	7 th week	SAMS
Brainstorming	1	P2P	7th week	SAMS
Poster Presentations (Groups) -Presentation -Posters - peer assessment - LO "How to make poster presentation"		F2F EE	8 th week 8th week	5AM5+
Final Test 1	2	EE	9 th weak	5AM54
CONFERENCE WEEK			9th week	
TOTAL	16			

Figure 1. Course Syllabus (on the example of Module 1 "Energy Markets")

The selected students have already acquired the experience in working with Moodle-based courses in Russian, however the mode of delivery, i.e. Blended Learning, was new for them. The structure of the course included:

- 1. Entrance test
- 2. Experimental teaching + Formative assessment
- 3. Summative assessment
- 4. Feedback

As we analyzed the application of BL in regards to the English language teaching it is necessary to say that we used the Flipped classroom approach, i.e. most time consuming activities e.g. tests, writing assignments, projects, etc., were prepared at home and during F2F and/or online sessions the focus was given to oral speech (see Table 1).

Table 1. Types of tasks according to the modes of delivery

	Writing	Speaking	Reading	Listening
--	---------	----------	---------	-----------

F2F	-	projects,	-	Short tracks
		presentations,		(less than 5-6
		discussions		min)
Asynchronous	Reports,	Video	texts and	Long audio
	essays,	presentations	articles (for	tracks
	abstracts,		self-study or	
	summary		as a part of	
			home	
			assignment)	
Synchronous	Tests, quizzes,	Webinars, chat	-	Short tracks
	chat	discussions,		(less than 5-6
	discussions,	forums		min)
	forums			

Flipped classroom approach helped us in several aspects: first, students developed their autonomy in doing most of preparation on their own and, secondly, thus was a way out to develop communicative skills during F2F/online sessions. As communicative skills lay the basis for the successful communication, students also highly appreciated the possibility to communicate via the e-resources (forums). This was of particular importance because several tasks provided peer-assessment of the tasks fulfilled, i.e. students had to grade their groupmate's work and write the comment which states the reasons for the assessment grade.

Findings and Results

Having analyzed the performance of the students it was decided to get the feedback. Students were offered to answer several questions on their attitude towards the BL in general and to the course in particular.

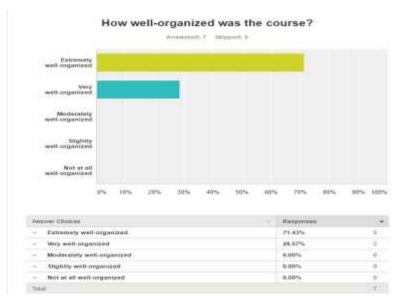


Figure 2a. Feedback example



Figure 2b. Feedback example

As it can be seen from the diagrams the majority of students is satisfied with the structure of the course. Moreover students note high degree of motivation due to the wide range of tasks provided by the e-platform. We introduced several tasks which were new to the students (peer-assessment tasks, video presentations and poster presentations) and this lead to certain difficulties in meeting the requirements.

Conclusion

The given research focused on the pilot run of the Blended Learning model on the basis of the tailor-made Moodle-based course. The results of the research allow us to say that BL model combines advantages of both types Face-to-Face and Electronic modes of delivery. Limited number of contact hours makes BL very perspective in terms of students' autonomy development. The extent of BL potential application in teaching English needs to be further investigated.

References

 Garrison, R. & Kanuka, H. (2004) Blended Learning: Uncovering its transformative potential in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 7 (2), 95-105.

Title

How do Undergraduate Students avoid Plagiarism?

Author

Elok Putri Nimasari Muhammadiyah University of Ponorogo Corresponding email: <u>elokputrinimasari@gmail.com</u>

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Elok Putri Nimasari is an English Lecturer of Engineering Faculty of Muhammadiyah University of Ponorogo. She gained her master degree in Sebelas Maret University. She has been a presenter for several conferences such as the 7th COTEFL UNMUH Purwokerto, the 1st ICTTE UNS Solo, TESOL Indonesia International Conference Lombok 2016, and the 63rd TEFLIN. Her major study concerns on analyzing material and teaching development for ESP class.

Abstract

Academic dishonesty such as plagiarism refers to cheating and presenting other's creation as one's original work. As a number of technologies especially the use of Smartphone and internet to gather information has been increasing hugely, plagiarism should be seriously considered as an intellectual violence. Whether or not students do copy and paste consciously, it is institution responsibility to introduce what should be identified as plagiarism, to give long term guidance of writing practices, and to apply transparent penalty system consistently. This study focuses on identifying students' behavior towards plagiarism, identifying types of plagiarism, and analyzing possible solution to ameliorate academic misconduct.

Keywords: plagiarism, behavior, academic dishonesty, undergraduate students

Introduction

In the academic setting, one will be admitted as an academician when he or she publishes his or her research works (Bakhtiyari et al., 2014). Unfortunately, cited references used are mostly written inappropriately just for the sake of an academic recognition. Moreover, academic pressures such as due date tasks and passing grades that should be faced by both undergraduate and postgraduate students cause this academic dishonesty becomes more common (Anney & Mosha, 2015; Makhfiyana & Mudzakkir, 2010; Arista & Listyani, 2015). As the number of technologies especially the use of Smartphone and internet to gather information has been increasing hugely, this academic misconduct or called as plagiarism is also getting more prevalent among academicians (Anney & Mosha, 2015; Holt, Fagerheim, & Durham, 2014; Eldakak, 2010)

Theories from experts report that plagiarism is claiming other's work as one's original creation without putting any acknowledgment, citing the author, or mentioning something as a proof for the reason why it is written so (Anderson, 2009; Köse & Arikan, 2011; Fish & Hura, 2013). Many studies have revealed that plagiarism becomes a global and critical issue in the educational setting especially among college, undergraduate, and postgraduate students (Halupa, 2014; Marshall, Taylor, Hothersall, & Pérez-Martín, 2011; BavaHarji, Chetty, Ismail, & Letchumanan, 2016; Teeter, 2015). These studies analyzed why students do cheat, what factors beyond the issue, and how to treat them to decrease the possibility of plagiarism in the various learning context.

In Indonesian pedagogic context, it is a pity knowing that many pieces evidences expose that huge plagiarism has been occurred among academicians (Hidayati, 2009; Makhfiyana & Mudzakkir, 2010; Tempo.co, 2014). Nowadays, people easily get information through their Smartphone and beneficial applications that can be freely downloaded whenever and wherever they want, so this behavior becomes more common and acceptable. However, plagiarism is a kind of intellectual violence that can decrease the quality of a research and the capability of an academician. The awareness of research ethic should be introduced for the very first time when ones involve in academia. The government has been prevented plagiarism through the regulation of Indonesian Education Ministry number 17, the year 2010. This law regulates plagiarism behavior, kinds of plagiarism, and ethical code for academic works (Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, 2010). It is also administered that universities are responsible for preventing their students from academic dishonesty behavior. Since plagiarism has been regulated, academicians should not neglect this issue. Although there are some prior studies in some Indonesian universities have reviewed this

issue, this study aims to verify the students' awareness towards plagiarism in the different learning context. A former study or a survey related to plagiarism has not been researched in Muhammadiyah University of Ponorogo. Therefore, this recent study examines to identify students' behavior towards plagiarism, to identify types of plagiarism, and analyze possible solution to minimize plagiarism behavior using a case scenario of plagiarism questionnaire developed by (Dawson et al., 2006).

Literature Review

Plagiarism's terminology is used when an intellectual property is taken without permission. It is stealing any idea, written works, innovation, and creation from other people and publishing it as one's own without citing the reference from the original author (Park, 2003; Anderson, 2009; Shahabuddin, 2009; Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, 2010; Ecember, 2011; Köse & Arikan, 2011; Reingold & Baratz, 2011; Fazel & Kowkabi, 2013; Fish & Hura, 2013; Henslee, Goldsmith, Stone, & Krueger, 2015). Plagiarism is more acceptable among undergraduate students. Nowadays, only through one second-click*googling*, they can get unlimited resources and information. There are many reasons why plagiarism is more common. It is confirmed that incomprehension toward plagiarism, academic pressure and educational culture in the university, peer influences, and the low intensity of institutional anti-plagiarism activities are the reasons why the students plagiarize (McGee, 2013; Park, 2003; Teeter, 2015).

There are many types of plagiarism. Below are types of plagiarism constructed from experts (Anney & Mosha, 2015; Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, 2010; Park, 2003; Ummul Khair Ahmad, Kobra Mansourizadeh, & Grace Koh Ming Ai, 2012).

- 1. Quoting words, taking figures, or using information from textbook or online sources and presenting it as one's own without citing any reference
- 2. Taking other's work and acknowledging it as one's own
- 3. Copying or reduplicating part of information using full reference but without using quotation mark
- 4. Paraphrasing information, texts, or any material from textbook or online sources without citing the reference

Four previous studies have examined the phenomenon of plagiarism with various backgrounds and different contexts. First, Dawson et al. (2006) developed a case scenario of plagiarism questionnaire to reveal the students of Higher Education Institutions in the UK's understanding about plagiarism and where it occurs. Second, Ahmad et al. (2012) used

Dawson's case scenario questionnaire to verify students' conception towards plagiarism in the postgraduate program of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. It was confirmed that the students had a misconception about kinds of plagiarism and were confused about how to cite and to paraphrase references appropriately. Third, Ariani (2013) conducted her study in the Faculty of Social and Political Science of Airlangga University, Indonesia. Her study was viewed from social aspects. It was reported that the students had negative belief but the social control towards plagiarism was still inadequate so practical prevention was necessary to conduct. Fourth, Arista & Listyani (2015) took their research in the Faculty of Social of Surabaya State University, Indonesia. This study was viewed from social aspects and identified the phenomenon of plagiarism among undergraduate students. It was reported that the students knew plagiarism but they still plagiarized because of some reasons.

Methodology

Since the studies related to plagiarism are rarely conducted in Education major, especially in the private university in Indonesia, the author is interested in examining students' awareness towards plagiarism in Muhammadiyah University of Ponorogo, Indonesia. This qualitative study uses a plagiarism case scenario developed by (Dawson et al., 2006) to identify the behavior towards plagiarism from 15 English Education Department students in the last semester. The literatures written in the scenarios are purposively taken from current issues in English language teaching academic articles.

Result and Discussion

Below are the analysis results of plagiarism case scenario questionnaire. The results are displayed in the charts and descriptions. The following chart is for section A.

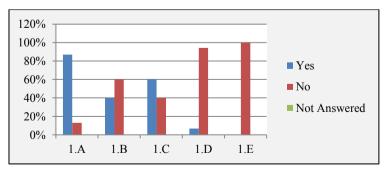


Figure1. Question 1: Plagiarism is...

Figure 1 displays students' responses what they think of plagiarism. From the chart, 87% students choose [1.A] that using someone else's words is plagiarism. The second level,

60% students decide [1.C], that claiming other work result's as one's own is including plagiarism. Meanwhile, 40% students choose [1.B] and 6.7% students choose [1.D] feel hesitant whether using other ideas and sharing work are including plagiarism. In addition, there is no one thinking getting ideas from textbook [1.D] is categorized as plagiarism. This clarifies that most of the students have understood that plagiarism is using and submitting other work's as one's own as in line with the findings from Arista and Listyani's study (Arista & Listyani, 2015). However, they have to be given clearer understanding the differences between using someone else' work and ideas since some of the students state that claiming someone idea's is including in plagiarism.

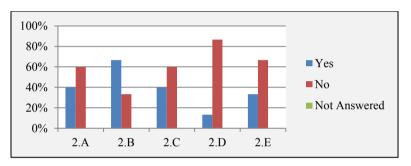


Figure 2. Question 2: Plagiarism is legally and ethically wrong, because...

Figure 2 shows why plagiarism is wrong. Answer [2.B] is chosen by 66.7% students with the perception that it is dishonest. Meanwhile, answer [2.A] and [2.C] are chosen by 40% students, 33% students choose answer [2.E] and the rest ones, 1.3% students mark answer [2.D]. This result indicates that most of them know that plagiarism is dishonest. Interestingly, by 40% indication of [2.A] and [2.C], the students know that plagiarism will not only measure their achievement but also it will risk their marks. Having a little difference, 33% students believe that plagiarism steals other people ideas [2.D] and the rest, 13.3% students think that nothing learnt by doing plagiarism. This result is consistent with the theories from Park (2003), Anderson (2009), Shahabuddin (2009), Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, (2010), Ecember, (2011), Köse & Arikan, (2011), Reingold & Baratz (2011), Fazel & Kowkabi (2013), Fish & Hura (2013), Henslee, Goldsmith, Stone, & Krueger (2015).

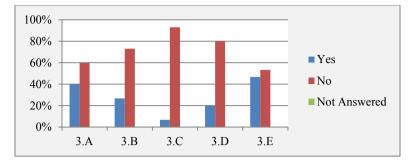


Figure 3: You may be accused of collusion if you...

Figure 3 displays possible plagiarism that may be done by the students. More than 46% students feel [3.E] as the most possible collusion they do while the less chosen choice, [3.A] is pointed by 40% students. Therefore, [3.B] is selected by 26.7% students, [3.D] is pointed by 20% students and [3.C] is chosen by 6.7% students. It indicates that most of the students see that they may be claimed to plagiarize if they pass off someone else's work for personal benefit.

Case 1-3 are made based on three different choices; plagiarized (without citation), verbatim (although using citation), and paraphrased. Most students certainly recognize plagiarism because there is no reference given but they are confused to differentiate whether or not verbatim is plagiarism when it is referenced. However, approximately 20%-26% students who do not know how to cite appropriately and most of them cannot give specific reason for question 3. This result is in line with the finding from Ahmad et al. (2012) and Arista & Listyani (2015).

Case 4 shows students understanding towards kinds of plagiarism in term of lending work. More than half students realize that lending work and submitting without any permission involves in plagiarism. Despite this, since there still 40% students who are confused which one plagiarizes; the institution should give clearer understanding.

Case 5 indicates how taking figures should be referenced. Based on the questionnaire result, students have understood that case 5 is dishonest. Meanwhile, in case 6, most of students have recognized that cheating is a part of plagiarism although various perceptions towards behaviors in the examination have been reported. These various behaviors have reflected that they somehow are hesitant to distinguish which one is working in groups and which one is doing examination

Conclusion

The following conclusions aim to answer the research objectives. Those are:

- In term of students' behavior towards plagiarism, based on questionnaire result, it is concluded that they have known plagiarism in the definition but they are still uncertain to distinguish kinds of plagiarism.
- 2. Types of plagiarism according to Ahmad et al., (2012), Anney & Mosha (2015), Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia (2010) and Park (2003) that mostly identified based on questionnaire are plagiarism type 1, type 3, and type 2. Students know the risk of plagiarism but they do not know how to paraphrase and how to cite references appropriately.
- 3. Based on the questionnaire analysis, it is urgently needed for the lecturers and the institution to have a well-cooperated work to enrich students' knowledge in academic writing for thesis proposal. In addition, university libraries should provide reference books and journals to support students' writing.

References

- Ahmad, U. K., Mansourizadeh, K., & Ai, G. K. M. (2012). None Native University Students' Perception of Plagiarism. Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 3(1), 39–48. http://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.3n.1p.39
- Anderson, I. (2009). Avoiding plagiarism in academic writing. Nursing Standard : Official Newspaper of the Royal College of Nursing, 23(18), 35–37. http://doi.org/10.7748/ns2009.01.23.18.35.c6739
- Anney, V. N., & Mosha, M. A. (2015). Student's Plagiarisms in Higher Learning Institutions in the Era of Improved Internet Access: Case Study of Developing Countries, 6(13), 203–217.
- Ariani, R. C. (2013). Opini Mahasiswa Fakultas Ilmu Sosial dan Ilmu Politik Universitas Airlangga Terhadap Plagiarisme. *JURNAL SOSIAL DAN POLITIK*.
- Arista, R. F., & Listyani, R. H. (2015). PLAGIARISME DI KALANGAN MAHASISWA. *E* Journal UNESA, 3(2).
- Bakhtiyari, K., Salehi, H., Embi, M. A., Shakiba, M., Zavvari, A., Shahbazi-Moghadam, M.,
 ... Mohammadjafari, M. (2014). Ethical and unethical methods of plagiarism
 prevention in academic writing. *International Education Studies*, 7(7), 52–62.
 http://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v7n7p52
- BavaHarji, M., Chetty, T. N., Ismail, Z. B., & Letchumanan, K. (2016). A Comparison of the Act and Frequency of Plagiarism between Technical and Non-Technical Programme Undergraduates. *English Language Teaching*, 9(4), 106.

http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n4p106

- Dawson, M. M., Overfield, J. A., Dawson, M. M., & Overfield, J. A. (2006). Plagiarism : Do Students Know What It Is? Plagiarism : Do Students Know What It Is?, 7860(June). http://doi.org/10.3108/beej.8.1
- Ecember, D. (2011). Expressing New Understanding in One 'S Own Words?
- Eldakak, S. (2010). Does Applying Ethics in Education Have an Effective Impact in the Classroom.
- Fazel, I., & Kowkabi, N. (2013). Students' source misuse in language classrooms: Sharing experiences. TESL Canada Journal, 31(1), 86–95.
- Fish, R., & Hura, G. (2013). Students' perceptions of plagiarism. *Journal of the Scholarship* of Teaching and Learning, 13(5), 33–45.
- Halupa, C. M. (2014). Exploring student self-plagiarism. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 3(1), 121–126. http://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v3n1p121
- Henslee, A. M., Goldsmith, J., Stone, N. J., & Krueger, M. (2015). An Online Tutorial Vs. Pre-Recorded Lecture For Reducing Incidents Of Plagiarism. *American Journal of Engineering Education (AJEE)*, 6(1), 27–32.
- Hidayati, R. dkk. (2009). PERILAKU PLAGIAT MAHASISWA (Studi Kasus Plagiasi Melalui Internet Dikalangan Mahasiswa Fisipol UNIB). UNIB Scholar Repository. Retrieved from http://repository.unib.ac.id/3968/
- Holt, E. A., Fagerheim, B., & Durham, S. (2014). Online plagiarism training falls short in biology classrooms. *CBE Life Sciences Education*, 13(1), 83–89. http://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.13-08-0146
- Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia. (2010). Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan Nasional Republik Indonesia tentang Pencegahan dan Penanggulangan Plagiat di Perguruan Tinggi. Retrieved from http://www.scribd.com/doc/58091151/Permendiknas-17-Thn-2010-Tentang-Penanggulangan-Plagiat#download
- Köse, Ö., & Arikan, A. (2011). Reducing plagiarism by using online software : An experimental study. *Contemporary Online Language Education Journal*, *1*, 122–129. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/detail?accno=ED524097
- Makhfiyana, I., & Mudzakkir, M. (2010). RASIONALITAS PLAGIARISME DI KALANGAN MAHASISWA. *E Journal UNESA*, 1–5.
- Marshall, T., Taylor, B., Hothersall, E., & Pérez-Martín, L. (2011). Plagiarism: a case study of quality improvement in a taught postgraduate programme. *Medical Teacher*, 33(7), e375–e381. http://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2011.579201

- McGee, P. (2013). Supporting Academic Honesty in Online Courses. *Journal of Educators Online*, 10, 1–31.
- Park, C. (2003). In other (people's) words: Plagiarism by university students literature and lessons. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 28(5), 471–488. http://doi.org/10.1080/0260293032000120352
- Reingold, R., & Baratz, L. (2011). An Institutional Code of Ethics A Response to Attitude of Israeli Teachers ' Education College Students Towards Academic Plagiarism, 8(5), 589–598.
- Shahabuddin, S. (2009). Plagiarism in academia. International Journal of Teaching andLearninginHigherEducation,21(3),353–359.http://doi.org/10.1080/08989621.2003.9714386
- Teeter, J. (2015). Deconstructing attitudes towards plagiarism of Japanese undergraduates in EFL academic writing classes. *English Language Teaching*, 8(1), 95–109. http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n1p95
- Tempo.co. (2014). 8 Kasus Plagiat yang Menghebohkan Indonesia. *Koran Tempo*. Retrieved from https://m.tempo.co/read/news/2014/02/18/078555420/8-kasus-plagiat-yangmenghebohkan-indonesia/1

Title

English Lesson Planning of K-13 with Scientific Approach

Author

Elvina Arapah English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Elvina Arapah is a faculty member in the English Department of Universitas Lambung Mangkurat, South Borneo, Indonesia. Her area of interest is techniques in English Language Teaching. She obtains her degree from the State University of Malang and is currently handling Micro Teaching Course. She can be reached at <u>elvteen1327@gmail.com</u>

Abstract

The objective of the study was to investigate the five teaching steps of the Scientific Approach in the K-13 English Lesson Plans. The sample consisted of 110 out of 550 lesson plans made individually by the undergraduate students in the Micro Teaching Course. The data on the activities planned were analyzed by listing them down into the appropriate step. The results of the research showed that: (1) there have been activities which are appropriately placed in the five steps of Scientific Approach; and (2) there have been activities which activities which actually do not belong to particular Scientific Approach steps.

Keywords: *teaching steps, observing, questioning, experimenting, associating, communicating*

Introduction

Curriculum 2013 (K-13) is the newly implemented curriculum in Indonesia. It tries to accommodate the Eight National Standard of Education in the Government Regulation of 19 Year 2005. In terms of Process Standard, Educational Ministry Regulation number 41, the year of 2007 states that every school teacher should make lesson plan to foster the teaching and learning process to be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, motivating the students

to participate actively, and giving enough opportunities to them to be innovative, creative and self-reliance based on their talents, motivations, and physical as well as psychological development. To cover those expectations of teaching and learning process, the lesson plan of K-13 should include the Scientific Approach steps of Observing, Questioning, Experimenting, Associating, and Communicating.

There have been arguments that K-13 teaching steps are not appropriate for English Language Teaching (ELT). First is due to the scientific approach which is considered not quite applicable in ELT classroom since it accommodates the teaching of sciences. Suharyadi (2013) states that Scientific Approach (SA) is not yet prominent in the area of language, particularly English language teaching. Other argument is that English teachers are mostly still questioning on how to develop the lesson plan required by K-13 because teachers were not supplemented with adequate examples of implementing SA in English Language Teaching (ELT).

This study aims to investigate the five teaching steps from the SA in the K-13 English Lesson Plans made by the students who programmed Micro Teaching Course by reviewing the match of the teaching steps in the K-13 English lesson plans made by the students with the intended scientific approach steps. The reason of taking the undergraduate students as the subjects because they are the future teachers who will interact with K-13 more.

Literature Review

The teaching steps of K-13 with SA include the five phases of activities. However, it is not obliged that one particular step always comes before or after another.

Observing

According to Suharyadi (2013), observing helps teachers to contextualize students" learning in the classroom. Some possible activities are reading, hearing, listening, and looking at with or without tools (Materi Pelatihan:2013).

Questioning

Suharyadi (2013) states that questioning can be used by both teachers and students in the classroom with various purposes

Associating

Suharyadi (2013) mentions that associating is the process of thinking logically and systematically. In the context of learning, "associating" is focused on students" learning activities.

Experimenting/Exploring

Suharyadi (2013) states that experimenting is about the skills to develop knowledge about the environment, and to use the scientific method and attitude to solve the problems faced in everyday life.

Communicating/Networking

Suharyadi (2013) assumes that in this step, the students are those who are active and in a collaborative situation, interact with empathy and mutual respect respectively. Materi Pelatihan (2013) includes communicating the observation results and conclusions based on the analysis orally, in written or through other media as possible activity.

Methodology

The data was obtained from the 110 out of 550 lesson plans made individually by the undergraduate students programmed the Micro Teaching Course. During the semester, each student is obliged to make four lesson plans for the teaching practice including drafting and revision, and one lesson plan for final exam. The data on the activities planned were analyzed by listing them down into the appropriate step.

Findings and Discussion

The five steps of the SA aren't included completely in the while activity; for example, three or four steps only covered. In observing, students are provided with objects, real objects, or phenomena when the teacher distributes some materials, and shows realia. At the same time, students could learn based on what they see or look and read to construct their knowledge when the teacher explained the materials, gave some examples, asked the students to identify some information from pictures and texts, showed a text and asked about the text. At the same time, students can learn based on what they hear or listen to construct their knowledge when the teacher played the recording and asked the students to find some information, showed a dialog and asked the students to observe it to find the

meaning/purpose. Context is also present to help students to connect what they have learned with what they are going to learn when the teacher led the students by showing pictures. However, some activities are not quite appropriate for this observing step such as when teacher checked students' background knowledge, drilled the students, gave exercise, gave motivation, told the learning objective, asked students to describe a person, and asked about students' difficulty.

In questioning, the teacher asked questions to develop students' critical thinking like when the teacher asks for students' opinions and insights. The teachers also asked to stimulate students to ask questions and to inquire about their difficulty such as *Do you have any questions* and *do you have any problems*? Teacher nurtures students' insights by guiding them to ask question related to the materials. Teacher usually reviews by asking questions; however, it would be great if the students are able to raise questions when they review or summarize previous lessons. Since most of the questions are from the teacher, the students' inquiring attitudes is actually not well-developed. Some unrelated activities which are included under questioning step are drilling the students, giving explanation, giving example, and helping the students to make a complete sentence in answering the reading questions.

One of the learning activities for Exploring/Experimenting step requires the students to perform and observe experiment. This can be seen when the students are asked to identify the characteristics of the material introduced, analyze the materials, to tell the event of a recount text, to describe some pictures, write a report text, perform a dialog, to read the text and analyze the information from the text, to arrange jumbled parts of an application letter and discus the correct arrangement, to identify the language feature, to mention the names of things. After the experiment and performance have been done, the results then can be discussed through peer correction and ideas sharing.

There were two findings that show the associating step of the students think logically and systematically. It was when the students were asked to relate the materials with their own experience and were asked to use the language features by relating it to their lives. Unfortunately, more irrelevant activities were included under associating step such as inviting students to give applause for the winner, asking questions about students' difficulty, and announcing that the time ends.

In communicating step, some activities show mutual respect such as when the students discuss the answer of the exercises and the students answer and when they do peer correction. The students are also asked to communicate their work by making a report or presenting their work. More activity of communicating is shown when students comment on

the monolog they listen to or give feedback after a performance. Some irrelevant ideas which have been put in the communicating are such as giving applause for the winner of a game, doing exercise, performing a dialog, analyzing the generic structure and language features of a text, pronouncing words, and changing sentence patterns.

Conclusion

In terms of determining which activities belong to which teaching steps, there have been ones which are appropriately place and which actually do not belong to particular SA steps and certain language skills. However, further research is recommended to have investigation on the steps in terms of specific four language skills. Similar forms of activity when they are placed in different teaching steps might be aimed in a different way.

References

- Suharyadi. (2013). Exploring "Scientific Approach" in English Language Teaching. In Toto
 Nusantara et al. (Eds). Prosiding Seminar Nasional Exchange of Experiences –
 Teachers Quality Improvement Program (TEQIP) 2013. Malang: PT. Pertamina &
 Universitas Negeri Malang
- Materi Pelatihan Guru Implementasi Kurikulum 2013 SMP-Bahasa Inggris. (2013) Jakarta: Badan Pengembangan Sumberdaya Manusia Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan dan Penjaminan Mutu Pendidikan, Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan

Title

Implementing a Design Model in Teaching Writing through Reflection Strategy for Indonesian EFL Students

Author

Eny Syatriana STKIP YPUP Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Eny Syatriana is a lecturer at Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan (STKIP) Yayasan Pendidikan Ujung Pandang (YPUP), Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. It is a Teacher Education Institution. She has been teaching English for many years and has involved in many research interest, such as designing instructional materials and learning strategies. She has participated some international presentations in some universities in collaboration with the Directorate of Higher Education in Indonesia. She has doctoral degree from Makassar State Universities and currently she teaches ESP and Writing subjects. She can be reached at enysyatriana@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study implemented a learning model on writing based on *reflection* strategy. The objectives of this research were: (1) to find out whether or not the use of the reflection strategy effective to develop student competence in writing? (2), and to find out at what level of the students' interest toward the use of the reflection strategy in writing subject? This research employed action research. The subject consisted of 40 English students in the academic year of 2015. The data on the students writing were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistic, and the data on the students' interest using descriptive statistics. The result of this study show that the implementation of reflection strategy could improve the ability of writing and interest of EFL students of STKIP YPUP. It can be seen from the data of pretest as 47.53 and post test 64.08. It's clearly suggested that the use of reflection strategy improve the writing ability of the students.

Introduction

Technology development and social interactions among countries definitely put English as a means of communication. Many countries use English to communicate around the world. Learning media and understanding of English become very important to our life. English in Indonesia is as foreign language. It is only taught in the classroom, not in general use in society. The condition, however, creates problem in learning English, students have less time to practice English, also in getting interaction in the classroom and they do not practice it properly outside the classroom. This situation should alert the teachers, professors or educators to find the way out. In everyday reality, based on the researcher's experiences and the observation in the classrooms, many students are not able to write English well.

During the learning process, the English teacher did not empower his all potential yet, so that, most of the students have not been able to achieve the basic competence in English lessons development. Besides that, most of the students, again, have not been hardly serious to study English. (Richard, 2001). New students are not yet able to learn, read, memorize vocabulary, write, and recall the rules of English. They have not been able to apply English effectively in every day conversation.

English students of STKIP YPUP are facing the same problem. They are difficult to analyze the different types of texts. They are usually misunderstanding to determine particular text. One of the reasons because there is no enough reinforcement in high school level. Writing is a language skill. It is used to communicate indirectly, not face to face with another person, but through the writing media. Through writing we can convey the contents of thoughts and feelings, both imaginary or real condition. In this case, we can write something based on our experience; funny, weird, thrilling, embarrassing or the experience of painful. Research questions are formulated based on the research problem above, as: (1) What kind of learning model that can develop the students writing ability? (2) What is the achievement of the students of STKIP YPUP through reflection strategy? (3) Is the use of the reflective strategy effective to develop students' writing competence of Indonesian EFL students.

Literature Review

Reflection Learning Strategies

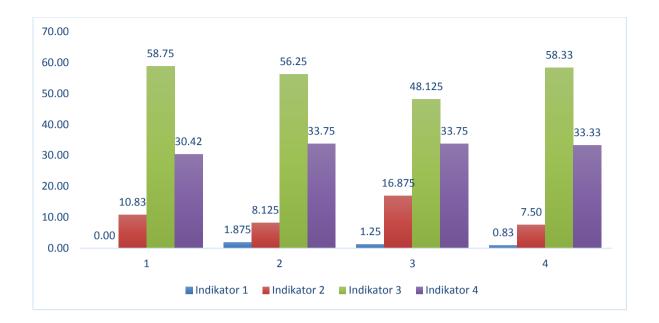
Reflective learning deals with the brain and body functions such as higher order thinking and problem solving. Recently, reflective system relives mentally the past while thinking of the future. According to Perkins, reflective system allows us to become whatever we could, if reflective intelligence is seriously developed. Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock in its reflective learning article states that *"The practice of reflective learning is part of a continuous process of learning and developing: I Become aware of my next experience, reflect upon it and Evaluate it in relation to my other experiences and reinforce or revise myself knowledge"*. (Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock, 2006). Reflective learning also encourages students to think creatively and reflectively, questioning the attitude and to encourage learner's independence.

Methodology

This study used research and development approach. In general, the development procedure consists of six stages, they are: analysis, design, prototype development, evaluation, implementation, and evaluation (ADDIE, 1981) Explanations of each stage: (1) In the analysis phase, it carried out literature studies and requirements analysis; (2) the stage of drafting a model design; (3) developing and editing stages of product development; (4) the evaluation phase, it conducted formative and summative evaluation. Through action research practice, it is expected to change the behavior of research, subjects can be monitored directly as well as some important remarks can be recorded for behavioral improvement in teaching and learning both for students and teachers/lecturers.

Finding and Discussion

The result of this study show that the implementation of reflection strategy could improve the ability of writing and interest of EFL in writing students of STKIP YPUP. It can be seen from the data of pretest as 47.53 and posttest 64.08. It's clearly suggested the use of reflection strategy can improve the ability of the students to develop their ideas appropriately. In addition, Questionnaires were administered to teachers and students to measure the aspects of acceptability, feasibility, and affectivity.



Based on the data that have been gather, it can be concluded that, (1) Motivation. The data indicates that almost 60% students felt happy when the lecturer guided them to write well. Besides that, the students were very inspired by the lecturer's writing. (2) Conceptual knowledge. The graphic shows that almost 50 % students like when the lecturer used various easy words on teaching, and lecturer is supposed to use various easy words in teaching. (3) Real learning. The data tells us that 68% students felt right if the lecturer used various formal words in his writing. Some of the students assumed that they wrote the text based on the example as given by the lecturer. In writing, the students could compose simplify a long text as lecturer guidance. (4) Strategy. The data shows us that 67 % students felt comfortable in writing when using simple words as lecturer's guidance. To do so, the lecturer used good method, that made students easily to write. The data tells us that 39% of students found that their writing have been correct as the writing procedure.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The essential part of development process is aligning the material with student's needs and interest. The tryout of the material should be specifically and firmly designed and carried out since it reflects whether or not it has been well developed. In this research the researcher develop several units of material and tried out in one class to see the acceptability of the model design. The content of designed book meet the students needs, specifically to types of text. The designed book is designed based on the process of writing reflection strategy. The course book could improve the students English achievement because it was designed based on the students' need.

In designing an English course book teachers should consider the students' need so they can encourage themselves to develop their own learning strategies and to become independent learners without afraid of making mistakes. Another positive impact of professional development is teacher are exposed to wider exposure of teaching and learning. It is suggested that all activities that are carried out will be of benefit to the teacher if they willing to cooperate with other teachers as a team teaching.

References

- Cox, K. E. & Guthrie, J.T. (2001). Motivational and cognitive contributions to students' amount of reading. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, vol. 26, 116-131.
- Syatriana E,(1998) The levels of Reading Comprehension of the fifth semester students of STKIP-YPUP. Unpublished Sarjana''s Thesis, STKIPYPUP. Ujung Pandang
- Richards.J.C. 2001. Curriculum Development in Language Teahing, Cambridge: University Press.
- Tebow, Fall Melinda. 2008. "Reflective Learning in Adult Education". Dalam *Artikel* [online]. Tersedia: <u>http://adulteducation.wikibook.us/index. php?title=Reflective</u> <u>LearninginAdult_Education</u>. [26 Desember 2010].
- Perkins, D. N., & Unger, C. 1999. Teaching and learning for understanding. Dalam Reigeluth, C. M. (Ed.): *Instructioal-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instruction theory*, Volume II. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlboum Associates, Publisher
- Sparrow, Tim and Jo Maddock. 2006. "Reflective Learning". Dalam *Applied emotional intelligence*[Online]Tersedia:<u>http://www.jca.biz/microsites/iete/pdf/Scale%2016%20</u> <u>Reflective%20learning.pdf</u>. [8 Januari 2011].
- Syatriana E (2013) A model of creating instructional materials based on the school curriculum for Indonesian secondary school. Journal of Education and Practice, ISSN 222-1735 (paper), ISSN 2222-288X (ONLINE), Vol 4 No 20.

Title

Poetry in EFL Teaching: Perspective of the Students based on Gender

Author

Eunice Barbara C. Novio Vongchavalitkul University Nancy G. Catane Naresuan University

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Eunice Barbara C. Novio a lecturer at Vongchavalitkul University, 84 moo 4 Mittraphap rd. Ban-Ko, Muang, Nakhon Ratchasima, 30000. Thailand. A poet, a journalist and a researcher, she authored numerous articles in journals and magazines. She has a collection of poetry 'Maps of Dreams and Memories.' She can be reached at <u>eunice.novio@gmail.com</u>.

Nancy Catane is also from the Philippines and has been an English Lecturer at Naresuan University 99 Moo 9 Tambon Tha Pho, Phitsanulok, 65000, Thailand for more than 10 years. She can be reached at <u>nancyguigue@gmail.com</u>.

Abstract

The objectives of this study are to: (1) to find out whether different genders have different perspective on poetry interpretation; (2) to find out if poetry interpretation help them developed their skills in terms of vocabulary and comprehension and interpreting imageries into words; (3) to find out if poetry improve the comprehension skills of EFL learners regardless of genders. The study utilizes descriptive method of research. Forty-two first year nursing students participated in the study. The result of the study shows that: (1) there is no difference in gender when it comes to learning literature in English and (2) Males and females have different perspectives on imageries based on their illustrations

Key words: EFL, gender, literature, poetry, poems

Introduction

Poetry is a good start in introducing literature in teaching English since poems are generally vivid, short and leave strong imageries on the mind of the learners in their own pace. Learners could device their own interpretation based on their understanding of each stanza. Hence, communication skills is enhanced as well as their cognitive mind through picturing the events as they interpret each word.

Kinneavy's communication triangle (1983), classifies the discourse types into three categories: **expressive**, focuses on personal expression (letters, diaries, etc.); **transactional**, focuses on both the reader and the message (advertising, business letters, editorials, instructions, etc.); and **poetic**, focuses on form and language (drama, poetry, novels, short stories, etc.).

In Savvidou's article (2004; Or, 1995) about the integrated approach to teaching literature in the EFL Classroom, teachers are reluctant to introduce unabridged and authentic texts to the EFL syllabus for fear that the students would have 'overload' and could be discouraged to learn English, thus detrimental to the process of language learning.

Literature Review

Bloemendal (2014, p.4) says that "utilizing poetry as a potential core 'theme' for language teaching in EFL classrooms has become possible and might be beneficial to students' language education, since it might facilitate students' linguistic, social, cultural and personal development through poetry tasks."

Tsujimato (1988 in Bloemendal,2014) finds that teaching poetry can provide students a new insight into an accessible form of literature that they themselves are able to produce. In fact, some teachers of poetry in schools have, over the years, gathered their students' poems and compiled it into "their own literary tradition, to be used in helping them teach themselves and to become a standard for evaluating new student work".

In the Netherlands it is find out that poetry is a viable option aimed at simultaneous developing of language skills and competence because it includes reading, listening, writing and speaking which are needed to be developed among the EFL learners (Bloemendal, 2014).

In the tertiary level, gender biases may not be that evident compared to elementary level, yet it is observed that in teaching history subjects or management subjects, the concrete referral to "he" as the representative of human race is very common. Thus, it is become generally accepted that women are always in the shadows of men (Novio, Cordova, 2016).

Sunderland (1992) points out that course-books representations affect students as language learners and users. Sunderland also stresses out that most English western books reflects the life in the English English-speaking country. Teaching books of today are biased and stereotypical regarding the issue of equality.

The impact of gender differences in English Language Teaching reveals that that female than male students were reluctant to speak to different sex; females preferred the direct way to express opinions (writing), work with the same sex, and tended to be passive in class (Mamud, 2010). These different styles of female and male students in learning English were affected by the notions of women's language. Sunderland on the other hand, (1992b) problematizes also the "gendered" grammar the English language. For example the use of "he" pronoun for an unknown person. She also points out that the gender of the teacher as well as the socio-cultural upbringing are factors in the gender sensitivity of the teachers, thus critical reading and listening are suggested part of the pedagogy.

The theory of gendered organization by Joan Acker (1990) posits that the system of two-gender in society is something "grown", that we are confronted with institutionalized conditions of activity and role fixations, "gendered institutions" such as school, institutions of further education, university, family, language and so on and instructional-design theory which is a theory that offers explicit guidance on how to better help people learn and develop. The theory offers the following guidance to what the instruction should be: clear information, thoughtful practice, informative feedback and strong intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the form of poetry. Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition supports this study wherein the students are allowed to develop their own skills by recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production.

Methodology

Forty-two first year nursing students taking English for Communication participated in a two-week period from June 6- 17, 2016 at Vongchavalitkul University in Nakhon Ratchasima Province.

The study utilizes descriptive method of research. The author created a module for the purpose of the study using Emily Bronte's poem, 'Love and Friendship'. The participants also interpreted the poems through illustrations. The students were grouped according to their genders. Likert Scale is used by researchers where the respondents selected their answer from the five (5) options given where five (5) is the highest: Strongly Agree (5); Agree (4); Undecided (3); Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1).

Findings and Discussion

There were seven (7) male respondents or 16.7%, 34 females (81%), and one transgender (2.4%). It shows that the students are interested in poetry as part of their English for Communication subject with a mean of 3.79. Notably, more male students generally agree that they learned new vocabulary and idiomatic expressions, willingness to learn poetry and agreed that poetry is a means of communication than females. There is no difference in gender when it comes to learning literature in English. All the respondents agreed that poetry is a means of communication.

Males and females have different perspectives on imageries based on their illustrations. Females and the transgender are more creative in interpreting poetry through illustrations and were able to interpret metaphors and symbols. Males on the other hand had difficulty in interpreting the words through illustrations.

Conclusions

Introducing literature like poetry to EFL students must include illustrations, workshops and creative reading to further encourage the students to appreciate English. Teachers and lecturers must encourage the students to study literature through hosting of English or World Literature Day and integrating it in reading and writing classes.

References

- Acker, Joan. (1990). *Hierarchies, jobs, bodies: A theory of gendered organizations*. Gender & Society 4:139-58.
- Appleby, R. (2005). *The spatiality of English language teaching, gender and context*. PhD thesis, University of Technology, Sydney.
- Bloemendal,I (2014). *Teaching poetry in the communicative EFL classroom*. Master's thesis,

Utrecht University, the Netherlands.

- Higginson, W.J. and Harter, P. (2009). *The Haiku Handbook: how to write, teach, and appreciate Haiku (25th anniversary edition)*. Tokyo: Kodansha International.
- Kinneavy, J. L. (1971). *A theory of discourse: The aims of discourse*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Krashen, S. (1988). Second language acquisition and second language learning. Prentice-Hall

International.

- Novio,E; Cordova,J. (2016) Gender mainstreaming in EFL: the case of Vongchavalitkul University. Paper presented at Women TESOL, 2016, Clark, Philippines.
- Or, Winnie Wing-fung. (1995). "Reinstating literature in the EFL syllabus". In Thinking language : issues in the study of language and language curriculum renewal. Editors : Kitty P. Y. Wong and Christopher F. Green. Hong Kong : Language Centre, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, c1995.
- Reigeluth, C.M. (1999). What is instructional design theory? In C.M. Reigeluth (Ed.)
 Instructional design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory
 (Vol. 2, pp. 5-29). Manwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Savvidou, C. (2004). An integrated approach to teaching literature in the EFL classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *10*(12), 1-6. Retrieved on February 15, 2015 from http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Savvidou-Literature.html

Sunderland, J. (.1992 Jan). Gender in the EFL Classroom. *ELT Journal. Vol.46/1*. Oxford Press.

https://www.poetryfoundation.org/poems-and-poets/poems/detail/50537



Title

Improving Communication Skills of Tertiary Level Indonesian Learners through a Conversation Lounge

The EFL Professional's Written For

Author

Fahrur Rozi, Ph.D Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Fahrur Rozi, Ph.D is an English lecturer in the Faculty of Economic, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. He finished his doctoral program in EFL University, Hyderabad-India. He has been teaching English for Specific Purposes and General English since 2001. His main research interests are in English for Specific Purposes and English Communication Skills. He can be reached at frozi@mail.unnes.ac.id

Abstract:

The objective of this research was to examine how to improve speaking skills of tertiary level Indonesian learners through a conversation lounge. The population was tertiary level Indonesian learners. This research employed a quasi experimental design. The sample consisted of 12 learners of the discipline of Management Studies of Economics Faculty of Universitas Negeri Semarang. The instruments were tests, questionnaires, and observation. The result of the research showed that the quality and quantity of learners' speaking skills in English improved when they practised English in a conversation lounge. Participation in the conversation lounge enhances learners' speaking skills and enriches their vocabulary, improves their pronunciation, strengthens grammar, and has a positive impact on their fluency. Moreover, based on the results of learners' observation in the conversation lounge, all learners enjoyed learning English in the informal setting. In brief, it is clear that doing some speaking tasks in a conversation lounge is an effective way of improving learning conditions outside of the classroom. This suggests that English teachers could be positively encouraged to use this model for teaching English at schools, colleges and universities.

Introduction

This study aims to carry out an investigation to find an effective, influential, and practical method of teaching English to tertiary level Indonesian learners. This study deals with the conduct of a research project to find out a particular strategy in teaching English to improve speaking skills. Indonesia is a multicultural, multiethnic and multilingual country where many linguistic communities exist. Three kinds of languages are spoken and used in Indonesia. Firstly, it is the regional language and several dialects. Almost all states or provinces have their own languages or mother tongues. It is reported that there are 700 regional languages spoken across the country. Secondly, it is the national language which is Bahasa Indonesia, which was established as the unifying language in 1928, even before Indonesia attained independence. The choice of Bahasa Indonesia as the national language has been something of a success story. It is understood and spoken by majority of Indonesians. The third category consists of foreign languages. After the independence, the Dutch language was not chosen to be one of the foreign languages taught in schools because it was the language of the colonialist rulers and it did not have the international status and registration as a language of communication as English has today. English is one of a number of foreign languages which has been in use for some time. Foreign language learners are at a disadvantage because they are surrounded by their own native languages and must search for stimulation in the target language. The foreign languages include Arabic, English, German, French, Japanese and Mandarin. Therefore, the three-language formula is implemented in the educational structure in Indonesia. The regional language, the national language "Bahasa Indonesia" and the foreign language, preferably English, are the three languages which are taught.

English is normally taught as a compulsory subject at the university or the school levels in Indonesia. Indonesian learners typically receive input from the target language or English only in a classroom setting and lack the opportunities to practice the target language on a daily basis. Then, English is introduced in class I and continues up to the tertiary level. During this period, English instruction is found to be more or less a failure in the Indonesian education system. One of the reasons for the failure is that Bahasa Indonesia is used as medium of instruction for all content subjects. Moreover, English is not used as a tool of communication. Lerners interact with their teachers or classmates in and out of the class in Bahasa Indonesia. For example, they speak in Bahasa Indonesia when they go for shopping in

department stores, traditional markets, and mini markets. They use it while talking to their family at home. They use it when they deal with many people in various different settings, in particular, in offices, public transportations, meetings, parties and celebrations. Then, most learners never watch any programmes in English because it is only a few families which can watch the programmes at their home, for example, Animal Planet, Discovery, CNN, History, National Geographic and HBO or Movie channel. Therefore, these descriptions of the use of Bahasa Indonesia and the limited of watching English programmes would be the indicators of the quality of communication skills, especially speaking skills of the tertiary level Indonesian learners. These would give us a clear picture of their competence in English. In other words, it is assumed that the proficiency of English of tertiary level learners is disappointing. The unsatisfactory quality of English is related to various different variables. In addition, a number of reports show that Indonesian learners have not attained a good level of oral English proficiency. The problems they face in improving their English relates not only to their linguistic and personality factors, but also to the surrounding environment or facilities, resources, the methodology of teaching English in the classroom and classroom tasks provided by teachers in the learning process.

Literature Review

Spoken Communication

Communication is an essential thing in daily routines. We sit in the school or universities and listen to colleagues. We converse with teachers or supervisors at the university. We read many articles or journals, books, newspapers and magazines. We communicate over the internet such as Facebook, twitter, WhatsApp, BBM, yahoo messenger, e-mail and other devices. Communication is a skill that we can learn. It is like riding a bicycle or typing. If we are willing to work at it, we can rapidly improve the quality of every part of our life (Brian Tracy in Sen 2007: p.3). The basic stages of good communication skills are receiving, understanding and accepting, For instance, when we ask a question to a learner as "Would you like to give me that paper?" The learner basically receives the information that we give. If s/he understands our question, s/he will accept the information. Then, s/he will take an action and give us that paper. In this way our communication has been completed. However, if s/he does not accept our information and understand our question, the communication fails. It means that the learner is not receiving, understanding and accepting the question. In spoken communication, there is at least one speaker and one listener. Or there could be one speaker and many listeners. When we communicate, each of us normally has something that we need to know from others. We also want to say, to share, or to inform them about something. We are heard, understood and interpreted by the listeners. According to Duck and McMahan (2012:17) Communication is a transaction, action and interaction. Moreover, "Effective communication extends the concept to require that transmitted content is received and understood by someone in the way it was intended" (Brown, 2011).

A person without oral communication skills will suffer in this era of competition and may find it difficult to achieve a higher position (Morozova: 2013.p.1). Enhancing spoken language will help in communicating more easily and accurately. Therefore, any practice is good whether we speak to someone who is a native English speaker or not. Speaking is an action to convey information or express thoughts and feelings in spoken language. In spoken language, it is a good principle to keep as much as possible to short sentences and simple words. A good speaking is dominated by meaning, not by fine words. In learning English language, if our learners' first language is not English or they are from diverse language backgrounds such as Indonesian, Thai, Vietnamese, Arabic, Malaysian, Bangladesh, they do learn English in the natural way in which the first language is acquired or learnt. They learn English in a way that is different from the way of natural language acquisition. For example, they learn English in schools, home, training centers and universities. They can communicate well in spoken English, but they may take time to learn it and need more practice. In that case, when they start speaking in English, most of the words remain on the tip of their tongue and do not readily come out. Sometimes they find spoken English rather clumsy and unclear. They fumble and gropes for the proper words. Extrapolating the findings of MacIntyre and Charos (1996) in Baker and MacIntryre (2000: p.2), if foreign language learners lack the opportunity for constant interaction in the L2, they are less likely to increase their perceived competence, willingness to communicate, and frequency of communication. Therefore, if they want to speak English fluently and the others understand what they say, they should learn about pronunciation, intonation, tone, pauses, question tags, contracted forms, weak forms, voice modulation and politeness. So, effective speaking is a skill where some elements are considered in order to convey messages, ideas or information to other people.

Conversation Lounge

Learning is something which we have understood and participated in both the formal and informal formats. Learning is not a simple thing, but it is a complex thing. It is not only the acquisition of subject matter, but habits, attitudes, perceptions, preferences, interests, social adjustment, skills, and ideals. In everyday terms, it is supposed that learning is the process of gaining more knowledge and how doing something (Pritchard, 2009: p.1). Then, according to McGeoch and Irion (1952: 5) cited in Bernard (1965: p.20), learning is a change in performance through condition of activity, practice, and experience. Moreover, for social constructivists, people learn through interaction with others in the society. Through these interactions, they have their own understanding of the world. Learning develops in interaction between individuals in the social context. It means that the development of learning will increase significantly when people interact and share ideas or experiences with each other. When they only stay at home, spend much time in a room and they do not care about their environment, their learning will not make good progress. On learning the context, social constructive model of learning emphasizes the interplay between learners and class, learners and peers, learners and teacher, learners and family, and learners and society as a whole (Leonatiev, 1981: p.82).

Learners have different overall preferences in learning and this can affect their learning outcomes. For instance, learners sometimes use pictures, videos, short movies, songs and recordings instead of written texts. They work in groups as opposed to work alone. They learn in unstructured rather than in a structured manner. These learning styles are unique to them, and they are formed as a result of both social and biological processes. Therefore, it has an important bearing on how learning proceeds for each learner, especially what teachers expect from learners in the classroom. If a particular approach to learning is encouraged by a teacher, there is a possibility that some learners will work and learn less effectively than others in the classroom. For this reason, an awareness of learning styles is important for teachers. Pritchard (2009: P.44) in Tarone and Swierzbin (2009: p.5) categorizes three particular learning styles of learners, namely, visual, auditory and kinesthetic. Visual learners prefer to learn by watching pictures, charts, reading materials, etc. Auditory learners prefer to learn by listening. They have good auditory memory and they seldom take notes. Kinesthetic learners prefer to learn by doing. They prefer learning through moving, manipulating, drawing, etc. They process new information best when it can be touched and manipulated. They are good at recalling events and they enjoy physical activity, field trips, practical and others.

When we talk about learning language, learning English in natural situations, therefore, seems to provide a very high success rate as compared to language learning in formal instruction setting such as conventional classes. Conventional classes offer a highly structured speech situation compared to most ordinary speech situations. In conventional classes, teaching is form-based. Language is presented in a structured and linear practice. This teaching model is largely unsuitable for language learning, as it needs accuracy rather than fluency. So, it is not surprising that about 70 per cent of the utterances in most classrooms come from the teachers. While learning English in a conversation lounge is another model of learning. It is taken as one model of communicative approach and it is placed as an informal communicative approach because activities are projected to engage learners in the process of real communication. Communication approach has gained increasing support from the late 1970s onward. Communication approach has served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice (Widdowson, 1978 cited in Penny, 2012: p.8). Communicative approach uses techniques that learners communicate in a second language or foreign language effectively. A conversation lounge is not a substitute for a conventional classroom, but it is a supplement to it and it is an informal learning model. Hence, a conversation lounge is helpful for learners in learning English and it should be provided at school or university. However, the design of this environment needs careful consideration, for instance, space, color, thermal comfort, lighting and resources. Learning space has a significant effect on learning. It can encourage exploration, collaboration and discussion. Indeed, learning space will influence and accommodate learners to study effectively. The use of color has also a significant impact on learning. It deals with emotion which can influence learners' studying. Some studies show a direct link between color and positive and negative feelings in learning. Color can affect learners' mood in learning. The color would definitely influence how learners felt. Therefore, in a conversation lounge bright-colored furniture is a good choice, such as red sofas or blue chairs. Learners feel to be in different settings or situations when they sit on the colored-furniture. We can also put colorful painting on walls, but a room which has many patterns will distract learners' concentration. Then, cold and poorly ventilated classrooms provide an unhealthy environment for learners. Extremely warm conditions may reduce concentration and attention, and can lead to heat-related illnesses, including thermal stress, fatigue, and heat stroke (World Health Organization, 2003). When we advise learners to sit in a conversation lounge for learning, the thermal condition of the place should be suitable for them. A conversation lounge should be designed in a way that facilitates temperature management with appropriate insulation. The temperature should be controlled so that it remains comfortable. Moreover, learners should study in a pleasant atmosphere and perfect room. The perfect room needs the perfect lighting as well. Lighting arrangement is an essential thing in the learning process. Miwa and Hanyu (2006) observed that clients disclosed more and spoke more in a counseling setting with soft lighting rather than under brightly lit conditions. Clients also felt more relaxed and had a more favorable impression of the interviewer. Barrett (2013) mentions that six factors come out as particularly influential learning, namely, light, choice for the user, flexibility, connections such as corridors and the way different areas fit together, complexity for instance having different types of learning areas and colour. Besides that, resources help learners improve their knowledge and skills. Without resources, the whole learning process could be boring, there would be no information that backs up topics that learners are discussing, and there would be no facilities, which learners use when they practice English. The learning resources are English magazines and newspapers, a TV set with karaoke, LCD projector, and musical instruments.

Methodology

Population and Sample

The unit of analysis or population was that of the tertiary level Indonesian learners. The sample in this study was the learners of the discipline of Management Major of Faculty in the Economics of Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. The members of the sample population are those who have studied in semester one and almost of them are from semi urban places or rural areas. They study English only once a week. They study English in a large class and the number of students is 65 students. Then, the responses by 12 learners as members of the sample population have been analyzed in this study. The learners have been divided into four group conversations. Each group consisted of three learners and one learner has marked as a facilitator. The main work of the facilitator was to operate LCD, laptop, TV or DVD and to provide worksheets.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study is speaking skills of tertiary level learners are likely to improve when they practice speaking in a conversation lounge.

Research Design

The study employed quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research design of this study is of a quasi-experimental nature. The type of the design is one-group pretest-posttest. A single pretest is taken on a group of respondents (O1). Treatment (X) then occurs, and a single posttest is given on the same measure (O2). The procedures of this study were that the learners sat in a conversation lounge. They sat there three times a week for one hour

when they did not have class and other academic activities in the morning and in the afternoon. They had 24 sessions, of which used for practicing speaking skills. Indeed, when they sat in the conversation lounge, they spoke in an informal manner and in a relaxed atmosphere. Sometimes they used to have drinks and snacks when they practiced conversations. They talked on a variety of topics and the topics of conversation included hobby matters, family matters, economic matters, political matters, social matters, cultural life and educational matters. They used the topics for discussion and sharing ideas or information to each other. In the activities, they spoke spontaneously. They did not have any preparation at home or in classroom before they sat in the conversation lounge. Then, when they finished discussing and sharing ideas or information about the topics, they listened to English songs by filling missing information on the worksheet that had been prepared by researcher. After they checked the missing information such as words or phrases on the worksheet, they sang the songs together. They discussed about the story of the songs. They expressed their feelings. Indeed, music has the ability to verbalize and express their feelings better than any other medium. Listening to the right songs can put them in a better mood and emotional set up.

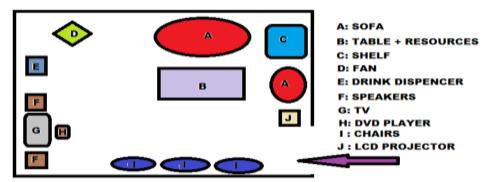


Figure 1: Conversation Lounge Design

Finding and Discussion

Pre-test was used in the population sample of 12 learners without giving interventions to them. Speaking test was given to them before they practiced in the conversation lounge. Interview was used for speaking test. This test consisted of confidence, accuracy and fluency test. Then, after learners got interventions of speaking skills in a conversation lounge for 24 sessions or two months, a post-test was administered to them similar to the pre-test. The researcher used t-test value analysis to analyze the result of the tests. A paired sample t-test was used in this study in order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the average values of the same measurement made in two different conditions. Both

measurements were made for each unit in a variable, and the test was based on the paired differences between these two values. The performance of learners who took the pre-test and post-test represent the following figures and the t-test value for two tests; pre-test and post-test are presented by tables in SPSS.

Table 1: A Comparison of Score of Pre-Test and Post-Test

Pre-Test

	Speaking skills										
	Accuracy										
No	Gender	Conf	V	Р	Gram	Total	Fluency	Total			
S 1	1	20	10	20	10	40	20	80			
S2	2	20	20	20	20	60	30	110			
S3	1	20	20	20	20	60	20	100			
S4	1	30	30	20	30	80	30	140			
S5	2	30	30	30	20	80	30	140			
S6	2	20	30	30	20	80	30	130			
S7	2	30	20	20	20	60	20	110			
S 8	2	20	20	20	20	60	30	110			
S9	2	10	20	20	20	60	30	100			
S10	2	20	30	30	20	80	30	130			
S11	2	20	30	30	30	90	30	140			
S12	2	30	30	30	30	90	30	150			

Post Test

~		4 . 4 4
Vnoo	Vin a	skills
Spea	NIIIZ	21112

			Acc					
No	Gender	Conf	V	Р	Gram	Total	Fluency	Total
S1	1	40	20	30	20	70	30	140
S2	2	40	30	20	20	70	30	140
S3	1	50	40	30	30	90	30	170
S4	1	50	40	30	20	90	40	180
S5	2	40	40	50	20	110	40	190

S6	2	50	40	40	30	110	40	200
S7	2	50	40	40	30	110	30	190
S 8	2	40	30	30	30	90	30	160
S9	2	50	40	40	40	110	40	200
S10	2	50	30	30	30	90	40	180
S11	2	50	40	40	40	110	40	200
S12	2	40	40	40	30	110	40	190
Gend =	l = Gender V = Vocabulary		ary	P =Pronunciation		C = Compr	rehension	
Conf = Confidence $Gram = Grammar$ $F = Fluency$								

Pre-Test and Post-Test

No	Pre-Test	Post-Test	D
S1	80	140	60
S2	110	140	30
S3	100	170	70
S4	140	180	40
S5	140	190	50
S 6	130	200	70
S 7	110	190	80
S 8	110	160	50
S 9	100	200	100
S10	130	180	50
S11	140	200	60
S12	150	190	40

D : Difference between scores of pre-test and post-test

Table 2: The Result of T-Test Value (Confidence)

Paired Samples Statistics

				Std. Error	
		Mean	Ν	Std. Deviation	Mean
Pair 1	Confidence1	22.50	12	6.216	1.794

Paired Samples Statistics

						Std. Error			
		Mean	Ν	Std. D	eviation	Mean			
Pair 1	Confidence1	22.50)	12	6.216	1.7	794		
	Confidence2	45.8333	3	12	5.14929	1.486	647		
Paired	Samples Correl	ations							
		N	· · · ·	Correlat	tion	Sig.			
Pair 1	Confidence1		,,						
	and		12		213		506		
	Confidence2								
Paired	Samples Test								
			Pair	ed Differ	ences				
					95% Co	nfidence			
			Std.	Std.	Interva	al of the			
			Deviatio	Error	Diffe	erence			Sig. (2-
		Mean	n	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Confidence1	-2.333331	8.87625	2.56235	-28.97304	-17.69363	-9.106	11	.00

The above table displays the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the confidence. The t-test value is -9.106 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of confidence (paired sample statistics) were 22.50 vs 45.83, leading to a difference of 23.33 in the favor of the listening skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment..

Table 3: The Result of T-Test Value (Vocabulary)

Paired Samples Statistics

					Std. Error
		Mean	N S	Std. Deviation	Mean
Pair 1	Vocabulary1	24.17	12	6.686	1.930
	Vocabulary2	35.8333	12	6.68558	1.92996
Paired S	Samples Correlati				
Paired S			12		
Paired				orrelation	Sig.
Paired S Pair 1		ons			Sig. .029

		Paired Differences							
	·	95% Confidence							
				Std.	Interval of the Difference				Sig.
			Std.	Error					(2-
		Mean	Deviation	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Vocabulary1 – Vocabulary2	-1.16667	5.77350	1.66667	-15.33498	-7.99836	-7.000	11	.000

The above table demonstrates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the vocabulary. The t-test value is -7.000 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of vocabulary (paired sample statistics) were 24.17 vs 35.83, leading to a difference of 11.66 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.

Table 4: The Result of T-Test Value (Pronunciation)Paired Samples Statistics

	_	Mean	N	Std. Dev	viation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pronunciation1	24.17	12	2	5.149	1.486
	Pronunciation2	35.0000	12	2 7	.97724	2.30283
Paired	Samples Correlation	ns				
		· · ·	Ν	Correlatio	on	Sig.
Pair 1	Pronunciation1 ar	nd	12	4	553	.062
	Pronunciation2		12			.002
Paired	Samples Test					
			Pair	ed Differen	nces	
				· · · ·	95% C	onfidence
				Std.	Interv	al of the

The above table indicates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the pronunciation. The t-test value is -5.613 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of pronunciation (paired sample statistics) were 24.17 vs 35.00, leading to a difference of 10.83 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test

Std.

Deviation

Mean

-1.08333

Pair 1

Pronunciation1 -

Pronunciation2

Error

Mean

Difference

Upper

Lower

6.68558 1.92996 -15.08115 -6.58552 -5.613

Sig. (2-

tailed)

.000

df

11

t

differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.

Table 5: The Result of T-Test Value (Grammar)Paired Samples Statistics

					Std. Error
		Mean	Ν	Std. Deviation	Mean
Pair 1	Grammar1	21.6667	12	2 5.77350	1.66667
	Grammar2	28.3333	12	2 7.17741	2.07194

Paired Samples Correlations

		N		Correlation	Sig.	
Pair 1	Grammar1		12	.293		356
	& Grammar2		12	.295	.330	

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				· · · ·			
		. <u> </u>	,		95% Con	fidence			
			Std.		Interval	of the			Sig.
			Deviatio	Std. Error	Differ	ence			(2-
		Mean	n	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Grammar1 - Grammar2	-6.66667	7.78499	2.24733	-11.61301	1.72032	-2.966	11	.013

The above table indicates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the grammar. The t-test value is -2.966 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.013 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of grammar (paired sample statistics) were 21.66 vs 28.33, leading to a difference of 6.67 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences

are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.

1 un cu	Sumples Stu	1151105							
					Sto	d. Error			
		Mean	Ν	Std. Devia	ition 1	Mean			
Pair 1	Total1	70.00	12	15	5.374	4.438			
	Tota2	96.6667	12	15.5	6998	4.49467			
Paired	Samples Cor	relations							
		N	C	orrelation	Si	g.			
Pair 1	Total1 and		12	.608	·	.036			
	Tota2		12	.008		.030			
Paired	Samples Tes	t							
			Pair	ed Differe	nces				
					95% Co	nfidence	-		
				Std.	Interva	l of the			
			Std.	Error	Diffe	rence			Sig. (2-
		Mean	Deviation	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Total1 Tota2	- 2.66667E1	13.70689	3.95684	-35.37561	-17.95773	-6.739	11	.000

Table 6: The Result of T-Test Value (Total)

Paired Samples Statistics

The above table displays the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the total score of accuracy. The t-test value is -6.739 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. This result shows that pre-test and post-test of the total score of accuracy differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.

Table 7: The Result of T-Test Value (Fluency)

Paired Samples Statistics

					Std. Error
		Mean	Ν	Std. Deviation	Mean
Pair 1	Fluency1	27.50	1	2 4.523	1.306
	Fluency2	35.8333	1	2 5.14929	1.48647

Paired Samples Correlations

		Ν	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Fluency1			
	&	1	2 .683	.014
	Fluency2			

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					·		
			· · · · · ·		95% Cor	nfidence			
					Interva	l of the			
			Std.	Std. Error	Diffe	rence			Sig. (2-
		Mean	Deviation	Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Fluency1 - Fluency2	- 8.33333	3.89249	1.12367	- 10.80651	-5.86016	-7.416	11	.000

The above table indicates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the fluency. The t-test value is -7.416 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of fluency (paired sample statistics) were 27.50 vs 35.83, leading to a difference of 8.33 in the favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.

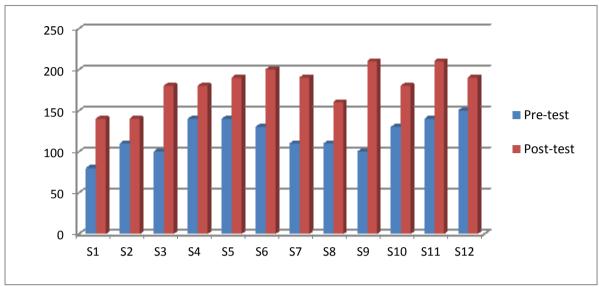


Figure 2: Graph

The above figure, the vertical bars in blue color represent the total score of each learner in pre-test and the bars in red color represent the score of post-test. The total score of post-test is higher than the total score of pre-test.

Conclusion

The progress and growth of Indonesian economy demand communication skills. Teachers in Indonesian schools and universities are required to teach English language skills at all levels of education. However, English language teaching has not been satisfactory. Many learners have such problems in communication. It is due to some reasons. One of the reasons is the teaching methodology which is being implemented in schools and universities. In fact, most teachers still use traditional methodology when they teach English to learners. Teaching learning is still dominated by the behavioral perspective, that is, lecture and notes method. Therefore, the present study serves as an eye opener to see and visualize English teachers concerning English language teaching and learning. We have seen that a conversation lounge has a great impact on learning English by tertiary level of Indonesian learners and it can be helpful for learning English as a foreign language. So, learners' English communication skills especially speaking skills has been improved when they practice it in a conversation lounge.

References

- Baker, S.C and MacIntrye, P.D. 2000. The Role of Gender and Immersion in Communication and Second Language Orientation. *Language Learning*, Vol: 50, Issues 2, 17 December 2002, pp.311-341
- Barrett, Peter. (2013). *The Small Changes in Classroom Environment that can Improve Learning*. Retrieved on 7 July, 2015 from <u>http://www.theguardian.com/teacher-network/2013/apr/25/changing-classroom-environment-improve-learning</u>
- Bernard, Harold.W. (1965). *Psychology of Learning and Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company
- Brown, G and Yule, G. Teaching the Spoken Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Duck, Steve and McMahan, D.T. 2012. *The Basic of Communication: A Relational Perpspective*. New Delhi: SAGE Publication India Pvt Ltd
- Leontiev. Alexie.A. (1981). *Psychology and Language Learning Process*. Oxford: Pergamon Press
- Miwa, Y. and Hanyu, K. (2006). The effects of interior design on communication and impressions of a counselor in a counseling room. *Environment and Behavior*, 38 (4), 484–502.
- Morozova, Yulia. (2013). Method of Enhancing Speaking Skills of Elementary Level Students. *Translation Journal*. Vol.17, No.1, January 2013.
- Nunan, David. (1992). Research Method in Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Penny, Ur. (2012). *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Sen, Leena. (2007). Communication Skills. Second Edition. New Delhi: PHI Learning Private Limited
- Tarone, E and Swierzbin, B. (2009). *Exploring Learner Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- WHO (2003). *The physical school environment: An essential component of a healthpromoting school.* Information Series on School Health.

Title

Reconstruction of Cognitive Process in Popular Article Writing

Author

Fahrus Zaman Fadhly Department of English Education, University of Kuningan Email: fahruszf@gmail.com

Abstract

ASIAN

OURNAL

This study is purposely designed to reveal cognitive processes involved in popular article writing starting from how the writers get inspiration to write until closing their popular article writing. This qualitative case study involved three Indonesian outstanding columnists since they were considered able to realize cognition and cultivate words into meaningful ones. The data in this study were taken from interviews and document analysis. The study reveals that there were some different ways in which the writers got inspiration to write, what values underlie the writers to give their arguments on a particular topic, how the writers decide their writing *angles*, start writing, decide their standing position, defend and develop their arguments, and close their writings. Besides, this study also found some internal and external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process, times needed by the writers to finish a popular article writing, and stages of publication. Finally, the study reveals that the differences experienced by the writers in each stage of writing are strongly influenced by their areas of expertise, interest, cognition, and writing styles.

Keywords: cognitive process, argumentative writing, columnist, cognition

Introduction

Literacy is an integration of observing, speaking, reading, writing, and critical thinking skills. As stated by Ontario Ministry of Education [OME] (2004), literacy is the ability to use language and images in rich and varied forms to read, to write, to listen, to speak, to view, to represent, and to think critically about ideas. Indeed, literacy is not a

generalized ability a person possesses, it is a set of actions and transitions in which people use reading and writing for personal and social purposes (Ibid). Thus, literacy skill includes being able to read and write different sorts of texts for different purposes and this skill would not come without practice since it can only be achieved and mastered by practicing intensively and continuously.

One's paradigm can be seen from what they think and pour out into the written form. Writing is a complex activity. Like the way we are thinking, writing takes time to reach its intended point before producing satisfactory results. According to Brown (2001), there are at least three stages of writing process that should have been known by a writer before going to write; prewriting, drafting, and revising stage. In this case, prewriting stage involves several ways in generating ideas, such as reading, skimming, conducting some outside researches, brainstorming, listing, clustering, etc. Whereas, drafting and revising stages become the core stage of writing process itself. There are several ways that can be applied in drafting and revising stages of writing, such as adapting the freewriting techniques, peer-reviewing for content, editing for grammatical errors, etc. (Ibid).

During the 1980s, there were at least two familiar paradigms for composing or the stage process model as stated by Flower and Hayes (1981); *the Pre-Write/Write/Re-Write* model of Gordon Rohman and *the Conception/Incubation/Production* model of Britton *et al.* These two familiar models describe the composing process as a linear series of stages, separated time, and characterized by the gradual development of the written product (Ibid). The "Pre-Writing" is the stage before emerging words on paper; "Writing" is the stage of producing the written product; and "Re-Writing" is the final stage in which the writers rework with their product. Thus, in this case, the writers plan what they are going to write (pre-writing), produce a written product (write), and revise what they have written (re-writing).

In 1981, Flower and Hayes proposed a shift from linear stage model to a hierarchical format that reflects the recursive nature of writing by placing cognitive actions. Their initial model of writing includes three main elements which are reflected in the three units of the model; *the task environment, the writer's long-term memory*, and *the writing processes*.

In line with Flower and Hayes, McCutchen, Teske, and Bankston (2008) declared that cognitive models tend to define writing in terms of problem-solving. According to McCutchen *et al.* (2008), writing problems arise from the writer's attempt to map language onto his own thoughts and feelings as well as the readers' expectations. In addition, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) proposed that expert writers often "problematize" a writing task,

adopting a strategy called *knowledge transforming*. Meanwhile, expert writers often develop elaborate goals, particularly content, and rhetorical goals, which require sophisticated problem-solving. In contrast, novice writers typically take a simpler, natural approach to composing, adopting a knowledge-telling approach in which content is generated through association, with one idea prompting the next (Ibid).

People write in order to achieve communicative goals in a social context. Their capability in writing argumentation is supposed to be a measurement of logical thinking they have. Argumentative writing is a genre of writing that requires the writer to investigate a topic, and establish a position on the topic in a concise manner (Purdue Online Writing Lab [Purdue OWL], 2013). Thus, to have a good argumentative writing, someone needs directed logic and the ability to analyze something that is currently happening and developing in the area he is exactly standing in.

This present study was purposely designed to reveal cognitive modeling involved in argumentative writing starting from what a writer is going to write until finishing his/her argumentative writing. Having these reasons, the researcher tried to analyze the cognitive process in argumentative writing by interviewing the three selected Indonesian columnists and analyzing their written products.

In reference to the background of the study previously mentioned, the problem of the research was formulated into two research questions: "How are cognitive processes in argumentative writing?" and "What are factors influencing the continuity of the writing process?"

Method

This qualitative case study was based on the models of Creswell (2009) and Gay *et al.* (2012). Creswell (2009) stated that case study is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over tie, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information and reports a case description and case-based themes.

In line with Creswell, Gay *et al.* (2012, p. 444) said that "a case study research is a qualitative research approach in which researchers focus on a unit of study known as a bounded system." The same with other qualitative research designs, a good case study research design includes a statement of the purpose of the research, initial research questions, review of related literature, and rationale for the selection of the case (Ibid).

A case study research method is appropriate to be used when the researcher wants to answer a descriptive question or an explanatory question (Gay *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, this kind of method was considered appropriate since this research was purposely designed to investigate and reveal cognitive process in argumentative writing and analyze them based on the required research question through qualitative procedures.

This research involved three Indonesian outstanding columnists since they were considered able to realize cognition and cultivate words into meaningful ones. This research chose Mr. Miraj Dodi Kurniawan, Mr. Atip Tartiana, and Mr. Imam Nur Suharno as informants in this research since their argumentative writing products were published in some popular newspapers in Indonesia, such as *Pikiran Rakyat*, *Tribun Jabar*, *Galamedia*, *Republika Jabar*, *Kabar Priangan*, *Bandung Ekspres*, *Pelita Online*, *Kabar Cirebon*, and magazines such as *Suara Daerah PGRI Jawa Barat*, *Al-Intima*, and *Media Pembinaan*.

The data in this research were collected through interview and document analysis. The interview was chosen since it provided useful and detail information, while "document can provide a researcher with a rich source of information" (Creswell, 2012, p. 223). Semi-structured interview was used since it allowed the researcher to elaborate the original response given by the participants. Besides, e-mail interview was also used to get additional information. E-mail interview provided more detail information since the participants thought critically when responding to the interview questions that was different from semi-structured interview where the participants gave their responses spontaneously. In addition, document analysis was used as a comparison toward the answer given in the interview sessions.

Findings and Discussion

The study was conducted to analyze the cognitive process in argumentative writing that involved how the writers get inspiration to write their arguments, what values underlie the writers to give their arguments on a particular topic, how the writers decide their writing *angles*, how the writers start writing their arguments, how the writers decide their standing positions of argument, how the writers defend their arguments, how the writers develop their arguments, and how the writers close their writings.

As result, the researcher found that there were some different ways in which the writers got inspiration to write their arguments until closed their writings influenced by their areas of expertise, interest, cognition, and writing styles. Besides, the researcher also found some internal and external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process and stages

of publication. The detail explanation of the findings of this research is presented in the following parts.

1. Writers' way to get inspiration

Inspiration comes in an uncertain time and place. Inspiration is a motivational *response* to creative ideas that invigorates the process of idea actualization (Thrash, *et al.*, 2010). It can come when reading books, newspaper, digital media, or when we are alone. In this research, the researcher found that there were some similarities and differences of how the writers got inspiration to write their arguments. Writers' way to get inspiration to write their arguments can be seen in the following table.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
- Reading any kinds of	- Reading newspaper or	- Observing an up to
sources.	online media, watching	date issue (what is
- Considering the national	news, debate or talk-	being talked by
day celebration of	show program in	society) that can be
religious and state	television.	one of inspiration to
affairs.	- Following or heeding	write.
- Observing some big	on seminar/discussion	- Inspiration usually
events that will be held.	particularly about	appears or passes by
- Watching television'	interesting issues and	in daydream.
programs and movies.	issues that are being	- Reading media such
- Seeing directly some	talked by public (up-to-	as books, newspaper,
social affairs.	date issues).	internet, and
- Having a discussion	- Seeing a particular	watching television
with friends.	object or affair	programs such as
- Heeding on lecturer'	unintentionally that has	news, talk-show,
lecture and public	a relation to up to date	debate, and movie.
figures' speeches.	issues in mass media.	
- Heeding on public		
discussion program.		

From the table above, it can be seen some similarities and differences of how the writers got inspiration to write their arguments. The similarities were all of the writers got inspiration from reading any kinds of sources such as books, newspaper, journal, and digital media; watching television programs such as news, talk show, debate, movies, etc.; and observing some up-to-date issues or big events that will be held. Another similarity was both Participant A and B got inspiration from heeding on seminar and discussion.

Further, there were some differences of getting inspiration done by Participant A. In addition, he got inspiration to write his argument by considering the national day celebration of religious and state affairs, seeing directly some social affairs, and heeding on lecturer's lecture and public figure's speeches. The inspiration come from considering the national day celebration of religious and state affairs can be seen in his articles entitled "*Idul Adha dan Kaum Duafa*" (*Published in Galamedia newspaper, September 25th, 2015*) and "*Bulan Puasa dan Kemajuan Bangsa*" (*Published in Tribun Jabar newspaper, July 6th, 2015*) that were written to celebrate the national day of religious affairs.

In short, there were eight ways done by the writers to get inspiration to write their arguments; 1) reading any kinds of sources such as books, newspaper, journal, and digital media; 2) watching television programs such as news, talk show, debate, movies, etc.; 3) observing some up-to-date issues or big events that will be held; 4) heeding on seminar and discussion; 5) discussion; 6) considering the national day celebration of religious and state affairs; 7) seeing directly some social affairs; and 8) heeding on lecturer's lecture and public figure's speeches.

2. Values that underlie writers to give their argument

In composing an argumentative writing, there are some values that underlie the writers to give their argument on a particular topic. Value is a set of personal principles, standards, concepts, beliefs, and ideas that can be used to make everyday decisions (Bertens, 2000) as cited in (Benninga, 1991). The values are usually related to their areas of expertise and their background. Those values can be seen in table 2.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
The values of truth,	The values of truth,	Value of truth that
goodness, and beauty	justice, and public	comes from Holy

Table 2 Values that underlie writers to give their argument

based on religious,	interest that refer to	book (Al-Qur'an and
philosophical [logical],	democracy and election	Hadits).Al-Qur'an
constitutional [law], and	principles.	
historical perspectives.		

From the table above, it can be seen that Participant A, who usually writes argumentative writing related to education and some big events that will be held, adapts the values of truth, goodness, and beauty based on religious, philosophical, constitutional, and historical perspectives. It is because Participant A is basically a teacher and a *Magister* student who chooses *historical education* as his major. Thus, his background or his area of expertise does influence him in writing his argumentative writing.

On the other hand, Participant B usually writes argumentative writing with political and election theme. Here, he holds the values of truth, justice, and public interest that refer to democracy and election principles. His background as head of election committee (*Komisi Pemilihan Umum*) makes him write argumentative writings with political theme.

Then, Participant C adapts the value of truth that comes from Holy book (*Al-Qur'an* and *Hadits*). He adapts the value of truth that based on Holy book since he is a religious instruction teacher and it influences him to write his argumentative writing with religious theme, and when he writes another topic, education or political issue for example, he always adds the religious value in his argumentative writing.

In conclusion, all of the participants hold the value of truth as a basic value that underlies them to give their argument on a particular topic. But, in addition, they add other values that relate to their areas of expertise. Participant A adapts the values of truth, goodness, and beauty based on religious, philosophical, constitutional, and historical perspectives. Participant B holds the values of truth, justice, and public interest that refer to democracy and election principles. Then, Participant C adapts the value of truth that comes from Holy book (*Al-Qur'an* and *Hadits*).

3. Writers' way to decide the *Angle*

Angle is defined as "standpoint or viewpoint; a position from which something is looked" (Hornby, 1995, p. 39). In deciding the writing *angle*, there are some aspects considered by the writers, such as the actuality and the closeness of the issue toward the readers. Those aspects need to be considered when a writer is trying to decide his/her writing

angle in order to create a unique *angle* that will make readers interested in reading the argumentative writing. Writers' way to decide the *angle* are shown in table 3.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
It is decided by	The writing angle is	The writing angle is
prioritizing the actuality	decided by considering	decided by using
of the issue, the closeness	some important	religion as angle and
of the issue toward the	factors, such as the	norms that are prevail
readers, the significance	actuality and public	in society. Besides,
of the issue (its	issue. Actuality means	the actuality of the
importance for public),	something that just	issue that will be
exclusivity of the issue,	happened. Public issue	talked becomes one of
human interest, and the	means issue that is	considerations on
uniqueness of the issue.	being talked and being	deciding the angle of
	attention by society.	writing.

Table 3 Writers' way to decide the *Angle*

From the table above, it can be seen that each writer has his own ways in deciding his writing *angle*. But, if it is seen more clearly, there is a similarity of how they decide their writing *angle*. The similarity is all of the writers decide the writing *angle* by considering the actuality of the issue. The actuality of the issue means that the issue is just happened. On the other hand, the differences are Participant A decides his writing *angle* by prioritizing the closeness of the issue toward the readers, the significance of the issue (its importance for public), the exclusivity of the issue, human interest, and the uniqueness of the issue; Participant B decides his writing *angle* by considering the public issue; while Participant C decides his writing *angle* by using religion as *angle* and norms that are prevail in society.

In brief, the aspects considered by the writers when deciding the writing *angle* are; 1) the actuality of the issue, 2) the closeness of the issue toward the readers, 3) the significance of the issue, 4) the exclusivity of the issue, 5) human interest, 6) the uniqueness of the issue, and 7) the public issue.

4. Writers' way to start writing

Creating an interesting introductory paragraph is a must since this part will be seen first by readers. Besides, it is needed to explain the issue in a second introductory paragraph and write a thesis statement at the end of the second paragraph. It is supported by Bailey (2003) who noted that an introduction is crucial, not just for what is said about the topic, but for what it tells the reader about the writer's style and approach. Thus, every writer has his own style to start his writing and it also happens to the writers who participate in this research. The writers start writing their writing by doing some different ways as it can be seen in the following table.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
- Explaining the main	- Searching and deciding	- Presenting statement
problem.	a factual theme with a	and explanation about
- Propose a relevant	unique angle.	topic that will be
question.	- Presenting the title and	talked.
- Propose a general	an introductory	- Propose a relevant
viewpoint [statement] in	paragraph that are	question.
both theoretical and	unique and interesting	
philosophical.	to get readers'	
	attention.	

Table 4 Writers' way to start writing

The research found that Participant A usually started his writing by explaining the main topic and proposing a relevant question. Here, the way in which Participant A started his writing was the same with Participant C. But, in addition, Participant A sometimes proposed a general viewpoint in both theoretical and philosophical to start his writing. The way in which Participant A started his writing by proposing a relevant question is seen in his article entitled "*Guru, Festival Menulis, dan Noblesse Oblige" (Published in Suara Daerah PGRI Jawa Barat magazine, 2011).* The sentence is:

"Dari siapa warga Negara ini –di tataran sosiologis– menguasai kemampuan menulis, kalau bukan dari guru?"

(From whom the citizen –in sociological level- master the writing skill, if it is not from the teacher?)

Then, Participant C usually started his writing by presenting statement and explanation about the topic that will be written. It can be seen from the first paragraph of his article entitled "*Palestina Negeri Isra Mi'raj*" (*Published in Republika newspaper, May 4th*, 2016):

"Bulan Rajab menyimpan peristiwa sejarah yang tak terlupakan bagi umat Islam. Karena pada bulan tersebut, terdapat peristiwa Isra dan Mi'raj Nabi Muhammad SAW. Salah satu dari keajaiban bumi Palestina adalah menjadi Negara Isra dan Mi'raj."

(*Rajab* saves an unforgettable historical affair for Islamic members. It is because in that month, there is an *Isra* and *Mi'raj* affair of Prophet Muhammad SAW. One of Palestine's miracles is become a state of *Isra* and *Mi'raj*.)

On the other hand, Participant B chose to start his writing by searching and deciding a factual theme with a unique *angle*. After that, he presented the title and an introductory paragraph that were unique and interesting to get readers' attention. From his articles, most of the introductory paragraphs present his statement or explanation. It can be seen from one of his articles entitled "*Syarat Calon Perseorangan*" (*Published in Pikiran Rakyat newspaper, April 26th, 2016*) which is started by presenting the following statement:

"Regulasi pemilihan kepala daerah (pilkada) serentak masih saja akrab dengan perubahan."

(Regulation of District Head election [*Pilkada*] is still related to changes)

In summary, the writers usually start their writing by doing the following ways; 1) presenting the title and an introductory paragraph that are unique and interesting to get readers' attention; 2) explaining the main topic; 3) proposing a relevant question; and 4) proposing a general viewpoint in both theoretical and philosophical. These ways are the same with the ways to create an interesting introductory paragraph proposed by Endy (2011), McCarthy (1998), and Robb (2012). They said that the introduction has a "hook or grabber" to catch the readers' attention, some "grabber" are; 1) opening with an unusual detail; 2) opening with a strong statement; 3) opening with a quotation; 4) opening with an anecdote; 5) opening with a statistic or fact; 6) opening with a question; and 7) opening with an exaggeration or outrageous statement.

5. Writers' way to decide their standing position of argument

Argumentative writing is a genre of writing that requires the writer to investigate a topic and establish a position on the topic in a concise manner (Purdue OWL, 2013). Thus, in composing an argumentative writing, a writer needs to decide his standing position of argument. Position arguments are arguments in which a writer states his/her position on a certain issue and then proceed to argue the stance he/she is taking on the issue with some well-documented evidence, research, and facts (King, 2010). The following table shows writers' way to decide their standing position of argument.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
- The argument is based	- Standing position of	- Standing position of
on factual-rational	argument is decided	argument is decided
argument of religious,	after elaborating the	by focusing on the
philosophical [logical],	social-political reality	areas of expertise
constitutional, and	that is being talked by	those are; religious
science.	public. The social-	field, education, and
- The argument is oriented	political reality is the	social issues.
on public interest.	"problem notes"	
- Keep the old things that	needed to achieve the	
are good, and find new	argument and analysis	
things that are better.	area.	

Table 5 Writers' way to decide their standing position of argument

In deciding standing position of argument, Participant A did some stages such as; First, the argument is based on factual-rational argument of religious, philosophical, constitutional, and science; Second, the argument is oriented on public interest; Third, holds the principle to keep the old things that are good and find new things that are better. This first stage done by Participant A seemed to be similar with the way in which Participant C decided his standing position of argument. Participant C decided his standing position of argument by focusing on his areas of expertise; religious, education, and social issues.

In contrast, Participant B decided his standing position of argument after elaborating the social-political reality that was being talked by public. The social-political reality was the "problem notes" needed to achieve the argument and analysis area. Here, he created a "problem note" that was focus so that he would not be difficult to explore the argument and analysis area. It was clear that the ways in which Participant A and Participant C decided their standing position of argument were different from what Participant B did.

To sum up, there were several ways done by the writers in deciding their standing position of argument, those are; the argument is based on factual-rational argument of religious, philosophical, constitutional, and science; the argument is oriented on public interest; holds the principle to keep the old things that are good and find new things that are better; and focus on the writer's areas of expertise.

6. Writers' way to defend their argument

After stating the thesis statement that is usually placed at the end of the second introductory paragraph, the writers need to defend their arguments. There are many ways that can be done to defend the argument, starting from presenting theorems, presenting explanation supported by factual data, etc. The following table presents the ways in which the writers defend their arguments.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
Presenting a logical	Stating theorems that	Presenting a
argument that is adapted	are suitable with the	comprehensive
with the belief and	writing topic. For	explanation that is
knowledge of public.	democracy and	supported by factual
The argument can be a	election topics, for	data, religious
textual argument from	example, the	theorems, and some
some references.	arguments are	relevant books.
Besides, the argument	defended by stating the	
can be also a contextual	theorems of truth,	
argument by considering	justice, and public	
the principle to keep the	interest based on	
old things that are good,	democracy and	
and find the new things	election principles.	
that are better.		

Table 6 Writers' way to defend their argument

After deciding their standing position of argument, the writers defend their arguments in different ways. Participant A defended his argument by presenting a logical argument that was adapted with the belief and knowledge of public that would be faced. The argument could be a textual argument from some references such as Holy book and books as well as constitutional book [laws]. Besides, the argument could be also a contextual argument by considering the principle to keep the old things that are good, and find the new things that are better. The way in which Participant A defended his argument by presenting a textual argument can be seen in his article entitled "*NKRI*, *HMI*, *dan IPM*" (*Published in Pikiran Rakvat newspaper*, *February 5th*, 2015). The sentence is (at the third paragraph of the article):

"Dalam HDR UNDP tahun 2014 diinformasikan, HDI atau IPM Indonesia tahun 2013 menempati ranking ke-108 dari 187 negara di dunia dengan nilai IPM 0,684." (In HDR UNDP year 2014, it is informed that HDI or IPM of Indonesia year 2013 is in the 108th ranking from 187 states in the world with the IPM grade 0.684)

Next, Participant B defended his argument by stating theorems that are suitable with the writing topic. For democracy and election topics, for example, the arguments were defended by stating the theorems of truth, justice, and public interest based on democracy and election principles. It can be seen from his article entitled "*Syarat Calon Perseorangan*" (*Published in Pikiran Rakyat newspaper, April 26th, 2016*) at the first sentence of the third paragraph:

"Syarat minimal dukungan calon perseorangan diatur dalam Pasal 41 Ayat 1 dan 2 UU Nomor 8 Tahun 2015."

(The minimum requirement of support for Independent candidates is regulated in Chapter 41 Verse 1 and 2 UU Number 8 year 2015.)

Then, Participant C defended his argument by presenting a comprehensive explanation that was supported by factual data, religious theorems, and some relevant books. The way in which Participant C defended his argument by presenting religious theorem can be seen in his article entitled "*Palestina Negeri Isra Mi'raj*" (*Published in Republika newspaper, May 4th, 2016*) at the second paragraph:

"Hal ini ditegaskan dalam Al-Qur'an, 'Maha Suci Allah yang telah memperjalankan hamba-Nya pada suatu malam dari Al-Masjidil Haram ke Al-Masjidil Aqsha, yang telah kami berkahi sekelilingnya agar Kami perlihatkan kepadanya sebagian dari tanda-tanda (kebesaran) Kami...' (QS. Al-Isra [17]: 1)" (It is confirmed in *Al-Qur'an*, 'The Almighty Allah who had allowed His follower travelled in a night from *Al-Masjidil Haram to Al-Masjidil Aqsha* which had been blessed so We show him some of Ours (bigness)...' (*QS. Al-Isra [17]: 1*)

Thus, from the findings of the research, we can defend our argument by; 1) presenting a logical argument in both textual argument that comes from Holy book and books as well as constitutional book, and contextual argument by considering the principle to keep the old things that are good and find the new things that are better; 2) stating theorems that are suitable with the writing topic; and 3) presenting a comprehensive explanation that was supported by factual data, religious theorems, and some relevant books.

7. Writers' way to develop their argument

In developing argument, the writer needs to explain step by step of his argument until he comes to the conclusion. Each paragraph develops a subdivision of the topic, so the number of paragraphs in the body will vary depends on the number of the subdivisions or subtopics (Oshima & Hoggue, 2005, p. 57). The ways in which the writers develop their argument are shown in the table 7.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT) (INS)	
After knowing the main	Argumentative writing	After knowing and
topic that will be talked	is developed by stating	analyzing the main
and the goal of writing,	factual and actual	topic, the writer gives
so, considerable, the	examples, delivering	a relevant argument
writer proposes a relevant	the writer or public	supported by factual
argument that supports	expectation, and	data that have been
his argument.	elaborating a particular	collected.
	case.	

Table 7 Writers' way to develop their argument

In this research, it was found that Participant A, as it can be seen from his argumentative writing products, often proposed a relevant argument that supports his thesis statement. He presented a relevant argument after knowing the main topic that would be

talked and the goal of writing. In contrast, Participant B developed his argument by stating factual and actual examples, delivering the writer or public expectation, and elaborating a particular case. Then, Participant C developed his argument by presenting a relevant argument that was supported by factual data that have been collected. This step was done after the writer (Participant C) knew the main topic and analyzed it.

From explanation above, it can be concluded that all of the participants have different ways to develop their argument. But, it can be grouped into the following ways; 1) propose a relevant argument that supports the argument; 2) state factual and actual examples; 3) deliver the writer or public expectation; 4) elaborate a particular case; and 5) present a relevant argument that is supported by factual data that have been collected. The ways to develop the arguments done by the participants are similar with the ways proposed by Endy (2011), McCarthy (1998), and Robb (2012). They stated some ways to develop argument, such as by presenting facts, statistics, quotes, and examples that can support the writer's contention that a general statement is true.

8. Writers' way to close their writing

Since the introductory paragraph is the first thing that the readers will see, the conclusion will be the last. But, there will be some readers who may look at the conclusion first to get a quick idea of the main arguments or points (Bailey, 2003, p. 42). Thus, the writers should provide an interesting ending that covers all topics that are being discussed. This research found that there were some similarities and differences of how the writers closed their writing. Those ways are presented in the following table.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
- Praying and hoping for	- Stating a brief	- Presenting a
goodness.	suggestion or the	conclusion.
- Presenting a rhetorical	writer's consideration	- Presenting an
question.	related to the writing	expectation that can
- Stating a critical	theme.	be a prayer or about
statement [persuade to do	- Stating a proverb,	how the problem that
a reflection].	poetry, or statement of	is talked can be
- Giving an argumentative	public figures/actors	solved.

Table 8 Writers' way to close their writing

statement that persuades	that are popular in	- Presenting a
the readers to take side on	society.	statement and
the writer's opinion.		confirmation.

From the table above, it can be seen that both Participant A and Participant C, sometimes, closed their argumentative writing by presenting a prayer or hope for goodness (about how the problem that was being talked could be solved), and stating a critical statement and confirmation. In other way, Participant C sometimes closed his argumentative writing by presenting a conclusion. The way in which Participant C closed his argumentative writing by presenting a prayer can be seen in his article entitled "*Palestina Negeri Isra Mi'raj*" (*Published in Republika newspaper, May 4th, 2016*) in the last paragraph:

"Semoga melalui peringatan Isra dan Mi'raj Nabi Muhammad SAW ini membangkitkan semangat umat Islam seluruh dunia untuk bersatu dalam membela kaum muslimin Palestina untuk meraih kemerdekaannya."

(It is hoped that through this *Isra* and *Mi'raj* of Prophet Muhammad SAW celebration, it will intrigue the spirit of Islamic members in the world to unite in defending the Moslem in Palestine to achieve their Independence)

Then, Participant A sometimes closed his writing by presenting a rhetorical question or giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer's opinion. The way in which Participant A closed his writing by giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on his opinion is seen in his article entitled "*Caleg Bermutu Tinggi*" (*Published in Bandung Ekspres newspaper, 2013*) in the last paragraph:

"Parpol jenis itu bukan parpol murahan yang menjual murah wewenangnya, akan tetapi parpol yang memiliki harga diri, integritas kelembagaan yang baik, dan imej yang baik pula. Dan parpol jenis inilah yang sesungguhnya berhak bahkan wajib menjadi pilihan rakyat."

(That kind of *Parpol* is not a cheap *parpol* that sells cheaply its authority, but it is a *parpol* that has pride, integrity, a good institutional, and also a good image. And this kind of *parpol* is actually reverse the right even compulsory to be chosen by society)

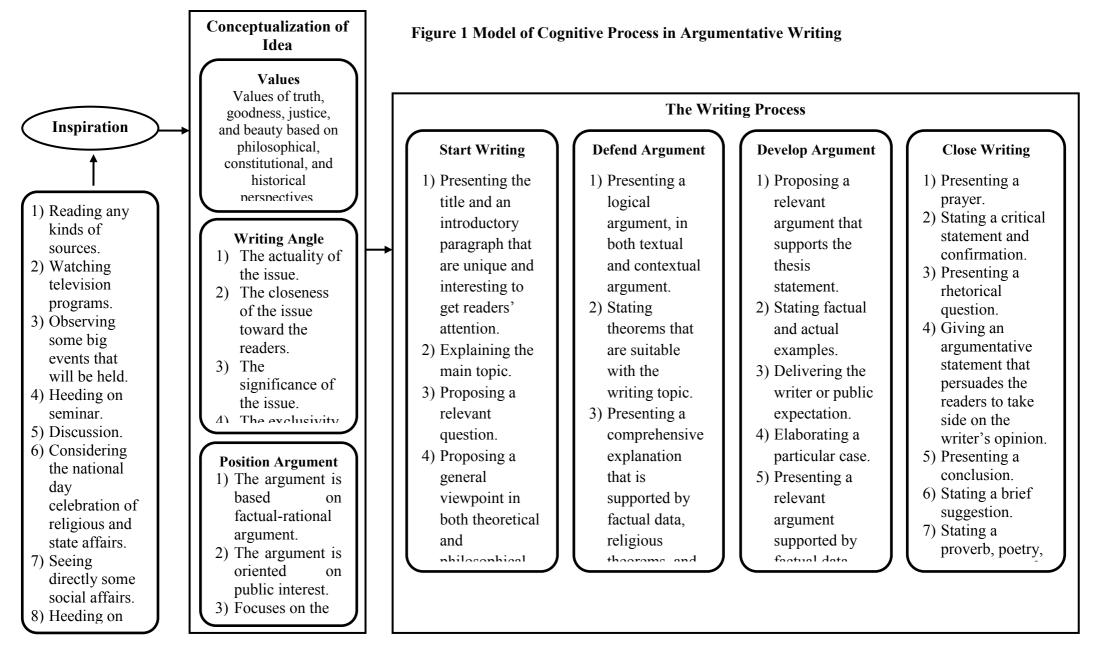
On the contrary, Participant B has his own style to close his argumentative writing. Sometimes, he closed it by stating a proverb, poetry, or statement of public figures/actors that were popular in society. But, he also often closed his argumentative writing by stating a brief suggestion or his consideration related to the writing theme. The way in which Participant B closed his writing by stating his brief suggestion is seen in his article entitled "*Syarat Calon Perseorangan*" (*Published in Pikiran Rakyat newspaper, April 26th, 2016*) at the last sentence of the last paragraph:

"..... Efek ini diantaranya yang harus dipikirkan secara matang oleh DPR dalam membahas revisi UU Pilkada."

(..... This kind of effect should be considered thoughtfully by DPR in discussing the revision toward *UU Pilkada*)

In summary, the writers closed their argumentative writing by; 1) presenting a prayer or hope for goodness; 2) stating a critical statement and confirmation; 3) presenting a rhetorical question; 4) giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer's opinion; 5) presenting a conclusion; 6) stating a brief suggestion or consideration related to the writing theme; and 7) stating a proverb, poetry, or statement of public figures/actors that are popular in society. It could be compared with the ways to create a conclusion proposed by Endy (2011), McCarthy (1998), and Robb (2012). They suggest adapting the following ways to close the writing; 1) restate the thesis or focus statement; 2) summarize the main points; 3) write a personal comment or call for action; and 4) present a prediction, a question, a recommendation, or a quotation.

To better understand about cognitive process in argumentative writing found in this research, the researcher provides model of cognitive process in argumentative writing that is presented in Figure 1.



1. Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing

Factors influencing the continuity of the writing process consist of internal and external factors. According to Zascerinska, *et al.* (2013), internal factors are considered as aims of someone's activity, motivation, interest, skills, and experience. In this case, internal factor is factor inside the writers that plays an important role in the writing process. The following table shows clearly about the factors causing the writers get stuck when writing.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
I often experience getting	I have ever	I have ever
stuck when writing. It	experienced getting	experienced getting
usually happens because	stuck when writing and	stuck when writing. It
of the lack of the material	even it often happens	is usually continued in
availability, I'm in a bad	to me. The causes are,	the next day since I
mood condition, and	such as, because I am	always take time for
there is another task that	suddenly faced with	about one or two
should be done	the demand to do	hours in each night to
immediately. Commonly,	another activity and	write. But, sometimes
I will continue writing	the lack of writing	the argumentative
the article when the	sources. The writing	writing will be
material is adequate, I'm	activity is usually	continued in the
in a good mood, and	continued in another	evening or at night if
there is no other task. It	time and opportunity	it happens in the
will be continued in	where I'm not	morning. There are
several hours later, a day	disturbed by another	some factors that
later, or even several days	activity, I usually use	cause it, such as the
later.	time in the early	denseness of the
	morning when my wife	activity and the lack
	and children are	of the writing
	sleeping at home.	materials.

Table 9 Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing

All of the writers have experienced getting stuck when writing even it often happens to them. The factors causing the writers got stuck when writing were the lack of writing

153

materials and the demand to do another task. Besides, factor such as the writer's condition (when the writer is in a bad mood) also influenced the writing process itself.

When they were getting stuck, they usually continued their writing process in several days later. Participant A will continue writing in several hours later, a day later, or even several days later when the material is adequate, he is in a good mood, and there is no other tasks. Participant B will continue writing in another time and opportunity when he is not disturbed by another activity. It is usually in the early morning when his wife and children are sleeping at home. Then, Participant C will continue his writing in the next day since he always takes time for about one until two hours in each night to write, and sometimes the argumentative writing is continued in the evening or at night if it happens in the morning.

In summary, during the act of writing, the writers often got stuck caused by some factors, such as the lack of writing materials, the demand to do another task, and the writer's condition (when the writer was in a bad mood). When they were getting stuck, they usually continued their writing in several hours later, a day later, or even several days later when they were not disturbed by another activity.

2. External factors influencing the continuity of the writing process

Beside internal factors, there are also external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process. According to Zascerinska, *et al.* (2013), external factors are determined as surroundings and resources. Here, external factor is factor outside the writers that influences them in the act of writing. The external factors are such as the availability of the writing materials and the quiet condition to write. The following table shows some external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process experienced by the writers.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
The material for the	The references are	Some factors that
writing process, the	adequate, issue/problem	influence the
writing equipment, food	that becomes writing	continuity of the
and drink, and other	theme has been	writing process are
close things that mean a	s that mean a mastered, the time to the availabil	
lot for me. The condition	write is very conducive	writing materials, and
of the close things that	(quiet situation, I'm not	the supported time

Table 10 External factors influencing the continuity of the writing process

mean a lot for me should	facing a serious	and environment
be good, so I will	activity/problem), and	(quiet situation and
concentrate (I will not	there is a strong belief	not too noisy).
feel worried and	that my writing product	
frustrated) in writing.	will be published	
	several days later.	

Beside internal factors, there are also external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process. All writers stated that the first influencing factor toward the writing process was the availability of the writing materials. Besides, there were still other factors that influenced it. Participant A stated that the other external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process were the writing equipment, food and drink, and other close things that meant a lot for him. The condition of the close things should be good, so he will concentrate (will not feel worried and frustrated) while writing. On the other hand, both Participant B and Participant C said the second influencing external factor was the time and environment to write that should be as conducive as possible (quiet situation and not too noisy). Factors influencing the continuity of the writing can be described in Figure 2.

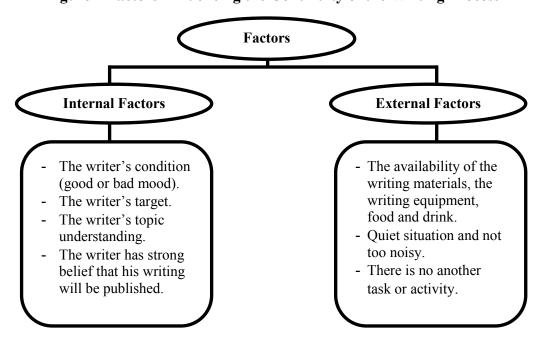


Figure 2 Factors Influencing the Continuity of the Writing Process

3. Publication

After writing, there are still some stages until the argumentative writing is published, it is called publication. According to *The 1976 Copyright Act* (in Litman, 1987), publication is the distribution of copies or phonorecords of a work to the public by sale or other transfer of ownership, or by rental, lease, or lending. Each writer in this research explained the stages and gave his own suggestions when someone wanted to publish his argumentative writing. Those stages are presented in the following table.

Participant A	Participant B	Participant C
(MDK)	(AT)	(INS)
I send my argumentative	I send the softcopy file	Deciding the writing
writing complete with	of my written product	theme that is up-to-
my curriculum vitae, ID	via editor's email	date, knowing the
card, and photo to the	address complete with	characteristics of the
editor through his email	cover later that tells	media, following the
address. Some	about the main topic of	rules of the writing
newspapers usually	the writing theme. The	(since there are some
gives a response whether	notification is delivered	difference rules
my argumentative	by using polite	between each media),
writing is published or	language, humble, and	reviewing the written
not in two days or a	do not act like a	product, and after that
week. But, other	teacher/dictate the	sending it to the
newspapers often ignore	editor. After that, I tell	media through the
it, even they publish the	the editor via	editor's email address.
argumentative writing	SMS/WA/BB with a	
without notifying the	hope that the editor will	
writer.	be interested in our	
	written product's theme	
	and read it immediately.	

Table 11	Stages	of Publication
----------	--------	----------------

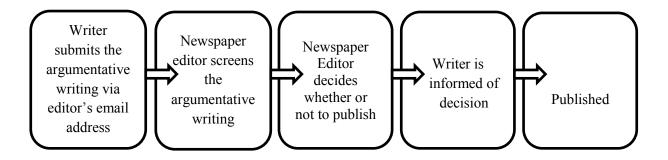
From the table above, we can see that Participant A usually sent his argumentative writing completed with his curriculum vitae, ID card, and photo to the editor through the editor's email address (in an argumentative writing context in newspaper). Participant B sent

the softcopy file of his written product via editor's email address completed with cover later that told about the main topic of the writing theme. Here, Participant B suggested that the notification should be delivered by using polite language, humble, and do not act like a teacher/dictate the editor. Although a writer has a belief that his/her written product will be published, but still he/she should show that the publishing authority is on the editor's hand. So, it is important to show the writer's ethic and appreciation to the editor, although the last written product has been published.

In contrast, Participant C prepared it from the beginning of the writing process, starting from deciding the writing theme that is up-to-date, knowing the characteristics of the media, following the rules of the writing (since there are some difference rules between each media), reviewing the written product, and after that sending it to the media via the editor's email address.

In conclusion, after writing, what writers should do is sending their argumentative writing to the newspaper's editor via his/her email address. Here, the email should be written by using polite language, humble, and do not act like a teacher/dictate the editor. It should be known that there are some newspapers that inform about the argumentative writing (whether it is published or not), but there are also some newspapers that do not respond and publish it immediately without informing the writer. Thus, a writer can tell the editor via SMS/WA/BB that he/she just sent his/her written product via the editor's email address. It is important to be done with a hope that the editor will be interested in the writer's written product and read it immediately. In short, the stages of publication are described in Figure 3.

Figure 3 Stages of Publication



Regarding the research objectives, the researcher undertook this research to explain the cognitive processes involved in argumentative writing. The data in this research were gained by interviewing three Indonesian outstanding columnists and analyzing their argumentative written products. The analysis revealed that there were some different ways done by the columnists on how they start until close their writing. Those differences were strongly influenced by their areas of expertise, interest, cognition, and writing styles.

As the result of this research, there are some stages that show the most different ways between the three participants that are influenced by their areas of expertise, interest, cognition, and writing styles. Those stages are about the values that underlie the writers to give their arguments, writers' way to decide their standing position of argument, and the way in which the writers start and close their writing.

First, the values that underlie the writer to give their argument on a particular topic are usually related to their areas of expertise. But, basically, all of the participants hold the value of truth as a basic value that underlies them to give their argument on a particular topic.

Second, the ways in which the participants decide their standing position of argument are different. Participant A decides his standing position of argument by doing the following stages; First, the argument is based on factual-rational argument of religious, philosophical, constitutional, and science; Second, the argument is oriented on public interest; Third, holds the principle to keep the old things that are good and find new things that are better. Participant B decides his standing position of argument after elaborating the social-political reality that is being talked by public. Then, Participant C decides his standing position of argument by focusing on his areas of expertise; religious, education, and social issues.

Finally, creating an interesting introductory and ending paragraph is a must since the introductory paragraph will be seen first by readers, and there will be readers who will look at the end of the writing firstly before reading the whole text. Here, the writers should provide an interesting ending that covers all topics that are being discussed. Thus, it is important to make those two parts more interesting than it should be.

References

- Bailey, S. (2003). Academic writing: A practical guide for student. New York: Nelson Thornes Ltd.
- Benninga, S. J. (1991). Moral, character, and civic education in the elementary school. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (3rd ed.). California: SAGE Publication.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Endy, C. (2011). How to write an argumentative essay. Los Angeles: California State University. Retrieved from web.calstatela.edu/faculty/cendy/writing tips.pdf
- Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. College Composition and Communication, 32(4), 365-387. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/356600
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. W. (2012). Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications (10th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hornby, A. S. (1995). *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary* (5th ed.). Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.
- King, S. (2010). Chapter 7: Arguments for a position. In Some common writing genre (pp. 149-196). Retrieved from https://moodle.selu.edu/moodle/pluginfile.php/151161/mod_folder/content/0/Part%20 1%20Some%20Common%20Writing%20Genres%20(Chs.%201-9)/Chapter%207%20Arguments%20for%20a%20Position.pdf?forcedownload=1
- Knap, P., & Watkins, M. (2005). *Genre, text, grammar: Technologies for teaching and assessing writing*. Sydney: University of New South Wales Press Ltd.
- Litman, J. D. (1987). Copyright, compromise and legislative history. Cornell L. Rev. 72, pp. 857-904. Retrieved from

repository. law. umich. edu/cgi/view content. cgi? article = 1223 & context = articles

McCarthy, T. (1998). Persuasive writing. New York: Scholastic Inc.

- McCutchen, D., Teske, P., & Bankston, C. (2008). Writing and cognition: Implications of the cognitive architecture for learning to write and writing to learn. In C. Bazerman (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (pp. 451-470). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (2004). *Literacy for learning: The report of the expert panel* on the literacy in grades 4 to 6 in Ontario. Ontario: author. Retrieved February 16,

from

2016

https://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/document/reports/literacy/panel/literacy.pdf

- Oshima, A., & Hoggue, A. (2005). Writing academy English (4th ed.). New York: Longman Ltd.
- Purdue Online Writing Lab. (2013). *Argumentative essay*. Retrieved February 12, 2016 from https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/685/05/
- Purdue Online Writing Lab. (2013). *Using rhetorical strategies for persuasion*. Retrieved February 12, 2016 from https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/588/04/

Robb, L. (2012). Argument. Portsmouth, NH: Firsthand Heinemann.

- Thrash, T. M., Maruskin, L. A., Cassidy, S. E., Fryer, J. W., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Mediating between the muse and the masses: Inspiration and the actualization of creative ideas. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98, 469-487. DOI: 10.1037/a0017907
- Zascerinska, J., Zascerinskis, M., Andreeva, N., & Aleksejeva, L. (2013). Factors that influence the educational process. *International Journal of Modern Education Forum* (*IJMEF*), 2(3), pp. 57-65. Retrieved from www.ijmef.org/Download.aspx?ID=8528

The EFL Professional's Written For

Title

Maximizing the Use of Wondershare Quiz Creator Program to Promote High School Students' Engagement in EFL Reading Comprehension Lesson

Author

Feky R. Talahaturuson Email address: <u>tfeky@yahoo.com</u>

Hendrik J. Maruanaya Email address: <u>hjmaruanaya@gmail.com</u>

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

URNAL

Feky R. Talahaturuson is an English teacher of a Vocational School in Ambon. His research interest focuses on using ICT in English Education.

Hendrik J. Maruanaya is a Lecturer in English Department of Teacher Training Faculty at Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia. His research interest focuses on EFL teaching and learning.

Abstract

This study sought to discover how wondershare quiz creator (WQC), a multimedia tool, is used to promote students' engagement in EFL reading comprehension lesson. To explore the issue, an action research was conducted on thirty eleventh-grade students in EFL reading class. The data were collected from the questionnaire, observation, and quiz. During a six- week treatment in a computer laboratory, the result suggested placing the reading quiz created in WQC program before and after reading activities to promote students' engagement and interaction with the text. The pedagogical implication is provided in this article.

Keywords: Wondershare Quiz Creator, Multimedia, reading comprehension

162

Introduction

As new technologies emerge, teachers are pushed to integrate technology into their instructional design to facilitate learning. Relate to teaching reading, computer, e-book, e-reader, e-text, tablet, and multimedia digital tools are used to a certain degree to facilitate and engage the students in a variety of reading activities (Silver-Pacuilla & Ruedel, 2004; Shettel & Bower, 2013; Biancarosa & Griffith, 2012).

Hendrik J. Maruanaya

Feky R. Talahaturuson

English Language Department of Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia SMK Negeri 2 Ambon, Indonesia

However integrating technology in reading comprehension can be very challenging. The challenges include leading and guiding reading activities, as well as managing students' engagement with the text to emphasize on meaningful reading. This action research study sought to discover how wonder share quiz creator (WQC) program, one of the multimedia tools, is used to promote high school students' engagement and interaction with the text in reading comprehension lesson.

Literature review

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension skills are essential for academic and professional success. Recognizing the words and being fluent in reading may not guaranty that students comprehend what they read because reading comprehension requires the ability to understand and to make sense of the message from the text (Stearns, 2012; Shanahan, et al., 2010). Current perspective on teaching reading suggests the integration of both bottom-up and topdown process to fostering the development of reading comprehension (Hinkel, 2006). Studies on the effectiveness of reading instruction emphasized teaching variables such as word recognition and skill instruction, teacher modeling and coaching, elicit higher-order thinking either through the questions or the tasks to promote reading growth (Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2003), teaching explicit reading comprehension strategies (Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005), and using hands-on activities and interesting text to increase students' engagement and reading proficiency (Guthrie, et al., 2004). Wonder share quiz creator (WQC) program is a multimedia software tool designed to create test and exam. This windows-based software has nine exam-types; true or false exams, multiple-choice exams and multiple-response exams, fill-in-the-blanks exams, matching exams, Sequence exams, word bank exams, click-map exams and short essay exams which all can be delivered in an interactive way using multi-media illustrations such as images, sounds, and movies. This tool has the capability to design activities for practicing language skills and subskills as well as having the capability to check students' understanding in all language skills (Aghighi & Motamedi, 2013). Aside from a number of research literatures highlight the advantage of integrating WQC program as an interactive learning media to improve language skills, to generates students' interest and self-reliance (Ampa, 2015; Aghighi & Motamedi, 2013), Aghighi & Motamedi (2013) still noticed lack of special module for reading comprehension activities using this program.

Method

This action research followed the design and procedure suggested by Kemmis and McTaggart (2000). The study was conducted on thirty eleventh-grade students who had inefficient English outcome. The instruments used to collect data were observation checklist, questionnaire and the quiz designed in WQC program.

Intervention

As the initial stage of the action, the researcher created two reading passages and some forms of quizzes such as multiple choices, true and false, and fill-in-the-blanks in WQC program to use in his regular reading lesson and in independent reading activities in the computer laboratory. After observing the activities and analyzing the questionnaire, he found very little evidence of students' engagement with reading activities. In a discussion built with the students after getting the data, most students revealed that the feedback provided by the computer about their choice, made them feel unnecessary to review the text. This indicated that the feedback provided by the computer, which intended to make students review the text to construct true understanding did not affect them as it supposed to be.

The data obtained from the initial stage of implementing WQC program in reading comprehension lesson was used as the baseline data to develop intervention as shown in the chart below.

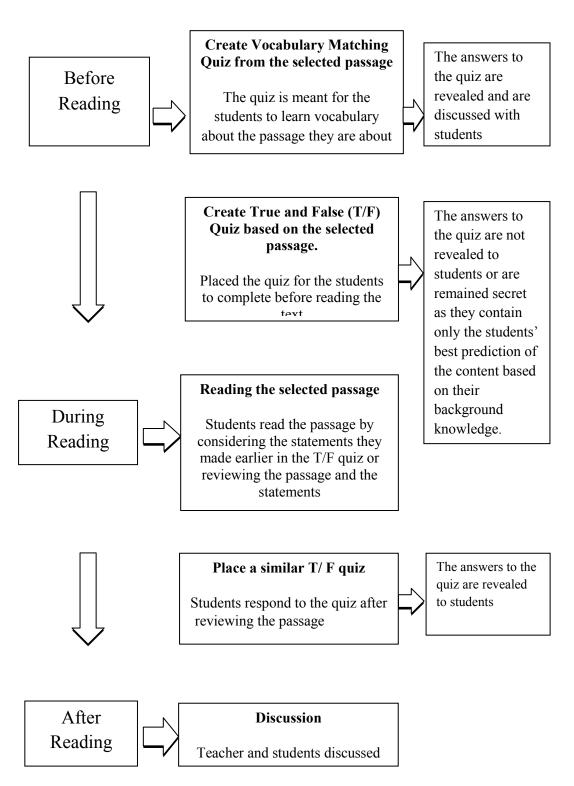


Chart 1. Instructional Framework of Reading Interventions designed in WQC program

Student's engagement in reading lesson

The intervention demonstrated the improvement of students' engagement in some aspect of reading activities as shown in the table below.

	Did you do the following		Frequency	(in percenta	- Cumulativ	
No	Did you do the following when reading?	Never	Seldom	Sometime s	Always	e %
1	Reviewing or reread the text	0	0	0	100	100
2	Making connection	0	0	13	87	100
3	Think aloud	0	0	27	73	100
4	Finding the main idea and details	0	0	0	100	100
	N=30					

Table 1 Elements of engagement in reading

Students' view of reading activities designed in WSQ program

The majority of the class shows strong positive views on reading intervention designed in WQC.

			Frequency (in percentage)				
No	What do you think about reading lesson designed in WQS	Strongl y disagre e	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	Cumulativ e %	
1	Encourage me to read	0	0	33	67	100	
2	Enjoyable	0	0	17	83	100	
3	Help me to read independently	0	0	27	73	100	
4	Increase my confidence in reading			47	53	100	
	N=30						

Table 2. Students' view of reading activities designed in WQS

The use of wonder share Quiz Creator as a multimedia tool has assisted and supported teacher and students to improve teaching and learning atmosphere in language learning especially in reading comprehension lesson. The result from the intervention indicates that such designed framework encourages the students to employ certain reading skills in reading lesson especially when they have to read independently.

Conclusion

Improving teacher quality especially in the field of pedagogic and professionalism is essential. The recent advances in technology and computer software have provided the resource for language teachers. Using wondershare quiz creator combined with proper intervention design produce fruitful learning experience as shown in this action research of EFL reading comprehension lesson.

References

- Aghighi, R., & Motamedi, A. (2013), A Constructivism Approach to the Comparative Study of Three Smart Test Templates: Testa, Hot Potatoes, Wondershare Quiz Creator. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World* (IJLLALW) Vol. 4 (1), 85-101
- Ampa, A. T. (2015) The Implementation of Interactive Multimedia Learning Materials in Teaching Listening Skills. *English Language Teaching Vol. 8*, No. 12.
- Biancarosa, G., & Griffith, G. G. (2012) Technology Tools to Support Reading in the Digital Age. *The Future of Children Vol. 22* (2).
- Guthrie, J. T., Wigfield, A., Barbosa, P., Perencevich, K. C., Taboada, A., Davis, M. H.,
 Scafiddi,N. T., & Tonks, S. (2004) Increasing Reading Comprehension and
 Engagement Through Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology Vol. 96*, (3). 403–423
- Hinkel, E. (2006) Current Persepective on Teaching the Four Skills. *TESOL Quartely*. *Vol.40*(1)
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (2000). Participatory action research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 567-607). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Shanahan, T., Callison, K., Carriere, C., Duke, N. K., Pearson, P. D., Schatschneider, C., Torgesen, J. (2010), Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade. *The National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance*. U.S. Department of Education.
- Shettel, J. W., & Bower, K. (2013), Infusing Technology into the Balanced Literacy Classroom. Invited Piece: Focus on Technology, *Vol.1* (2), 3-11.

- Silver-Pacuilla, H., & Ruedel, K. (2004), A Review of Technology-Based Approaches for Reading Instruction: Tools for Researchers and Vendors American Institutes for Research. *The National Center for Technology Innovation*, Washington, DC S
- Stearns, S. C. (2012), Integration of Technology into the Classroom: Effects on reading comprehension, *Research Papers*. Paper 248. Retrieved from <u>http://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/gs_rp/248</u>
- Taylor, B. M., Pearson, P. D., Peterson, D. S., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2003), Reading Growth in High-Poverty Classrooms: The Influence of Teacher Practices that Encourage Cognitive Engagement in Literacy Learning. *The Elementary School Journal, Vol.* 104 (1) 3-28.
- Van Keer, H., & Verhaeghe, J. P. (2005). Effects of explicit reading strategies instruction and peer tutoring in second and fifth graders' reading comprehension and self-efficacy perceptions. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol.73, 291-329.

The EFL Professional's Written For

Title

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach English to Young Learners

Author

Fibriani Endah Widyasari Widya Dharma Klaten University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Fibriani Endah Widyasari is an English lecturer at the English education study program of Widya Dharma Klaten University, Klaten, Indonesia. She is interested in teaching English as a foreign language, Multiple Intelligences and educational systems. Her research interests focus on EFL teaching and Multiple Intelligences. She experienced in presenting her papers in several international conference and journals. Any query related to this paper could be addressed to fienwi@unwidha.ac.id

Abstract

Young learners are unique in some points in their way of learning language, they immediately learn it using any kinds of media surround them. As they watch movie or listen to the music they find it easier memorizing grammar patterns, vocabulary, words pronunciation, words or sentences meaning as well. Gardner (1983: 118-119) states music is universal, crossing cultural borders, playing a significant, unifying role in the earliest history of man throughout the world. The musical intelligence components involving melody and rhythm set into rhythmic operations which composed into instruments or song which provides lyrics in it, moreover, musical notation provides a complex separate symbol system. Individuals process musical tones in the right hemisphere of the brain, but with formal training and greater competence, musicians utilize the left hemisphere as well. The ability of understanding rhythm stimulates other parts of brain develop critical reasoning and learning abilities. Music also provides a sense of euphoria and a significant stress reducer. Considering music is powerful to create learners' positive learning atmosphere and is able to optimize both right and left hemispheres simultaneously, it is assumed that learners' competence in learning language can be stimulated by developing their musical intelligence

and increasing their joyful feeling. This study is a learning design which providing musical based instructions to teach English to young learners. The basic instructions used to awaken learners' ability on using their left hemisphere which linguistics is in this area by optimizing the opposite hemisphere which music belongs to this area.

Keywords: English, instructions, musical intelligence, young learners

Introduction

Everyone loves music. Aristotle says that music has a power of forming the character and should therefore be introduced into the education of young. Music is an important way of expressing ourselves and developing new skills. Music is part of culture that is able to empower children to recognise the identity of nation they belong to and understand the world they live in. It also helps people understand themselves and relate to others. Besides being a creative and enjoyable subject, music also plays an important part in helping children feel part of a community, developing a sense of group identity and togetherness. Through the teaching of music we aim to provide all children with the opportunity to create, play, perform and enjoy music. Music touches deep in human being life even Plato ever said that Music is a moral law. It gives wings to the mind, soul to the universe, and life to everything. Indeed without music, life would be an error. From those statements it can be summarized that the exposure to music have to be started from the early years of human being life.

Despite of the benefit of music, still Indonesia does not put music into their curriculum officially. The lackness of integrated music teaching implementation in every school in Indonesia make those who wants to learn more about music can acquire their skill out side classroom, music course or self-taught. However, those limitation does not make Indonesian children disable to be proficient in musics. It accross to our mind about theory of multiple intelligence. Children have their own intelligences. It is believed that their ability to understand the music is coming from inside or their own intelligence naturally or in other words their intelligence in music is a natural gift. Children with musical intellegence also would learn about everything optimally if the material is integrated with musics (Gardner, 1983: 118-119).

In enhancing the ability of students in understanding or comprehending English skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in teaching learning process. English teachers should realize that students with musical intelligences should be treated with music based instruction too. It comes to the conclusion that Musical Intelligence Based Instruction for Young Learners should be designed. Teachers have to differentiate the instruction in order to meet the variety of students' intelligences, musical intelligences based instruction is considered as one of the effective way on developing students' learning ability.

This study is aimed to help teachers on providing teaching instruction by awaking students' musical intelligence and examine its benefits on helping students learning language. This study will be achieved by providing literature study as the base on designing the musical intelligence instructions for young learners on learning language. It will show how awaking students musical intelligence into their language learning activities may help them to meet their needs. Young learners love to watch movie, listen to the music and sing; as they watch movie or listen to the music they find it easier memorizing grammar patterns, vocabulary, words pronunciation, words or sentences meaning as well. The musical intelligence components involving melody and rhythm set into rhythmic operations which composed into instruments or song which provides lyrics in it, moreover, musical notation provides a complex separate symbol system. The ability of understanding rhythm stimulates other parts of brain develop critical reasoning and learning abilities. Music also gives significant sense of euphoria and stress reducer. Music is powerful to create learners' positive learning atmosphere and is able to optimize both right and left hemispheres simultaneously, it is assumed that learners' competence in learning language can be stimulated by developing their musical intelligence and increasing their joyful and happy feeling.

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Speaking

Speaking can be encouraged by providing music and in the form of songs, music has some advantages. Students improve their speaking skill and pronunciation ability as they sing the lyrics of song. In addition, Morales (2008) states they can discuss the different topics in the lyrics like love, hate, revenge, and in this manner they can practice speaking by expressing opinions and reflections about the contents of the songs.

Sometimes songs can be added, making things a bit different and out of the expected e.g. "Row, row, row your boat" can easily be changed into "Fly, fly, fly your plane" (Natasa. 2006). Learners are invited to change the song although the decision of the way the song changed is on teachers' hand. Basically when students are pronouncing and repeating new words, they gain various vocabularies in oral expression. Romero, Bernal, & Olivares (2011) propose many activietes that can be done, for instance:

- 1. Act: Create a dramatization with the theme of the song.
- 2. Different rhythms: Have students sing the same song in different rhythms.

- 3. Graphic representation: After listening to the song make a drawing trying to represent the meaning of the song and then explain it.
- 4. Imitation: Have students pretend they are the singers of the song.

The following are the activities can be implemented in promoting speaking skill: Choose the music or song that invites students to act for students under age 6. In this activity, "Head and Shoulders" song is selected.

Activity 1: Music to Promote Speaking Skill

- Step 1 Teacher instructs the class to make seat arrangement into U shape
- Step 2 Teacher plays the music. Students may stand up or sit down while listening music. Students are freely to make reaction to the music they are listening to.
- Step 3 The teacher finds out whether the students like it or not.(If they do not like it, teacher may change to another music)
- Step 4 Teacher then play the video of the music they have listened to. Students are asked to stand up and to make movement they want to, the movement should be based on the video they have watched. Remember not to force the children to act exactly the same as in the video.
- Step 5 Stop the video. Teacher then modelling the act by singing the song. Encourage the students to follow your act. And, teacher points head and ask " yes" or "no" then do other parts. Do it with correct and incorrect way..
- **Step 6** Play the video together and sing together. Don't forget to imitate the act!
- Step 7 Students are asked to make their parts of body picture and the name of each part in it. Then, ask the students to show their picture and tell them in front of class. By modelling the student to say " this is my" for single noun "these are my..." for plural.
- Step 8 Finish to present in front of the class. The teacher then ask to students to pint out "where is my nose?" and encourage the students to shout "This is my nose!"

End up the lesson by singing and acting together.

172

Choose the music or song that invites students to act for students 7+ years old. In this activity, "I'm a little teapot" song is selected.

- Step 1 Teacher instructs the class to make seat arrangement into U shape. Distribute the lyrics to the students. The students may feel confused to read it. Then, teacher sings the song to invite students to sing together.
- Step 2 Teacher plays the music and ask the students to sing together. After that, teacher distributes the card named "friends of little tea pot" consisting the vocabulary on cooking wares.
- **Step 3** Ask the students to pick up one of cards. Then change the lyrics of "tea pot" with the vocabulary on the card.
- Step 4 Give students opportunity to change the song lyrics freely and creatively rather than the ryhtm. The students may ask a question. Explain the rule to them to use the sentence "Excuse me, Miss, can I change the lyrics into..." or "Excuse me, Miss, can I ask something..." to promote speaking English in classroom.
- Step 5 After finishing to change the lyrics, they should demonstrate the result of their work by singing the song they have composed.
- Step 6 Explain to students that there is a competition. Teacher will choose the best lyrics and performance. Ask them to introduce first of their alias name (they have to create the singer's name, example: Tina simpson or Jeni Gomez) and the title of the song.
- Step 7 End up the lesson by singing together the song entitled "I'm a little tea pot"

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Reading

Traves (1994) states reading is a fundamental skill for learners, not just for learning but for life. Grabe & Stoller (2001: 9) define reading as "...the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately". Reader not only needs to read fluently but also to be able to know about what will happen next in a text by making predictions, a meaningful and specific goal for reading is set up as they make predictions in order to be good readers. With a lifetime of reading adventures ahead of them, young children are well on their way to becoming literate (Schiller, 2000). Today many kindergarten classrooms have become replicas of first grade with children sitting at desks completing worksheets, learning to sound out words, and memorizing sight words (Marxen, Ofstedal &

Danbom, 2008). It can be assumed children have limited prior knowledge of reading as they enter schools, in this situation the first grade students cannot be taught with conventional reading activities, giving them texts and finding meaning of text is not effective. Hill-Clarke & Robinson (2004) state that Each individual student learns in a different way. Because of all the different learning styles, teachers need to use a variety of techniques to meet these varied learning styles, and music provides the opportunity to use a variety of teaching techniques. Learning through music may be very effective because it stimulates the brain while it is processing information (Brown & Brown, 2008).

173

Between the ages of two and six years, children become capable of longer periods of attention and are rapidly developing a more sophisticated vocabulary. During this time, children need multiple and repetitive opportunities, such as learning rhymes and singing songs to help with the formal process of mastering the mechanics of reading. Out of all the intelligences, musical intelligence develops first. By a very young age, children have become aware of pitch, melody, rhythm and rhyme which are all components of reading, and thus, the use of music may have the potential to meet different learning styles (Howard Gardner, 1983). When these young learners are guided in developmentally appropriate ways, they learn to name alphabet letters, separate sounds into spoken words, and associate sounds with letters that represent them (Reid, 2007).

It has been found that students can improve their knowledge and literacy helped by music, particularly song lyrics. The use of songs increases oral language development because when they hear and sing songs, young children start to build background knowledge (Register, 2004; Fisher & MacDonald, 2001; Anvari, Trainor, Woodside & Levy, 2002). Vocabulary and pre-reading skills can be developed as they begin read the lyrics as much as they want to be able to memorize them, children like to imitate song lyrics and find out its meaning. Moreover, songs and lyrics provide joyful and relaxing learning atmosphere which encourage students to engage reading actively. Songs and rhymes aid memory and learning skills as well as help children improve listening and sound discrimination skills (Mascle, 2009). Songs are perfect for familiarizing these young learners with alphabet letters, sounds, and words. The predictive characteristics of songs can be used to promote reading fluency, and they offer very useful opportunities for readers to use prior knowledge as they make predictions about story ideas and words (Algozzine & Douville, 2001).

Dr. Susan Homan, a literacy professor at the University of South Florida's College of Education, was approached by Electronic Learning Products[®] to conduct a research study with their computer software program *TUNEin to Reading*. The program was designed for

students identified as struggling readers and provides a fun and engaging environment of repeated reading through the use of song lyrics. Lyrics, by some, are considered another type of text format for reading. After using this program with a group of middle school students over a nine-week period, Dr. Homan found that fluency and reading comprehension increased by more than an entire grade level for these students. As a result of the findings from this project, Dr. Homan conducted a second year of research using 200 elementary, middle school and high school students and a third year with ESL (English as a second language) learners. The results of the studies showed an average gain in fluency and reading comprehension by one grade level and as high as a grade level and a half. Dr. Homan believes that even though the students are reading the lyrics to songs, they are still reading. Students were self-motivated and wanted to read. Here is the activity using music to promote reading skill: For students below 6, choose the music or simple song that has repetition on words or lyric. In this activity, "BINGO"

Activity 2: Music to Promote Reading Skill

Step	Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement in order they
1	can watch the video easily.

Step Teacher then share the flashcard that contains the letter "B,I,N,G,O" to
each student. Once the song played the student has to read the flashcard loudly "B,I,N,G,O" while singing the song.

Step Teacher sit on the floor with all students surrounding . Teacher then tella story about dog named BINGO. Student listen to the story carefuly.

- Step Teacher asks several questions about the story. Then, the teacher
 distributes the paper to each students. In paper consist of paragraph and picture about dog. Each paper has different paragraph and picture from the others.
- Step Teacher let the students to choose which dog that they like. One student
 may change their paper to the others or they can join to read the paper because they like the same dog.
- **Step** After that, ask them about what they have read.
- 6

Step End up the lesson by singing together.

7

For students 10+, choose the music or song that invites students to recall vocabulary on food. In this activity, "<u>Pat-a-Cake, Pat-a-Cake, Baker's Man</u>" or "Pease Porridge Hot."

- Step 1 Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement in order they can watch the video easily.
- Step 2 The video of songs are played while students read the lyrics. Play the video once again and make them sing together. After that, ask the students what the song is about?
- Step 3 The song is about the food. Teacher ask the students what food they like. Ask them what is the food that they like in English, give the students appreciation of being capable to answer the questions. Example: "Bakso, do you like Bakso? Bakso is meatball in English"
- **Step 4** Tell the class that they are going to read about western food like in the song "pease porridge hot".
- Step 5 Teacher has prepared the article about the western food without the picture of the food itself in the article. Be sure that the total number of article is the same with the number of students. Then, distribute the article to students and let them to read what article that they like to read.
- Step 6 After that, ask them about "what title of article that they have read?" "what is the content?" and etc.
- Step 7 Let the students imagine what the foods they like and draw them on the paper about their imagination.
- Step 8 Finish in drawing, the teacher then views the picture of each food in each article. The students may feel happy, wonder, and shock by comparing the imagination and reality.

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Writing

Young children's early attempts at writing help develop their emerging literacy skills. Children start to learn and master the functions and goals of writing (listing grocery they have) and begin to understand the alphabet letters and numbers in the forms and features of written language since they were in two years age. According to Neuman (2007), "writing and reading are related and depend on each other." Between the ages of 4 and 7, children begin to translate the sound they hear in words into the letters that represent them. Children's early writing attempts are an important way to express their growing phonemic awareness.

Related to early writing is the development of concepts of print. Concept of print refers to children's knowledge of the functions of print and how print works (Strickland & Schickedanz, 2005). Young children's understanding of concepts of print has scientifically based research support as a predictor of early literacy success (Snow et al, 1998; National Early Literacy Panel, 2007). Educators can help children build concepts of print by providing experiences with books and written texts, and developing a print-rich classroom environment.

Like language, music is represented by printed notation. Like language, music writing follows a developmental progression from the perception of individual sounds to broader groupings within songs (Gromko, 1998). Calling children's attention to the use of symbols to represent individual music notes and events may help children build the fundamental understanding that language sounds can also be represented by written symbols.

Two experimental studies have shown that music instruction can enhance early writing skills in classrooms:

- Standley and Hughes (1997) engaged children aged 4–5 years in 15 lessons that used music to enhance the teaching of writing and prereading skills. Children were primarily economically disadvantaged, and included migrant preschoolers and students with disabilities. Instruction included focus on concepts of print, participation in singing activities, and writing response activities. At post-testing, children in the experimental group showed enhanced print concepts and prewriting skills.
- 2. A subsequent study by Register (2001) replicated the previous study with a larger sample size of 50 children. The results again showed that children who received the music-enhanced instruction made greater gains in writing skills and print awareness.

And the activity in the classroom would be like: For students under age 6 years old, choose the music or song that invites students to recall the vocabulary around them. In this activity, "Old McDonald had a farm" song is selected.

Activity 3: Music to Promote Writing Skill

- **Step 1** Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement
- Step 2 Teacher plays the music. Students may stand up or sit down while listening music. Teacher lets students to make free reaction to the music they are listening to. Play the video until the students feel enjoy and try to mimicking the lyrics.
- **Step 3** Teacher ask the students to make list of animals mentioned in the song

and identify their name.

- Step 4 Teacher imitate the sounds and gestures of animals listed. Encourage students to follow the action. And ask them "What is the sound of pig?"etc.
- Step 5 Stop the video. Then, ask them to sit around the teacher. Teacher begin to tell story about the "Lost Pig." Ask questions about the story in the midlle and end of it.
- Step 6 Teacher asks students make some draws of the animal or around them. If they have a pet, then please name the pet. Let the students use their imagination in drawing and colouring it. Be sure that they draw more than one animal.
- **Step 7** After that, teacher asks the students to name each animal in English.
- Step 8 The teacher recall the vocabulay of body parts and ask to the students "Where is the leg?" "Where is the mouth?" and etc.
- Step 9 Ask the students to write down the vocabulary of each body part of animal.
- **Step** End up the lesson by singing together.
- 10

For students 10+ years old, choose the music or song that invites students to recall the vocabulary around them. In this activity you can also use "Old McDonald had a farm".

Step	Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement
1	
Step	Teacher plays video of music or song. Teacher instruct the class to
2	stand up and sing together.
Step	Teacher ask the students about animals that they know? and which one
3	of their favourite?
Step	Stop the video. Then, ask them to sit around the teacher. Teacher begin
4	to tell story about the "Lost Pig." Ask questions about the story in the
	midlle and end of it.
Step	Then, teacher distribute the flashcard about animal to students. One
5	student has one card. Each card different from the others.

Step Students are instructed to write down about animal description on the6 card. Give them more time and space, instead of limit it. Instruct them to do free writing. This could promote writing to them.

Step At the end of the lesson students are asked to read their writing in frontof the class.

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Listening

Listening activities should be based on meaningful, appropriate, and authentic texts (e.g., a story, song, or poem) that assist listening and remembering and that match the language and grade level of pupils (Kirsch, 2008). In order to achieve this they should be encouraged from a very early age to listen: to their sound environment; to their own musical creations and compositions; to live music; to recorded music

Teachers can utilize song musics in teaching listening using musical based instruction, song is a part of Songs can be one of the most enjoyable ways to practice and develop listening skills. Songs tend to encourage students for listening, practicing and repeating, repetition of language is pleasurable such as repeating choruses, or singing cumulative songs where each verse borrows words from a previous verse (e.g., "Head Shoulders Knees and Toes"). Rumley (1999) states this repetition, most often accompanied by physical actions, helps learning and in turn leads to familiarity so that children feel comfortable with the foreign language In addition, as argued by Sharpe (2001), by singing songs pupils gradually internalize the structures and patterns of the foreign language as well as the specific language items that the teacher wants them to learn. Songs provide opportunities for real language use. Ersöz (2007: 20) suggests that teachers should be careful to choose songs that: 1. contain simple and easily understood lyrics; 2. related to learning topic or vocabulary that learners are studying in class; 3 contain repetitive lines; 4. allow children to easily do actions (to help emphasize meaning).

In teaching listening using musical intelligence based instructions, physical activities are required to strengthen students' memory of words, grammar patterns and meanings. Phillips (1993) states that we should incorporate some of the techniques from the Total Physical Response (TPR) approach (such as Listen and Do songs). Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue TPR is built around the coordination of speech and action, focusing on teaching languages through physical activity. This is an extremely useful and adaptable teaching technique, especially in the case of young learners who listen to their teacher's instructions in the form of commands and then follow those instructions. For example, in the introduction of

new commands, the teacher first says, "Wash your hands," and then shows the action to this command. Next, the teacher gives the command and asks the students to perform the action. Similar routines are carried out all through the lesson. Likewise, Sarıçoban and Metin (2000) suggest that adding motions that parallel the words of the song makes songs more meaningful and enjoyable. Providing dynamic songs which allow students do dancing to liven up the learning atmosphere. By doing so, there seems to be general agreement among teachers and students that presenting songs to young learners is the most effective way on learning listening. The following is the activity can be described: provide the simple song that contains simple vocabulary to make students easy to catch it for students below 6 years old. "Wheel on the bus" is selected to teach listening.

Activity 4: Music to Promote Listening Skill

- Step 1 Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement. In order the students could watch the video easily.
- Step 2 Teacher play the music video. Teacher instruct the class to stand up and sing together. Teacher can play more than one until students remember the vocabulary.
- Step 3 The video will be paused over and over and let the students to continue the lyrics. For example: "The wheel on the bus go..." and the student answers "round and round"...until the song finish.
- **Step 4** Distribute the picture of bus to each student. Circleling the part of bus that is mentioned in the song they are listening.
- Step 5 At the end of lesson students are instructed to read their writing in front of the class.

Teachers can provide the music that is popular and well known for students 10+ years old. The song from Justin Bieber "Baby" is selected to teach listening.

Step Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement

- 1
- Step 2 Teacher play the music or song in the form of mp3 by using speaker active. Ask the students to sing together.
- Step 3 Ask the students about the song? Then distribute the paper contains jumbled lyrics.

- **Step 4** Teacher plays the song more than one time to let students listen well and write down the missing lyric on paper.
- Step 5 Instruct for each student to exchange their works randomly, then, each of them has to sing the lyric written by friends.
- **Step 6** End up the lesson by inviting the students to sing together.

Conclusion

The use of music allows for interactive participation by involving students in movement, listening, and singing, it means that by awaking musical intelligence and providing proper learning activities give students opportunities to develop their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills simultaneously and provoking others skills, e.g. drawing, acting, composing, and story telling. Music is lighten up students' feeling to be better, it stimulates both left and right hemispheres, give long term memory on recalling learning materials and provide better atmosphere in the classroom to learn.

References

- Algozzine, B. & Douville, P. 2001. Tips for teaching. *Preventing School Failure*, 45(4). Retrieved November 23,2009, from EBSCO host.
- Allen, E. D., & Valette, R. M. 1977. *Classroom techniques:Foreign languages and English as a second language*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace.
- Barclay, K. D. & Walwer, L. 1992. Linking lyrics and literacy through song and picture books. *Young Children*, 47, 76-85.
- Bayless, K. M. & Ramsey, M. E. 1991. *Music: A way o/life/or the young child* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Merrill.
- Bennett-Armistead, V. S., Duke, N. K., & Moses, A M. 2005. Literacy and the youngest learner: Best practices/or educators 0/ ch ildren from birth to 5. New York, NY: Scholastic, Inc.
- Brown, R. & Brown, N. 2008. Why teach music to teach children? Retrieved February 4,2008, from <u>http://www.intelli-tunes.comlwhy-teach-music-to-children.htm</u>.
- Clark, L. 2003. *Teaching reading and writing with favorite songs*. New York, NY: Scholastic, Inc.
- Ersöz, A. 2007. Teaching English to young learners. Ankara, Turkey: EDM Publishing.

181

- Fisher, D., & McDonald, N. 2001. The intersection between music and early literacy instruction: Listening to literacy! *Reading Improvement*, 38, 106-115.
- Gardner, H. 1983. Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences. New York: BasicBooks.
- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. L. 2002. Teaching and researching reading. Harlow, UK:Pearson Education.
- Green, F. 1999. Brain and learning research: Implications for meeting the needs of diverse learners. *Edu*
- Gromko, J. 2005. The effect of music instruction on phonemic awareness in beginning readers. *Journal of Research in Music Education*, 53, 199-209.
- Hill-Clarke, K. & Robinson, N. R. 2004. It's as easy as a-b-c- and do-re-mi: Music, rhythm and rhyme enhance children's literacy skills. *Young Children*, 59(5), 91-95.
- Jalongo, M. R. & Ribblett, D. M. 1997. Using song picture books to promote emergent literacy. *Childhood Education*, 74, 15-22.
- Kirsch, C. 2008. Teaching foreign languages in the primary school. London: Continuum.
- Marxen, c., Ofstedal, K. & Danbom, K. 2008. Highly qualified kindergarten teachers: Have they been left behind? *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 29(1), 81-88.
- Mascle, D. 2009. Why Teach Your Preschooler Using Rhyme and Song? Retrieved August 11, 2009 from http://www.ezinearticles.com.
- Morales, C. 2008. Using rock music as a teaching-learning tool. PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 9, 163-180.
- Natasa, I. K. 2006. Developing speaking skills in the young learners classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 12 (11). Retrieved from <u>http://iteslj.org/Techniques/</u> Klancar-Speaking Skills.html.
- Nelsen, M. R. & Nelsen-Parish, 1. 2002. *Peak with books: an early childhood resource for balanced literacy*. Beltsville, MD: Gryphon House, Inc.
- Newnan, S. B., Copple, C. & Bredekamp, S. 2001. Letters and words: The building blocks of print. Scholastic Early Childhood Today, J 6(2), 10-11. Retrieved February 21, 2010, from http://www.scholastic.com.
- Newlin, R. & Harris, R. 2008. More Picture-Song Storybooks. Retrieved January 20, 2010 from <u>http://www.songsforteaching.com</u>.
- Phillips, S. 1993. Young learners. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Register, D. 2004. The effects of live music groups versus an educational children's television program on the emergent literacy of young children. *The Journal a/Music Therapy*, *41(1),2-27*.
- Reid, R. 2007. *Something musical happened at the librmy*. Chicago, IL: American Library Association.
- Richards, J. C., and T. S. Rodgers. 2001. *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ridout, S. 1990. Harmony in the classroom: Using songs to teach reading and writing. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southeast Regional Conference of the International Reading Association, Louisville, K Y. Retrieved From ERIC database. (ED324637).
- Romero, M. D., Bernal, L.M.T., & O.M.C. 2012. Using Songs to Encourage Sixth Graders to Develop English Speaking Skills. revistas.unal.edu.Journal 14(1).
- Rumley, G. 1999. Games and songs for teaching modern languages to young children. In The teaching of modern foreign languages in the primary school, ed. P. Driscoll and D. Frost, 114–25. London: Routledge.
- Sarıçoban, A. 1999. The teaching of listening. *The Internet TESL Journal* 5 (12). http://iteslj.org/ Articles/Saricoban-Listening.html.
- Sarıçoban, A., and E. Metin. 2000. Songs, verse and games for teaching grammar. *The Internet TESL Journal* 6 (10). http://iteslj.org/Techniques/ Saricoban-Songs.html
- Schiller, P. 2000. Creating readers: Over 1000 games, activities, tongue twisters, fingerplays, songs and stories to get children excited about reading. Beltsville, MD: Gryphon House, Inc.
- Schiller, P., & Moore, T. 2004. *Do you know the muffin man?: Literacy activities using favorite rhymes and songs.* Beltsville, MD: Gryphon House, Inc.
- Sharpe, K. 2001. *Modern foreign languages in the primary school: The what, why and how of early MFL teaching*. London: Kogan Page.
- Sibal, K. 2004. Exploring the Effects of Music on Young Children. Retrieved January 20, 2010 from http://more4kids.com/Articles/article1009.htm. *cation*, 119(4), 682-688.
- Stanley, N. 2006. Interview with John Archambault: Making words sing is a magical thing.
 Teaching the legacy of Bill Martin, Jr. (1914-2004) and beyond. *Florida Reading Quarterly: A Publication of the Florida Reading Association, 42(4),* 40-43.

Weinberger, N. M. 1996. Sing, sing! *MuSICA Research Notes*, (3)2. Retrieved January 20, 2010 from <u>http://www.musica.uci.edulindex.html</u>. Weinberger, N. (1998). The Music in Our Minds. *Educational Leadership*, 56,36-40.

The EFL Professional's Written For

Title

Interest and Writing Skill of the University Students on using Social Media- Facebook in Writing Class (STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia)

Author

Geminastiti Sakkir

English Education Department at STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

URNAL

Geminastiti Sakkir is a lecturer of English Education Department at STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia. She is a doctoral candidate in English Education Program from the State University of Makassar. She attends in several International Conferences as presenter or participant, such as ASIA TEFL Conference in Kuching, Malaysia 2014, Brown Bag Seminar in Northern Illinois University USA 2015, etc. Her areas of interest and research include teaching media, TEFL, Writing, and Technology in Education. She can be contacted at hj.geminastitisakkir@yahoo.com.

Abstract

Today, all students and lecturers familiar with social media in their lives, but they did not explore it in learning process. One of the most users of social media is Facebook. This study examines students' interest and writing skill of the use of Facebook in the process of teaching writing English in STKIP Rappang Muhammadiyah, South Sulawesi, Indonesia, especially in the early stages (second semester). This study was conducted using a quantitative method. Data were collected using a questionnaire and writing test. The questionnaire consist of 20 questions with negative and positive statements to gather more data rich in interest of students on the use of social media- Facebook in writing classroom. Scale used in this questionnaire is a Likert scale, namely the scale of five levels of response which is the ordinal scale. Then, writing test is essay test that ask the students to write essay about the theme in lecturers' Facebook wall minimum 500 words to know the level of students writing skill in Facebook. The writing test analyzed using scoring system based on Jacob, at. al. Findings from the questionnaire analysis shows that there were no students who states negative statement to the use of Facebook, 12 students (60%) were strongly interested, and 8 students (40%) were interested, none of the students were moderated, uninterested and strongly uninterested. The mean score of the students' interest is 85.55 which are meant it is in strongly interested category. Therefore, the students have interest to the use of Facebook in writing English. And the data from writing showed that most of the students were in poor category. One student (5%) got fairly good, 6 students (30%) got fair, 9 students (45%) got poor and 4 students (20%) got very poor. So, even thought the students very interested to use Facebook in classroom but their writing skill need more practices.

185

Keywords: Social Media, Facebook, teaching process, writing skill, interest.

1. Introduction

Writing skills is one of the language skills that should be owned by every student in learning English. Writing is one of the effective communicative languages because it presents ideas easier than communication in spoken. In this term, written language is a true representation of the correct forms of language and should be valued and practiced. Writing activities motivate students to engage their ability in learning English. Therefore, writing is the commonly pattern to be instructed and designed to suggest effective instructional practice (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996: 243). Thus, it can be said that the skills writing is very important to the students. However, the reality which occur in the class does not match the expectations should be. The ability of the students writing is still low. They still have many problems in writing such as spelling, punctuation, structure, organization, ideas, and others. Even some students do not know what will and should they write. Interest and motivation's of them to write very low. They think writing is a very difficult thing. Writing includes many aspects of language that should be covered. Writing are complex and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery not only of grammatical and theoretical devices but also of conceptual and a judgment element that's why teaching writing is different from other aspects of language skills and most difficult. Writing has an important role when learners want to deliver a message to a reader for a purpose. Through writing, the learner can explain things and as a result reader can get information by reading the written message.

Richard and Willy (2002: 56) argue that "the difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable text. In fact, the writer will try to cover the difficulties faced by students in writing process. There are two major

difficulties in composing writing for ESL students are connecting and writing ideas in readable form. That is why, the writer needs writing process which comprise four main stages: planning, drafting, revising and editing. Those are defined as steps for writer to have good preparation in writing activity with any reformulation for revision (Krashen, 1984: 201).

In writing class, the teacher should realize students' difficulties in writing in English as a foreign language. The difficulties are due to weaknesses in grammar and vocabulary. Another problem, the students have a lot of ideas in their minds but they worry to start and even they do not know how to develop the ideas. This problem is faced by not only the students as beginner writer, but also an advance writer. Besides that, uninteresting topic and unsuitable teaching techniques can influence students' interest in writing English. To breakthrough problems above, English teacher have to be more creative in choosing the material and techniques which can make the writing class more interesting, exciting, and enjoyable. It can be done by choosing appropriate material and technique that students like based on the students' level and background of knowledge. Many teachers make efforts to make their class interesting with various methods, techniques, with materials and instruments in order to stimulate learning of language skills effectively. The teachers must be able to create situation that provides opportunities and stimulate the students' especially to be interested in writing.

Teachers need a strategy that is capable build custom learners to write. This strategy is also expected to provide opportunities for the students to practice their writing skills. Not only in the form of controlled exercise but also activities that reflect real life real. Technologies for writing facilitate the flexible manipulation of text enables drafting and redrafting to occur easily, and the eventual product may be presented to a professional standard (Pennington, 2004). One of the chosen strategy is by providing a medium that appeals to learners in writing, is the social media. This media is expected to improve student's interest and motivation in write.

The social media are computer-mediated tools that allow people to create, share idea, exchange information, and pictures/videos in virtual communities and networks through the internet. Social media also is the collective of online communications channels dedicated to community-based input, interaction, content-sharing and collaboration. It is becoming an integral part of life online as social website and has enabled changes in the way of people live, work, interact and acquire knowledge and learning via the internet (Kaplan & Michael, 2010; Almeida, 2002; Kietzmann, 2011; Tang, et al, 2012; Aichner and Jacob, 2015).

Today, the internet has become a part of people life, activities, work, and acquiring knowledge over the world. Based on *Yahoo*'s survey on the number of internet users in 2010, 1 of 3 citizens of the world accessed internet and 64% the internet users are 15-40 years old. The online activities that they use are e-mail (64%); instant messaging (71%); social media (58%); writing on blog (36%); online news (47%); and online games (35%). As we can see on Yahoo's survey, most people do instant massaging or known as chatting through the social media when getting online (Yahoo! Index survey statistic, 2011).

187

As for the most popular social media in Indonesia, Facebook, Twitter, and Google Plus top the list. Interestingly, although Indonesia has become the main market for Path, the report suggests that Instagram and Pinterest are still more popular than the private social media. There are numerous chat apps battling for supremacy in Indonesia, and according to the report, WhatsApp, Facebook Messenger, Skype, and Line take the lead in the archipelago (Millward, et al, 2015). After experiencing meteoric growth from 15 million to 40 million users in just 18 months, Facebook has plateau at around 47 million users. Twitter, on the other hand, is in the middle of its meteoric growth phase, with the number of users conservatively estimated at 35 million at the end of 2012. What these numbers show is the incredible impact of the network effect on a large base of highly-connected individuals. Neither Facebook nor Twitter have a physical presence in Indonesia, yet during their growth spurt periods each service put on 25 million users in the space of 18 months, driven purely by word of mouth. Facebook is a networking site social launched in February 2004 is operated and owned by Facebook Inc. (Bihr & Praus, 2008). Indonesia has about 70 million active Facebook users (an active user is someone who opens his Facebook account at least once per month) and therefore constitutes the fourth-largest Facebook community after the United States, India and Brazil. It is worth noting that about 86 percent of these Indonesian Facebook users use a mobile device to access their Facebook account (Millward, et al, 2015). The use of Facebook communications media not only to perform tasks or even add information, Facebook can used to develop writing skills. Especially students of journalism in which the Facebook can help hone writing skills, because many writings are placed on weblogs have room comments that when they read the writing they can comment on the posts. In this way, students can learn how to express their opinions in writing, so that when the news-making writings as outlined in the news better. In this way it can be seen that the role of Facebook for students is very important. Students have positive perceptions of the use of social media in writing class, but some factors influence the implementation. The biggest limiting factors are the access to the internet on the STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang campus. So, this problem must be reduced by repairing the Internet network and adding capacity (Sakkir, G, 2016). But, before to conduct a research about how to improve students writing skills through social media especially Facebook, first we must know how the level of the students writing skill now and their interest of the using social media-Facebook in the classroom.

2. Purpose Of The Study

This study aims at answering the following questions:

- 1) Are the students' interests on the use of the Social Media- Facebook in the writing class?
- 2) What are the levels of students' writing skill on Facebook wall in the process of teaching writing English in STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang?

3. Method

This study was conducted using a quantitative method. Data were collected using a questionnaire and writing test. The questionnaire consist of 20 questions with negative and positive statements to gather more data rich in interest of students on the use of social media-Facebook in writing classroom. Scale used in this questionnaire is a Likert scale, namely the scale of five levels of response which is the ordinal scale. Then, writing test is essay test that ask the students to write essay about the theme in lecturers' Facebook wall minimum 500 words to know the level of students writing skill in Facebook. The writing test analyzed using scoring system based on Jacob, at. al. The scoring system analyzed 5 (five) part of essay, such as, (1) content, (2) organization, (3) vocabulary, (4) language use, and (5) mechanics. The population of the study is all the second semester students of STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, English Education Department of 2015/ 2016 academic year. The population consist 60 students that spread in 3 classes. The sample take just 1 (one) class with random sampling technique. The total of sample of this study consists of 20 students.

4. Findings And Discussions

The data on students' interest were obtained through giving questionnaire at English Department of the STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang. Data were also gained from writing test to know the students' writing skill level.

4.1. Students' Interest

The results of the students' answer to the interests' questionnaire are shown in table (1). The data was analyzed by using Likert Scale. The majority of students' interest to the use of Facebook in writing process, students can be motivated by the use of this media, and they fell challenging to improve their English writing skill. The analysis shows that there were no students who states negative statement to the use of story pictures, 12 students (60%) were strongly interested who get score in interval 85-100 and 8 students (40%) were interested in interval 69-84. It indicates the use Facebook in teaching writing is interested to the students. And the table 2 shows that the mean score of the students' interest is 85.55 which are meant it is in strongly interested category according to the range of students' interest score. This is indicated by the percentage of the students' questionnaire shown in the following table:

Category	Range	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Interested	85-100	12	60%
Interested	69-84	8	40%
Moderate	52-68	0	0%
Uninterested	36-51	0	0%
Strongly Uninterested	20-35	0	0%
Total		20	100%

Table 1. The Percentage of Students' Interest

Table 2. The Mean Score of Students' Interest

-	Total Respondent	Total of students' score	Mean
-	20	1711	85.55

4.2. Students' Writing Level

Table 3. The Percentage of Students' Writing Score

Classification	Score	Experimental Class		
Classification	Score	Frequency	Percentage	
Very good	89-100	0	0%	
Good	78-88	0	0%	
Fairly Good	67-77	1	5%	
Fair	56-66	6	30%	
Poor	45-55	9	45%	

Very poor	33-44	4	20%
Total		20	100%

Based on the Table 3, it is known that most of the students' writing skill still was in poor category. Because only one student (5%) got fairly good, 6 students (30%) got fair, 9 students (45%) got poor and 4 students (20%) got very poor. It showed that students' writing level was very low and need more help to improve it.

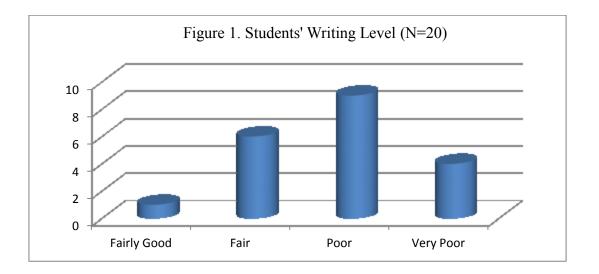


Table 4. Components of Students' Writing

	Components of writing			Writing	Category		
No.				Language	Mechanics	Score	Level
	Content	Organization	Vocabulary	use			
1	20	12	10	12	2	56	Fair
2	20	12	15	12	3	62	Fair
3	20	13	15	15	3	66	Fair
4	23	12	15	15	4	69	Fairly good
5	17	11	12	12	2	54	Poor
6	20	9	15	12	3	59	Fair
7	18	10	10	10	2	50	Poor
8	13	10	9	10	2	44	Very poor
9	13	5	9	8	1	36	Poor
10	23	15	15	16	3	45	Poor

11	17	10	12	8	2	49	Poor
12	13	9	10	15	2	49	Poor
13	20	12	13	12	3	60	Fair
14	20	10	13	15	3	61	Fair
15	17	12	12	9	3	53	Poor
16	17	5	11	9	2	44	Very poor
17	13	9	9	12	2	45	Poor
18	15	8	9	5	1	38	Very poor
19	17	10	12	12	2	53	Poor
20	13	5	10	10	1	39	Very poor

Related on the theories after looking those scores, Asfah Rahman's (2007:2) statement said that descriptive statistics are a way of summarizing data-letting one number stand for a group of number, can also use tables and graphs to summarize data. Thus, descriptive statistics serves as a toll to describe or summarize or reduce to a manageable from the properties of an otherwise mass of data. And then, inferential statistics or research statistics are a measure of the confidence that we can have in our descriptive statistics, the statistics that we use to test hypothesis. The purpose of inferential statistics is to predict or estimate characteristics of a population from knowledge of the characteristics of only sample of the population.

This study found that the result of the writing test consist of 5 (five) components of writing. The result of the test score of components of writing start from the low component to highest component namely Mechanics (46); Organization (199); Language use (229); Vocabulary (236); and Content (349).

5. Conclusion

The study concluded that the use of Social Media- Facebook increased the students' interest in joining the writing class. It was proved by the mean score based on the questionnaire was 85.55 which were categorized as strongly interested based on interpretation data. This led to the conclusion that the students have interest to use Social Media- Facebook in writing English and it keep the students' interest to study English. This media attract the students of English very well. There are many ways to arouse students' interest by

192

considering clear goals, varied topics, visuals, challenging, entertainment, and personalization (Ur, 1996: 281).

But the data from writing test showed that most of the students were still in poor category. Only one student got fairly good and the others got fair, poor and very poor. Even thought the students very interested to use Facebook in classroom but their writing skill need more practices. So, this study should be continued to develop the material through Facebook and the students writing skill can improve significantly.

References

- Aichner, T. and Jacob, F. (2015). "Measuring the Degree of Corporate Social Media Use". *International Journal of Market Research*, 57 (2): 257–275.
- Almeida d'Eça, T. (2002). "To chat or not to chat in the EFL classroom, that is the question!"
 Paper presented at the "Language Communication Culture" International Conference, University of Évora, Portugal, on November 29, 2002. (<u>http://www.malhatlantica.pt/teresadeca/papers/evora2002/chat-and-efl.htm</u>. (Accessed on August, 19, 2015).
- APJII. (2015). <u>Internet Penetration in Indonesia: Rising but Slower than Wanted</u>. Accessed on August 13th, 2015 from <u>http://www.indonesia-</u> investments.com/tag/item31?tag=1292.
- Arikunto, Suharsimi. (2006). *Prosedur Penelitian. Suatu Pendekatan Praktik.* Jakarta: Rineka Cipta.
- Depdiknas. (2004). Undang-Undang dan Peraturan Pemerintah RI Tentang Pendidikan, Jakarta. hlm. 3-4.
- Gay, L. R. (2006). Educational Research. London : Longman.
- Grabe, W. & Kaplan. R. B. (1996). *Theory and Practice of Writing*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Jacobs, Holly L, et el. (1981). *Testing ESL Composition: A Practical Approach*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.
- Kaplan Andreas M., Michael, H. (2010). "Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media". *Business Horizons*, 53 (1). p. 61. <u>Doi</u>: <u>10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003</u>.
- Kietzmann, Jan; Hermkens, K. (2011). "Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media". *Business Horizons*, 54: 241–251. <u>Doi</u>: <u>10.1016/j.bushor.2011.01.005</u>.

- Krashen, S.d. (1984). *Writing: Research Theory and Applications*. Oxford: Pergamon Institute of English.
- Kroma, S. (1988). Action Research in Teaching Composition. London: Longman.
- Melor, Yunus & Salehi, H. (2012). The Effectiveness of Facebook Groups on Teaching and Improving Writing: Students' Perceptions. *International Journal of Education and Information Technologies*, Issue 1, Volume 6, 2012.
- Millward, S, Lee, M. A, and Bischoff, P (Eds.). (2015). The latest numbers on web, mobile, and social media in Indonesia (INFOGRAPHIC), <u>Thompson Rivers University</u>. Accessed on August 13th, 2015 from <u>https://www.techinasia.com/indonesia-webmobile-data-start-2015/</u>.
- Pennington, M. (2004). Electronic media in second language writing: An overview of tools and research findings. *New perspectives on CALL for second language classrooms*, 69-92.
- Richards, J. C. & Willy A. R. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: an Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Sakkir, G. (2016). Students' Perception on Social Media in Writing Class at STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia. *International Journal of English Linguistics;* Vol. 6, No. 3; 2016, pp. 170-175. doi:10.5539/ijel.v6n3p170.
- Salija, K. (2004). *The Effect of Using Formal Outlines in Writing Exposition*. Unpublished Dissertation. Malang: State University of Malang.
- Tang, Q; Gu, B; Whinston, Andrew B. (2012). "Content Contribution for Revenue Sharing and Reputation in Social Media: A Dynamic Structural Model". *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 29: 41–75. Doi: <u>10.2753/mis0742-1222290203</u>.
- The Jakarta Pos. (2015). Internet in Indonesia users 13^{th} 2015 reach 73 million. Accessed August from on http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2015/03/10/internet-users-indonesia-reach-73million.html#sthash.Y8xE6Zfy.dpuf.
- Ur, P. (1966). A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory. Cambridge University Press.

The EFL Professional's Written For

Title

Developing Second and Foreign Language Proficiency: Insight from the Learners

Author

Hairus Salikin Universitas Jember, Indonesia Muhlisin Rasuki Universitas Muhammadiyah Jember, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

ASIAN

DURNAL

Dr. Hairus Salikin, M.Ed. is teaching at English Department, Fakultas Ilmu Budaya, Universitas Jember, Indonesia. He holds a Master of Education from University of South Australia and Doctoral degree in ELT from Universitas Negeri Malang. His research interest covers the areas of foreign language teaching and learning. He can be reached at hairussalikin@yahoo.com

Muhlisin Rasuki is teaching at Universitas Muhammadiyah Jember, Indonesia, and currently doing his Ed.D. in Applied Linguistics at Curtin University, Australia. His research interest covers areas of SLA and language learning strategies. His email address is muhlisin@unmuhjember..ac.id

Abstract

This paper presents a study of two learners' experiences in learning Indonesian and English. One of the learners is from the Philippines and the other is from Thailand. As the study was conducted, they were studying in an English language teaching program at an Indonesian university. The two learners maintained quite unique learning experiences in that both of them neither had knowledge of nor communicative skills in Indonesian language prior to coming to Indonesia. Although they faced lots of difficulty at first, both of them were able to communicate in Indonesian language fluently after some period of living and studying in Indonesia. As regards their proficiency in English, however, there was a marked difference

in that although both of them had learned English for years prior to their undergraduate study, only one of them managed to develop high level of proficiency in English. Interviews were carried out to reveal their learning experiences and to see the factors that might have shaped their level of proficiency in both Indonesian and English. The results indicated that there were a number of factors that might have strongly shaped the different level of their proficiency.

195

Keywords: second language learning, foreign language learning, language learning contexts

Introduction

Studies in the field of second language learning have provided us with very useful insight as to how inner factors, such as aptitude, age and motivation, relate to the development of second language proficiency (e.g. Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Kormos, et al. 2011; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Likewise, there are also lots of studies in the field conducted in instructional contexts which also provide us with very useful theoretical and practical insight about the relative efficacy of particular instructional conditions on enhancing the learners' proficiency in the target language (e.g. DeKeyser, 2007; Long, et al. 1998; Robinson, 1996; VanPatten, 1996). On the other hand, there are only few studies conducted that can provide us with fruitful insight concerning the nature of second language learning in the social contexts. In other words, the social domains of second language learning have so far remained a neglected area (see Hulstijn, et al. 2014 for more detailed discussion). As such, not much is known as to how social factors like access to the target language or access to communicate with the native speakers, for instance, relate to the success or failure in second language learning. Stemming from this gap, this study was conducted. In essence, it attempted to understand how learning contexts affect the process and outcomes of second language learning.

Literature Review

Good language learners

Research has revealed a number of characteristics that good second language learners share. The characteristics suggest that good second language learners are those who are willing and accurate guessers, have a strong will to communicate in the target language and learn from the communication, are willing to make mistakes when learning and communicating, are attentive to form, do a lot of practice, monitor their own and others' speech, and are attentive to meaning (Rubin, 1975, pp. 45-47). These characteristics of good second language learners are very useful and have been used in a wide range of studies dealing with second language learners. However, as Rubin (1975) herself noted, more systematic and deeper observation about the characteristics still need to be carried out (p. 48), and to do so, researchers will need to consider a number of factors which can affect the course of learning itself, including the contexts where it takes place (Rubin, 1975, p. 49).

The call for contextually-bound second language learning research has actually been put forward occasionally in many second language research publications. Norton and Toohey (2001), for instance, claimed that "Our research and recent theoretical discussions have convinced us that understanding good language learning requires attention to social practices in the contexts in which individuals learn L2s [second languages]" (p. 318). As well, Lightbown and Spada (1999) contended that naturalistic settings might offer better opportunity for the learners to execute more meaningful practice in using the target language as compared with classroom settings (p. 91). Still, it is only recently that the researchers begin to really acknowledge the importance of investigating the roles of social or learning contexts in the process and outcomes of second language learning (see Hulstijn, et al. 2014).

In regard specifically to learning a language in a context where it is not widely used in the community but is only restricted to classroom contexts (such is the case of foreign language learning), one key factor that determines a high degree of success in mastering the target language is related to the learners' agency (Oxford, 2008), i.e. the ability to compensate the lack of exposure to the input of the target language through employing certain strategies of learning. The importance of maintaining agency in the process of learning a second language is confirmed by lots of studies. In one study, for instance, Muhlisin and Salikin (2015) found that among three variables investigated: the length of instructional experience, the perceptions of and habits in learning English grammar by adult Indonesian EFL learners, only the learners who developed sense of agency (sic. self-directed learning habits) managed to develop ample proficiency. Likewise, in a study dealing with high and low proficient Chinese learners of English, Wong and Nunan (2011) found that among a number of factors investigated, the main characteristics of good (sic. effective) second language learners included the charactestics of being communicative, active and field independent. On the contrary, poor second language learners exhibit the characteristics of being "authorityoriented, field-dependence and passivity" (p. 152).

Language learning styles refer to "general approaches to language learning" (Cohen, 2003, p. 279), whereas language learning strategies refer to "specific behaviors that learners select in their language learning and use" (ibid.).

Insofar second language learning is concerned, in addition to the general learning styles such as visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic, there are also styles which relate specifically to process of learning a second language. These styles include communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete (Willing 1994 in Wong and Nunan, 2011). As defined by Wong and Nunan (2011), the communicative style refers to the style where learners tend to use the target language in order to learn it. The analytical style, on the other hand, refers to the style where learners like doing problem solving tasks, such as analysing set of words on page. The authority-oriented style refers to the style where learners are largely dependent on the teachers or other learners to help them learn the target language, while the concrete learning style refers to the style where learning style, however, are not exclusive in that they operate in a degree of continuum. In other words, learners with a communicative learning style, for instance, will not always feel daunted when asked to study grammar of the target language through abstract reasoning. However, such learners are likely to perform better when the tasks given require them to produce output in the target language.

As regards second language learning strategies, Oxford (1990) pointed out six strategies that are usually used by second language learners in learning a second language. These strategies include memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social strategies. All of these strategies, according to Cohen (2003), are executed by the learners in practice in conjunction with the type of task and their learning style.

Methodology

This study employed a narrative methodology to understand certain phenomena related to second language learning. In particular, this study set to explore different practice of second language learning of two international students studying English in an Indonesian university. These two students maintained quite unique learning experience in that they studied English in a country where English is not used as a native language. Furthermore, the new community where the two students were immersed both academically and socially speak different language from theirs too. In such a case, the two students were compelled to also learn the language of the new community as well. In that case, they learned two different languages simultaneously (English and Indonesian). In accordance with the contexts where the two languages are used, it was assumed, therefore, that the students would gain more access to Indonesian language than to English, for the latter was mainly used only in instructional contexts. Still, both English and Indonesian constituted the students' second language in that they were learned after their first or native language.

198

The two students started their study in Indonesia between 2012 and 2014. One of the students started his study two years before the other one. Also, the two students were from two different countries. The first student, Rodi (a pseudonym) was from the Philippines and the other one, Liam (also a pseudonym), was from Thailand. By the time this study was conducted, Liam had been living and studying in Indonesia for nearly two years, whereas Rodi had been living and studying in Indonesia for nearly four years already.

As regards their experiences in learning Indonesian language, the two students maintained a very similar learning profile in that both of them neither had knowledge of nor ability to communicate in Indonesian language prior to coming to Indonesia. Still, the two students managed to develop high level of mastery in using Indonesian language in both written and oral discourse after about a year living and studying in Indonesia, i.e. as reported by the students themselves in the interview.

However, there was also a marked difference between the two students in regard to their proficiency level of English language, both before commencing their study and during studying at the university. That is, although Liam and Rodi had learned English at school back in their home country before, it was only Rodi who maintained a quite high level of mastery in English prior to commencing his study at the university. What is more, he also managed to enhance his level of proficiency in English during studying at the university as well. Liam, however, was relatively poor in English at the time he commenced his study, and his low level in English persisted up to two years as this study was conducted.

Given that the two learners only learned Indonesian language in a quite limited period of time as compared with the time they spent in learning English and yet they managed to develop their skills in Indonesian better than or as well as their English, it was assumed, therefore, that there existed a relationship between learning contexts and learning process which further determined the learning outcomes. This study aimed to understand such situated practice. In line with the aim, this study attempted to address the following questions:

1. How did learning contexts relate to the process and outcomes of second language learning carried out by Rodi and Liam?

2. How did Rodi and Liam cope with learning two different languages in two different learning contexts?

The data used to answer the two questions were collected through interviews. The questions asked in the interviews included, amongst others, the learners' profiles, their experience and perceptions of learning Indonesian and English as well as their strategies in learning the two languages. The interviews were semi-structured in that they allowed the researchers to ask questions not listed in the interview guideline based on the participants' reports (Bryman, 2008, p. 438). The interview guideline containing the planned questions asked is attached in Appendix 1.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

Based on the results of the interviews (summarised in Table 1), it is shown that there are similarities as well as differences of the learners' experiences in learning the two languages.

Nationality	,	The Philippines	Thailand	
Age group		23 - 25 years old	20 - 22 years old	
As the	study was			
conducted, enrolled in	they were	Semester 8 (the fourth year)	Semester 4 (the second year)	
Length of studying English since elementary school		16 years	14 years	
English skills	communication	Very good (able to understand and produce the normal rate speech. Repetition or rephrasing was only occasionally required).	simplified speech and often	
Strategies English	of learning	Focused on language systems, especially on grammar and vocabulary.	Focusedonlanguagesystems,especiallyongrammar and vocabulary.	

Table 1: Summary of the interview data

Indonesian communication		Very good (able to understand and produce the	
skills	normal rate speech.	normal rate speech.	
	Repetition or rephrasing was	Repetition or rephrasing was	
	only occasionally required).	only occasionally required).	
Strategies of learning	Focused on use through	Focused on use through	
Indonesian	interpersonal communication	interpersonal communication	
	As a major of study in higher	As a major of study in higher	
Reason for learning English	education	education	
Reason for learning	As a medium of	As a medium of	
Reason for learning Indonesian	communication with the	communication with the	
muonesian	society	society	

The most striking similarity in the data is that the two learners developed their ample proficiency in Indonesian language quite shortly. Both of them reported that they were able to communicate with the people in Indonesia using Indonesian language within the first year of living in the country. The other most striking similarity is related to their experiences in learning Indonesian language, including the contexts where they usually learned Indonesian and the strategies they employed when learning the two languages. Furthermore, according to the learners the fact that they were exposed to the use of Indonesian language and were also able to practise using the language in a wide range of communication contexts make their learning easier and more successful as compared with their experiences in learning English. Thus, it is obvious that contextual factors constitute the most facilitating factor in learning a language.

With regard to learning English, however, the two learners faced different circumstances in that Rodi, the one from the Philippines whose English proficiency was very good, was highly "appreciated" by his peers when using English in and outside of the classroom and that situation encouraged him to keep on using and thus enhancing his English proficiency. On the other hand, Liam was self-conscious and timid when asked to use English and did not get enough encouragement from his peers to learn English in and outside of the classroom. These findings are further discussed below.

Discussions

201

Facilitating and inhibiting factors in learning a language in foreign language contexts

As stated in the findings above, only one of the two learners managed to attain high level of proficiency in English while the other was still less proficient. One of the possible reasons to explain the different level of proficiency is related to the previous contexts of learning.

On the basis of the learners' reports, it is obvious that English is more widely used in the Philippines than it is in Thailand, both at school and in other communication contexts as well. Thus, although both learners had experienced in learning English since elementary school level before coming to Indonesia, only Rodi found it more compelling to develop his communicative skills in English back in the Philippines, whereas Liam did not find it urgent to develop his English communicative skills back in Thailand. These two different circumstances regarding the more and less compelling condition to the use of English seem to have contributed to their more and less developed proficiency in English itself. In other words, the more the learners find it compelling to be capable of communicating in the target language, the more facilitating it is to the process of learning.

The other factor which has contributed to the marked difference of the two learners' proficiency in English is related to their eagerness to use the target language in authentic communicative contexts. That is, it is shown from the results of the interviews that Rodi was more active in using English to communicate with his friends and teachers than Liam who felt much more comfortable to use Indonesian when communicating with his friends and teachers. As regards their motivation in learning English, therefore, Rodi was apparently more motivated than Liam (Macnamara, 1971, cited in Rubin, 1975, p. 43).

Rodi's activeness in using English in communication was influenced by two factors. First, the fact that he already maintained good communicative skills in English even before he started studying English in an Indonesian university had helped him not to lose face when communicating with his friends and teachers in English. Secondly, Rodi's close friends always used English to communicate with him most of the time. These two conditions might have espoused his motivation to keep on using English and thus enhanced his proficiency thereof (for more detailed discussion on this issue see Waninge, et al. 2014; Clement, et al. 1994; Dörnyei, 1990).

Question: When you talk with your friends, do you often use English?

Rodi : Yea, I do. I often talk in English with my friends . . . close friends. . . But when I talk in Indonesian, they will respond in Indonesian too. But then when they ask me back, they switch into English again.

On the other hand, Liam was immersed in a quite different situation. First, the fact that he had not developed sufficient communicative skills in English prior to arriving in Indonesia made him quite uncomfortable to use English to communicate with his friends and teachers in English. On the contrary, he found it much easier and more comfortable to communicate in Indonesian. One of the reasons is that there are similarities between one of the languages he speaks (Malay) and Indonesian language. Secondly, he also reported that most of his friends prefer communicating with him using Indonesian to using English. He stated that only on friend of his that he could practise English quite intensively.

Question : Waktu kamu ngobrol ama temen-temen sekelas mu, biasanya menggunakan bahasa Indonesia apa bahasa Inggris? [When you talk with your classmates, do you usually use Indonesian or English?]

Liam : Sering Indonesia, tapi kalau sama [menyebutkan nama temannya] kebanyakan bahasa Inggris, setiap hari juga. Kalo gak ngerti juga baru bahasa Indonesia.

[Mostly in Indonesian, but with [mentioning the name of his friend] I mostly use English, like everyday. But when we don't understand each other then we use Indonesian].

Learning strategies of good and poor language learners in foreign language contexts

In relation to learning strategies, it is found that Rodi's learning strategies were more expeditious as compared with Liam's. Although it is true that both Rodi and Liam mostly learned English through studying the language systems, especially in regard to grammar and vocabulary, it is, however, only Rodi who deliberately learned to apply the language systems into language use.

Rodi : We have to apply both. Memorizing vocabulary and analysing grammar rules from grammar books, for example, and also . . and also to use it. *Ndak bisa satu aja*. [We can't just deal with one of them].

On the other hand, the key factor which might have strongly related to Liam's low level of proficiency is that he was mainly concerned only with studying the language systems in a decontextualised manner and even, as he confessed, he did it quite lazily.

Question: Kalo dalam belajar bahasa Inggris biasanya gimana?[How do you usually learn English?]

Liam : Grammar. Kebanyakan itu grammar. Termasuk kalo orang pinter disana itu pinter grammar. Speaking . eh . gimana ya? Agak sedikit bisa, tapi grammar bagus. Dan menghafal kosakata juga. Tapi saya agak malas.
[Grammar. I mostly study grammar. In my country, the smart persons are those who are good at grammar. Speaking . uh . . what should I say? Well, a little bit, but grammar must be good. I also memorise vocabulary. Though I'm quite lazy to do it].

Rodi's successful learning strategies which combined two modes of learning, i.e. attending to language systems and apply the systems into real communication, lend support to skill-development theory which claims that declarative determinant, i.e. the explicit knowledge of the language systems, can help the development of the procedural determinant, i.e. the implicit knowledge referring to the ability in using the language, more effectively. As a general reasoning, DeKeyser (2007, p.3) writes:

In most forms of skill acquisition, people are presented with information, e.g., .

... put a French sentence together in explicit form ("declarative knowledge"). Through initial practice they incorporate this information into *behavioral routines* ("production rules," "procedural knowledge"). This procedural knowledge consists of very specific rules and can be used fast and with a low error rate. . . . Once established, procedural knowledge can become automatized. (emphases in original).

Facilitating and inhibiting factors in learning a language in second language contexts

Despite a marked difference in terms of their level of proficiency in English, Rodi and Liam managed to develop the same level of proficiency (high level of proficiency) in using Indonesian language. From their reports, summarised in Table 1 above, it is quite obvious to see that social contexts where the language is learned constitutes a very important factor that helped both learners develop their proficiency. That is to say, the abundance of input available in the social settings helped them conceptualise the target language systems more easily and thus enable them to cope with producing output more effectively thereafter. Of course, the abundance of input available in the social setting is useless unless the learners make use of it, and such quality is what differentiates good from poor language learners (Rubin, 1975).

Being immersed in a speech community seems to also raise motivation in learning the language of the community itself. Such motivation is primarily related to survival. In other

words, the two learners faced immediate needs where they had to be able to communicate with the new community where they lived in so that they were able to maintain social relationship with them and, more importantly, to fulfil their daily needs. As such, the learners perceived that learning Indonesian was meaningful and compelling. Such perception therefore might impose a great demand on the learners to be motivated to learn the language. In other words, once the learners face the need to be able to communicate in the target language, the process of language learning will be perceived meaningful/compelling which further will raise motivation in learning the language.

However, it is also found that some culture related-factors constitute the most inhibiting factors in learning a language in second language contexts. As stated by Rodi, for instance, since there are numerous ethnic groups in Indonesia, he encountered some sorts of confusion at the earlier stage of learning Indonesian due to the lack of standard concerning how Indonesian language was articulated by different ethnic groups.

Rodi : kesulitannya itu gini, kan biasanya ada orang Jawa . . . orang Madura. Itu kemarin juga buat bingung.

[.... the difficulties are like, there are Javanese Madurese. It made me confused].

Different from Rodi's area of difficulty, Liam, however, found that a cultural difference constituted the one which once drove him to be quite indifferent in learning Indonesian language. As he stated,

Liam : Tapi kemarin juga, waktu bantu itu, gak peduli gitu sama saya. Gak take care. "Gimana tugasnya?" "Ya terserah buat sendiri kamu". Gak dibantu...
. (inaudible) Kuliah pulang, kuliah pulang, gak mau ngobrol, gak mau ngomong sama teman, gak mau.

[But it once happened, when helping, didn't care about my concerns. Didn't take care. "How is the assignment?" "It's up to you, just do it yourself". No one helped me. . . . (inaudible) university and back home, university and back home, didn't want to talk, didn't want to talk to friends, didn't want to.

Question : Siapa? Kamu?

[Who? You?]

Liam : Iya. Kok temen gak bantu gitu. Gak sama ama temen yang disana. Disana itu orang luar negri harus banyak yang mau take care. Yang kemarin saya dipondok juga di Tailan. Sekolah saya itu ada orang luar negeri banyak.

205

Dari Pilipin juga ada, Kamboja, Mianmar, terus apalagi? Banyak! Indonesia gak ada. Itu kalo orang luar negri banyak dibantu. Gak ada uang dikasih. [Yes, why friends didn't help each other. It is not the same like friends there [in Thailand]. There, many would take care those coming from overseas. I was staying in a dorm back in Thailand. There were many students coming from overseas in my school. From the Philippines, Cambodia, Myanmar, where else? Many! No one from Indonesia. People from overseas would be helped. No money, we'd give it.]

Question : *Pinjam ya*?

[you mean "borrow"?]

Liam : *Gak usah pinjam. Dikasih.* [No need to borrow. We'd give it.]

Question : *Kalo disini beda ya*?

[So, it's different here]

Liam : *Beda banget*. [So different]

Hence, the two learners encountered different factors which once inhibited their learning of Indonesian language. While Rodi was particularly concerned with different groups of speech community, Liam was mostly concerned with the acculturation problem. Hence, it appears that only when the learners surmounted their concerns were they able to proceed learning the target language more effectively.

Learning strategies in second language learning contexts

While it is true that both of the learners mostly learned and developed their proficiency in Indonesian language by means of employing communicative strategies, Rodi, however, stated that he also benefitted from employing analytical strategy to support his capability of using the morphemes in Indonesian language. As he stated,

Rodi : For the first I was always confused when to use this *me-*, *be-*.You know, morphemes.

Question : So, how did you learn them?

Rodi : I checked in Google. I typed the description for affixes in Bahasa Indonesia. That's it, and I tried to learn [them]. *Penggunaannya. Dan dari situ aku paham dan bisa menggunakannya.* [Their use. I then understood and could use them in communication] The fact that Rodi found it fruitful to compensate his lack of knowledge of a particular language system of Indonesian with explicit study lend support to the studies which have found that even in an immersion language program where there is ample input to the target language, there is still a need for the learners to focus on the language systems if they are to develop high level of accuracy and thus proficiency in the target language (Swain, 1985; Lapkin, et al., 1991), especially when the target language and the learners' first language are far different from each other.

Different from Rodi's strategy, however, Liam learned Indonesian only through communication. The differences between Rodi's and Liam's strategies might be related to Liam's first language background in that since there are similarities between Malay, i.e. one of the languages he spoke, and Indonesian, the language he learned, he therefore found it unnecessary to study grammar of Indonesian language to be able to use it in a wide range of communicative contexts.

Conclusion

On the basis of the findings and the discussion, it is concluded that learning contexts play a very important role in learning a language. Still, it is not to say that the roles of other factors, such as aptitude, age and motivation, etc., are less influential in contributing to the success of second language learning. Rather, it argues that learning contexts are also of great significance in contributing to the degree of success in learning a second language.

As far as foreign language learning is concerned, the activeness of the learners is vital. That is, only those who are willing to practise using the target language extensively are likely to attain high proficiency in it. In relation to practice, it is confirmed that in both second and foreign language learning, applying both communicative and analytical learning strategies can support the attainment of high level of proficiency more effectively, although the extent to which the learners engage in doing analytical learning strategies differs between the contexts of second and foreign language learning.

References

Bryman, A. (2008). Social research method (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, *44(3)*, 417-448.

- Cohen, A. D. (2003). The learner's side of foreign language learning: where do styles, strategies, and task meet? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching 41*(4), 279-291.
- Dekeyser, R. M. (2007). The future of practice. In R. M. DeKeyser (Ed.), Practicing in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology (pp. 287-304). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- DeKeyser, R. M. (Ed.) (2007). Practice in a Second Language: Perspectives from Applied Linguistics and Cognitive Psychology. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 40(1), 46-78.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning*, 63(3), 437-462.
- Hulstijn, J. H., Young, R. F., Ortega, L., Bigelow, M., DeKeyser, R., Ellis, N. C., Lantolf, J. P., Mackey, A. & Talmy, S. (2014). Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 36*, 361-421.
- Kormos, J., Kiddle, T. & Csizér, K. (2011). Systems of goals, attitudes, and self-related beliefs in second-language- learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics*, *32*(5), 495-516.
- Lapkin, S., Hart, D., & Swain, M. (1991). Early and middle French immersion programs: French-language outcomes. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 48(1),11–40.
- Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Long, M. H., Inagaki, S. & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 357-71.
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: a meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123-163.
- Muhlisin, & Salikin, H. (2015). A group of Indonesian EFL students' mastery of tenses and aspects: Investigating the internal and external factors of learning. Advances in language and literary studies, 6(5), 143-150.
- Norton, B. & Toohey, K. (2001). Changing perspectives on good language learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(2), 307-332.

207

- Oxford, R.L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Newbury House.
- Oxford, R. L. (2008). Hero with a thousand faces: Learner autonomy, learning strategies and learning tactics in independent language learning. In S. Hurd & T. Lewis (Eds.), *Language learning in independent settings*, (pp. 41-63). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Robinson, P. (1996). Learning simple and complex second language rules under implicit, incidental, rule-search, and instructed conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(1), 27-67.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learners" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some rules of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass, & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235–53). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- VanPatten, B. (1996). Input processing and grammar instruction in second language acquisition. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Waninge, F., Dörnyei, Z., & de Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamics in language learning: Change, stability and context. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 704-723.
- Wong, L. L. C., & Nunan, D. (2011). The learning styles and strategies of effective language learners. *System 39*(2), 144-163.

Appendix 1. The interview guideline

This interview DOES NOT aim to assess your knowledge or skills. It is only a part of a research project which aims to understand the process of learning a second language that you have been doing. Your identity will be kept confidential.

Name	:
Gender	:

Warm-up questions

- 1. Do you mind telling me how old you are?
- 2. How long have you been learning English and Indonesia?
- 3. Do you remember when you first came to Indonesia?

Start-up questions

- 4. How do you usually learn English?
- 5. And how do you learn Indonesian?
- 6. Do you find it necessary to learn grammar when you learn English? Can you tell me why?
- 7. What about when you learn Indonesian? Do you also find it (un)necessary? Why?

Core questions specifically related to learning English

- 8. Do you find anything you don't like when learning English in the classroom? Can you tell me what it is? Why does it trouble you? What do you usually do then?
- 9. Why did you choose to major in English?

Core questions specifically related to learning Indonesian

- 10. Have ever encountered any problems when learning Indonesian? Can you tell me what it is? Why does it trouble you? What do you usually do then?
- 11. If you don't, can you tell me your experiences when you first talked with Indonesians using Indonesian language?

Concluding questions

- 12. Since you major in English, do you find any differences when you talked with your friends in English outside the class?
- 13. Can you tell me the differences that you find/feel?

Closing

OK. Thank you for your participation in this study. We really appreciate your responses and participation in this interview. We will contact you again later. Thank you very much.

The EFL Professional's Written For

Title

The Qualities of an Effective English Teacher: University Students' Perception

Author

Hanna Sundari Indraprasta PGRI University Jakarta, Indonesia¹

Bio-Profile:

ASIAN

OURNAL

Hanna Sundari is a lecturer at Indraprasta PGRI University Jakarta. Her field interest is teaching English, curriculum development and classroom teaching particularly for writing skill. She can be reached at hanna.sundari@gmail.com

Abstract

What makes a good English teacher has become central issue in teaching English as foreign language. When language exposure is not much available outside the classroom, English teacher apparently has significant roles in the class. This study aims at investigating the qualities of an effective English teacher based on perception from university students. The research was descriptive qualitative method. The respondents were 63 students at a university Jakarta. The instrument was two-section questionnaire. The findings cover some areas related to content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, communication and socio-affective skills and personality of English teacher.

Keywords: effective English teacher, students' perception

Introduction

When language exposure is not much available outside the classroom, English teacher apparently has significant roles in the class. Effective and good teaching comes from effective teachers. Rosenshine and Furst (cited by Williams and Burden, 2007) sum up

Jl. Nangka No. 58 C (TB Simatupang) Tanjung Barat Jakarta

¹ English Education Department of Indraprasta PGRI University Jakarta

Telp. 021- 78835283/ 7818718 021-87797409

www.unindra.ac.id

factors contributing in effective teaching, such as clarity, teacher enthusiasm, various activities, achievement-oriented behaviors, and guiding of students answer.

Characteristics of effective English teachers come up with various qualities. Allen (cited by Brown, 2007) listed the criteria of good English language teachers as someone who has competent in teaching, love of English language, critical thinking, self-subordination, cultural adaptability and a feeling excitement.

Literature Review

The study by Brown and McIntyre (by Williams and Burden, 2007) found the elements of good teaching consisting of creating relaxed atmosphere, retaining control, presenting motivating work, helping and encouraging students, developing personal, mature relationship, and showing talents and knowledge. The characteristics of effective English language teacher, according to Park & Lee (2006), consist of subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-affective skills. Meanwhile, Dincer, Goksu, Takkac, & Yazici (2013) added aspect of personality to these categories.

Research by Kalebic (Shishavan, 2009) listed the characteristics: linguistics and communicative competence, communication and presentation skills, abilities in some areas of motivation, learning strategies, lesson plan, classroom management, assessment, knowledge about teaching, culture, teaching method and literature. Park and Lee (2006, by Shishavan, 2009) found that the students mark pedagogical knowledge as the first important characteristic; whereas, English proficiency posits as the highest rank of characteristics of effective English teachers by the surveyed teachers. Furthermore, in 2009, Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) found for teachers, knowledge of language is a crucial factor in effective teacher; in contrast, the students assign that teachers' personality and the way s/he behaves to students are more important. Meanwhile, Wichadee's research (2010) has yielded organization and communication skill posse on the highest rank of importance of all important categories. However, teachers indicated English proficiency as the highest rank. Kourieos and Evripidou (2013) found that effective English teacher takes into account students' individual differences, language anxiety, abilities and interest, and designs learning environment. Research by Nghia (2015) showed English competence, teaching methods, and socio-affective factors were the most important qualities of English teacher.

Method

This research was descriptive qualitative method. The respondents were 63 students in a university in Jakarta Indonesia. The instrument was two-section questionnaire adopted from Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009). The first part was 46 statements of close-ended questions. The open-ended question has been modified into three questions to meet the research questions.

Findings and Discussion

After analyzing descriptively, it is found that students respondents are mostly agree that an effective language teacher should achieve some features. Understanding spoken English, reading and speaking English well (98%) are the most important language skills. Speaking and reading posit the highest rank of the language skills. Study by Nghia (2015) also revealed the similar findings. More than 10% of respondent tends to disagree that English teacher should know English culture. Even though, more than 75% still prefer knowledge of target language cultures as the attributes of effective English teacher. This is quite same as the study by Nghia (2015) in which Vietnamese students loved to work with teacher who have experienced in English speaking countries.

The respondents tend to agree to use both target language and native language. This is not quite consistent of what was found by Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009). When the teachers feel that the students are not ready for or the lesson would be difficult to deliver in English, they prefer native language as alternation. Research by Wichadee (2010) support this result. Meanwhile, teachers and students in Korean investigated by Park and Lee (2006) perceived teaching English in English is less important.

Moreover, the students think the effective English teacher has the ability to prepare the lesson and manage the class well as the most important features. This result confirms the previous findings by Park and Lee (2006) and Wichadee (2010). Designing lesson plans, using technology in the class, and assigning homework are then considered as the other important qualities.. This result is consisted with study by Nghia (2015) in which teachers bring electronic devices and technology in the class with appropriate use. Maintaining classroom atmosphere through authority with 73% of agreement appears to be the lowest rank. It is also supported for what is stated by Kourieos & Evripidou (2013).

Most of respondents agree with more than 80% scores to the personality characteristics, such as helpful, friendly, humorous, and attentive and open to criticism. These characteristics were also reported on the study by Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009), Wichadee (2010) and Nghia (2015). Yet, respondents also state that the teacher's availability and

attention to students and their personal needs posit as the lowest percentage on this features with only 68% and was supporting study by Nghia (2015). The respondents mostly agree, with 95%, that effective English teacher has neat, tidy appearance and is disciplined and punctual. The same perception has also been reported by Nghia (2015). However, with only hit 50%, half respondents refuse to stick to administrative rules and regulations which make their creativity and improvement restricted.

Furthermore, student respondents perceive effective English teacher should create classroom atmosphere and build communication which arouse students' interest, motivation, and self-confidence and alleviate anxiety with 70% agreement. This is because those affective variables are considered as the keys in successful language learning (Krashen, 2009). The result is consistent with the study by Park and Lee (2006). Then, with 100% agreement, all students respondent perceive effective teacher should be good listener for students and let them express themselves. This result maybe contradict with those of Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) which they reported that only the learners felt that English language teachers should have more positive relationship with students and be open to various thoughts, suggestions, and criticism.

Conclusion

Proficient at speaking and reading is considered as the most important significant. Moreover, knowing English culture will be more valuable for teachers. For medium of instruction in classroom, teachers can use both English and students' native language. In this point, they need to consider some aspects, such as students' proficiency level and difficulty. The abilities to prepare the lesson and manage the class well become the most important qualities of effective English teachers. Nevertheless, they don't have to be so dominant and authoritative in the class since it creates a gap and hinder in building rapport between teacher and students. For socio-affective skill and personality characteristics, some positive traits are perceived as the most important qualities. Effective teachers are also responsible for arousing students' interest, motivation and self-confidence. They also create good classroom atmosphere and build rapport and communication.

References

Brown, H. D. (2007). Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. New York: Pearson Education.

Dincer, A., Goksu, A., Takkac, A., & Yazici, M. (2013). Common Characteristics of an

214

- Kourieos, S., & Evripidou, D. (2013). Students' perceptions of effective EFL teachers in university settings in Cyprus. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 1–16. http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p1
- Krashen, S. D. (2009). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. The Modern Language Journal. Pergamon Press Inc Internet Edition. http://doi.org/10.2307/328293
- Nghia, T. L. H. (2015). Vietnamese Students 'Perception of English Teacher Qualities : Implications for Teacher Professional Development. International Journal of Academic Research in Education and Review, 3(January (1)), 7–19. http://doi.org/10.14662/IJARER2014.058
- Park, G.-P., & Lee, H.-W. (2006). The characteristics of effective english teachers as perceived by high school teachers and students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 7(2), 236–248. http://doi.org/10.1007/BF03031547
- Shishavan, B. H., & Sadeghi, K. (2009). Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher as Perceived by Iranian Teachers and Learners of English. *English Language Teaching*, 2(4), 130–143. http://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
- Wichadee, S. (2010). Defining the effective English language teacher : Students' and teachers' perspectives. *JALT2009 Conference Proceedings*, 27–35.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (2007). Psychology for Language Teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.