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Gender Differences in the Relationships between Students’ Motivation and
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EFL Teacher’s Belief and Practice on Integrating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the Classroom

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Abstract
21st-century learning demands the integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the educational system. This research is aimed at investigating English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher’s belief and practice on the integration of ICT in English language teaching. To reach the objective, a case study on an individual teacher was used in this research. The participant was purposively and theoretically selected because she was considered as the informant who could give sufficient information to answer the research questions. Teacher’s interview and classroom observation were used as the techniques of data collection. Interactive model of data analysis was conducted continuously till theoretical pattern of concepts and categories were achieved. The “Substitution Augmentation Modification Redefinition” (SAMR) model was used as the data analysis tool resulted from the classroom observation to reveal to what extent the teacher implemented ICT integration (Puentedura, 2014a). The results of this research indicate that the teacher believes that integrating ICT is very important as ICT has the ability to make transformation of all educational aspects by making use of it to reach meaningful-learning principle then the quality of teaching and learning will improve. The results also indicate that there is no discrepancy between belief and practice as the teacher has been integrating ICT in the classroom. However, the teacher is still on the substitution and
augmentation stages in integrating ICT and hardly achieves modification and redefinition stages. These results suggest that teachers be prepared for ICT integration to create more meaningful learning in the classroom.

**Key Words:** Teacher’s belief, ICT integration, SAMR model, EFL context

**Introduction**

It can be stated that teachers’ beliefs influence their teaching behavior in the classroom (Bandura, 1986; Fauziati, 2015). As beliefs are implicit, unobservable and complex in relation to what one knows and what one actually believes, both the labels and the definitions of teachers’ beliefs used in the literature are diverse and difficult to define. However, specific ideas from a substantive body of knowledge about teachers’ beliefs are evident to help us understand and deal with the complexity of beliefs. It is Calderhead (1996) cited in Borg (2001) who distinguishes between what would constitute as knowledge and what would be considered a belief. Beliefs are generally referred to as “suppositions, commitments, and ideologies” whereas knowledge is referred to as “factual propositions and understandings” (p.715).

In line with this, teachers’ beliefs are assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught (Kagan, 1992). In addition, Borg (2001) defines belief as a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is imbued with emotive commitment. Teachers’ beliefs, therefore, can be generally said as assumptions about students, classrooms, and academic materials imbued with the commitment to reflect their beliefs on the method or strategy they use. Likewise, in language teaching, teachers’ beliefs play an important role (William & Burden, 1997; Borg, 2001). They are involved in helping individuals make sense of the world, influencing how new information is perceived, and whether it is accepted or rejected (Borg, 2001; Ehman & Bonk, 2002; Watson, 2006).

21st-century era demands people to make use of technology in daily lives, including in education. In this case, the integration of technology in the classroom is viewed as an important strategy to increase the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process (Howard et al., 2000; Mirzajani et al., 2016). Technology is viewed essential to successful performance outcomes (i.e., students’ learning). In other words, effective teaching requires effective technology use (Ertmer, 2005). Considering that technology is crucial in the 21st-century learning, teachers cannot stay put. Instead, they must be able to adapt. However, teachers are not always interested
to change. As said by Prensky (2001), teachers who were not born in the digital world (digital immigrants) assume that learners are the same as they have always been and that the same methods that worked for the teachers when they were students will work for their students now. That assumption, however, is no longer valid in this era. Teachers should be adaptive which means that they should start believing that integrating technology in the classroom is an effective way to improve the quality of education (Brubaker, 2013; William, & Burden, 1997).

Furthermore, in Indonesian context, the implementation of technology in the teaching-learning process is in accordance with the regulation of Indonesian Ministry of Education No. 38 year 2008 about the implementation of information and communication technology in the educational system. The benchmark for its success is one hundred percent of junior high school that have access to electricity to implement TV-based learning. Moreover, the benchmark is fifty percent of senior high school that have access to apply ICT-based learning. There have been ten universities in Indonesia that have applied ICT-based learning and research. Eventually, the government believes that ICT-based learning is associated with the student-centered-based curriculum.

Therefore, teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching are critical factors on how ICT is implemented in the classroom (Hennessey et al., 2005; Starkey, 2010). Loveless (2003), in her research of primary teachers’ perceptions of ICT and their pedagogy, found that teachers’ perceptions of ICT are fashioned by their identity and participation in wider cultural and social spheres which influence the professional arenas and settings in which they practice. She grouped teachers’ perceptions of ICT into three categories: ICT in society: teachers talked about the “Information Society” and its impact on children’s future working lives; ICT capability: teachers talked about the ICT skills or “information literacies” children require as a subject and as a cross-curricular tool; and ICT in schools: teachers talked about “new” technology in schools and how the lack of resources influenced its integration. Loveless suggests that these perceptions reflect ongoing negotiations of the meanings of ICT in teachers’ work and that seeing them as sources of tension rather than as sources of anxiety is more constructive for continued meaning-making.

In addition, Jonassen (2006) found that teachers’ beliefs about the nature of a given subject such as History or Science and the associated pedagogical practices greatly influenced their use of ICT. This aligns with the concept of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK) provided by Mishra and Koehler (2006, 2009) who highlight the way ICT applications change content knowledge. Jacobs and Clements (1999) cited in Jonassen (2006) found two
distinct epistemologies that were either conducive or obstructive to the implementation of ICT. A constructivist epistemology believing that students learn best when they are given projects and guidance to help them construct mathematical concepts for themselves was found to be conducive, whereas a reductionist epistemology, where concepts are viewed to be passed along one at a time to students was found to be obstructive. Howard et al. (2000) developed a scheme to represent the underlying beliefs of objectivist / constructivist learning models, indicating that a sophisticated epistemology engenders principles of constructivism. The relationship between constructivist approaches and the use of ICT is presented as highly effective in the literature (Drenoyianni, & Selwood, 1998; Ertmer et al., 2007).

Moreover, Cox et al. (2004) cited in Ertmer et al. (2007) moved away from the instructionist / constructivist framework to analyze ICT practices shaped by pedagogical beliefs. They did this by focusing on teachers’ perception of ICT in the teaching process, that is, as a “servant” to reinforce existing practices or as a “partner” to change the way the teacher and the children interact with one another and the given task. In this way, trying new approaches to a task is perceived as necessary to utilize the ICT. Loveless (2003) captured teachers’ reflections on their conceptualization of their teaching practices that supported the development of children’s creativity through the integration of ICT. Teachers’ pedagogical beliefs were described as “play as a starting point” giving permission to try things out, “compromise and improvisation in responding to the children’s ideas” and “not wishing to provide too much guidance which might stifle”. These teachers were learning with the children in their groups, as facilitators of creative thinking, rather than as instructors of ICT functions.

Some other studies focusing on the teacher’s beliefs on technology integration also have been conducted by prior researchers. Kim et al. (2013) cited in Mirzajani et al. (2016) investigated how teacher beliefs were related to technology integration practices. The findings revealed that beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning were significantly correlated with beliefs about effective ways of teaching, and beliefs about effective ways of teaching were significantly correlated with technology integration practices. Besides, some other researchers learned the connection between teachers’ beliefs and teaching practices, and it was found that teachers’ beliefs are strongly connected to teaching practices (DEEWR, 2009; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Smeets, 2005).

Evident in this literature are the influences on teachers’ beliefs about ICT. Influences include technology in society and working life, teacher competency, access in classrooms, the nature of the subject or task and associated pedagogies, how children learn, and the learning
outcomes to be achieved. There is a link between teachers’ beliefs associated with constructivist approaches and using ICT as a partner to facilitate creative thinking and learner-centered activities.

Thoroughly reading, the prior studies primarily focus on investigating the effect of ICT on the teaching-learning process and the environments. None of them specifically discussed on to what extent teachers actually made use of ICT in the teaching and learning process. Thus, it should be a clear instrument on measuring it. Besides, the previous studies related to the teachers’ beliefs on ICT only investigated the belief on ICT in teaching and learning English in general, so it is necessary to explore to what extent teacher integrates ICT in particular English skill. Therefore, this research tries to reveal teacher’s belief on the implementation of ICT in the classroom practice and investigate to what extent a teacher makes use of ICT in a certain English skill in the classroom by using the instrument developed by Puantedura (2014a). The result of this study would fill the gap found in the prior studies related to the teachers’ beliefs and technology integration practices.

To sum up, this research attempts to answer the following questions:
1. What is EFL teacher’s belief on integrating ICT in the classroom?
2. To what extent does the teacher integrate ICT in the classroom?

Research Methods

As this research is aimed at finding out teacher’s belief and practice on integrating ICT in the classroom as well as to what extent the ICT is really implemented, this research employed a case study method which focused on the case of an individual teacher (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). A case study itself is typically used if a researcher wants to focus on a single unit to produce an in-depth description that is rich and holistic (Ary et al., 2010). This research was conducted at MA Assalam, Sukoharjo, Central Java, Indonesia in 2017. Likewise, a single English teacher from MA Assalam was purposively selected as the research subject since from preliminary study, it was found that the teacher in that school has been integrating ICT in the teaching and learning process. The rationale of choosing this design and the teacher is due to the fact that the intention of this study is to get a deep understanding on teacher’s belief and practice on integrating ICT in the classroom as well as to what extent the ICT is applied. Therefore, the investigation was targeted only to T (false name), a considerably general English teacher who can provide data to answer the research questions.
Concerning the qualitative research methods, this research employed classroom observation and interview to allow the researcher to gather authentic data and to have a full idea about the belief behind the teacher that influences the ICT practice. The instruments were carefully selected to collect the data to meet the specific objectives.

The observation sheet on to what extent the ICT practice is implemented in the classroom used “Substitution Augmentation Modification Redefinition” (SAMR) Model developed Puentedura (2014a) as the instrument and as the data analysis tool. SAMR offers a method of seeing how ICT might impact teaching and learning. It also shows a progression that adopters of educational technology often follow as they progress through teaching and learning with technology.

While one might argue over whether an activity can be defined as one level or another, the important concept to grasp here is the level of student engagement. One might well measure progression along these levels by looking at who is asking the important questions. As one moves along the continuum, ICT becomes more important in the classroom but at the same time becomes more invisibly woven into the demands of good teaching and learning (Puentedura, 2014a). The SAMR model, represented as a ladder, is a four-level approach to selecting, using, and evaluating technology in K-12 education. According to Puentedura (2014b), the SAMR model is intended to be a tool through which one may describe and categorize K-12 teachers’ uses of classroom technology.

At the Substitution level, digital technology is substituted for analog technology, but the substitution generates “no functional change” (Puente-duara, 2006). For example, in a middle school math class, an instructor chooses to substitute a set of hard copy test review questions for digital versions. At the Augmentation level, technology is exchanged and the function of the task or tool positively changes in some way. In a first-grade classroom, for instance, instead of a teacher-led, whole class read-aloud lesson students instead use hand-held devices to simultaneously read and listen to individual digital stories. In this case, hand-held devices augment the reading task. At the Modification level, technology integration requires a significant redesign of a task. For example, in a secondary science class, an instructor shifts how students learn about light a modification that shifts from showing a diagram of light traveling to providing an interactive computer simulation of light with variables students can change. Finally, the Redefinition level is achieved when technology is used to create novel tasks. For example, instead of assigning a social studies-based persuasive essay, a fifth-grade teacher
requires students to create and present their arguments through individually created and edited videos.

The SAMR-based observations were done three times as the teaching and learning process on the particular English skill, Reading, in the form of descriptive text with the use of ICT was completed in three meetings. Furthermore, the collected data were analyzed and more analytic questions were devised to ask in a subsequent interview. More specifically, the analysis of initial data gained from the interview determined subsequent questions which were helpful to sample theoretically relevant concepts. Interactive model of data analysis was continued till theoretical pattern of concepts and categories were achieved (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014).

Result and Discussion

Teacher’s belief on the integration of ICT in the classroom

Since it is mandated by the ministry of education as well as the school, the teacher in MA Assalam has been integrating ICT in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. The belief behind the teacher about ICT integration will, of course, influence the process of the teaching and learning in the classroom. From the result of the interview, it was revealed that the teacher (T) believes that integrating ICT in the classroom is very important. It is beneficial for both teacher and students as well. It can also motivate students to learn more because of the interesting display provided by ICT in the teaching and learning process. In addition, the implementation of ICT is not merely about 21st-century learning, the indicators of skills or aspects being learned are not neglected. ICT can also provide students with authenticity, curiosity, and creativity in learning as the teacher can use ICT to meet them. The teacher described her beliefs about the implementation of ICT:

*I believe so much that technology will improve the quality of teaching and learning process. Motivation which is essential in language learning can be easily increased and sustained by the use of technology. As we are living in the 21st-century, everything is always seen from the use of technology. That also happens in the classroom.*

In line with this, the teacher also believes that teacher’s role in the 21st-century learning is merely as a facilitator, no longer as a transmitter. Interestingly, her belief is reflected in the way she taught reading. The result of observation showed that she encouraged students to find
their own resources and make use of technology. The teacher explained her view about ICT in relation to the role of teacher:

Many teachers do not believe on ICT in the classroom because of its complication. They believe that teacher is the best model in the classroom and students can learn from them. I agree that ICT will never be able to substitute a role of teacher in the classroom, but we have to take into account that it is teachers who are able to integrate ICT in the classroom that will substitute the teachers who do not believe on the advantages of ICT.

In this case, the teacher believes that the students’ role in teaching and learning is active recipients of information. Practically in the classroom, the teacher conducts teaching and learning on the basis of student-centered. She asked the students to be active in learning by dividing them into some groups. Then, each group should open some channels with the help of ICT which are relevant to the topic being discussed. During the teaching and learning process, she also approached each group to monitor the students and help students whenever it was necessary. Additionally, the teacher also believes that the use of technology is one way to encourage students’ learning style into multi-sensory learning. Besides, socio-affective strategy can be a good learning strategy for the students, that is, by cooperating with others in finding their own resources (Budiman, 2016). In the class, the teacher wants the students to be aware of their roles, that is, as an active participant. This is a representation of her belief believing that the teacher’s role should be as a facilitator. Further, referring to the concept of digital immigrant and digital native proposed by Prensky (2001), the teacher is actually categorized into digital immigrant teacher since she was not born in the digital era. The teacher, however, is not resistant to change. She believes that integrating technology into the teaching and learning process brings about a great impact on the students’ learning. Thus, she believes that in this digital era, teachers should be ICT literate to face the challenge of the 21st-century learning.

She explains:

I was not born in the digital era, I am sure that my students are better at using technology than I am, but it is not a problem as I can also learn from many sources about technology, even I am not embarrassed whenever I ask my students to help me when I use ICT in the classroom. By following this digital era in the implementation of teaching, I believe that it will bring about change in our education, that's better education with better creativity.
Furthermore, the teacher also integrates ICT when teaching as observed in the three meetings teaching reading descriptive text. Therefore, there is no any discrepancy between the teacher’s belief and teaching practices.

**The extent to which ICT is integrated in the classroom**

As the teacher has been implementing ICT in the classroom to teach English, the result of observations when the teacher was teaching reading skill especially descriptive text in three meetings is simply described in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Activities</th>
<th>Substitution</th>
<th>Augmentation</th>
<th>Modification</th>
<th>Redefinition</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Reading</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note Taking</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Distribution</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>File Management</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The observation shows that teacher does integrate ICT into teaching reading descriptive text with the domination at the substitution level and followed by augmentation, modification, and redefinition. It means that the teacher uses digital instead of printed text for teaching. She does not make use of printed text because she has already got the soft file. With the domination of substitution when general reading, the teacher almost every teaching does the same thing, that’s using soft file (MS. Word or PowerPoint Slide) with the intention to be more effective and not complicated (PuenteDura, 2006). The intention is just to change from the hard file into soft file display without any change.

Further, the teacher sometimes uses digital text with keywords representing key idea highlighted with different font size, color, and so on. In this level, the teacher reaches augmentation level in teaching reading. She makes little modification on the text so that the text is different from the original one because she has made several changes on the text for the sake of better understanding and focus on the text.

In addition, the teacher several times uses digital text with hyperlinks to online dictionaries and other sources as observed in the teaching and learning reading descriptive text in the classroom. In this case, the teacher has reached modification level in the SAMR model.
However, the implementation of this modification level is rarely done by the teacher, it is as described below:

*I do not use printed materials anymore because I prefer to use digital text most of the time when I am teaching reading. I do not make change to the text as it will be time-consuming. But I sometimes make the text with different color to indicate verbs, main ideas, and others. Students will, of course, get better understanding when I do that. I've ever modified the text accompanied by hyperlinks to online sources or Google. But it's too time-consuming and complicated. It needs fast internet connection as well. That's why I am very rare to do that.*

Furthermore, the teacher ever includes audio, video, and other interactive online platforms to teach reading. It is in relation to multimodal text. In this case, the teacher has reached redefinition level. However, the teacher only does this activity once in the whole three-time classroom observations. Additionally, the students tend to be more active and participative in this activity but it is not in line with the willingness of the teacher to integrate redefinition level in the classroom as she describes that teaching reading accompanied by multimodal text is very complicated and time-consuming.

In the activity of note taking, teacher herself most of the time designs the instructional activity with taking notes using digital instead of a printed notebook. It is because almost every day, she brings laptop whenever she is going to teach. She uses MS. Words or other programs to write notes. In this case, the teacher is at the substitution level as the activity of taking note is only changed from writing down manually in the note book into writing digitally using laptop. Further, the teacher sometimes categorizes and tags class notes while teaching and learning process. In this case, the teacher has reached augmentation level. Then, the teacher has ever used “SlingNote” program to curate online sources. With the use of this program or the like, the teacher actually has reached modification level. However, it is very rarely done by the teacher. At the end, the teacher never makes use of sharing notebook or collaborating using certain application to develop note-taking in which at this stage is actually redefinition’s role. The teacher describes the activity of note taking in reading as follows:

*In taking note, I am accustomed to using digital instead of printed note book. Whenever I am making mistakes, I can directly revise it without any additional*
thing we need. Sometimes, in the process of note taking, categorization and tag class notes are employed to focus on the certain materials being discussed.

In presenting the materials, the teacher tends to create a keynote presentation digitally. Several keywords are employed with the intention to change the piece of paper used as outline in presentation. The shift between creating keynote in a piece of paper and keynote in digital tool is at the substitution level. The teacher does this activity very often. Sometimes, teacher demonstrates understanding through using “show me everything” to do presentation. This has reached augmentation level. Additionally, teacher has ever combined audio, video, and text notes in presenting material using “iMovie”. In this case, teacher has reached modification level. But she is reluctant to do that. Eventually, teacher never makes use of “NearPod” program or the like to create creative presentation and meaningful teaching and learning. It is redefinition level that actually plays role in this case. The teacher explains the way she integrates ICT in presentation:

*I am very keen to create keynote presentation digitally. I’m comfortable with that. Actually, demonstrating understanding shown by different program can create meaningful learning for the students, but unfortunately, it’s time-consuming and complicated. I’ve ever used iMovie to make my presentation interesting as my students said so, however, I have to learn more about integrating ICT tool in my presentation.*

In content distribution, teacher uses email whenever she intends to distribute the materials to the students. The students also send their task through email with no hard file needed. Sometimes, the teacher only copies-pastes and sends a web address by email to the students to ask them to explore the content. In this case, the teacher is at the substitution level. Further, she sometimes creates meeting request and deadline reminders to the students, with such little modification, the teacher has reached augmentation level, but this is rarely done by the teacher. Then, the teacher has ever created and scanned QR core whenever she asks the students to create poster presentation or other tasks. But it is only done once in the whole observation. This is actually at the modification level. However, teacher does not create multimodal task to make the instruction more interesting and challenging. It is actually where redefinition takes a role. The teacher explains:

*I usually ask the students to explore the materials by providing them with the web address or link by email so that they can dig them up themselves. I*
sometimes create meeting request for deadline reminders so that the distribution of the task or materials will not be prolonged. I’ve ever created QR core of my materials and asked the students to scan it to get the content.

In file management, the teacher mostly manages the file on the specific folder for specific purpose in her laptop. Whenever the students submit task, they will directly submit it into the folder, or send it via email and the teacher will put it in the folder. This is at the substitution level because it is only the change of submission from the hard file into the soft file. This is mostly done by the teacher and the students in the classroom. Sometimes, the teacher creates and modifies folder special for submission. This is at the augmentation level. In addition, teacher has ever used and managed files from server and Google Drive using “GoodReader”. This is at the modification level. However, the teacher finds it complicated and time-consuming as well as internet connection problem so that she is reluctant to do that activity. Eventually, the teacher does not use another program such as “Wiki” and the like to allow peer-feedback and collaboration. This is actually the place of redefinition level. The teacher describes:

Using email in file management is well known by almost all of teachers. I also make use of it. It is effective and not consuming many papers that eventually become trash. I have ever used and manage the file through Google Drive, but it needs stable internet connection and it is quite complicated even though the storage there is quite large. I think the space in my laptop is still much larger and I am comfortable to make use of it.

As substitution level is where the teacher focuses so much on it, the teaching and learning activity in the classroom is integrated with ICT. The teacher begins leaving the use of hard file or paper when teaching. She believes that integrating ICT in the classroom is beneficial for educational system. It is believed as well that teacher should make use of paper properly. If it is possible to change or substitute it by others, substituting it will be better.

In addition, after substitution, the teacher also created little modification toward the existing digital text. By creating such modification, she believes that it will increase students’ motivation and participation. However, this augmentation is not done as often as substitution. The teacher is also very reluctant to really have modification on certain instructional materials. The reason behind the reluctance of modification and further redefinition is time-consuming and complexity of the ICT. Furthermore, this is categorized into a good implementation of ICT
as the teacher believes on integrating ICT in teaching as well as the practices are in line with the belief about ICT.

**Conclusion and Implication**

In this paper, teacher’s beliefs about ICT and her practice in the classroom have been presented based on classroom observation and interview. Reflecting on the current educational reform agenda in Indonesia, teachers are being asked to employ contemporary learning resources and activities that will ensure a digitized curriculum through digital pedagogies. Enabling this meaningful change to teaching and learning suggests that teachers would be better positioned to engage with this if they possessed ICT beliefs and practices representative the beliefs. As evident in both the ICT beliefs and ICT practices, the teacher is acknowledging the role of ICT as a knowledge construction tool through collaborative activities. The teacher believes that that ICT is very important to be implemented in the teaching and learning process as it will give advantages for teachers, students, as well as educational development in Indonesia. In addition, the teacher also believes that ICT is a learning tool to enhance curriculum and its use relates to real life practices. This supports a developmental ICT competency framework as evident in the literature (Prestridge, 2007; 2010).

Emerging from the data is a relationship between ICT belief and practice. As the teacher personally believes on ICT, she is more confident to use ICT in the classroom. However, the extent to which the teacher integrates ICT in the classroom is more at the substitution and augmentation stages only as analyzed using SAMR model. It can be inferred from the available data that the teacher does not want to make herself confused with the complexity of ICT as found in modification and redefinition stages. Further, she does not want to design the instructional materials in such ways because she does not want to make them as time-consuming and complicated activities.

This research implies a number of suggestions for EFL teachers. First, it is necessary for teachers to equip themselves with ICT training, seminar, or workshop before they integrate ICT in the classroom. Second, teachers should care for their students’ motivation and participation by demonstrating proper personal and teaching behavior integrated with ICT in the classroom.

This research suggests for further research to have deeper discussion on how to make Substitution Augmentation Modification Redefinition (SAMR) model balanced to be implemented in the classroom and on how teachers engage with SAMR model. It is because better technology integration will lead to better understanding in this 21st-century learning.
Acknowledgement
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References


An Indian ESWL: A Pedagogic Tool to Improve the Lexical Competency of Students in Context of Horizontal Diversity

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Abstract
India, a permanent signatory member of The Washington Accord, aims to bring uniformity in undergraduate engineering education offered through 3363 colleges spread across 29 States and seven Union Territories. India has 1.33 billion people speaking 122 major languages, 22 of which are referred to as Scheduled Languages in the Constitution. Education is placed in the Concurrent List of the Constitution and States offer school education in vernacular languages, though a few private English medium schools co-exist. Higher education is offered only through English and students are required to read specialized text books containing substantial amount of technical vocabulary. The poor performance of first year engineering students necessitates the development of a glossary of corpus based Engineering Science Word List (ESWL) to develop their lexical competence. Corpora have been used widely to solve linguistic issues and Data Driven vocabulary Learning (DDL) is an effective way of learning specialized vocabulary.
This paper analyses the need and mode of building an ESWL with words harvested from the course books of beginner engineering students of an Indian university. An ESWL of 1272 words was extracted from 402,959 running words on the basis of ‘frequency’ and ‘keyness’. The ESWL headwords alone account for 31.56%, while all the words account for 81.2% of tokens in the texts. A comparison with some other wordlists revealed that the Indian ESWL is specific with a high text coverage. It can give a new dimension for designing course material for EEP, developing the vocabulary of L2 learners and enhancing their reading skill to achieve academic success.

(*numbers, scientific and mathematics notations, equations, formulae, index and preface excluded)

**Keywords:** needs analysis, engineering students, specialized vocabulary, corpus, word list

**Introduction**

India is a land of diversity – diversity in climate, culture, religion, race, colour, creed and language. This diversity is ubiquitous in all aspects of life, the educational institutions being no exception. The overlapping of Central and State authority over Education is the result of transfer of Education from State List to Concurrent list in 1976. The States derive their constitutional rights from the Language Policy of India found in Part XVII of the Constitution and the Articles dealing with the Fundamental Rights to choose one or more languages of the Eighth Schedule or languages spoken in the region as their official languages. Thus the State governments have made a policy that recommends the mother tongue of the child to be the medium of instruction in schools. On the other hand, the economic liberalization and the onset of globalization have resulted in proliferation of English medium schools as people see English medium education as a passport to upward socio economic mobility. In addition, the increasing rate of global mobility has brought into India, schools following international curriculum like IB, IGCSE and American. All these factors have so much divided the educational system in the country that it is difficult to find a unifying factor to bring the institutions on one common platform.
Institutional diversity – Horizontal

Birnbaum (1983) defines ‘diversity’ using several variables of size, legal foundations, sector of control (state or private sector), disciplinary program, degree level, services, procedural differences in teaching or research and differences in the student body including age, sex and ethnic origins. The vertical diversity is associated with prestige, rank and reputation while the horizontal diversity with the institutions’ mission and profile. In the words of Teichler (1996, p.118) horizontal diversity refers to ‘the specific profile of knowledge, style of teaching and learning, problem-solving thrust, differences in mission, governance or organizational culture.’ In Indian context, the factors contributing to diversity in the sector of education are languages, cultures, system of education, academic traditions, mode of admission, legislation, funding, governance models and economic patterns. One glimpse through the data published by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, reveals a wide range of diversity and the magnitude of the challenges needed to be overcome to arrive at a convergence, thereby transforming the diversity to the greatest strength of the country.

The following data released by the Ministry of Human Resources development, Government of India (2017) give an overview of the Indian educational system and its diversities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>1,516,865</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>847,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper primary</td>
<td>425,094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>135,335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior secondary</td>
<td>109,318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of education boards</td>
<td>31 and International boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of languages used as the medium of instruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes I to X</td>
<td>25 excluding tribal languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes XI and XII</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% distribution of schools by management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private (aided)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private (Unaided)</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unrecognized</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A single paper is inadequate to elaborate on the diversities and complex systemic factors.
Indian Higher education in the field of Engineering.

Current scenario

After completing twelve years of schooling, the students enter colleges or universities for higher education, where they are placed on a common platform and are taught only in English. The Centre controls the higher education and in the field of engineering education All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) is the governing body. The transition to tertiary level is traumatic for the students in many aspects. More than 50% of students do not clear the first year examinations in engineering colleges.

The liberalization initiated by the Congress government in 1990’s and the boom in Informational Technology (IT) sector have caused a spurt in the number of engineering colleges in India in the past few decades. According to the official website of All India Council of Technical Education, India (2017), the total number of engineering colleges in India in 2006 was 1511 with an intake of 550,986 students. But by the year 2015-16, the number of colleges has increased to 3363 with an intake of 1,553,809 students. On 13th June 2014. India signed the Washington accord, an International Agreement among bodies responsible for accrediting undergraduate engineering degree programs. One of the parameters as per the National Board of Accreditation (NBA) website for accreditation is ‘communication’ that reads as follows.

Communication: Communicate effectively on complex engineering activities with the engineering community and with society at large, such as, being able to comprehend and write effective reports and design documentation, make effective presentations, and give and receive clear instructions.

A World Bank report (MHRD, 2015) also points out the need to improve the English language skills of the students of engineering in India.

Pilot study – A report

A pilot study was conducted among 150 students of three different engineering colleges in Chennai in the month of July, one week after the commencement of their course, to test their vocabulary and reading comprehension. A separate questionnaire was circulated among them to collect information on their cultural, linguistic, social, educational and economic background, reading habits, vocabulary building strategy and the impediments they face while reading in English. Among 150 students there were 50 from cities, 82 from small towns and 18 from villages. They had studied in six different boards and spoke eight languages as their mother
tongue. 98 students cited ‘vocabulary’ as the major impediment while reading, while 47 cited ‘content’ and 20 cited ‘syntax’ as the impediment. 54 Students said that ‘text books’ were the major source of new words, while 44 said the ‘newspapers’ were the major source. The test comprised two sections, one on vocabulary and one on reading comprehension. For testing vocabulary in the Vocabulary Level Test and Word Association Test, the words were taken from their class XII books and the passage for RC was taken from the General Science book. Table 1 shows the marks.

Table 1: Marks Scored by the Students in Class XII English Exam and the Pilot Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The test/exam</th>
<th>Number of students in band width of ten</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>0-10 11-20 21-30 31-40 41-50 51-60 61-70 71-80 81-90 91-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class XII</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 9 56 39 36 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilot study</td>
<td>24 10 17 21 25 25 14 11 3 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison of the test scores with their English marks of final year of school reveals a huge gap though there was only a gap of three months between the two. It clearly indicates that the school final marks can’t be taken as measures of their language proficiency and the teaching process in schools was memory based and marks oriented. Consequently, the English language teachers at tertiary level have to face the task of helping the students face the demands posed by complex engineering text books in a short span of time.

English for Specific Purpose

EEP and Corpora

Communicating effectively on complex engineering activities requires comprehending engineering texts and lectures delivered on those topics which correspond to Reading and Listening Skills of learners. Since ELT in India is oriented towards improving general communicative ability of learners, a paradigm shift towards English for Engineering Purpose (EEP) is the need of the hour. English for Special Purpose is different from General English as the purpose of the learners is different in both the cases. Often the learners are also different. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.8) insist that “the focus is on the learner.” Strevens (1977,
p.186) distinguishes ESP from other methods of language teaching when he states that ‘special purpose language teaching occurs whenever the content and aims of the teaching are determined by the requirements of the learner rather than by external criteria.’ According to Robinson (1991), students study English not because they are interested in English language (or English Culture) as such but because they need English for study or work purpose. English is therefore taught as a means to some specified end, which is the successful performance in work or study. One of the three kinds of utilitarian purposes for which students learn English according to Mackay and Mountford (1978) is academic or professional study, engineering, medicine, law etc. Tony Dudley-Evans expanded the features of ESP listed by Strevens (1998) in terms of ‘absolute’ and ‘variable’ characteristics. One of the absolute features is that ESP makes use of underlying methodologies and activities of the discipline it serves. Two of the variable characteristics are that ESP may use a different methodology from that of General English and that ESP is designed for adult learners, either at tertiary level institution or in a professional work. In the light of such findings, Indian universities have to design ESP/EEP courses with a careful choice of texts for reading and listening exercises and lexis in grammar and vocabulary exercises that would help them in core studies.

Lexical competence is identified as one of the biggest challenges of language learning (Coady and Huckin, 1997) and it is also considered as an important predictor to general language ability (Carter & McCarthy, 1998). Use of word lists to improve vocabulary has always seen proponents and opponents in ELT classrooms. The last decade has seen a reinvented interest in corpora and use of corpora In Data Driven Learning (DDL) (Johns, 1991). McEnery and Wilson (2001), identify English for specific purposes as a domain-specific area of language learning and teaching where corpora can be used to provide many kinds of domain-specific material for language learning, including quantitative accounts of vocabulary and usage which address the specific needs of students in a particular domain more directly than those taken from more general language corpora. Corpora play a vital role in syllabus forming (Walsh, 2010) and material designing for ESP courses. In DDL corpora form the base of learning (Chambers, 2010) and the greatest advantage of this era is that technology has facilitated to a great extent the job of building corpora. Data driven vocabulary learning, using content specific corpora is considered today as an effective way of learning specialized vocabulary. As for Chung and Nation (2003), they believe that it is important for ESP instructors to enable their students to identify technical terms and understand their meanings. EEP practitioners work on the assumption that engineering students are required to read text books containing specialized
vocabulary and many low frequency words as per the classification of general corpora like British National Corpus. Science dictionaries have all the science and technical words but they are too vast to be used for curriculum development. The viable alternate would be to build course specific corpora by harvesting words from the prescribed text books of individual university or college and use in designing ESP/EEP courses for the learners of that university or college. It will help the learners in understanding and expressing the concepts of core subjects taught to them in their classrooms. Such an attempt does not mean overlooking communicative aspect of learning; instead it helps in perfecting technical communication which is more important than over the table communication for engineering students striving for mobility across national borders.

**Word lists from corpora**

The most well-known word list of West is perhaps the starting point of the evolution of word lists. Gilner (2011), while introducing the word list, declares that relatively few words amount for most of the vocabulary used and approximately 2,000 words account for 70% to 95% of all running words regardless of the source of the text. The GSL covers the most frequent 2000 words used for general purpose communication. Though it is outdated, it serves as the base for any corpus study in linguistics. The starting point for Academic Word List is Xue & Nation’s (1984) University Word List comprising 836 items that gives 8.5% coverage of words excluding GSL (Nation and Waring, 1997). This alphabetical list has 11 sub lists. In 2000 Coxhead brought an Academic Word List covering the subjects of arts, commerce, law and science. The AWL has 570 word families under 10 sub lists according to frequency and range of 3.5 million words of academic texts, mostly published in New Zealand from 1960’s to 1990’s. Konstantakis (2007) Business Word List contains 560 words excluding words from GSL and AWL. Coxhead and Hirsh (2007) brought out a 318 word general Science Word List that represents 3.79% of the words in a corpus of 1.5 million words of texts from 14 science subjects. Basic Engineering List of Ward (2009a) comprises 299 items taken from an engineering corpus of 271,000 words found in undergraduate text books of engineering fields. The list does not exclude words from GSL and AWL. Ng Yu Jin, et al (2012) of Universiti Tenaga Nasional, Malaysia developed the Engineering Technology Word List for vocational schools in Malaysia. The words were taken from the prescribed texts of the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Similar work has been done in Thailand and Taiwan and the word lists are used in course designing in technical universities. Since the word lists enable the English teachers to teach relevant
linguistic items required for the students regarding their course of study and they help the teachers in the three areas of syllabus design, materials development and classroom activities, an attempt has been made to create an Indian Engineering Science Word List from Indian academic corpus.

**Methodology of development of the ESWL in an Indian University**

The Indian ESWL, the first of its kind in India, presently created for a university in Chennai is an important step in the Indian Engineering Education field. The university is a deemed university in Chennai and the course books prescribed are written by Indian authors and chosen from the books suggested by Anna University. Three books suggested for first year engineering students, one for each major subject, were selected for the purpose of creating the ESWL.

- Engineering Physics by Dr G Senthilkumar, VRB Hitech Publishers Pvt. Ltd.
- Engineering Chemistry by Jain Jain, Dhanpat Rai Publishing Company
- Engineering Maths by T Veerarajan, McGraw Hill Education (India) Private Limited

Software offered by Cobb, Professor Associé, Département de didactique des langues, Université du Québec à Montréal, Canada was used for corpus building and extracting wordlist. The three books were first scanned and converted into txt.files. Then to make them ready for analysis, all formulae, mathematical and scientific notations, symbols, numbers etc. were removed. The edited text had 402,959 running words. The three files were then uploaded individually to find the keyness of words. Key words are those whose frequency is unusually high in comparison with some norm. Unusual frequency does not mean high frequency but unusual frequency, by comparison with a reference corpus of some kind (Scott, 2008). The reference corpus used in this research was the fourteen million word corpus of mixed written-spoken US-UK, developed by Paul Nation as basis for the first 2k of the British National Corpus – Corpus of Contemporary American (BNC-COCA) lists. The keyword list thus obtained had all the words in the text that are at least 25 times more numerous in the text than in the reference corpus. The summary is given in Table 2.
### Table 2: Words with the keyness Factor > 25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Maths</th>
<th>Physics</th>
<th>Chemistry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>First word</td>
<td>relation</td>
<td>photon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keyness factor</td>
<td>21113</td>
<td>35412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Last word</td>
<td>rank</td>
<td>stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keyness factor</td>
<td>25.31</td>
<td>25.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Total no. of words</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example, the word ‘colloid’ has a frequency of 420 in the 319,287 word text whereas the same word has one natural occurrence in the 14,000,000 reference corpus resulting in the keyness factor of 18416. When all the three lists were clubbed, the total number of words was 1339. When the duplicates were removed, the total came to 766. Though the keyness cut-off of 25 was same for the three texts, the researchers found a huge difference in the frequency cut-off of the words. The frequencies of the last words in the lists were 21, 83 and 4 in Maths, Physics and Chemistry respectively. So, to bring uniformity and broaden the base of selection, the three texts were further analysed for their combined word frequency and range of distribution. The word with the lowest frequency in the keyword list ‘girder’ was found to have a combined frequency of 13 across the three texts. A separate list of 2292 words with a frequency count of ten and above was extracted.

Keeping only one word in a family that can be expanded to level-6 of the 7 levels created by Nation and Bauer (1993), the remaining were deleted from the list. For example, if the word ‘conduction’ was chosen, the other words like conducted, conductivity, superconductivity, conducting, conduct and conductance were eliminated. One of the reasons is that the learners at this stage should have studied English for twelve years either as the first or the second language as per the requirements of Indian education boards. So, they would have the knowledge of forming opposites by adding a prefix or a suffix, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, continuous forms and participles. The second reason was that when the list would be used for designing course material, the authorities will have the flexibility of using any form the word to drive home the meaning of the word. Further the lessons thus designed can take the students beyond the boundaries of science and explore the beauty of a language and widen the horizon.
of their knowledge. It will also enrich their repertoire of vocabulary and in turn enhance reading comprehension. This broader perspective of expansion determined the selection of only word families and not word types. The other words deleted from the list were:

1. Proper nouns
2. Names of units like gram, kelvin, ohm, joules etc.
3. Scientific processes like titration, oxidization, ionization etc.
4. Names of organic and inorganic elements, ores and enzymes.
5. Names of laboratory equipment like burette and pipette
6. Chemical formulae
7. Abbreviations and acronyms

When the key words list and frequency list were compared, 425 words were found in common with 341 words unique to keyness list and 652 words unique to frequency list. After removing the duplicates, the lists were clubbed to form a single list of 1278 headwords. It meant there were 1278 families, 1278 types and 1278 tokens. The list was then compared with a few other reference lists in vogue. For this purpose the following lists were considered and the results are shown in Table 3.

3. The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) – Academic of Dee Gardner and Mark Davies.
5. British National Corpus & COCA combined.
Table 3: Comparison with Reference Lists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of words</th>
<th>name of reference Word list</th>
<th>number of words in reference lists</th>
<th>shared words</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Indian ESWL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1278</td>
<td>AWL</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>19.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1278</td>
<td>NAWL</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>20.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1278</td>
<td>ETWL</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1278</td>
<td>COCA-Academic</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>1098</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1278</td>
<td>BNC &amp; COCA</td>
<td>450 million</td>
<td>1220</td>
<td>95.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the corpus base of BNC & COCA is 450 million words, it was expected that all the words found in the first year books would also find a place in the BNC & COCA. But surprisingly, 58 words forming 4.53% of total words were found ‘off-list’. They were not found in the first 25K words. The 58 words needed authentication and it was decided to seek the help of the professors who teach the respective subjects in the university. Three experts, one each from Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry from the same University were approached for their opinion. While the Physics and Mathematics professors agreed with the list, the Chemistry professor pointed out that six words were not at par with the rest. The words and his reasons were:

1) transesterification process
2) stereochemistry branch of chemistry
3) amax measurement
4) emery name of a kind of rock
5) triclinic chemical structure
6) moles unit

So, from the list these six words were deleted and the final list had 1272 words. The text coverage of only the headwords was 31.56%, while the text coverage of all the words expanded to level-6 was 81.12%. It was huge and significant considering the fact that 2507 words of NGSL and 326 words of AWL were not in the list. The frequency distribution of these words is given in Figure 1.
Figure 1: Frequency distribution of the words in ESWL

The raw frequency of a few ‘off list’ words are given below for sample, however, they keep changing as the data are updated with the addition of base sources constantly. (Table 4)

Table 4: The Raw Frequency of a few ‘Off List’ Words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Raw Frequency in BNC</th>
<th>Raw Frequency in COCA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Embrittlement</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Immiscible</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Isothermal</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Monochromatic</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Thermograph</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to get the opinion of students who will be using the text books in their first year in the college, the ESWL was given to 25 students who had come for a preparatory course to the university before the commencement of classes. Since the admission to engineering colleges in Tamilnadu, is done centrally based on the marks of the students in class XII, there is no regional or urban bias. All the students have an equal chance to enter the college of their choice as per their marks. They were asked to pick the words they know well. 952 was the highest number and 144 was the lowest. Average number of words known to the students was 597 which means the remaining 675 words forming 53% of total words were not familiar to them.
indicating the need to bring out an engineering science word list to facilitate learning and comprehension.

**Implication of the result and application**

The GSL is outdated and the New GSL has little relevance in ESP. The word ‘delete’ is not in the 2K words of GSL but in practical observation we find it as a high frequency word because of the ubiquitous mobile phones and computers. Coxhead’s AWL too covers only 22.43% of the Indian University’s Engineering Science Word List. There are three reasons for this. First, Coxhead’s list was released in 2000 and since then science and technology have tremendously advanced bringing to forefront many words from closed books stacked in library corners. Many low frequency words have become high frequency words. Coxhead’s corpus base was books published in England and New Zealand, whereas now academic books written by regional or local authors are used in all countries where English is the medium of instruction. Moreover Coxhead’s word list contains words from arts, science, humanities and law whereas the Indian ESWL contains words that occur in specific text books only. The most surprising result was that students for whom English is the second language are provided with low frequency words and words which are not in the 100 million BNC and 520 million COCA. It’s a testimony to the difficulty of the task they face in their first year in college.

Developing an EEP course is the immediate necessity for educationists in India. Word lists like the Indian ESWL can provide a starting point as the books used for corpus building are written by Indian authors. Using a word list for learning vocabulary has its own inherent advantages, though it was not seriously taken in the past. It is being revived with so many word lists being built for different subject areas to facilitate learning in target groups. The lists which are made systematically, compared with other standard reference lists and verified by subject experts prove to be both global and particular. This is the first time that such a list has been made in India and it can immensely help the students in improving their receptive and productive engineering science vocabulary in a short time. It would be a holistic kind of education with no line drawn between language and science. Words are building blocks of expression and if they are well-rehearsed, students can learn thirty words an hour (Thornbury, 2002). Learning can be more effective with repetition and recycling (Mukundan, 2007). Curriculum developers can incorporate the words in the list to design lessons, worksheets, reading comprehension passages, writing input and listening comprehension clips.
Conclusion

In recent years, data driven vocabulary learning is becoming popular and the utility value of word lists is getting appreciated by educators, though it is questioned by Widdowson, (2000). The lists contain words that a L2 learner is unlikely to discover in a random or natural manner. Learning a language needs a life time effort and several encounters are needed for a word to become a part of the learner’s active and passive vocabulary. Well-researched and well-prepared word lists overcome the problem of shortage of time and prolonged effort. As cited by Nation (1990, 2001), 6000 words account for 89.9% text coverage while 86,741 words give 99.9% text coverage. Hence, for higher coverage of words in academic texts in a short period, natural reading or random learning of vocabulary is ineffective. Special vocabulary lists are proving to be useful for both learners and teachers. An increased interest in creation of word lists for specific purposes by experts in the fields is a testimony to this fact. India is a country of diversity and evolving common word lists for different learner groups addresses the concern of Indian educators who are striving to bring uniformity in education all over the country. The Indian Engineering Science Word List is a significant step in this direction.

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Abstract

Teachers should be selective in using strategies to teach speaking. In line, there are many strategies that can be used in teaching speaking such as TPS, role-play, describing pictures, retelling a story etc. This study proposes that Strategies-Based Instruction can improve learners’ speaking skills. This strategy is seen as one of the many appropriate strategies to be used since there is a lot of research show that Strategy-Based Instruction has a positive influence to students’ speaking skills. Therefore, this study will discuss on the incorporation of teaching speaking-skills strategy (Gülten KOŞAR & Hasan BEDİR) in facilitating students’ project. The findings obtained from the qualitative and quantitative data show that the students in the training group made a meaningful improvement in their speaking skills as compared to those in the comparison group. While using the Strategy-Based Instruction, students are encouraged to collaborate with peers in exchanging and critically choosing important information. In addition, while finishing the project, students are required to practice and rehearse their language skills before the speaking performance.

Keywords: Implementing, SBI, Teaching, Speaking

1. Introduction

Basically, there are four skills required in English learning. They are reading, speaking, listening and writing. That is receptive skill and productive skill. (Bahar, 2014: 7) These abilities are tightly connected to one another since speaking needs listening, writing needs reading and vice versa. They are inseparable. Among those four English skills, speaking is mostly the main goal of many English learners. (Bahar, 2013: 3) It is also supported by Kosar & Bedir 2014: 1)
stated that ‘‘Speaking skills has been claimed to be at the core of language learning. The claim has been expanded with the assumption that aptitude for accomplishing successful oral production is the equivalence of successful language learning. In addition, Kosar & Bedir derived from (Egan, 1999). Among the four language skills speaking is viewed to be at the heart of second language learning. The statement of the researchers about important speaking skills indicated that one of the learning success seem on the learners’ ability to express their ideas or feeling to someone else or their ability to performance in communication.

English language is one international language which is taught widely at many countries in the world. There are many residents at various state use English language as communication device in various essential appointments on level international. The data shows about 7.102 languages which is used in the world and English language is one of most widely used in the world after Mandarin and Spanish. (Online) Adopted from Ethnologic, 2014) as (Kosar & Bedir 2014:2) stated that ‘English has become the lingua franca all over the world even though it is not the most spoken language concerning the number of its native speakers. The economic and cultural impact of the USA has paved the way toward the prevailed use of English in various areas of the globe. It has become the medium of technology, and commerce etc., which has channeled lots of people in almost all parts of the world toward engaging into attempts to learn English as a foreign/second language.’’

However, English is the only one, foreign language that must be taught on education ladder in Indonesia. There are some foreign languages which are taught in education ladder in Indonesia, such as Arabic, Mandarin, Japanese, and German but they are just additional lesson or just a second choice at school. It based on republic recommending regulation number 19 in 2005 about educational standard chapter 9 subsection 2. (permen no 19 tahun 2005)

As an international language it must be learned by all students at formal education institute such as at junior high school, senior high school moreover in university. English language is learned in two broad contexts in Indonesia, foreign language and second language acquisition. (Bahar, 2010: 3) A foreign language is one where the target language is not the language of communication in the society. A second language context is one where the target language is the language of communication in the society.

Language teaching nowadays, especially English language teaching as a foreign language (ELT) has been claimed effective if it will apply communicative approach as today is student-centered and it gives students plentiful opportunities to interact with the teacher and with themselves. The basis is to make the EFL teaching and learning more communicative and
meaningful. (Cahyono 2015: 23) many various research emerge to shift their focus from teaching to learning to learn during the years following the 1960s. The change in favor of learning and learner placed a substantial importance on learner-centered approach rather than the teacher-centered one. In conjunction with the increasing popularity of learner-centered approach (Kosar & Bedir 2014: 2) as Brown (2000) states successful oral communication in the target language with other speakers serves as a display of successful language acquisition. This statement brings forth the significance of developing speaking skill, indicating competent language learners. Thus, the need to improve students’ speaking skills has been intriguing researchers’ interest.

Kosar, and Bedir’s (2014). In their article is interesting because of it proposed a new strategy as a means of improving adult EFL learners’ speaking skill. They try to show the effectiveness of LLSs (language learning strategies) and describe of how to implement it as the steps taken by the learners to enhance their own learning. to support this study, Kosar & Bedir. (2014) review previous literature and provide some empirical studies on factors in nexus to LLSs (language learning strategies).

2. Objective of the study

This study aimed at developing adult EFL learners’ speaking skill through strategies-based instruction (SBI) by considering answers to the following questions.

➢ Are adult EFL learners aware of speaking strategies that can help them overcome the shortcomings during oral communication?
➢ Does explicit strategy training have effects on improving speaking skills of adult EFL learners

The main purpose of this case is going to discuss the effectiveness strategies-based instruction in teaching speaking skill especially, the effort of how to enhance language practitioners in Indonesia.

3. Speaking Skill

Speaking skills is one of the main goals of many language learners. It is a fundamental part in our daily life activity. This statement is supported by Chahyono in his work (Inspirational and Innovations for English Classroom 2015:338). Speaking is to say something from our idea, feeling or process expressing ideas, thought, feeling to someone else. Speaking is a skill. It means that speaking subject should not terrifying subject for the learners but it should be fun, enjoyable and pleasurable subject at school. Unfortunately, many English learners at formal
education in Indonesia still low (Cahyono 2015: 338) in addition, Susi Kurniati derive from 
harmer (2001) in Cahyono’s work stated the ability to speak fluently not only presupposes 
knowledge of language features, but also needs skilled competence to process information and 
language on the spot.

The essence of speaking subject actually not only talk about how to speak but also talk 
about how to construct and convey ideas, feeling or thought from our mouth to other people. 
(Kurniati 2015 in Cahyono’s worked: 339) this statement is supported by Bahar (2010: 3) stated 
that speaking as a compulsory subject, learners are not only taught how to speak clearly but also 
how to speak correctly.

4. Strategies-based instruction (SBI)

To make one perception or to restrict wide problem of this study, it is needed to define 
of what Strategies based instruction mean in this study. Strategies based instruction (SBI) is one 
of learning models that can be utilized by English language teachers to teach speaking subject. 
It is an effective way to engage English practitioners to speak up. There has been a lot of research 
confirmed that SBI able to enhance or improve students’ skill to construct and convey ideas in 
the form communication.

Kosar et all (2014) referred to the Oxford (1990, p.1) defined language learning 
strategies (LLSs) as ‘‘the steps which is taken by learners to improve or enhance their own 
learning’’. Basically, strategies based instruction is divided it into two parts: direct and indirect 
strategies. Direct strategies encompass memory, cognitive and compensation, strategies and 
social, affective, and meta-cognitive strategies are subsumed under the heading of indirect 
strategies.

Nowadays in educational teaching, language teaching has been accentuated on 
communicative approach. It has been proven that the implementation of student-center 
instruction in the classroom is more effective than teacher-center instruction. One of the reasons 
is that it gives the students plentiful opportunities to interact with the teacher and with 
themselves. (Cahyono 2015: 23) one of the language teachers’ task is to enhance the students’ 
ability to perform the language. Teaching speaking subject for instance, the teachers’ main task 
is to make the students are able to use the language in the form of communication. This is due 
to reason that the success of EFL teaching and learning is often seen from the students’ mastery 
to use the language.

In this study is a critical review toward previous research related to the implementation 
of SBI strategy in ELT and it seem to be shifted the focus from teacher-centered whereas
according to Ze-Sheng as cited by Moya (2014:1) ‘a learner-centered approach’ which has two major components: firstly, students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks; secondly, strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks.

**Implementation of the Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI)**

The stages of strategies-based instruction implementation refer to instructional design (Cognitive Academy Language Learning Approach) which is comprised of five phases they are: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. Kosar et al (2014) that is adopted from Chamot, Barnhardt, El-dinary and Robbins (1999). For details, let’s take a look of this explanation below:

*The preparation stage* occupies a fundamental place in providing a learner-centered classroom, which is the heart of strategy training. In order to gain the above mentioned end, the questionnaire for determining short and long term goals, speaking strategies questionnaire and semi-structured interview were employed. Pre-speaking strategies questionnaire was administered so as to figure out the existing awareness of the participants, if any, on the speaking strategies as heightened awareness of the learners on the influence of speaking strategies is a requisite for establishing learner-centered classroom environment. (Kosar & Bedir 2014:5)

Pre semi-structured interview made it possible to gather information about the participants’ existing knowledge of the impact of speaking strategies, their approach towards behaving strategically so as to attain better oral production.

*In the presentation stage*, speaking strategies were explicitly modeled, explained and named. According to the content of the speaking activities in the participants’ regular course book, the speaking strategies will be chosen and they will be modeled to the participants explicitly. The speaking strategies appropriate for successful implementation of the speaking activities are modeled by the researchers. For instance, using gestures whilst oral production when a word cannot be recalled is taught to the students, since using gestures is a strategy which can be addressed to as an invaluable means at times of having difficulties in remembering proper words. (Kosar & Bedir 2014:5)

*In the practice stage*, In the practice phase, the experimental group students practiced the strategies that were explicitly named and modeled by the researchers. The participants were directed to utilize the chosen strategies in the speaking tasks which could be handled much better
by employing predetermined strategies.

In the evaluation stage, in the evaluation phase, participants in the experimental group evaluated the new speaking strategies they dealt with and learned during the course. Evaluation was largely done by the students, yet from time to time it was accompanied by the evaluation of the researchers. The participants wrote minute papers at the end of the training embedded in their regular program. They jotted down the new strategies they learned, and what they thought about the effectiveness of the learned strategies. As well as minute papers, the diary kept by the researcher provided her observation of the participants during strategy training, their reactions, feelings, and contribution to the speaking tasks by utilizing newly learned speaking strategies.

In the expansion stage, Chamot et al. (1999) insist that critical effective strategy learning requires the capability of transferring a strategy from a familiar context to an unfamiliar one. Thus, in the expansion phase, students should be able to decide what strategy they need to use when they come across with a problem. Thus, the researcher traced the employment of the speaking strategies by the participants during the speaking tasks throughout three months following the completion of the training. They were motivated and supported to continue making use of speaking strategies to perform better in the speaking tasks and to accomplish higher levels of speaking proficiency.

This study included seven steps: review or warm-up, preparation, explanation, demonstration, practice, evaluation, and summary (see Table 1). A Mountain Story adapted from Chamot et al. (1999, pp. 90–92) was used as teaching material across the nine SBI sessions. Each session started with the researcher summarizing the main points of the previous session or asking students questions about current events happening in their city, or activities they undertook over the weekend, as well as future:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warm-up</td>
<td>Review of previously learned strategy/ Talking about daily events and activities</td>
<td>Teacher and students</td>
<td>3 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>Finding the target strategy in the Mountain Story and eliciting students’ experiences with the use of the target strategy</td>
<td>Teacher and students</td>
<td>7 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>Explaining the target strategy</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>10 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>Modelling the use of the target strategy</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>10 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>In-class actual use of the target strategy in writing tasks</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluation of the use of the target strategy in in-class writing tasks</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>Review of the content of the session with emphasis on the target strategy</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Structure of an SBI session.
5. Teaching Scenario in Implementing the Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI)

Procedures

The previous discussion has been related about the definitions, procedures, steps of SBI detailed but still rather unclear about the teacher and students activities, rather unclear of teaching scenario thus in this case will show what look like the classroom atmosphere. Actually to apply this strategy, many ways to support the teaching process to be running well such as provide some games, modules, media, etc.

To implement the teaching Speaking, it must respond in the speaking product accurately, fluently and acceptably in daily life and applied in daily life. In case, there are three core points in teaching process they are opening, main activity and closing:

a. Opening

In the opening session, the teacher will instruct the students to make table topic (list of topic) that will be discussed or presented in learning activity. In this case, students are free to choose what material is, to be presented. Each student in turn to be instructor for example in the first meeting students A becomes a leader so the student A must provide list of 5 to 10 table topics. And the other students are already to choose one of the topics randomly to be presented.

b. Main activity

In this stage will spend time for about 30 minutes. After choosing one of the students to be an instructor, the teacher will take a part as an evaluator whereas each session is finished will be evaluated the students’ performance. During the 30 minutes, there will be 10 students take a part to come in front of class in turn and each of the 10 students will possess 2 minutes each other to express their feeling, ideas related of what topic is.

c. Closing

In the closing stage will discuss who will be an instructor for the next meeting. After deciding one of them (students) to be an instructor for the next meeting, he/she must provide 10 table topics as material discussed in the next meeting. For more detail let’s take a look in Table below:
### 6. Conclusion

The implementation of the SBI strategy contribute positive affect of students’ achievement. In study has been conducted small experiment in MA CHUNG UNIVERSITY Malang by applying the SBI strategy in teaching speaking skills. This study also supported by a lot of report of research. Finding showed that students were more enthusiasm, enjoy and fun in learning. There were a few students who passive become active students to respond the learning activities. Viewing the common students’ problem in learning activities such as no motivation to participate in learning, laziness to think, passive students are the serious problem that should be solved. Thus, this study aims to solve this phenomenon.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opening</th>
<th>5 minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher explains the teaching strategy to the students shortly but clear. (what to do)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The teacher asks one of the students to be a leader/instructor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Activity</th>
<th>30 minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students A will take a part as instructor. His/her project is to handle the classroom atmosphere. In this case, each student will take a part to be an instructor alternately.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Another student will be asked to take one of the topics then presented.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Each student possesses same opportunity to present the topic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Each student (participant) will evaluate his/her friend’s performance for example: if Student A is presented his/her project so the student B will evaluate student A and vice versa.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. After all student presented his/her project so the teacher will evaluate all students’ performance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Closing</th>
<th>5 minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher and students will discuss who will take a part as an instructor to handle the next meeting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Praying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opening</th>
<th>5 minutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher explains the teaching strategy to the students shortly but clear. (what to do)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The teacher asks one of the students to be a leader/instructor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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http://ilmupengetahuanumum.com/10-bahasa-yang-paling-banyak-digunakan-di-dunia/


Undang-Undang No. 20 tahun 2003 pasal 50 ayat 3

Undang-Undang No. 19 tahun 2005 pasal 9 ayat 2

Analysis of the Factors Influencing Students’ Motivation in Learning English

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Abstract
Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and the success of foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2009). This study aims to investigate whether or not the teacher, parental encouragement and group dynamic affect the learning English motivation of a group of senior high school students in Indonesia (SMAN 8 Makassar) and to uncover the most important factors among them. This quantitative causal comparative research employed cluster random sampling to select the participants. The data was collected through Likert scale and was analyzed through regression analysis test. The findings showed that while teacher significantly affects the motivation of the students to learn English, parental encouragement and group dynamics do not. Furthermore, it was found that the teacher is the most important factor that affects the students’ motivation to learn English. The findings of this study will be beneficial for the teacher and the school. The teacher and the school can develop suitable system and strategies to increase the students’ motivation to learn English.
**Keywords:** Students’ Motivation, parental encouragement, group dynamics, Teacher.

**Introduction**

Learning English is a process and there are some factors affect the process. One of the factors that affects in the learning English process is motivation. Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influences the rate and success of foreign language learning (Dornyei, 2009). Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the foreign language learning and later driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process.

Students who are interested in learning English as a foreign language have different levels of motivation toward that language; similarly, they wish to build positive attitudes in order to achieve higher responses in English. Motivation recognized as one of the major variables that determine the level and success of second language learning.

Numerous studies have reported the importance of viewing the concept of motivation as a multifaceted phenomenon. Establishing a successful second language learning process is a challenging undertaking that is subject to numerous external and internal aspects in the societies where are brought in. There are internal and external source of motivation. The internal sources are needs, value, interest, and attitude. The external sources are teacher, parental encouragement, and group discussion.

School is one the place that facilitate student to learn English. English is one of the primary subject at senior high school. However, the students of each school needs motivation for increase their ability and skills in English. Based on previous research, students’ at SMAN 8 Makassar have high motivation (Taiyeb, 2012). In other that, the previous observation of the researcher showed that students in SMAN 8 Makassar have a good motivation in learning English, SMAN 8 Makassar have six classes at the second grade with the highest motivation. The external factors that influence students’ motivation in English learning are teacher, parental encouragement, and group dynamics. Students of SMAN 8 Makassar are suitable as the object of this research.

Some of previous research only showed the relation and effect of factors towards the students’ motivation. So that, the researcher was interesting to analyze the most important factors that influence students’ motivation. Educators facilitating English language learning should identify the most important factors that influence students’ motivation then deal with them by developing suitable strategies of English instruction that motivate and can foster
favorable attitudes towards learning English as second language. The result of this research will help the others school as the facilitator of English language learning to increase their student motivation.

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of this research are formulated as follows: (1) Finding out whether or not teacher affects the motivation the students SMA Makassar to learn English language, (2) Finding out whether or not parental encouragement affects the motivation of the students SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language, (3) Finding out whether or not the group dynamics affects the motivation of the students SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language, (4) Finding out the most important that affect the student motivation in learning English at SMAN 8 Makassar.

**Literature review**

Homola (1972) proposes a definition that: “The word motivation is the common name for all impulses that lead to behaviour, or as the case may be, to certain behaviour.” According to that definition motivation is something that prompts or incites the action. Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2009). Gardner (2010), for instance, reports that joined ability and motivation form a large portion of the discrepancy of success in language learning. Motivation is the most important part in learning process, student needs motivation to lead their behavior in learning process, we can conclude that motivation is supporting factors in student learning process. Another research also found that motivation greatly influence student attitudes towards the learning and language achievement. Attitude has been defined as is the way student think and feel about somebody or something, and the way that student behave towards somebody or something, it can be positive or negative. Similarly, motivation is the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action (MouiliFatiha, 2014).

Griffing (2006) explored motivation in connection with student-teacher relationships, introduces further factors that can influence the students’ motivation. She suggests that high teacher expectations positively influence the students’ motivation as teachers with high expectations have students who are motivated and perform well academically. The students’ perceptions that their teachers care about them also have an effect on their level of academic motivation. Svobodová (2015) find the more specific factors that influence student motivation,
there are three external factors that affects the student motivation in learning English. The factors are teacher, parental encouragement, and group dynamics.

Teachers influence divided into two subcategories, Teachers Feedback and Teacher Performance. Further aspect of the teacher’s role in motivation is feedback that should follow every task and performance as it inseparable part of a learning process. Feedback provided by way of praise, by any related action or comment, or by silence. There is no doubt that the teacher’s performance can have a great impact on the student’s motivation and thus achievement. Teacher plays an important role in many aspects and several conclusions drawn from the introduced research. It should emphasize that helping students to generate intrinsic motivation should be one of the essential duties of the teacher who is responsible for the choice of schoolwork, teaching method, and organization of the classes

Parents are usually the child’s first and most enduring educators. At the beginning they teach their child very simple things such as first words, colors, shapes, rhymes etc. The parents’ attitude toward the learning is the one that the children experience first even if the parents might be not aware of it. This initial involvement in the learning process can influence how the child will perceive necessity of learning in the future.

Group dynamics were the condition of the class groups, the aspects of the group dynamics were good and bad groups. Good group is a compact group of students who always come in time, always pay attention, and active. Bad group was a disorganized group of students who spend the learning time by playing with their mobile phones under their desks or talking to their classmates. Dörnyei & Murphey (2003) explain that groups have their own life and the members behave differently in the group than they do outside the group and even the most different.

The previous related studies just show the relation and effect of the factors towards the students’ motivation. There are not previous related studies that explain the most important factors that influence students’ motivation in learning English. Actually, the facilitator of English language learning needs to know the most important factors to develop strategies and treatments to increase their students’ motivation. This research is aiming to help the facilitator of English language learning to analyze the most important factors that influence students’ motivation in learning English. Kinds of groups seem to have some essential features in common.
Methodology

Research Design

This research is quantitative research using causal comparative method. This method is to investigate cause-and-effect relationship between independent and dependent. Variables (Ary et al, 2010).

Research Variables

1. Independent Variables
   a. Teacher
   b. Parental Encouragement
   c. Group Dynamics

2. Dependent variable: Students’ motivation

Population and Sample

1. Population

   The population of this research was the second year student of SMAN 8 Makassar in the academic year 2015/2016. The researcher chooses SMAN 8 Makassar by considering the case of the research and the accessibility. The numbers of classes are six classes. Each class consists of 30 students. The total number of population is 210 students.

2. Sample

   In this research, the researcher used cluster random sampling, XI IPA 6 is take as a sample. The sample consists of 30 students.

Technique of Data Analysis

To analyze the data, the researcher used liner regression and multiple regression. Multiple regression is a correlational procedure that examines the relationships among several variables. Specifically, this technique enables researchers to find the best possible weighting of two or more independent variables to yield a maximum correlation with a single dependent variable. The regression analysis also yields R, the coefficient of multiple correlation, which indicates the relationship between the predictor variables in combination and the criterion (Ary et al, 2010).

Findings and discussion

1. Data description

   The data of this research had been collected through questionnaire to know the effect of independent variables towards dependent variable. The data description of this research as follow:
a) Teacher effects

Teacher effects scale consist of 10 items with score distance 1 to 5. The data show that mean hypothetic of this variable is 30 with standard deviation 6.6. The minimum score is 10 and the maximum score is 50. The categorization of the data is describing in the following table.

Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(36.6 \leq X)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(23.4 \leq X &lt; 36.6)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 68</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data of the table show that 27 students who have teacher effects in high category with percentage 90%, 3 students have teacher effects in average category with percentage 10%, and no student has low category. Most of the students in SMAN 8 Makassar have teacher effects in high category.

b) Parental encouragement effects

Parental encouragement effects scale consists of 5 items with score distance 1 to 5. The data show that mean hypothetic of this variable is 15 with standard deviation 3.3. The minimum score is 5 and the maximum score is 25. The categorization of the data is describing in the following table.
Table 4.2

Categorization of parental encouragement effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18.3 ≤ X</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.7 ≤ X &lt; 18.3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 11.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data of the table show that 8 students who have parental encouragement effects in high category with percentage 26.6%, 21 students have parental encouragement effects in average category with percentage 70%, and 1 student has parental encouragement effects in low category. Most of the students in SMAN 8 Makassar have parental encouragement effects in average category.

c) Group dynamic effect

Group dynamic effects scale consists of 5 items with score distance 1 to 5. The data show that mean hypothetic of this variable is 15 with standard deviation 3.3. The minimum score is 5 and the maximum score is 25. The categorization of the data is describing in the following table.

Table 4.3

Categorization of group dynamics effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18.3 ≤ X</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.7 ≤ X &lt; 18.3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 11.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data of the table show that 3 students who have group dynamic effects in high category with percentage 10%, 27 students have group dynamics effects in average category with percentage 90%, and no student has parental encouragement effects in low category. Most of the students in SMAN 8 Makassar have group dynamics effects in average category.

d) Students’ motivation

Students’ motivation effects scale consists of 6 items with score distance 1 to 5. The data show that mean hypothetic of this variable is 18 with standard deviation 4. The minimum score is 6 and the maximum score is 30. The categorization of the data is describing in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22 ( \leq X )</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3%</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 ( \leq X &lt; 22 )</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data of the table show that 28 students who have motivation in high category with percentage 93.3%, 2 students have motivation in average category with percentage 6.6%, and no student has motivation in low category. Most of the students in SMAN 8 Makassar have motivation in high category.

2. Analysis of the data

This research is aimed to analyze the influence of independent variable towards dependent variable. Based on the test of normality and homogeneity tests, the results show that the data are normally distributed and the variance of the data is homogenous. Then the researcher analyzed the data by using linear regression, T-test ANOVA and F-test ANOVA.
in SPSS 16.0 to see the influence of independent variable towards dependent variable. Furthermore, based on the calculation of SPSS 16.00, the data gathered as follow:

a) Effect of teacher to students’ motivation to learn English language

The researcher has already stated in the previous chapter that this research aims to analyze the influence of the teacher towards the student motivation in learning English process. The researcher used linear regression test to analyze the influence of the teacher towards the student motivation. The results of the test were presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>227.045</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>227.045</td>
<td>34.596</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>183.755</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.563</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>410.800</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Teacher
b. Dependent Variable: Motivation

Hypothesis:

H0 = Teacher does not affect student motivation in learning English

H1 = Teacher affect student motivation in learning English

The result of calculation show that the proportion of F count is 34.596 with significance 0.000 < 0.05. It means that H0 is rejected and H1 is accepted. It can be concluded that teacher affect student motivation in learning English.

b) Effect of parental encouragement to students’ motivation to learn English language

The researcher has already stated in the previous chapter that this research aims to analyze the influence of the parental encouragement towards the student motivation in learning English process. The researcher used linear regression test to analyze the influence of the parental encouragement towards the student motivation. The results of the test were presented in the following table:
Table 4.7
ANOVA test on regression analysis

ANOVA<sup>b</sup>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>17.626</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.626</td>
<td>1.255</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>393.174</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14.042</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>410.800</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Parents

b. Dependent Variable: Motivation

Hypothesis:

H<sub>0</sub> = Parental encouragement does not affect student motivation in learning English

H<sub>1</sub> = Parental encouragement affect student motivation in learning English

The result of calculation show that the proportion of F count is 1.225 with significance 0.272 > 0.05. It means that H<sub>0</sub> is accepted and H<sub>1</sub> is rejected. It can be concluded that Parental encouragement does not affect student motivation in learning English.

c) Effect of group dynamics to students’ motivation to learn English language

The researcher has already stated in the previous chapter that this research aims to analyze the influence of the group dynamics towards the student motivation in learning English process. The researcher used linear regression test to analyze the influence of the group dynamics towards the student motivation. The results of the test were presented in the following table:
Table 4.8

ANOVA test on regression analysis

Hypothesis:

H0 = Group dynamics does not affect student motivation in learning English

H1 = Group dynamics affect student motivation in learning English

The result of calculation show that the proportion of F count is 0.100 with significance 0.754 > 0.05. It means that H0 is accepted and H1 is rejected. It can be concluded that group dynamics does not affect student motivation in learning English.

d) The most important factor affects the students’ motivation to learn English language

The researcher has already stated in the previous chapter that this research aims to analyze the most important factors that influence student motivation in learning English process. The researcher used linear regression test to analyze the influence of the group dynamics towards the student motivation. The results of the test were presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1.460</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.460</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>.754a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>409.340</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14.619</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>410.800</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group
b. Dependent Variable: Motivation
Table 4.9

R Square on regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>.743&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>2.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental encouragement</td>
<td>.207&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>3.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group dynamic</td>
<td>.060&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>3.824</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of calculation shows the influence of independent variable towards dependent variable. The R square of teacher is 55.5%, it means that teacher significantly affect the students’ motivation. The R square of parental encouragement is 4.3%, it means that parental encouragement does not significantly affect the students’ motivation. The R square of group dynamics is 0.4%, it means that group dynamic does not significantly affect the students’ motivation. Based on the data we can conclude that the most important factor in learning English amount the three factors is teacher.

Conclusion

Based on the finding and discussion in the previous chapter, we can conclude that:

1. Teacher significantly affects the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.
2. Parental encouragement does not significantly affect the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.
3. Group dynamics does not significantly affect the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.
4. Teacher is the most important factor that affects the student motivation to learn English language at SMAN 8 Makassar.
References


Students’ Interest Level in Learning English Grammar

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Abstract

Students’ interest in learning a foreign language is very important, including in learning English grammar. Without interest, they will have no motivation to learn it. As a result, the purpose of grammar teaching-learning process cannot be obtained. Therefore, the students’ interest level should be measured in order to help them to achieve their purpose in learning English grammar. By measuring the students’ interest level, the purpose of teaching learning process can be reached more easily. To find out the students’ interest level in learning English grammar, a descriptive research was conducted. The respondents of the research were seventy six students. The research applied cross-sectional design. To collect the data of the research, a questionnaire was used. The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, namely by counting the percentage of the students’ level of interest. The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, namely by counting the percentage of the students’ level of interest. It was categorized into five levels, namely: very high, high, moderate, low and very low.

Keywords: student, interest level, learning, English grammar

Introduction

English as a foreign language in Indonesia has been learnt by students from elementary school up to university level. The students who want to succeed in learning language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing must study the language components such as vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar as one of the language components. It means that learning English grammar is a must in relation to the success of mastering language skills. In other words, if the students want to get success in mastering English, they have to be successful in mastering English grammar.
Based on one of the phenomena, it was found that some students got problems in learning English grammar or in other words, some students were not successful in their English grammar. The success of learners in learning language of English is influenced by some factors as stated by Harmer (1991:3) that students who are successful at language learning and others who are not were caused by some psychological factors. One of them is about interest. Without interest, it is assumed that the students will not have motivation in learning grammar and as a result the objective of learning language cannot be obtained successfully. In order that the students can get successful in learning grammar, it is considered that knowing the students’ level of interest in grammar is important. This research is about measuring the level of students’ interest in grammar. After knowing the students’ level of interest in learning grammar, the teacher can do many things to the students related to their interest level to help them successful in their grammar.

Review of Related Theories

Every learner has each individual differences. Individual differences may be of the way they study as mentioned before that there are some factors that influence the success of learning. Ellis (1994) states that there are social factors and individual learners influence learning. Moreover Widdowson (1991) learners are different in learning and they do not get benefit from the same things at different stages of their learning. So, it needs to be considered that the teacher may vary his techniques of teaching since his/ her students have individual differences in many ways. As Richards, Plat and Plat (1992) state that technique means different kinds of classroom activities such as drills, role plays, dialogues, and so on.

In accordance with it, Mcgroarty (2002: 69-89) stresses the importance of teaching with variety since learners are different and they do not find the same activities and tasks as motivational and good for their learning. Richards, Plat and Plat (1992) states that variety of lessons that contain many different kinds of tasks for learner produces motivation that has relationship with interest. It means that someone who is motivated in something has relatively high interest in it. Motivation that is dependent on the learner’s learning goal is far less amendable to influence by the teacher than motivation that derives from a sense of academic or communicative success. It means motivation can be developed by careful selection of learning tasks both to achieve the right level of complexity to create opportunities for success and to foster intrinsic interest.
Before continuing analyzing about students’ interest level in learning English grammar, then, it is the explanation about grammar. Brown (2001:362) defines grammar as rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences. Then, grammar is described as the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in sentences. Grammar as the component of language, is sometimes learnt by students with low interest because of many things and consequently, they get low achievements in their English grammar.

To overcome the problem of low interest of students in learning grammar, Widdowson (1991) thinks that learning about the language consciously (conscious learning) can motivate learners to learn more. He also says that learning about a language or conscious learning sometimes are seen as something that stands in the way of learning and that has a non-motivating effect.

Besides learning consciously, having good relation between teacher and students can make the students more interested in learning. Kozminsky and Kozminsky (2002) describe how important it is for teachers to have a dialogue with students. Feedback from teachers plays a big part when it comes to success or failure. They notice what the effects can be if the relations function in a good way and also the negative ones if the relations are poor.

Then, Chomsky (1988) suggested that teachers to focus on raising student’s motivation in learning by making them “feel interested in the material”. It means that if the material of teaching is interesting for the students, they will be interested in learning, and then high motivation will come to them in learning. There are two kinds of motivation as mentioned previously; intrinsic motivation and extrinsic one. Deci and Ryan (1985; 285) mentioned that “intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students’ natural curiosity and interest energize theory learning”, and this intrinsic motivation regards learning experience gained by students through the learning process as the reward for what they have done.

**Results and Discussion**

In order to know the students’ interest level in learning English grammar, a descriptive research was conducted which was of cross-sectional design. The researcher collected data by using questionnaire on interest in relation to their learning English grammar. Then the analysis of data was descriptive statistics by counting the percentage of the students’ level of interest. The population was the students of English Department at School for Foreign Language whose
English Grammar as their compulsory subjects in their curriculum and they have studied the subjects of Grammar I and Grammar II. There were 76 students as the sample size.

The questionnaire was set to know the students’ interest level in learning English grammar. There were five interest levels categorized as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Students’ interest level category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Students’ interest level category</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>very high, strongly interested</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>high, interested</td>
<td>37 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>45 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>low, uninterested</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>very low, strongly interested</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After giving questionnaire to 76 students as sample, then the analysis was done. The result was described in the following as very high, strongly interested, 5 % of students, high, interested, 37 % of students, moderate, 45 % of students, low, uninterested, 13%, of students, and very low, strongly interested, 0 % of students. The result can be seen as the graph below.

STUDENTS INTEREST LEVEL IN LEARNING GRAMMAR
From the table above, it can be seen that the level of students’ interest in learning English grammar in general is high. It means that based on the result of the analysis, it was found that most of students have high interest in learning English grammar.

**Conclusion**

Interest in learning English grammar is very important for the students. Based on the analysis of the data, it was found that there are five levels of interest in learning grammar. They are very high, strongly interested, 5 % of students, high, interested, 37 % of students, moderate, 45 % of students, low, uninterested, 13%, of students, and very low, strongly interested, 0 % of students. It can be concluded that in general the students’ level of interest in learning English grammar is high. The students who have high interest in learning grammar could be expected to have high achievement in their English grammar. On the other hand for those who have low interest, the teacher can motivate the students to learn English grammar in many ways. In conclusion, it can be suggested that the teacher of English grammar can use the research result into their teaching of English grammar.

**Bibliography**

Young Learner’s Learning Characteristics: What should the material be?

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Abstract
The objectives of this research were: (1) to see what are the characteristics of young learners in learning languages; and (2) to recommend what kind of learning materials that might suit the learning characteristics. This is a literature study so there is no data collection process taking place on the research.

Keywords: Young learners, learning characteristics, teaching material

Introduction
In Indonesian primary schools, especially the public ones, the most common chosen classroom material is in the form of a worksheet called by Lembar Kerja Siswa (LKS). Most of the learning activities rely on this LKS. The LKS is designed by English teachers in the area and distributed to schools in that particular area. Regardless all the assistance given here, there are parts of the worksheet which do not suit young learners’ characteristics in learning language. The worksheet has a big portion of grammar translation task-based and gives less chance for learners to actively involve during the lesson. In contrast, many experts suggest that the way children learn language supposed to be active and interactive. Moreover, the world today expects language learners to not only master the language grammar but also be able to actively communicate with the target language.
This study aims to see why LKS is considered as an irrelevant choice of classroom material in concern to their capacity to promote English language learning to young learners. The specific context I will talk about this essay is public primary school in my region back home in West Sumatera, Indonesia.

**Literature Review**

1. **The use of LKS as the main teaching material in primary schools in Indonesia**
   
   *Lembar Kerja Siswa* (LKS) is a teaching material that is commonly used by teachers to teach English in primary schools in Indonesia. According to Bulu (1993), LKS is defined as a worksheet that contains information and instructions from teacher to learners in the learning activities. This is designed to achieve learning goal that has been set by the school and the curriculum at the same time. The use of the LKS as the main teaching material tend to make learning as a test than learning as learning experience.

   Activities that is found in the LKS is said to be uninteresting. It also limits the students’ chance to actively involve in the learning. Most the activities are reading text; gaps filling; choosing true or false; matching answers and other activities that require learners' grammar skill to complete it. Here, learners are required to do a list of activities at school and normally will have to do homework at home. As the result, the role of teacher to facilitate learning is not achieved there. Moreover, interactions between learners and teacher are minimum since teacher rely the learning process on the workbook.

2. **Young learners’ characteristics in learning language**

   Dörnyei and Ushioda (2001) argues that which said that young learners want their learning to be meaningful, meet their interest, and related to their everyday experience. In addition, (Cameron, 2001) also says that children are “lively” learners. They tend to relate what they learn in the classroom with what they have in the real life. While discussing this, some questions will be drawn as the framework to analyse the materials in part two later on.

   **a. The child as active learner**

   Piaget (1962) introduced this idea by saying that children “continually interacting” with the environment around them and trying to cope with some problems that they possibly encounter in that environment. For example, in learning how to ride a bicycle, a child might find that she or he needs enough energy to peddle and high concentration to keep the ride balance. Cameron (2001) agrees that that kind of knowledge that children get from an action, like cycling,
is not embedded since they were born. However, the child “actively constructed” it through practicing it. In addition, Cameron (2001, p.4), also says that children are “active learner and thinker”. Similarly, Donaldson (1978) writes that children always eager to know about the thing that they do. They actively response and think of the activities they do in their surrounding and always try to find meaning, reason, and purpose of any task that adult ask them to do. Meanwhile, to cope with that characteristic, the learning process should be able to activate and support learners understanding of the target language. It can be done by giving them chances to really get involve in the learning by doing some contextualized activities like telling or listening to a story, singing a song, playing role play or drama, etc.

b. The world as offering opportunities for learning

Children, as active learner and thinker, are provided with chances to learn trough any experiences they have in this world. In developing learners’ language and cognitive development, routines and scaffolding are two types of “language-using strategies” that can help learners to have space to grow and develop. Within this growth, children might find difficulties. They may need more skilful people to help them and here where the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) happen. Cameron (2001) explains that to develop certain language skills, teachers need to ensure that learners have experiences in lessons that will build those skills. Classroom in this context, taking place as the world that gives learners opportunities to involve in some activities given by the teacher. Moreover, through the activities, teachers need to make sure that learners skills are developed.

c. The child as a social

Vygotskian, in sociocultural theory, believes that social interaction plays a very crucial role in developing someone’s cognitive. Min (2013) suggests that human’s cognitive development and higher mental function highly develop through social activities that ones do. They also tend to infer meaning from the activities that they have (Liawei, 2010 cited in Min, 2013). In line with that, Cook (2008) adds that learning takes place when the learners socially interact with other people, objects, and events around them.

Moreover, underlying Vygotskian theory, it is believed that social context like the interaction between people encourages people to learn and develop themselves as a learner (Cameron, 2001). An adult who interacts with children helps them to “mediate the world for children and make it accessible to them.” (Cameron, 2001 p.6). In other words, the adult takes
a very big role in children’s learning process. They would gain more knowledge and understanding than doing it their own. This concept is also called by maximizing the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

e. The learning as chance to explore new things

   Children are really encouraged to explore new things through what they learn within the activities. Harmer (2001) states that young learners love to explore things that can trigger their imagination so that activities like arranging puzzle, drawing, doing games and doing physical movement will suit them best. However, the teacher needs to always make sure that along with those various activities, the learning process is taking place there. In addition, Harmer (2001) also adds that young learners learning characteristics are also includes responding to meaning rather than words; learning indirectly from what they have around them rather than focus on particular topic they are being taught; understanding through what they see, hear, experience and interact with; being enthusiast and curious to learn about the world around them; being happy to talk about themselves or their live and getting bored easily unless the activity is engaging and interesting.

3. What the material should be?

   The use of LKS in most primary schools in Indonesia does not only contradicts children nature in learning language but also making the learning process become less fun than it supposed to be. As the result, children do not enjoy learning English and the learning aims are not achieved. Furthermore, the LKS does not meet the three learning domains that have been set by Indonesian government (cognitive, affective and psychomotor domain) which refer to Bloom’s taxonomy. Bloom (1956) as cited in Anderson & Krathwhol (2002) explains that cognitive domain is the area that covers intelligent, knowledge and thinking; affective domain includes emotions, attitudes and feeling while psychomotor domain includes physical activity, skills, and actions. Meanwhile, LKS tends to emphasize merely on cognitive aspect of the learning, leaving the affective and psychomotor aspects untouched. From what has been identified above, it is clear that the LKS is not relevant with young learners’ characteristics in learning language and the government objective toward learning.
Conclusion

Having discussed some characteristics of young learners in learning language above, we are now aware that the learning materials should meet those characteristics. The materials should enable children to actively learn, socially interact, freely explore new things and meaningfully relate to the lesson. Moreover, the material should also be able to help achieving learning objectives that have been set by the Indonesian government. In regards to this issue, it is believed that an adjustment to a more relevant material needs to be made.

References
Evaluating the Relevance Status of Linguistics-Based Courses in English Teacher Education Program in Indonesia: 
A Case Study at the University of Mataram

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Abstract
This study reviews the relevance status of linguistics-based courses as the curriculum component of English teacher preparation program in the English Education Department, University of Mataram, Indonesia. By gathering the data from teaching staff, trainees and alumni through questionnaire, focus group discussion, interviews as well as findings from relevant literatures, this study reviewed the fundamental design of the program and the level of significance of linguistics-based courses for trainees’ future practices. Findings suggest that the fundamental objectives of the preparation program need to be reconsidered. To a high number of trainees and alumni, linguistics-courses are considered less relevant to the English teaching practices. Regarding the curriculum components, the program has not significantly responded to the needs of equipping the students with relevant knowledge. It is recommended to the program to set the coverage of contents and standard of competences of each linguistics course in a curriculum document. Consequently, this study recommends additional and relevant courses to responds trainees’ needs of teaching in a genre-based approach setting.

Keywords: curriculum review, English teacher preparation, linguistics-based courses
Introduction

One of the major components in the English teacher education program in Indonesia, including at The University of Mataram is linguistics-based courses group. Courses like Introduction to Linguistics, Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Discourse Analysis and Second Language Acquisition are common courses taking a total of 18 to 24 credits allocation of the program content. However, despite its popularity, there is a doubt that whether this group of course is still considered vital for the trainees’ future practices. For that reason, I conducted this study to find out the current development of its relevance and the perception of the teaching staff, current students and alumni on the dominant position of this course group as well as to review the fundamental design of the program.

Literature Review

The idea for the inclusion of theoretical and applied linguistics-based courses in the curriculum of English teacher training continue with supports from Freeman (1989), Richards (1987), Bamber (1987). The hegemony continues to this date as most universities still incorporate the linguistics-based courses as one of the main components in their curriculum. One of the most recent support comes from Correa (2014) citing the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) standards for the preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (CAEP, 2013). They suggest that one of the main components in the teacher preparation program is knowing the linguistics elements of the system of the foreign language, the nature of language change, and how foreign language is acquired.

Gap and Doubts; Relevant Studies

Supports for the inclusion of linguistics-based courses also come with reports on the overrated view of it in terms of its use in effective language teaching. When a good command of the target language is even considered insufficient for a language teacher (Cravens, 1996; Ellis, 2012; Correa, 2014), let alone merely the ample knowledge of linguistics theories (Widdowson, 2000; Correa, 2014). One of the most important questions to ask is then when there are strong beliefs from the experts on the contributions and relevance of linguistics-based courses for the teacher training, what do the English teachers trainers, the trainees, and the alumni of the training program think?
Research Methodology

In this case study, multi-modal data instruments were used. This included direct observation, document and archival studies, interviews with 8 teaching staff who have taught linguistics-based courses, questionnaires and focus group discussions with 44 current students and 17 alumni. Data were collected over a three-month period. The interview and questionnaires were executed along this period. The interviews were conducted using a guided approach, where the topics and points to be discussed were determined in advance and therefore had been outlined. The questions were worked out during the course of interview. This type of interview was selected in order to increase the comprehensiveness of the data and to enable the data collection for each respondent to be systematised.

Findings and Discussions

1. Teaching Staff on the Relevance of the Linguistics-based Courses

According to internal faculty members, this curriculum component is considered to be a significant part of the programme. Theories and principles of linguistics are claimed to be crucial for English teachers’ teaching repertoire. Despite the ideal objectives of this course and of other linguistics-based courses, there is a missing point of emphasis. How do the trainees make use of this knowledge in their classroom practice? How can an understanding of the comparison between Indonesian and English sound systems inform the diagnostic evaluation of students’ oral skills? While it is important to provide them with skills to write phonetic descriptions, it is also crucial to emphasise that such skills can aid them in describing the phonetics for the vocabulary section in the teaching materials that they will develop in the future. The primary question to be answered should be, what implications does a body of knowledge consisting of collection of theories and research findings contribute to the trainee’s English and English teaching preparation.

Respondents suggest that lecturers need to set a standard of competences in their syllabus. Standards of competences based on the objectives of the course are a potentially supportive contribution to trainees’ awareness of language teaching. They also must be reflective, such that the contents should be connected to the trainees’ immediate curriculum context, which is in Indonesia is the genre-based curriculum.
2. Trainees and Alumni on the Significance of the Linguistics-based Courses

In the data collection instrument, current students and alumni were asked about the perception of relevance and significance of the linguistics-based courses for the practice of English teaching. The alumni were valuable source information in this context, especially on the significance of the courses for their current teaching practices. The alumni were also considered as offering more legitimate reflections on the significance of the courses to teaching practice, because unlike the students, they actually teach.

The level of significance was presented in a four-point scale (not significant, less significant, significant and very significant). After a simple calculation, the levels of significance were further categorised into two groups, significant (significant + very significant) and not significant (not significant + less significant). Below is the highlight of the result.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Students Perception</th>
<th>Alumni Perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phonology</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sociolinguistics</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Psycholinguistics</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Discourse Analysis</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>68.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the questionnaire, it was evident that a considerable proportion of the trainees perceived that the linguistics-based courses were less significant for their preparation. From the alumni questionnaires, the percentage of alumni who perceive this group of courses as less significant was relatively higher, indicating that the alumni, having had actual classroom experience, are aware that these courses contribute as a not very significant element to their teaching practices. However, interviews with the alumni also revealed that their day-to-day classroom encounters with the English language and students create possible reflections on the
theories and principles. Trainees should be made aware of the contribution of the linguistics-based courses, and be more exposed to linguistics theories and principles that make an actual contribution to classroom practice.

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ESL Trainee Teachers’ Approaches and Activities in Teaching Literature: Usage, Factors and Confidence

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Abstract

Teaching the literature component of the English language subject in Malaysian secondary schools has often been considered challenging. This study explores Malaysian ESL trainee teachers’ selection of approaches and activities in teaching literature, factors behind the selection and their confidence in teaching the component. Semi-structured interview questions were asked to five ESL trainee teachers. The findings showed that generally, (1) the trainees
adopted a combination of approaches with content-based approach or information-based approach being the common approach used and (2) displayed a preference for student-centred activities. (3) Factors influencing the selection of approaches and activities were students’ proficiency and cultural background, availability of information communication technology (ICT) facilities, time, motivation and literary texts. (4) Generally, the trainees felt confident in teaching the new literature component. To sum up, the trainees had reasonable knowledge of basic approaches in teaching literature but further pedagogical training for teaching weak students and handling new literature components need to be strengthened in the future for teacher-training programmes.

**Keywords:** literature component, approaches, activities, confidence, trainee teachers

**Introduction**

In Malaysian ESL classrooms, literature has been used to support ESL learning and improve students’ language proficiency through curriculum implementation and reading programmes since the country’s pre-independence (Subramaniam, 2003). Although it experienced a near extinction a few years post-independence, literature rebounded in 2000 and is currently consolidated via the National Education Blueprint 2012 and 2013-2025 where it is embedded in the English language curriculum as a compulsory component and offered as an elective English Literature paper in the Malaysian Certificate of Examination (SPM) for secondary schools. The incorporation of the component is done to improve students’ proficiency and widen their perspectives by giving them more exposure to the language, different cultures and worldviews (Suliman & Yunus, 2014; Kaur & Mahmor, 2013; Subramaniam, 2003). This research focuses on the teaching of the literature component for secondary schools.

Although the integration of the literature component is aimed at improving students’ language proficiency, literature has often been regarded as complex to teach due to challenges like students’ language proficiency and texts readability. Less proficient students tend to give up on the component because the texts are perceived as difficult due to implicit messages and its foreigners against the students’ cultural and geographical background (Rashid, Vethamani, & Rahman, 2010; Rezan, 2005; Subramaniam, Hamdan, & Koo, 2003).

The table below shows the current literature component taught in ESL classrooms across grades. There is no local literature text. The texts are from the UK, US, Africa and Singapore.

<p>| Table 1: The current cycle of the literature component in the English language syllabus | 78 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genres/Grades</th>
<th>Form 1</th>
<th>Form 2</th>
<th>Form 3</th>
<th>Form 4</th>
<th>Form 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. What is Red -Mary Newsbreak</td>
<td>2. The Day O’Neill</td>
<td>the Bulldozers Came</td>
<td>2. Living Tennyson -Tennison</td>
<td>2. What Happened to Lulu -Charles Causley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Max Fetchen</td>
<td>-David Orme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short story</td>
<td>Fair’s Fair -Narinder Dhami</td>
<td>Cheat! -Allan Baille</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Leaving -M.G. Vassanji</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Tanjung Rhu -MinFong Ho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama</td>
<td>- A Night Out -O. Henry</td>
<td>- The Right Thing to Do -Martyn Ford</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Johann Robinson David Wyss</td>
<td>3. We Didn’t Mean to go to Sea -Arthur Ransome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20,000 Leagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Subramaniam et al., (2003) reported that only a small percentage of teachers were confident in teaching the component. Most teachers felt that they needed help in terms of teacher-support and teaching materials. Although experienced teachers were more confident, willing to encourage, challenge and involve students in lessons, many teachers may lack training in teaching literature as many believed in a lack of a standardized methodology for literary interpretation (Abdullah, Zakaria, Ismail, Mansor, & Aziz, 2007; Chakravarthy, Kaur, & A.Pandian, 2009). Ling and Chen, (2016) stated that teachers lack exposure to literature teaching approaches that are student-centred. If trained teachers faced problems teaching literature, trainee teachers may fare even worse as they are new and may lack the proper approaches in teaching literature. Therefore, this paper seeks to examine ESL trainee teachers’:

(a) approaches in teaching literature,
(b) activities employed in teaching the component,
(c) factors behind the selection of approaches and activities,
(d) confidence level in teaching the literature component.

The findings of this study will help to identify whether the trainees have sufficient pedagogical training for teaching literature.

**Literature Review**

*Approaches and Activities in Teaching Literature*

Lazar, (1993) underlined three basic approaches in the teaching of literature which are the Content-based Approach, Language-based Approach and the Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach. Other similar approaches include the Information-based Approach, Paraphrastic Approach, Stylistic Approach, Personal Response Approach and Moral Philosophical Approach (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

The theories behind these approaches can be traced back to the three models for teaching literature proposed by Carter and Long, (1991) which are the Cultural Model, Language Model, and The Personal Growth Model. The teaching approaches will be discussed in accordance to its corresponding models and activities as they are usually interdependent (Lazar, 1993).
**The Cultural Model**

In the Cultural Model, literature is viewed as a source of facts or information whereby the purpose of reading is to obtain information (Lazar, 1993). The teacher occupies a traditional role as a transmitter of knowledge and information. The teaching approaches in this model are Content-based Approach or the Information-based Approach.

These approaches emphasise the analysis of the literary text where the historical, social, cultural and political background of the texts, genres and literary devices are very important (Lazar, 1993). Students learn English by reading literary texts and criticisms. Because the focus is on content, it usually demands a lot of clarification and explanation from the teacher.

Activities include comprehension exercises, lecture sessions or whole-class explanation of content, reading notes from workbooks or handouts and provision of background information (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

**The Language Model**

The Language Model attempts to relate language with literature whereby literature is a resource for students to improve their language proficiency (Lazar, 1993). The approaches in this model are the Language-based Approach, Paraphastic Approach and Stylistic Approach (Ling and Chen, 2016).

In Language-based Approach, the main focus is on making meaningful interpretations of the language in the literary texts through detailed analysis where both literal and figurative language is important. This approach is usually student-centred, activity-based and process-oriented as the main aim of this approach is for students to produce and practise their language skills (Carter, 1996 as cited in Hwang & Embi, 2007). Examples of activities that can be used in this approach are prediction exercises, jumbled sentences, summary writing, creative writing, role play, forums, debate, re-translation and opinionnaire (Savvidou, 2004; Rosli Talif, 1995). These activities are stimulating and helpful as they manifest language in actual use.

In Paraphrastic Approach, the focus is on the surface meaning of the text where paraphrasing of the story is done in simpler language or native language to facilitate better understanding for lower proficiency students. Activities include re-telling the plot of the literary texts, translation and reading paraphrased notes given by teachers (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

The Stylistics Approach delves beyond the surface meaning of the texts. A combination of linguistic analysis and literary critics are used in this approach to facilitate better understanding, linguistic awareness and appreciation of the literary texts (Lazar, 1993).
Activities include scrutinising literary texts, marking significant linguistic features, interpretation of texts through words choices and discussion on figurative meaning (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

**The Personal Growth Model**

The Personal Growth Model caters more for the students’ personal development in relation to the events, themes and issues in the literary texts (Lazar, 1993). The approaches in this model are Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach or Personal Response Approach and the Moral Philosophical Approach.

The Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach and Personal Response Approach encourage students to relate to the texts by giving opinions, describing emotions and personal experiences through student-centred activities through activities such as brainstorming, small group discussions, guided fantasy and journal writing (Lazar, 1993; Hwang & Embi, 2007).

The moral philosophical approach focuses on moral values in the literary texts. Activities include identifying values embedded in the text and explaining the values learnt (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

**Factors in the selection of approaches and activities**

Among factors that often influence the selection of approaches and activities are students’ proficiency levels, exam-oriented culture, classroom enrollment and completion of syllabus. Mustakim, Mustapha & Lebar, (2014) found that most teachers used the Information-Based Approach and Paraphrastic Approach with the use of translation to cater to weak students. Activities which require good proficiency such as debates also could not be carried out due to students’ proficiency (Hwang & Embi, 2007). Besides, comprehension exercises and note-taking were often employed to cater for the exam-oriented culture (Mustakim et al., 2014; & Rashid et. al, 2010). Classroom enrolment was also another factor that influenced teachers’ teaching approaches (Rashid et. al, 2010). Other factors include completion of the syllabus (Hwang & Embi, 2007).

**Previous Researches**

To date, there has been a lack of researches surveying TESL trainee teachers’ approaches in the teaching of literature during teaching practice. However, there were studies on school teachers’ approaches and attitude in teaching the literature component in English. A few past
researches have found that teachers favour the Information-based or Content-based approaches (Hwang & Embi, 2007; Rashid et al., 2010; Mustakim et al., 2014; Ling & Chen, 2016). Besides the Information-based approach, teachers also favour Moral Philosophical Approaches (Hwang & Embi, 2007; Ling and Chen, 2016) and Paraphrastic Approach (Mustakim et al., 2014; Ling and Chen, 2016). Hwang, and Embi, (2007) noted that the Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach and the Language-based Approach were among the least used.

In terms of teachers’ attitude towards teaching the literature component, 62% of teachers had negative views on teaching literature to low proficiency students (Rashid et. al, 2010). They found teaching literature to be very difficult and the teaching and learning were hindered because of students’ proficiency. Similarly, teachers found it difficult to select appropriate approaches to teach literature for literary appreciation and to improve students’ proficiency (Aziz & Nasharudin, 2010). This differs from another research by Subramaniam et al., (2003) who found that the majority of the teachers were optimistic about the component but lacked knowledge in the teaching and learning of literature. Teachers’ views were mixed in Ling and Chen (2016)’s study where different teachers viewed teaching literature as interesting, burdensome and “good” as it focuses on improving language proficiency (p. 11).

Method

Research design

The research design used in this research is qualitative case study as the researcher was interested to seek the participants’ usage of approaches and activities, their perspectives on the factors behind the selection of those approaches and their confidence level. Thus, semi-structured one-on-one interview was conducted, transcribed and analysed manually according to themes.

Participants

The participants for this research are limited to five UKM TESL trainee teachers of different genders undergoing the same TESL programme and had completed their teaching practice. All participants had been given pseudonyms to protect their identities.

Research Instrument

The research instrument for this study is interview protocol consisting of four sections seeking to discover the approaches and classroom activities used in teaching literature. The other sections investigate the factors influencing the participants’ choice of approaches and activities
and confidence level in teaching literature. Prior to carrying out the research, the instrument was piloted to ensure the questions were clear.

Results

Preferable Approaches used in teaching literature

All the participants interviewed were aware of the 3 basic approaches in teaching literature and were able to elaborate on them but were unaware of the other approaches. They responded that the Content-based Approach focuses on the literary text while the Language-based Approach focuses on language and the Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach attempts to relate the texts to students’ lives. Below is one such response.

...The three approaches are... language-based... content-based and literature for personal enrichment. For language-based... we focus on teaching language using literature. For content-based, we focus on the text and not the language and for literature for personal enrichment, we make them use of their real life experiences to respond to the text.

(Madam Elena)

Four participants used all the three basic approaches in teaching literature except one who used the Language-based Approach.

‘I used all the three approaches.’ (Mr Saifuddin, Miss Katherine, & Miss Vela)

...I don’t use any specific one because I think I used a mixture of the three approaches (Madam Elena)

...I think I used the Language-based Approach. (Mr Anton)

When asked if they have an approach of focus, four respondents mentioned that they did not focus on a specific approach but used a combination except for Miss Katherine. She focused on the Content-based Approach but believed that some integration of all the approaches were present. Mr Anton whose earlier response was Language-based Approach, did not name that approach as his focus but mentioned that the approaches he used ‘depends on the students’.

When asked for their viewpoints on combining or separating approaches, all participants were in favour of combining the three approaches.

...Even though I tend to use one approach, I believe that it is best to combine all the three approaches together because it is important for students to learn content, the language and also
have the chance to voice out their own opinion on the literature text. In that way, they can learn more and not only on one aspect...

(Miss Katherine)

Regarding the order in the approaches utilised, Mr Saifuddin answered that his usage of the approaches is ‘random’, while both Miss Vela and Mr Anton mentioned that they ‘mixed’ their approaches.

To sum up, all trainees were aware of the three approaches but were unaware of the other approaches that could be used to teach literature. Majority utilised a combination of approaches and believed that it was better than focusing on one sole approach as it allowed more holistic learning and had no specific sequence in using the combination of approaches.

**Preferable Activities used in teaching literature**

Almost all of the participants used student-centred activities in teaching literature. Two participants used ‘student-centred activities’ (Mr Saifuddin & Mr Anton) while another two (Madam Elena & Miss Vela) used both student and teacher-centred activities. Only one participant usually used teacher-centred activities but ‘tried her best to involve students too’ (Miss Katherine).

The participants used a variety of activities that focused on the content of the literary texts, language production and practice, and students’ personal development such as mind-mapping, completing diagrams or charts, creating posters, rearranging story order, storytelling, poetry composition, dramatisation and relating poems to one’s lives. Common activities were content-centred activities such as making mind maps and arranging story sequence. The following are their responses.

*The activities that I usually use are... information transfer activity, completing mind maps... dramas, storytelling,...*  
(Mr Saifuddin)

*...giving lectures... for students-centred activities... do some mind maps, completing tables or diagrams or creating posters...*  
(Madam Elena)

*...match the texts with the appropriate themes, and arrange the texts in the correct sequence...*  
(Miss Katherine)

*...mind mapping with the students... arranging story order... creating their own poems.*  
(Miss Vela)

*Usually I will use... cue cards, model, and act it out.*  
(Mr Anton)
Three participants (Miss Vela, Madam Elena and Mr. Saifuddin) believed that student-centred activities were better because of active learner engagement, more ‘hands on’, relatable to life experiences and aids memory retention.

...when the activities are student-centred, they can relate it to their experiences... So, it’s like... hands on learning. They learn more than you explaining to them. (Madam Elena)

...student-centred activities are more effective because it’s more hands on. Students do, they remember. (Miss Vela)

However, Miss Katherine believed that they are both equally important and Mr Anton is believed that it ‘depends on the students (proficiency) level’.

...I think it (teacher-centered activities) can benefit the readers sometimes but student-centred activities are also very important... if you focus more on your students, they can participate more... and they can learn more (Miss Katherine)

....I think student-centred is very, very good. ...If teacher-centred, the teacher is doing the talking but the students (experience) just spoon feeding... and the students cannot get anything. (It) Depends on the students’ level... (Mr Anton)

When asked if a particular activity has a corresponding approach, four participants answered negatively and mentioned that the activities could be ‘mixed up’ depending on the teacher. However, Miss Katherine used ‘teacher-centred activities’ for the ‘content-approach’ but concluded that ‘on the overall, there’s no specific activity’.

To sum up, most participants used student-centred activities and believed that student-centred activities were better than teacher-centred ones. They utilised a variety of activities that focused on content, language and students’ personal development with content-centred activities as common activities. All participants agreed at the end that there were no specific activities for a particular approach, which is inaccurate.

**Factors Influencing Selection of Approaches and Activities**

The dominant factors influencing the participants’ selection of approaches and activities are students’ language proficiency, ICT facilities and time allocation. Other factors include students’ cultural background, motivation and the literary texts.

Three participants named the most important factor as the students’ language proficiency

...I think the major factor here is the students’ command of English. (Mr Saifuddin)
The first (factor) is student’s proficiency level…  
(Madam Elena)

...I will look at the students’ level of understanding in English... whether they are beginner, intermediate or advanced.  
(Mr Anton)

Two participants mentioned ‘lack of ICT facilities’ as a major factor (Miss Vela and Miss Katherine).

Most importantly, the facilities in the classroom; whether there is an LCD projector or not, because if there is no LCD projector, I can’t teach using powerpoint slides, videos, songs and etc. And I can only use ‘mah-jong’ (flip) paper, handouts…  
(Miss Katherine)

Another factor is time allocation:

... The duration of your lesson. Is it forty minutes or... eighty minutes.  
(Mr Saifuddin)

...the time frame... if the period is only 40 minutes, it’s not suitable for drama and act it out...  
(Mr Anton)

Other factors are ‘students’ background’ which includes ‘religion, culture or ethnic group’ (Madam Elena), the lack of ‘motivation’ especially among weaker students (Miss Vela) and ‘the types of literature text’ (Miss Katherine).

Confidence Level in Teaching Literature

Three participants felt fairly confident in their abilities (Mr Saifuddin, Madam Elena and Mr Anton). Below is one such response.

Yes, I think I am well trained in teaching literature because I have been exposed to many types of literary texts, many types of strategies in developing student’s interest in learning literature..  
(Mr Saifuddin)

When asked if they were well-trained, majority felt that they were not very well-trained but they kept a positive attitude.

Not well trained but well prepared. Adequately prepared for teaching. But you learn along the way you know.  
(Madam Elena)

...Kind of but I don’t dare to say that I am well-trained. There’s still room for improvement and I still need to learn a lot.  
(Miss Katherine)

Not really. Especially for teaching weak students. I will learn along the way.  
(Mr Anton)
Well-trained using the old syllabus but not for the new one

(Miss Vela)

Discussion

Preferable Approaches and Activities used by the Participants

From the findings, it can be concluded that all the participants interviewed had reasonable knowledge of the approaches. They knew the basic approaches well but were ignorant of the other approaches. However, they believed that there were no specific activities for a particular approach and this is inaccurate as the activities are usually dependent on the philosophy behind the approaches utilised (Lazar, 1993).

Most participants utilised a combination of approaches in teaching literature and preferred mixing the approaches. Table 2 shows the activities and corresponding approaches utilised.

Table 2.0 Activities employed by participants and their corresponding approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Activities employed</th>
<th>Corresponding Approach(es) Utilised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr Saifuddin</td>
<td>) information transfer activity,</td>
<td>Content-based Approach /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>) completing mind maps,</td>
<td>Information-based Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madam Elena</td>
<td>) completing tables or diagrams</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>) matching texts to appropriate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madam Elena</td>
<td>) themes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>) arranging texts and stories in correct sequence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Katherine</td>
<td>f) lectures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp; Miss Vela</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madam Elena</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Saifuddin</td>
<td>a) dramatization</td>
<td>Language-based Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Anton</td>
<td>) using cue cards, modelling, and role playing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Saifuddin</td>
<td>a) storytelling</td>
<td>Paraphrastic Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss Vela</td>
<td>a) creating own poems</td>
<td>Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach/Personal Response Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madam Elena</td>
<td>b) creating posters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the findings, even though most participants used a combination of approaches, the most common approach and activities used are Content or Information-based Approach and activities. This is similar to Hwang & Embi, (2007), Rashid et al., (2010), Mustakim et al., (2014), and Ling and Chen, (2016) who found that teachers display a preference for the Content-based Approach. However, the findings are also concurrently dissimilar to Hwang and Embi, (2007) and Ling and Chen, (2016) because the Moral Philosophical Approach was not at all favoured by the participants in this study. The findings also differ from Hwang and Embi, (2007) who found that teachers did not like using Language-based approaches. Here, the Language based-approach and Literature for Personal Enrichment Approach are the second most commonly used approach.

Almost all the participants used student-centred activities in teaching literature with a variety of activities that focused on content, language, and personal development such as mind-mapping, creating posters, storytelling, poetry writing, and dramatization. In fact, most participants believed that student-centred activities are better due to active learning and students’ engagement. They also believed that both types of activities are equally important and the effectiveness is closely connected to students’ proficiency. While most participants seem to favour Content-based activities, Language-based and Personal Response activities were not ignored. This is similar yet different from Hwang & Embi, (2005), Rashid et al., (2010) & Mustakim et al., (2014) who found that most teachers in school prefer activities that are information-based and teacher centred.

**Factors influencing the selection of approaches or activities**

Important factors that influenced the selection of approaches and activities were students’ language proficiency, ICT facilities, and time allocation for the lesson. Students’ cultural background, motivation and the difficulty of the literary texts were also factors.

The findings on students’ proficiency and motivation being factors in the selection of approaches and activities coincide with Hwang and Embi, (2007), Rashid et al., (2010), and Mustakim et al., (2013). In the research by Hwang and Embi, (2007), factors such as students’ interest, attitudes, class size and completion of the English syllabus within a given period.
influenced the teachers’ usage of literature teaching activities while in Rashid et al.’s research, students’ proficiency was a major factor.

The findings in this research differ from Ling and Chen, (2016) who found that teachers selected their approaches to ensure students understand the literary texts and for exam purposes. The reason why preparation for examination was not a factor in this study could be because the participants have only taught for a few months during the teaching practice and was not under pressure to ensure students perform in examinations.

ICT is also one important finding and this could be because the participants are the Y-Generation where ICT is very important and have been pedagogically trained to teach using ICT in the 21st century. Thus, they may find the sudden lack of ICT facilities in schools shocking, causing them to fall back on more traditional methods that utilise pen and paper for teaching. Likewise, Yunus and Suliman, (2014) noted that teachers possess positive attitudes towards the use of ICT in teaching literature but real usage of ICT in classroom did not match the positive attitudes.

Confidence level in teaching literature

Most participants felt fairly confident of their abilities and were positive about teaching literature. Nevertheless, they felt they were not very well-trained especially in teaching weak students and the new literature component as the component kept changing every few years. Likewise, Subramaniam et al., (2003) study found that teachers were not very confident in teaching literature but had a positive attitude towards the component. However, this differs from Rashid et al., (2010) where most teachers were negative about teaching the component to less proficient students.

Implications and Conclusion

Some findings from this research have contradicted the literature reviewed especially in terms of the approaches and activities used in teaching literature. While both in-service and trainee teachers displayed a preference for content-based approaches, trainee teachers utilised a combination of approaches including the language-based approach which was often less employed by in-service teachers. The trainee teachers also displayed a preference for student-centred activities in teaching literature while most in-service teachers generally employed teacher-centred activities. Although these comparisons were made, this study is limited.
From this research, it can be identified that ESL trainees possess optimism and the desire to move towards 21st century learning where active learning and student-centred activities, facilitated by ICT are very much emphasized. However, as the trainees lack pedagogical training for teaching weak students and require more training for the new literature component, existing Malaysian TESL courses need to be fine-tuned to cater to these two critical needs. In addition, because there is a mismatch between pedagogical training using ICT and the reality of ICT challenges in schools, teacher training should encompass pedagogical training sans ICT or ICT facilities should be improved in Malaysian schools.

As proficiency level is one of most common problems, policy makers should select more local texts to arouse students’ interest and bridge their cultural background to the texts. After all, Malaysia is rich in folklores. As this study is limited, further research may be carried out to glean more information about the differences in ESL trainees’ and teachers’ teaching approaches and cover the gaps between them so that the teaching of literature can be made more effective in the 21st century.

References


Student and Teacher Perceptions on the Role of ICTS in Promoting Instruction for Quality Teaching and Learning in Central Sulawesi, Indonesia

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Abstract
The main purpose of this study is to investigate student and teacher perceptions on the role of ICTs in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as well as the obstacles that they face while integrating them. To obtain participant perceptions towards the role of web-based instructional materials, questionnaires are distributed to 37 students from Non-English department and 7 English lecturers at Tadulako University Central Sulawesi. This study applies a qualitative descriptive approach. Findings show that there are positive perception both students and teachers regarding the integration of ICTs in the process of teaching and learning and they expect their teachers integrate more varieties of ICT mediums mainly instructional materials that access through internet. The major barrier facing by respondents is inadequate skill to integrate ICTs in classroom and insufficient devices as well as access of internet. The study indicates that both students and teachers should receive training to acquire ICTs skills and the need to the improvement of ICTs in order to enhance quality teaching and learning. The findings of this study can be useful for teachers and educational authorities to take into consideration the results of this study.

Keywords: Perceptions, the role of ICTs, Instructional materials for EFL students
Introduction

It is a well-known fact that over the years, the development of information and communication technology has spread widely all over the world. The expansion of technology has no boundaries. Most aspects of human life have been touched and affected by technology development. Technology is probably one of the most important keys to the development of social, cultural, and political values as well as education. It can be said that technological developments have produced continuous changes in every sector of modern society. Information and Communication Technology is, in fact, now regarded as “one of the building blocks of modern society” (UNESCO, 2002) and is now considered as one of the indices that should be used to assess societies’ development. Many countries globally now regard the acquisition of ICT skills as part of their “core education, alongside reading, writing and numeracy” (UNESCO, 2002).

ICT has the potential to enable teachers and students to construct rich, multi-sensory, interactive environments with an almost unlimited teaching and learning potential (Balanskat et al., 2006). Moreover, teaching English language learners through technology explores the use of computers and technology as pedagogical tools to aid in the appropriate instruction of English language learners (ELLs) across all content areas (Erben et al. cited in Fictorius, 2013).

A number of studies have been done to prove the effectiveness of ICT in educational settings. This study is done to direct our attention to the shift of EFL teaching through technology and reveal both student and teacher perceptions toward the integration of ICT in promoting instruction for enhancing learning and teaching. Also, the study explores the obstacles faced by the students and teachers while implementing ICTs at classroom. The goal is to achieve a better means of integrating ICT sin teaching and learning to promote quality education in Indonesia generally and at Tadulako university.

Literature Review

Technology is used in almost every aspect of instruction, and it has been known to promote and facilitate learning. Over the past decade several studies have been conducted to examine the effect of the integration of ICT on teaching and learning. At present, ICT, in the form of computers, electronic whiteboards, multimedia and the Internet, are seen as essential educational classroom tools. ICT is recognized as a modern tool that enables educators to modify their teaching methods and techniques in order to increase students’ interest (Thapaliya, 2014). Undoubtedly, ICT has impacted on the quality and quantity of teaching and learning
(Yusuf, 2005). As ICT facilitates communication and increases access to information, there is greater access to learning for students. Further, ICT also motivates students to develop problem solving capabilities (Selinger, 2000). Moreover, ICT can enhance teaching and learning through its dynamic, interactive, and engaging content and it can provide real opportunities for individualized instruction (Yusuf, 2005).

However, without competent users or an effective instructor to facilitate ICT change in institutions, most of the advantages of ICT integration will not be achieved. Osborne and Hennessy (2003) argued that the role of teachers is significant, as they create the conditions for effective ICT integration. Therefore, ICT is considered a tool that creates and facilitates change in the practices and behaviors of teachers and students. Grabe and Grabe (1996) also note that the effective use of computers for instruction as part of ICT depends on how they are being used. This means that although computers are appropriate tools to support teaching and learning, they will never replace the flexibility of the teacher. This is in line with Levy (1997) who states that instruction integrated with ICTs can be effective if attention is suitably paid to the complementary roles of computers and teachers in the instructional process (as cited in Wah, 2006).

Within the context of ICT’s integration in education, Trucano (2005) argued that ICT use has the potential to transform teaching and learning processes from a more teacher-centered to a more student-centered approach and that this transformation will result in increased learning gains for students. This statement is also strengthened by Balanskat et al., (2006) whose research findings show that teachers believe that the educational achievements of students improve through ICT use and that both strong and weak students benefit from ICT use. Teachers observed that when ICT is used in the classroom, pupils work more in cohesion with their own learning styles, resulting in a more favorable impact on both academically strong and weak students. In addition, students assume greater responsibility for their own learning and working more independently and effectively when using ICT.

Similar research conducted by Lai and Pratt between 2001 and 2004. Their study aimed at investigating teachers’ perceptions of the teaching and learning effects of ICT use in 26 secondary schools. The study results indicated that the integration of ICT in educational practice had a number of positive social and motivational effects on the learners, including increased interest and engagement, and that the social and motivational effects were more frequently observed than cognitive and learning effects. Teachers reported an improvement in the presentation of work, an increased sharing of resources, greater collaboration between students and an increased motivation for learning as a result of greater student engagement. However,
The growing use of ICT in foreign language learning has changed the face of language teaching and learning in a beneficial way and will continue to do so along with future technological innovations. ICT and the internet in particular provide language learners with the opportunity to use the language that they are learning in meaningful ways in authentic contexts. The internet provides easy and fast access to current and authentic materials in the target language, which is extremely motivating for the language learner (Kumar & Tammelin, 2008; Erben et al., 2009).

In addition, Kumar & Tammelin (2008) point out that with the help of ICT based tools and the constantly growing numbers of available educational resources, language teachers are able to provide learners with individual and personalized guidance. The use of several media—audio, video, authentic contexts and real world experiences help language learners with different learning styles to assimilate the content according to their needs. Moreover, learning supported by internet-based tools can promote learner autonomy through the infusion of ICT, which allows students to work collaboratively in pairs or small groups where they can engage in interactive problem-solving or cooperative projects. In other words, the application of ICT provides increased opportunities for communication between peer learners. This made possible as tasks for exchanging information in real time or by participating in blogs, team work on projects and other forms of written communication are easily facilitated through ICT tools.

Computers as part of ICTs are used in education for a variety of reasons (Sarfo & Gyimah, 2010). In most higher education contexts, like that of Tadulako University, computers are used to aid administrative activities that drive the management of the whole organisation as one entity. Moreover, computers are increasingly used as instructional tools. Furthermore, most universities include computer components (e.g., computer applications in accounting, design and technology, medicine, and curriculum development) as elective subjects. More importantly, computers are used to facilitate learning and instructional purposes.

The effectiveness of computer media for instruction according to Kozma & Macghee (2003) reveals that there is widespread acceptance of the fact that computer technology can play a key role in enhancing teaching and learning. Integrating technology into the classroom through web-based learning and teaching is still relatively a new concept (Marsh, 2012) but recent research reports that 98 percent agreed that one of the roles of a computer was “a complement to classroom teaching” (Ruthven-Stuart, 2003). This concept is also
stressed by Vander Westhuizen, 2004 as cited in Adesoji, 2012), who points out that the integration of ICT in learning has great potential for improving communication interactively between teachers and their students.

Crystal (1997) stated using multimedia technology in teaching English as a foreign language can help the learners increase their independence and solve some of the difficulties experienced in a traditional classroom. In other words, ICTs provides an opportunity for learners being less dependent and gives them more freedom to experience learning on their own in a natural or semi-natural settings. Additionally, Cahyani and Cahyono (2012) investigated ICT practices and their attitudes towards ICT among 37 Indonesian teachers teaching English as foreign language in different level. They believed that use of ICTs in the class help students to learn English better. They argued that teachers did not use ICTs in the class because of lack availability, exposure and training to devise appropriate pedagogical model. Therefore, teachers must be competent and confident in technical, pedagogical and content knowledge for technology to be used effectively in the classroom. It is imperative, therefore, for teachers to be afforded opportunities to develop their skills not only in technology but in pedagogy associated with technology use. That is, they must be assisted in developing technological pedagogical content knowledge (Mishra and Koehler, 2007).

In a nutshell, a number of studies have been described above that concern on the important and impact of ICTs integrated in educational settings, therefore, this pilot project focuses on students’ perceptions toward ICTs integration in classroom since they are clients to receive the serve and teachers’ perception to find out their capability integrating the ICTs in the process of learning and teaching.

Methodology

Participant

The participants of this study were 37 students and 7 lecturers from English Foreign Language (EFL) Department of Tadulako University. Consideration for choosing those students are since they have studied during the three semesters and they have experience and perception how their class running underdone by their lecturers.

Data Collection

Since this study aimed to examine perceptions of student and teacher of EFL towards the role of ICT in classroom instruction to enhance learning, the descriptive research design was selected as the most appropriate design. In this study quantitative method was used
in order to collect data. To determine perceptions of participants towards the ICTs, a questionnaire was used to obtain the data and the results of this questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively. There are separated questionnaire distributed to the students and lecturers. Questionnaire for students are concerned on students’ interest in the integration of instruction in classroom, their capability using ICT tools and access using the tools while questionnaire for lecturers are more concerned on teachers’ perception of technology integration in process of instruction. It consisted of a number of sub-themes that investigated teachers’ perceptions of their technology competencies and usage, students’ usage of technology, and problems hindering technology integration. The data elicited from the questionnaires were descriptively analyzed and presented in terms of frequencies (f) and percentages (%).

Findings and Discussion

Questionnaire for Students:

This questionnaire are provided to gather the perception of students on the effectiveness of ICT in improving teaching and learning in terms of; 1) cost of retrieving information, 2) in depth coverage of academic topics, 3) ease of getting information, 4) speed of getting information, 5) convenience, 6) availability, 7) reliability, 8) coverage of numbers of subjects, 9) ease in giving students assignment, 10) being interesting to consult. These 10 items questionnaire shown in table 1, ICT usage was compared with text book in order to improve teaching and learning.

Table 1. Comparison of students’ perception of books and ICT as a source for teaching, and learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>tbooks</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Which of the two sources do you find costlier to</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one has in depth of coverage to topics?</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one is easier to get information?</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the sources is quicker to get information?</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one is more convenient to get information?</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the sources is more available</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one is more reliable?</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one provides information on more subjects?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which of the sources is easier for students?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which one do you enjoy consulting more?</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1, ICT usage was rated higher than textbooks by the students as a source for teaching and learning. This shows that students mostly prefer use ICT than textbooks as a source of information for teaching and learning, though ICT was found costlier than books to get
information. This finding is supported by the fact that 81% student response high cost of computer and related ICT information bearing sources are costly. Nonetheless, students more likely to use ICT (over 80%) since they can search and obtain information quicker, easier, and more convenience. However, dealing with the available source provided by institution, 54% students responded that textbooks are more available than ICT devices. This is reasonable, in fact, only language laboratory provided computers, while none of regular classes have computer provided, lecturers and students have to bring their personal laptop if they required to use in the process of instruction. Similarly, when students are asked which one they enjoy consulting more, textbooks or ICT, majority of the respondents rated textbooks are more enjoyable than ICT. It is understandable based on the reason that access of ICT in classroom is still unavailable.

Table 2 Frequency use of ICT by students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICT Facilities</th>
<th>Once a week</th>
<th>Twice a week</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CD–ROM</td>
<td>(0)%</td>
<td>(0)0%</td>
<td>(0)0%</td>
<td>(10) 3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>(9)24%</td>
<td>(18)48%</td>
<td>(10)28%</td>
<td>(0) 0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>(2)5%</td>
<td>(10)28%</td>
<td>(25)68%</td>
<td>(0) 0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>(5)13%</td>
<td>(22)60%</td>
<td>(8)22%</td>
<td>(2) 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scanner</td>
<td>(25)68%</td>
<td>(5)13%</td>
<td>(2)5%</td>
<td>(3) 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over Head Projector</td>
<td>(28)76%</td>
<td>(2)5%</td>
<td>(2)5%</td>
<td>(5) 14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile phone</td>
<td>(0)0%</td>
<td>(0)0%</td>
<td>(37)100%</td>
<td>(0) 0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that none of the students use CD-ROM during a week, only 3% students use it occasionally. It seems that CD-ROM no longer became a favor device for students. Mobile phone, computers and internet access are the highest rate use mostly every day. It is acceptable because having and access those devices become affordable and easier. However, these devices are not provided by institution and internet access is not reachable in classroom. Those signified that students use ICT devices were the highest with a total of 100% which shows that ICT use daily.

Table 3. How do you use the following sources while searching for information?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of information</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CD–ROM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facsimile</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital camera</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scanner</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projector multimedia</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Phone</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows the use of the sources while searching for information. Internet as a source of ICT came first with 100%. In order to access internet, students have to have their personal laptop to search information and its access located outside the classroom. This data shows that mostly students use internet with ICT facilities in Tadulako University.

Table 4. Which of the following ICT resources do you use?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of ICT resources by</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CD-ROM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers/Laptop</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facsimile</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital Camera</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scanner</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over Head Projector (OHP)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile Phone</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same result is for the ICT resources that the students use (Table 4). It was similarly indicated that students use the ICT resources such as; laptop, internet access, printer, and mobile phone mostly with a percentage of 100% in the university of Tadulako. It means that ICTs become favorable devices to facilitate their learning.

**Questionnaire for Lecturers:**

The questionnaires for lecturers are more concerned on teachers’ perception of technology integration in process of instruction. It consisted of a number of sub-themes that investigated teachers’ perceptions of their technology competencies and usage, students’ usage of technology, and problems hindering technology integration.

Table 5: Teachers’ Perceptions of their Competencies to Technology Integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Lecturers’ Perception</th>
<th>No. Participant</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I am proficient in the use of common input and output devices</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I can use content-specific tools (e.g., software, simulation, environmental probes, graphing calculators, exploratory environments, Web tools) to support learning and research</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. I can use technology tools to process data and report results. | 3 | 42
4. I have a strong understanding of the nature and operation of technology systems. | 3 | 42
5. I can choose learning and technology resources | 4 | 57
6. I can use technology resources to facilitate higher order and complex thinking skills, including problem solving, critical thinking, informed decision-making, knowledge construction, and creativity | 3 | 42
7. I can troubleshoot common computer problems. | 2 | 28
8. I can use technology in the development of strategies for solving problems in the real world. | 3 | 42
9. I can use technology tools and resources for managing and communicating information (e.g., finances, schedules, addresses, purchases, correspondence). | 3 | 42
10. I can evaluate and select new information resources and technological innovations based on their appropriateness to specific tasks | 3 | 42
11. I can use a variety of media and formats, including telecommunications, to collaborate, publish, and interact with peers, experts, and other audiences. | 2 | 28

The table results above indicated that teachers’ appropriately regard their competencies in technology integration. The percentage scores ranged from 28% to 100%. This appropriate perception by teachers might be due to the fact that technology integration in classrooms is still only for supporting the instruction, grasps students’ attention, and makes learning interesting. Investigating the items in detail, the highest percentage scores were for items that are related to teachers’ ability to use common input and output devices, and ability using technology to choose learning and technology resources. Following by depth interview for supporting the data, most teachers were willing to use technology, expressed positive perceptions, however the lack of training dealing with technology integration were unavailable provided by institution.
Table 6: Teachers’ Perceptions of Obstacles Related to Successful Technology Integration in classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Obstacles</th>
<th>No. participants</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The teacher does not have much time to prepare and implement them</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Not enough encouragement to use them</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Curricula are not ready to use such new technologies</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Qualified staff for the labs are not available to help</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Equipped labs are not available in campus</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Technologies are not available in campus</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How do teachers perceive obstacles related to successful technology integration in the classroom? The results showed that teachers perceive time, not enough encouragement to use them, curriculum, and unavailable staff to help setting the ICTs as major obstacles that hinder their technology integration in their classrooms. Other obstacles are limited access to ICTs such as unavailable equipped language laboratory as well classroom that facilitate computers and internet. The obtained data followed by interview that indicated that there is a lack of training on how to integrate technology effectively. Most teachers depend on self-learning. They need to be involved in subjects that enable them to learn technology integration techniques and strategies so they can use it successfully in their classes.

Table 7: Teachers’ Perceptions of their Students’ Usage of Technology in classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. Participant</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Students are interacting and communicating differently with the help of technology</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Students become more independent learners as a result of technology.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Students are more engaged in learning due to technology</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Student understanding of academic subjects has deepened due to technology use</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Students use technology to improve their</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Students are developing online research expertise. 4 57
7. Students do more assignment when outside classroom 3 43
8. The primary student-related use of technology is to teach students how to use the technology itself. 7 100
9. Students use technology in at least some of their regular classrooms 7 100

How do teachers perceive their students’ usage of technology in the classroom?” The results showed that teachers had high perception of students’ usage of technology. They reported high usage of technology for interaction and communication, independent learning, engagement in learning, and understanding of academic subjects. Nevertheless, the high of teachers’ perception on the usage of technology in classroom and language laboratory that conducted are occasionally. In fact, Tadulako University has not equipped with ICT in every classroom. Regular classroom is only equipped with white board, OHP if required, and personal notebook that brought by students and teachers. It can be concluded that ICTs are not sufficient provided by institution which is controversial with the willingness of students’ usage of technology.

Table 8: Teachers’ Perceptions of their Usage of Technology Tools in Classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. Participants</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Over Head Projector</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Tape Recorder</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Mobile Phone</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Scanner</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To what extent do teachers perceive their usage of technology tools in the classroom?”, Results indicated that teachers use a number of technologies in their classrooms such as computer that using for power point presentation equipped with OHP, tape recorder is used for practice listening skill, and internet used in classroom is only 57%. This is due to unavailable internet access in classroom.

Conclusion

Based on the study result shown above, it can be concluded that student and teachers have positive perception towards the integration of ICT in the instructional process. The results revealed that among the basic computer competency sub-divisions, student and teachers indicated competency in general computer operation, word processing, downloading and using basic internet resources.

Some problems facing the development of ICT in Tadulako University include the fact that there is limited infrastructural facilities particularly in EFL classroom, and difficulties in infusing Internet access into the instructional process. The findings underscore the need to provide student-teachers on ICT training with needed hand-on experiences so as to promote effective integration of ICT throughout the curriculum by students and teachers.

It is very important that these problems are addressed to the university decision makers since it is the students and teachers that would produce high quality and qualify human resources. Also, training of ICT should be made lecturers to be able to integrate ICT-based methodology into their lectures, and also, all classrooms should be equipped with necessary infrastructure and, lastly, all students should be provided with access to media laboratories whenever they require.

Acknowledgement

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Improving English Speaking Ability through Task-Based Learning Approach

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Abstract
This study was aimed to find out whether the use of task based learning approach improves students’ speaking ability. The research methodology used was an action research developed by Kemmis and McTaggart with the spiral model by phases: planning, action, observation, and reflection. The data gathered from tests (pre-test, test of cycle 1, cycle 2, and cycle 3), observation, and field notes. The data on the students’ speaking ability were analysed using descriptive qualitative and quantitative. The result showed that the pre-test average student score = 16.66%, cycle 1 = 20.00%, cycle 2 = 66.66%, cycle 3 = 83.33%. Thus, concluded that the students’ speaking ability can be improved through task-based learning approach.

Keywords: Improving, Speaking, Task Based Learning Approach

Introduction
English has played important role in the life of the Indonesian people for many years due to its influence on education, careers and economics. Having English skills encourages learners to communicate with foreigners comfortably, understand differences in culture and hold positive attitudes towards using English (Genc & Bada, 2005). Bailey and Savage (1994) state that to communicate on a daily basis, speaking is a necessary and basic skill that also helps an English learner become a good reader and writer spontaneously. In addition, Ellis (2003) points
out that the main purpose of a learner studying English as a Second Language (ESL) is to reach a personal goal to achieve success.

Problem in learning and teaching English as a foreign language is closely related to teachers and students. In this case some of the problems of learning is influenced by the methods used by teachers in teaching. Lochana and Deb (2006) state that almost all foreign language teachers to teach the language by lecturing and focusing on grammatical rules instead of language use. It is much more effective to teach language from context and meaning (Ellis, 2003).

In the process of English teaching and learning at teacher training and education faculty, University of Mataram, English lecture mainly employ the traditional teacher-centered approach in which teachers monopolize the learning and teaching process. According to Nunan (2004), learners do not like teachers who spend most of class time lecturing. Lecturing time demotivates them because they do not like being passive in class. Consequently, learners have limited input to the learning process.

Hashim (2006) states that learning a language is like the blossoming of colorful flowers growing in the lush garden. A positive environment and it provides an opportunity for students to communicate in the target language in the authentic situations be part of the process of success in learning a language. Therefore, Lochana and Deb (2006) suggested to replace the traditional teaching approaches into communicative language teaching (CLT). Communicative language teaching approach recommends the teaching of English through a variety of fun activities. This approach gives students the opportunity to express their ideas on current practice and using the language learned. There are several approaches that have been developed to improve the ability of students in English include task-based learning, game-based approach (games activities), approach-based camps, and others.

In related to this study, the writer conducted a study on such approach that is task-based learning approach. This approach is a practical approach in learning that have variety of activities and challenges students to think independently and improve their capabilities. Muller (2006) asserts that teachers are implementing task-based learning approach have increased their confidence because they feel applying this method in a faculty meeting and facilitate a more natural communication to develop the skills of the target language is being learned by the students.

Meanwhile, Nunan (2004) said that there are at least two advantages of task-based learning approach in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). First, this approach
provides language learning experience in the classroom, and the second task-based approaches focus on learning to use the language naturally with the task at hand together - in pairs (pair work) and groups (group work).

Due to the speaking skill as one of the subject in English Department of teacher training and education faculty, university of Mataram, a lecture must seek and find methods, approaches, and techniques that are more effective. By applying the various techniques, lectures can make learning more interesting for students. In speaking skills, Spratt, et al state that a person is able to speak when he/she fulfills three components: (1) accuracy, (2) fluency, and (3) pronunciation. Aware of the issues and the importance of improving students’ speaking ability, the writer considers that it necessary to seek the alternative approaches in order to increase students’ English speaking ability of English Department of teacher training and education faculty, university of Mataram. The alternative approach that the writer means is task-based learning approach.

Methodology

This study uses action research developed by Kemmis and Mc. Taggart (1999) with the spiral model in phases: planning, action, observation and reflection through task-based learning approach. The Qualitative data was obtained by observation, field notes, and documentation of photographs of the learning process in the classroom. Meanwhile, the quantitative data obtained by test (pre-test, evaluation group discussion in cycle 1, cycle 2, cycle 3). Furthermore, the data were analyzed in two ways analysis of qualitative data and quantitative.

Findings and Discussion

The results of student activities during the pre-test can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows. On the number of students counted 30 students in the pre-test: no one student (0.00%) was very good, 2 students (6.66%) were good, 3 students (10.00%) were enough, 2 students (6.66%) were less, and 23 students (76.66%) were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.
Chart. 1: Students’ result of Pre-test observation

In the following chart below shows that students’ completed score in the pre-test: there were 5 students (16.00%) have been completed and 25 students (83.33%) who have not completed. Students completed score can be seen in the following chart.

Chart. 2: Students completed score of English Speaking Ability

The result of students’ observation activities of the cycle 1 can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows: 3 students (10.00%) were very good, 1 student (3.33%) was good, 2 students (6.66%) were enough, 5 students (16.66%) were less, and 19 students (63.33%) were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.

Chart. 3: Students' result of Cycle 1 observation
In the chart below shows that students completed score in the first cycle: 3 students (10.00%) have been completed and 27 students (90.00%) who have not completed. Students’ completed score can be seen in the following chart.

![Chart 4: Students’ completed score of cycle 1](image)

**Chart. 4: Students’ completed score of cycle 1**

The result of students’ observation activities of the cycle 2 can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows: 7 students (23.33%) were very good, 8 students (26.66%) were good, 5 students (16.66%) were enough, 6 students (20.00%) were less, and 4 students (13.33%) were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.

![Chart 5: Students’ result of cycle 2 observation](image)

**Chart. 5: Students’ result of cycle 2 observation**

In the chart below shows that students completed score in the second cycle: 20 students (66.66%) have been completed and 10 students (33.33%) who have not completed. Students’ completed score can be seen in the following chart.

![Chart 6: Students’ completed score of cycle 2](image)

**Chart. 6: Students’ completed score of cycle 2**

The result of students observation activities of the cycle 3 can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows: 10 students (33.33%) were very good, 8 students (26.66%) were good,
7 students (23.33%) were enough, 3 students (10.00%) were less, and 2 students (6.66%) were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.

![Chart 7: Students’ result of cycle 3 observation](image)

In the chart below shows that students completed score in the third cycle: 25 students (83.33%) have been completed and 5 students (16.66%) who have not completed. Students’ completed score can be seen in the following chart:

![Chart 8: Students’ completed score of cycle 3](image)

**Discussion**

In relation to speaking, Ur (1996) states that "If a person is mastering a language, he intuitively be able to speak that language." This expression clearly identifies that the speech showed an indication that one knows a language. Based on the sustained observation to the students who take courses of speaking in English Department, it found that students have inadequate ability in speaking English.

The problems found include accuracy, fluency and pronunciation of the language. In the matter of fluency and pronunciation, students tend to stutter or hesitate in expressing their ideas. When they were questioned or asked to express their ideas, they tend to be a long pause and think about what and how to express those ideas. In a matter of accuracy, students often make grammatical errors by disregarding the rules of language.
In order to improve students' speaking ability through task-based learning approach, Richard (2001) mentioned that by implementing task-based learning learners perform an activity related to negotiate meaning, paraphrase and perform experiments that will lead to the growth of language learners succeed.

Task-based learning approach is adapting all the concept of thought that puts learners in the primary position. This approach gives the opportunity: a) using a contextual language; b) explore the target language through situational activities; and c) learning experience that cannot be duplicated in the classroom. For this reason, the role of teachers is very central to the success of task-based activities in the class.

By the end of the implementation of task-based learning approach, the problems in the aspect of accuracy, fluency and pronunciation can be solved. Students were able to achieve the minimum completed score that is referring to the standard assessment of teacher training and education faculty, University of Mataram.

Conclusion

The ability of students in English speaking at speaking subject by looking at three aspects: accuracy, fluency and pronunciation showed an increase over the time. There are significant differences between the data's ability to speak English before using task-based learning approach and the ability to speak English after using of task-based learning approach.

References


The Effective Use of Error Categorization Matrix in Improving Students Writing Skill

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Abstract
The objective of this study is developing feedback strategies by incorporating Error Categorization Matrix (ECM) to improve students’ writing skill. The population of the study was 22 students, second semester of English Education department at State Institute of Islamic Studies of Palopo, in Academic Year 2014/2015. The collected data from this study were analyzed using descriptive analysis. The result showed the students’ average score in English writing increased sharply to 83.63 compares to their pre-test score of 61.36 on average. This study also showed that the use of ECM as a feedback technique effectively contributed to the improvement of L2 student writing, especially in reducing grammatical problems.

Keywords: Error, Feedback, Error Categorization Matrix, Error Analysis

Introduction
The study aims at developing feedback strategies by incorporating Error Categorization Matrix (ECM) to improve students’ writing skill, help learners to evaluate their language performances, and to foster their language skills improvement (Underwood & Tredigdo, 2006).
However, scholars still discuss the level of feedbacks suitable to develop writing. Some scholars believe that focusing on content will be much effective to improve students’ writing while others argue feedback on form will contribute more to the writing development (Hyland, 2010).

Ashwell (2000) arguing that even without feedbacks students could show an increasing score simply by rewriting their assignments. However, other experts for example Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, and Takashima (2008); Bates 2011; disagree. Either on content or on forms, feedback would improve students’ writing especially their long-term writing ability (Hyland, 2010). However, many studies do not provide any measurement methods of feedback. Therefore, teachers on their own are expected to find methods, give and design effective feedback suit their classrooms (Underwood & Tredigdo, 2006).

Error Analysis and Students’ Writing

Errors are unavoidable and natural phenomena in teaching and learning contexts (Tizon, 2016). In the EFL/ESL contexts, views on errors had evolved from ‘error prevention’ to ‘learning from errors’ (Lu, 2010). The errors prevention views errors as bad things, ‘deviations of the code’, and signs of failure in learning. Thus, teaching-learning directed students to completely avoid errors by repeating drill patterns and correct sentences (Klassen, 1991).

On the contrary, the Communicative Approach pioneered to treat errors as important parts, teaching sources, and as tools for learning the language (Lu, 2010). Teachers’ identification and analysis on students’ errors will be able to improve, especially, their grammatical knowledge. However, it is not enough. Teachers should also understand other errors aspects such as psychological reasons, first language interference, and communication strategies contribute to learners’ errors production (Hasyim, 2002).

In line with this, Corder (1982) discussed basic analysis of errors classifications and grouped them into four main categories. First, errors of omission, omitting some important elements in language production. Second, errors of addition, adding language elements that should not be presented. Third, error of selection, wrong element has been chosen to replace correct forms. The last is errors of ordering, presented wrongly sequenced elements. Although the EC only provides basic evidences for analysis, teachers and students can easily understand it procedure and able to apply it when analyzing writing errors (Tizon, 2016).
Methodology

The study was conducted and directed to identify, analyzed and categorized the 22 students’ writing errors using the Error Categorization Matrix (ECM).

Findings and Discussions

Firstly, pre-test was administered to know students’ writing ability followed by three English writing classes in April 2015. In the teaching and learning process, ECM and its systematic steps introduced to students. Then, writing compositions at low- and intermediate levels were presented and analyzed using ECM. However, by considering the students English proficiency level, the students only directed to analyze errors based on phonological and grammatical levels and excluded others. On the pre- and post-test, students were asked to write a composition in 45 minutes. Their errors then analyzed and categorized based on ECM as shown on Table 1 below:

Table 1: Students’ Pre-Test Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Errors Category</th>
<th>Phonological Frequency</th>
<th>Phonological Percentage</th>
<th>Grammatical Frequency</th>
<th>Grammatical Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the Table 1 above, students’ main problem was on the errors of omission with 94 (34.8%), while ordering category showed the lowest score, only 38 (14.1%) out of 270 students’ errors production. It is in line with Heydari and Bagheri’s study findings that most of students’ errors in writing were caused by omission and misuse of articles, prepositions, auxiliaries, lack of subject-verb agreements, and wrong word choices (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012).

It also reveals students’ average score on the pre-test is 61.36 or fair level of writing achievement based on five levels grading scale (Very Poor: 0-54, Poor: 55-59, Fair: 60-69, Good: 70-79, Very Good: 80-100). Another finding, students’ grammatical problems dominated
errors productions. Total grammatical errors outnumbered phonological errors over 50%. The finding also indicates that teachers need to put more attention on helping students developing grammatical knowledge.

Next, the post-test administered to students at the end of the study. The analysis showed that the students’ average score increased sharply compared to their pre-test score. The distribution of the students’ achievement on the test is presented below:

**Table 2: Students’ Post-test Score**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Errors Category</th>
<th>Linguistics Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phonological</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammatical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>116</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 illustrated that students’ errors of omission with 69 (37.5%) was still the highest compared to other errors categories, followed by addition problems with 56 (30.4%), substitution for 33 (17.9%), and errors of ordering 26 (14.1%). The result of this test is in similar order with the pre-test scores. However, students’ errors in the post-test significantly decreased in all four errors categories.

In addition, the post-test average score of 83.63 depicts the positive trend of students’ writing. It means that students learned and acquired knowledge from teaching-learning that applying ECM, especially in recognizing and reducing grammatical errors. The difference between students’ grammatical erroneous in the pre-test and the post-test is substantially large, 161 and 116 respectively. Moreover, although sequences, analysis, and error classification of this study focus on ECM, its findings are in line with other studies on analyzing learners’ writing (for example Chen, 2006; Heydari and Bagheri, 2012).
Conclusions
The study examined the effective use of Error Categorization Matrix (ECM) as systematic writing treatments. Based on the finding the researcher concludes that: (1) Errors in ESL/EFL contexts are unavoidable in learning. (2) The EFL/ESL students showed similar error patterns in their writing, especially errors of omission and addition. (3) The use of the Error Analysis method, in this case ECM as a feedback technique effectively contributed to learners’ writing improvement.

References

Book

Journal Article


**Book Chapter**

Korean EFL Students’ Perceptions of Instructor Interaction in a Blended Learning Class

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Abstract
This case study aimed to investigate Korean EFL students’ perceptions of instructor interaction in a blended learning class. Participants were undergraduate students enrolled in an English communication course. The data was collected from several sources including online discussion forums, semi-structured interviews, and online classroom observations. Thematic analysis procedures were used to identify key results that centered on the students’ perceptions of instructor interaction. Findings indicate a favorable view of instructor interaction in the blended learning classroom and suggestions were made to help improve instructor interaction in future classes.

Introduction
Blended learning is becoming increasingly popular in post-secondary educational institutions around the world. Blended learning includes face-to-face classes and online learning. There is limited research on Korean EFL students’ perceptions of instructor interaction in blended learning courses. The purpose of this case study was to examine Korean EFL students’ perceptions of the effectiveness of instructor interaction in a blended learning class. It is vital to give students a voice in their learning experiences. Gaining more insight into students’
learning needs can help instructors to make adjustments to current curriculum and plan more effectively for future classes.

**Literature review**

*Instructor interaction*

According to Johnson (2008), there are two sides of teaching which include the academic and the human. The human aspect of teaching can be particularly difficult for instructors, especially in an online learning environment (Palloff & Pratt, 2007). Instructor interaction indicates that the instructor is involved in the class as an active participant and learning facilitator. Interaction is important in the online learning community because it can foster a positive and engaging learning environment (Irwin & Berge, 2006) and lead to increased student satisfaction (Boiling, Hough, Krinsky, Saleem, & Stevens, 2012). Instructor interaction can include but is not limited to responding to students’ questions, participating in online discussion forums, providing feedback, sending emails, having live class sessions, and posting announcements.

*Social constructivism*

Social constructivism is connected to online learning since online language interactions are occurring (Guasch, Alvarez, & Espasa, 2010). Social constructivism is rooted in the work of Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978) who examined how knowledge is developed through interaction in social environments. During social interactions, language is a tool that is used to develop meaning. Learning through interactions is a critical component of online learning in which students and instructors share ideas with each other. Each member of the online learning community becomes an active participant in knowledge sharing (Churcher, Downs, & Tewksbury, 2014). Since online classes lack face-to-face interaction, it is vital for the instructor to create a learning environment which promotes effective communication between students and the instructor using authentic and practical activities.

**Methodology**

*Research questions*

1. How do Korean EFL students perceive the effectiveness of instructor interaction in the online component of the blended learning class?
2. What recommendations do Korean EFL students have to improve instructor interaction in the online component of the blended learning class?
A single case study design was chosen because one class was researched. The case includes students, class materials, and the online learning management system. The study was conducted for 16 weeks of class during the spring semester of 2016. Data was comprised of online discussion forums, semi-structured interviews, and online classroom observations. Participants in the study included 25 undergraduate students studying at a university in South Korea. The online component of the course primarily consisted of discussion forums and other written assignments. The online class activities and assignments were used to reinforce topics learned in the face-to-face classroom. The instructor participated in discussion forums, responded to students’ comments, provided feedback and grades, posted announcements, and sent emails regarding the course. Data analysis procedures centered on recurring primary themes and patterns (Patton, 2002) that related to instructor interaction in the online classroom.

Findings and discussion

The instructor is actively involved

Eighteen students stated that they appreciated that the instructor was actively involved in the class. Various examples were provided about instructor involvement on the discussion forum especially. The instructor replied to every student’s primary post and some additional posts. Students commented that this was helpful to learn about course topics in more depth. One student, Yong-In (male, sophomore), stated, “I like that the instructor participates often and wants to be involved in the class. It also gives me more motivation to participate because I know that the instructor looks very carefully at my work.” The students were also interested in the instructor’s perspectives about the class topics and issues.

The instructor is friendly and communication is personalized

Sixteen students reported that they found the instructor to be friendly and communication was personalized which helped encourage greater participation. Several students mentioned that they felt like it was easy to “talk” with the instructor. One student, Do-Hee (female, sophomore), stated, “My instructor tries her best to communicate with us. She replies to our postings and she is very friendly. I am glad that I had many chances to communicate with the instructor in this class.” Another student, Yoon-Soo (male, senior) stated, “I really appreciate the teacher’s sincere effort to contact and communicate with us. I like this friendly way of communicating with the teacher.”
**Recommendations for online instructor interaction**

The students had generally positive things to say about online instructor’s interaction but it is important to learn more about their perspectives regarding ways in which online instructor interaction can improve. A common suggestion provided by students was to give more prompt feedback on assignments. It generally took about one week to give feedback. Six students mentioned having online tutoring or feedback sessions with the instructor. They stated that having small group sessions or even whole class sessions would give students a chance to have more opportunities to practice English with the instructor.

An instructor’s online interaction is critical for developing a positive and welcoming online class environment. Most students reported that the instructor was highly involved in the class and that they appreciated this. Online instructor involvement is connected to student satisfaction (Boiling et al., 2012). Interaction between the instructor and students is vital because it can help motivate and encourage learners. Most students indicated that the instructor is friendly and the communication is personalized. The instructor created personalized feedback in the form of written and video comments for students through email and class assignments.

Since the instructor was researching her own students, the feedback provided is likely mostly positive and may not fully express the students’ perspectives about negative issues. The instructor intentionally chose to ask the students for recommendations that can be applied to future classes to help improve online instructor interaction. Social interaction in the online classroom is beneficial to the students, and learning occurs through social situations which also include interactions with instructors (Vygotsky, 1978). The instructor’s responsibility is not to just disseminate information, but to rather be an active participant and facilitator in the online learning community.

**Conclusions**

Instructors play an important role as classroom facilitators and provide guidance and assistance to students. Instructor interaction can help boost morale and increase student satisfaction. It is imperative for instructors to focus on the learning needs of their students. In some cases, student recommendations may not be practical because they are excessively time consuming or may not center on class learning goals. The students still should be able to share their ideas to help foster a student-centered learning environment. This study was limited to just one blended learning class. Future research can include quantitative data to get input from a larger number of students.
References


Teacher’s Motivation as a Conceptualization of Job Commitment to Predict the Teacher’s Competence of Indonesian EFL Teachers

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Abstract
A quantitative approach and descriptive analysis were used to investigate the teachers’ motivation in terms of the theory of Maslow's Need Hierarchy of the teachers’ job commitment, and how it can predict the urban EFL teacher’s competence in Indonesia. There were 42 high school English teachers as the participants from both public and private schools in urban areas. A Likert-type teacher motivation questionnaire, with 24 items that focus on job commitment and a multiple choice assessment based on the teaching competence were employed as the instruments. Descriptive statistics were used to identify and evaluate the level of teachers’ motivation and their overall teaching competence. A correlation method was applied to test the correlation of teacher motivation in terms of teachers’ job commitment towards the teachers’ competence. Findings from this study indicate that there is a significant and positive correlation ($r = 0.753$) and the $R$ square is 0.567 of teachers’ motivation in terms of teachers’ job commitment to their competence. This indicates that 56.7% of the teachers’ competence can be explained by the motivation as the conceptualization of job commitments. In other words, teachers’ motivation plays an important role in the teaching and learning process.
Keywords: teachers’ competence, teachers’ job commitment, teacher’s motivation

Introduction

Teaching is one of the professions which require high dedication and responsibilities. Not only to educate pupils, teachers are expected to inspire and motivate students in reaching their full potential. Competence and commitment are two main requirements in teaching profession. As an individual who share knowledge to others, they are expected to own a high educational background and equipped with a strong commitment to teach. However, to obtain such standards is not an instant process. It is a long journey of efforts and improvements. On the first step of all, a teacher’s need is motivation.

To be highly motivated teachers is needed to develop their competence. According to Siagian (2004: 49), motivation is the driving force that causes anyone of the members of the organization want and is willing to drive capability in the form of expertise or skill, effort and time to organize various activities responsibility and functioning of its obligations in order to achieve the objectives and various targets of organizations that have predetermined. Motivation is a general term that refers to factors that exist within the individual or organization who generate and maintain behavior that is directed to the satisfaction of certain needs or encouragement towards the achievement of objectives. Overall, work motivation is the driving force or the driving force both from within and from outside which gave rise to the desire to perform an activity or activities in performing their duties as teachers are implemented in a systematic, repeated, continuous and progressive to achieve the goal. It is implied that a teacher has a high work motivation when it will produce peak competence and performance and vice versa.

The purposes of this study were: 1) to examine the correlation of EFL teachers’ motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment and EFL teachers’ competence of high schools in Binjai, North Sumatra, (2) to identify the motivational factors of teachers’ job commitment that affect teachers’ competence.

Literature Review

This study is guided by the Hierarchy of Needs Theory proposed by Maslow (1954), which provides a theoretical framework on the teachers’ job commitment. Maicibi (2003) emphasized that the motivation theory proposed by Maslow's hierarchy of needs or known as pyramid theory that human needs in the form of rising hierarchy from lowest to highest and
concluded that when a set of unmet needs are fulfilled will be a motivator and straight sets higher requirements which never be a motivator then immediately becomes a motivator. This theory deals with the study variables in a way that if the teacher is in a position of their needs are met from the bottom level to the highest level which will be lead to high work commitment in secondary schools in Binjai district.

**Motivation**

Harmer (2001) defines motivation as a kind of internal drive that encourages a person to pursue an action. Students need to be motivated in order to gain enthusiasm and productive study behaviors, and it is a task for an educator to do so. However, in order to motivate other people, teachers must first find motivation within themselves. Thus, motivation plays a huge role to make people act. In education, motivation also contributes to make teachers and students behave/act. This paper will investigate the motivational factor based on the theory of Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory.

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory**

The framework of teachers’ motivation can be analyzed from Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs. In the theory, Maslow stated about five phases of needs that drive a human in their actions, which is illustrated in a triangle. By the lowest to the highest needs, one need can only be fulfilled after the other one has. According to the theory, there are five primary needs: physiological, safety/security, social, self-esteem and self-actualization.

The bottom need of human being is the physiological need, including food, clothing and shelter. In teaching system, means the profession has to suffice the basic lifestyle of a teacher by giving decent salary. Fulfilling this need gives a motivation to realize the next requirement, which is security need. Maslow believes that, one needs to feel safe from dangers. In doing their jobs, teachers need to feel protected from any harms in school environment, as well as feeling secure of his job position without any threats. Above it is the social/affiliates need, which is closely related to the relationships with other people. Teachers need to build connections with colleagues, students and also with other social circles. This is meant to create encouraging and affective relationships in order to grow self-esteem. Self-esteem itself is the fourth need, where human beings obtain the recognitions and know their self-worth. Teachers achieve this need by receiving acknowledgement or rewards for their competence. At the peak of the triangle, there is the need of self-actualization. As the highest level in primary needs, this is where one self
aims for self-growth and achievement. For teachers, continuous efforts are required in order to maintain and develop their competence toward a higher state. This will be actualized by having ongoing training or conferences for their professional progress. The other effective way to expand the quality of teachers is by providing scholarships for them. Thus, by having all the motivational needs, it is considered that there will be an improvement in teaching quality and teachers’ commitment in their job.

How teachers are committed to their profession is to be seen from how much their desire to be involved in their working environments (Leithwood, Menzies & Jantzi, 1994). Dannetta (2002) elaborates three subjects in which teachers place their commitment: to the organization, to teaching profession and to student learning. The commitment and dedication that a teacher pours in their daily tasks are believed to bring success to the teacher’s personal growth, career and also students’ achievements.

It can be concluded that the requirement of motivation is very important for teachers to be met. Teachers may be more committed to the improvement of their teaching. When teachers are more committed and dedicated to teaching, it will affect the quality of the performance that will directly contribute to the outstanding teachers of students in the learning process.

**Teachers’ Motivation and Job Commitment**

Teaching is one of the professions which require high dedication and responsibilities. Not only to educate pupils, teachers are expected to inspire and motivate students in reaching their full potential. To be a teacher, knowledge qualification is certainly required; however, it is believed that commitment comes first in this profession. As a leader and a role model for their students, a teacher needs to own a willingness to dedicate their time for the aim of self and students’ improvement. According to Joffress et al. (2001), teacher’s commitment will produce an effective school, students’ improvement, and satisfaction. In contrary, the lack of commitment will decrease the quality of students’ performance and the teaching itself.

Day et al. (2005) states that a teacher’s professional commitment could be achieved by putting the selflessness above all. The reason for it is that being a teacher is not merely to share the knowledge, but also to care for the students and make efforts to keep the enthusiasm in their study. Another view from Tyree (1996) about committed teachers is that they make teaching as a lifestyle—not only a job to do, but it becomes an activity they enjoy doing-. They continuously improve the quality of their teaching by thoroughly preparing and presenting their lessons, and to evaluate their teaching performances.
Thus, individuals in their professions need commitment as a strong foundation in doing their work. It is most agreeable by many authors and researchers that being committed to a job is vital, as it will lead to productive and satisfying work performances.

**EFL Teachers’ Motivation and Competence in Indonesia**

In Indonesia, the demand of teachers’ competency is getting higher as the competitive level in education increases. Teachers are expected to develop teaching skills and also awareness to keep updating the most recent knowledge. As stated by Regulation of Minister of National Education number 16 year 2007, there are four related competencies to equip a teacher:

1. Pedagogy competence: the understanding of planning, conducting and evaluating teaching-learning process to meet the students’ needs.
2. Social competence: the ability to communicate well with the students’, colleagues, students’ parents and community
3. Personality competence: Good self-qualities such as honesty, discipline and wisdom to be examples for the students
4. Professional competence: knowledge and teaching skills

In fact, with all the high requirements to meet the competencies, teachers in Indonesia are still lack of motivations. One of the main reasons is the underrated salaries, for which the teachers find challenges in fulfilling their personal needs. Furthermore, obstacles are also found especially in urban schools with the vast diversity of population. Difficulties might come from the differed point of views and behaviors from various ethnicity and religions. To sum up, there are still some issues which prevent teachers from being fully committed in their profession. It is obvious that in order to improve the quality of education in Indonesia, teachers deserve higher motivation in the professional work.

**Methodology**

For research purpose, a sample of 42 teachers was selected from seven public schools and sixteen private schools. The convenience sample was occupied in this study to meet the researcher’s convenient to reach the participants easily.

A quantitative research design was employed in the present study as this approach, by employing a questionnaire survey, as an effective way to determine the relationship between variables (Punch 2007; Bryman 2012). To ensure the anonymity of the informants was also the reason to use this design (Gillham 2000; Johnson & Turner 2003; Neuman 2006).
A Likert-scale questionnaire was employed to measure the participants’ attitudes (Johnson & Turner 2003; Denscombe, 2010). The questionnaire was composed of two sections. The first section included background information about teachers asking respondents about their gender, race, type of school, age, educational background, present assignment and work experience. Of 24 question items of Teachers Job Commitment (TJC) in the second section, which asked respondents to indicate the frequency (i.e., 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree) based on Maslow’s theory which covered the physiological needs, social needs, security needs, self-actualization needs and ego/esteem needs.

The Test of Competence (TOC) consists of thirty (30) fact-based, multiple choice items designed to assess several areas of teaching competency. The items were based on the Ministry of Education and Culture Rule of Indonesia No. 52 in 2012 about Test of Teachers’ Competence covering the teachers’ pedagogic competence and teachers’ professional competence.

**Findings and Discussion**

The participants in this study were 42 teachers from 26 schools, government and private schools in Binjai district, North Sumatera. The demographic variables used in this study as data indicates that out of most of the participants were from private schools with almost 23(54.8%) of the total number of participants may be this is due to private schools are more staffed than government schools. It also indicates both types of schools were adequately represented in the study.

In terms of gender, it turned out that 28(66.7%) of the participants were female while 14(28%) were male. This implies that both sexes were not adequately represented in the study. So it can be concluded that the majority of respondents in this study were women. This is because the female teachers are considered to have more patience in dealing with the students, especially students who are problematic and require special attention.

As the data indicates, from the sample of 42 teachers, majority of the participants 16(38.1%) were Javanese. A further 14(33.3%) were Batak Toba, while more 4(9.5%) were karonese and Minangnese. Then 2(4.8%) were Mandailing. Only 1(2.4%) was Acehnese and Melayunese. This implies that teachers in Binjai were varying at race/ethnicity which was expected to be motivated differently.

In terms of teaching experience, it turned out that participants of teaching experience > 6 years were the highest, followed by participants in that group 5-6 and 3-4 years implying that experienced teachers are committed on their jobs as teachers. It shows that there is a
tendency of teachers with teaching experience of six and above years to be more committed to their teaching profession, as they stay longer they stand higher committed of teaching.

The data also indicates that majority of the participants 31(74%) had > 6 years of teaching experience while 5(11.9%) of the participants had worked in the schools for 3 – 4 years and 5 – 6 years. Only 1(2.4%) had less than <1 year of teaching in the schools studied. This implies that the majority of the participants had spent 6 years and above in the schools studied.

As the data indicates that 14 per cent of the population of the participants fall within 20-29 year group, 38.1 per cent are in the age group of 30-39 years, 33.3 per cent of the population fall within the age group of 40-49 years, 11.9 per cent of the population belonging to the age group of 50-59 years and 2.4 per cent of the population fall within the age group of 60-69 years. It can be concluded that the majority of teachers in Binjai, North Sumatera aged between 31-39 years. This means that at the level of the age of 31-39 years is a period in which the teachers are experienced in their field and have the competency which is capable of being used in carrying out its duties and responsibilities properly in order to improve the quality of school education.

The researcher also found that majority of respondents in the study area belong to the age bracket of 30-39 years and 40-49 years which constitute middle Ages. Variations in the age of the respondents can also be in accordance with their commitment to their job competence which as a young teacher can take much time to complete each job than the elderly teachers who tend to be less committed to their job competence.

In terms of academic qualifications, teacher participants turned out that 31 (73.81%) of the respondents had Bachelors Degree in Education. The study also found that 7 (16.67%) held undergraduate diploma and 4 (9.52%) had Masters Degree in Education. This means that the majority of teachers in Binjai, North Sumatera have a high enough level of education so that they can perform their duties and responsibilities well.

**Testing Hypothesis:**

Correlation was conducted to test the relation of motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment on teachers’ competence.
A significant level of $0.000 < 0.05$ is found. The conclusion that can be obtained is that the free variable in this study, consisting of variable $X$ which is teachers’ job commitment, has a positive and significant effect. $X$ has a positive and significant influence, so it can be used to predict $Y$. In other words, teachers’ job commitment has a positive and significant influence that can be used as a predictor of teachers’ competence.

Table 2. $R$-square

Table 3. shows that the $R$-square is 0.567. It has a medium relationship. $R$-square of 0.567 means that 56.7% of dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable discussed in this research. The rest, 53.3 can be explained by other factors that have not been discussed in this research.

The analysis also revealed that there was a positive relationship between teachers’ motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment and teachers’ competence. Based on the obtained values, teachers’ motivation aspects have a high strength of relationship with the teachers’ competence of namely $r = 0.753$. This means, the higher teachers’ motivation as the conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment is, the higher the teachers’ competence is. This is in agreement with previous study done by Recepoglu (2013) which confirmed that teachers have the highest motivation in dimension of commitment to their job.
Motivational factors of teachers’ job commitment that affect teachers’ competence

Based on the figure 1, it can be seen that self-actualization needs is the highest score (81.27%) as the factor involved in job commitment, followed by social needs (80.12%), ego/esteem needs (77.01), physiological needs (73.21%), and security needs (70.95%).

![Figure 1: Factors of job commitment that trigger the teachers’ motivation](Image)

Figure 1: Factors of job commitment that trigger the teachers’ motivation

This study found out that of the five needs hierarchy, self-actualization need was the most significant motivational factors of teachers’ job commitment that affect the teachers’ competence. It showed that the participants, namely, the teachers need opportunities for upgrading qualifications. They need some free time on regular basis to improve their competence in teaching by attending seminars/workshops, or meeting. This finding is in agreement with the study done by Olurotimi et.al (2015) that various training programmes, attend conferences, seminar and refresher courses tend to increase the teachers’ growth to work at higher level of commitment. Burke (1995) also found that the more training programs the employee participated, the more supportive, favorably look at the company and had less intent to quit.

The research finding of a study done in Rokan Hulu district, Pekan Baru by Wati (2011) revealed that English language training program was highly effective in terms of overall effectiveness and in improving teachers’ confidence and motivation as EFL teachers.

Social need is also identified as the motivational factor of the teachers’ competence. The close and friendly relationship of members in a work group is the most effective motivation for the achievement within the working process. If those relationships are introduced into the goals of the organization, it may have a significant role on productivity of the organization. Matata,
et. al (2014) found that strong co-worker support and supervisor support both contribute to affective commitment, highlighting the value of these relationships to part-time university academic staff.

Participation in decision making gives teachers the feeling that their contributions are valued and this fulfils the teacher needs for belonging and self-esteem. Kadzamira (2006) has conceded that teachers are more productive when they are provided with the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process of the school. This study also indicated that ego/esteem needs is the significant factor which affect the teachers’ motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment. This finding also confirms the study done by Khan et al., (2010) that rewards which employee receives makes them perform better and accomplish the specific task faster. These rewards include some gifts, promotions, salary raise and bonuses. Paying is a vital factor which affects employee’s motivation. This finding is also similar to the study conducted by Uche et.al (2011) that incentives and rewards from school administrators should have contributed to the teachers’ job competence.

It was observed that the teachers (73.21%) stated that a physiological need is the motivational factors that affect them to be committed to their job as a teacher. A physiological need in this study is the salary that the teachers receive. The study done by Adjei and Musah (2013) observed that wages and salaries were the strongest motivational factors among 120 teachers in senior high schools in Cape Coast Metropolis. It is similar to the study done by Akintoye and Matthias (2000) asserts that money remains the most significant motivational strategy. Money possesses significant motivating power in as much as it symbolizes intangible goals like security, power, prestige, and a feeling of accomplishment and success.

**Conclusion**

From this study, teachers’ motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment is very vital in the English teaching and learning process. It can be explained that the teachers who has high level of commitment teach more effectively, and then it can directly affect the students’ achievement.

**Acknowledgements**

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Literature Circles as a Facilitator to Promote Composition Process
A Voice from Tertiary EFL Students

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Abstract
The objectives of this research were: (1) to know the role of Literature Circles in the composition process by looking at the transparencies of the synopsis as the final product; and (2) to find out the participants’ perspectives upon LCs. The instruments were role worksheets and a semi-structured interview. Thirty fourth-semester students majoring English were selected purposively with the rationale that they are considered as voluntary participants. Six meetings of discussion and composition process were done in one month accomplished by five reading circles consisting of six members and six different role worksheets each. Three major findings were obtained. The students found LCs is intriguing to formulate and organize the synopsis. Not only are new vocabularies acquired, but also self-mastery on how to get the writing becomes cohesive and coherent with appropriate word selection could possibly be achieved. One striking insight is the argument that LCs could promote composition process

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from role-based discussion and joint construction in each meeting. Also, the sense of satisfaction upon the writing seems triggered from a regular and detailed preparation before a discussion is initiated.

**Keywords:** Composition process, Literature Circles, linguistic items

**Introduction**

The demand to have adequate literacy skills, particularly writing, has become a consensus in this 21st century English education since it represents the final output many EFL (English as A Foreign Language) students should have. Its significance is, referring to Javid and Umer (2014), highlighted as the way to visualize all gained knowledge in written forms. Nonetheless, Muslim (2014:105) noted, “Writing well is really a big challenge for both native and non-native students. It is much bigger with the students of English as a foreign language.” Therefore, this study aims to facilitate composition process by using Literature Circles.

Some researches, in response, concern the role of Literature Circles that can foster activeness and joyfulness in EFL classrooms (Bedel, 2012; Daniels, 2002; Furr, 2002; Strong, 2012). Also, Balantukang (2013) and Nazri (2013) respectively pointed out that such a framework either provides the students with necessary awareness about language in use that can promote relevant oral and written responses or facilitates comprehension strategies. Thus, the questions might be likely formulated as follows.

1) How does Literature Circles play a role in the composition process performed by thirty fourth-semester undergraduate students majoring English?

2) How are the participants’ responses on LCs regarding their composition process?

**Literature Reviews**

*The Overview of Literature Circles*

Having been firstly introduced by Harvey Daniels, Literature Circles is generally a reading group in which every single member has different responsibility through role sheets within controlled-freedom discussions (Daniels, 2002; Furr, 2004; Moreira, 2010). It is beyond just an extensive reading club which could promote collaborative and controlled-freedom atmosphere through facilitating every single student with literary mode in that peer sharing, personal reflection as well as on-tasks fulfilment are joint in considerable proportion.

At least, eleven key ingredients should be considered before applying Literature Circles (Daniels 2002, p. 18; Furr TESOL Arabia, 2004). To some extent, there are several modification
on number 1, 2, 3, 4, and 11 in order to meet the framework of EFL learning atmosphere. They comprise:

1) Facilitators select materials appropriate for their student population.
2) Small temporary groups are formed, based on student choice or under the facilitator’s allowance. Allowance does not always mean as ‘freedom to choose something to read’, rather than the teacher gives students time to discuss or make rules regarding book selection together.
3) Different groups are usually reading the same text.
4) A facilitator will generally suit to supervise the implementation.
5) Students use written or drawn notes to guide both their reading and discussion.
6) Discussion topics come from the students.
7) Group meeting aim to be open, natural conversation about books, so personal connections, digressions, and open-ended questions are welcome.
8) The teacher serves as a facilitator, not a group member or instructor.
9) Evaluation is by teacher observation and student self-evaluation.
10) A spirit of playfulness and fun pervades the room.
11) When books are finished, readers may prepare a group project and/or the facilitator may provide additional information to “fill in some of the gaps” in student understanding.

*Literature Circles in EFL Classroom Settings*

The following cycle is adapted from Dawson and FitzGerald (1999, p. 31) to get most of learning process through Literature Circles fitted with EFL classroom settings.

![Literature Circles Cycle](image)

Figure 1. *Literature Circles Cycle*
In terms of learning objectives, peer discussion contributes ample impact on literacy development (Coffey, 2012, p. 396). Such activity promotes a novel platform for students which is beyond a simple conversational exchange of interpretations regarding the chosen reading. An opportunity to foster dispositions toward their literacy skills is going to be positively gained. In its actual visualization, students respectively take a specific responsibility, discuss reading contents, and create shared meanings from their different perspectives. It, then, will gradually increase personal competency level on both writing efficacy and critical thinking upon on-going circumstances carried out into the author’s craft.

Methodology

Research Settings

Thirty-fourth-semester students majoring English at one state university in Banten Province, Indonesia were as the research subject through purposive sampling under descriptive qualitative design in which the study is not about to make generalization (Creswell, 2009). The rationale of the sampling is because the participants had already got materials about writing in the first year of their study. The allotted time was three weeks for the participants to have reading discussions and role worksheet completion, yet an extension for another three weeks was initiated due to group synopsis completion and interviews.

Instrument and Data Collecting Technique

Literature Circles sheets with six roles were used as the discussion guide for each reading circle. They comprise: Discussion Director, Scene Setter, Summarizer, Illustrator, Word Wizard, and Connector (Daniels, 2002). Second, five out of nine different graded (level one) short stories were selected purposefully by five circles as the reading sources. The titles are White Death and The Elephant Man by Tim Vicary, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer by Mark Twain, Love or Money by Rowena Akinyemi, Shirley Homes and the Cyber Thief by Jennifer Bassett, Sherlock Holmes and the Duke’s Son by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle. This division on the reading source was to avoid an act of dishonesty and plagiarism in synopsis writing. Also, through these ranging sources, the reading selection is based on the interest of each circle’s members. Then an interview protocol was used to ease researcher in recognizing participants’ point of views after LCs facilitation. In part A, questions number 1-4 are addressed to explore socio-demographic of target participants. In part B, questions number 5-7 are addressed to find out specific information regarding both their participation in the circles and point of views on the application of Literature Circles interlinked with composition competency on number 8-10.

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Data Analysis

Researcher applied Creswell’s model (2009) which comprises of six sequential steps. (1) Established an initial organization by collecting data. (2) Verified all collected data to recognize a general focus of the information. (3) Analyzed and sorted the data into several categories. (4) Assigned specific themes to generate two final categorizations: the exposure of group synopses and personal responses from interviews. (5) Interlinked all information that have been sorted pertaining to the research questions in order to find out a proper presentation of the findings. The last yet not least, (6) made a final step by comparing all findings with previous studies to capture the essence of this study.

Findings and Discussion

Literature Circles Implementation

The facilitation was conducted out of participants’ regular learning schedule. There were a series of steps involved which comprise of initial meeting, reflections, and interview sections. In addition, to ensure the confidentiality of their identities, consent forms were used.

Before the facilitation was initiated, the participants were given an introduction on what Literature Circles along with its transparencies are, what the purpose of the facilitation is, how the roles are distributed through shared negotiation, and how the procedure of each meeting is on April 6th, 2015. To close with, the copy of chapter one was handed to all circles.

The duration was from April 7th to 27th, 2015, while the synopsis submission was on May 20th, 2015 for the latest in which the researcher took role only as the guider and information provider when the participants got confusion in terms of role worksheets and synopsis completion. Reflections were initiated three times on April 7th, 15th, 24th, 2015 regarding the difficulties on role jobs for each chapter discussion and the lack of understanding on synopsis completion. In response, clarification was made with the representative of each circle on the transparencies of the synopsis writing. The synopsis format was introduced ranging from 200 to 600 words in length and single-spaced under shared negotiation. Then, interviews were done on May 12th, 19th, and 20th, 2015 to get their perspectives and responses toward Literature Circles.

Synopses Exposure

The analysis of five synopses mainly focused on its linguistic evidences (Handayani, 2011, p. 34-35) which comprise of cohesive devices (how sentences unite in each paragraph), coherence (how all paragraphs link logically), and word selection.

Table 1. Exposure of Synopses Linguistic Items
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic Items</th>
<th>Cohesion</th>
<th>Coherence</th>
<th>Word Selection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC</td>
<td>GC</td>
<td>Chronological Order*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>RW</td>
<td>LSC</td>
<td>TA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle one</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle two</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle three</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle four</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle five</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: LC = Lexical Cohesion; GC = Grammatical Cohesion; RW = Repetitive words; LSC = Lexical Set ‘Chain’; TA = Tense Agreement; and L = Linkers.

*Referred to Liu, C (nd.) *Anatomy of a Synopsis.*

Starting from cohesive devices, the synopses did not seem to create ambiguity when involving the doers in a whole set since certain most important characters frequently emerge within each paragraph (see Appendix on circle synopsis). Also, certain content words are put into the presentation to set the tone of their own synopsis; to mention a few: the Duke and secretary or aunt and nephew. It is also because they utilized some supporting linkers – *so, because, when, surprisingly* etc – to provide interrelated events along the story.
Excerpt 1. *Word repetitiveness within each synopsis as the cohesive devices*

Another strong point concerns with the exposure on how well-organized each paragraph is orderly written and logically understood. Liu (nd.) sorted out certain crucial points included in a synopsis which comprise the beginning (how the story begins), middle (how the conflicts arise), and ending parts (how the conflicts are solved). Coherent devices involved were quite well functioned in that the plots were explicitly organized, regardless of shortcomings on tense consistency in circle 3.
Circle one
1st : at one place in Baker Street.....they told them about a sudden kidnapping of the son of the Duke of Holderness
2nd : in the dormitory.....Holmes found footprints of Heidegger; the Lord’s German teacher
3rd : after.....they went off to the north
4th : suddenly, the track stopped.....there was blood

Circle two
1st : after a long time.....Sarah Harland, was arrested
2nd : then Anna and Sarah sat at the table. Sarah telling to her mother
3rd : next morning, Anna Harland went to the court.....the police lawyer gave many question to Sarah and Hasan
4th : sixteen hours before tomorrow morning they track the facts until he met Stephen, old boyfriend of Sara

Circle three
1st : .....Diane who lived in London
2nd : in the next morning, Diane feel.....because her mother was dead in the room
3rd : .....so, they try to meet them and ask some questions.....
4th : .....first, the detective go to Roger’s office.....then, he go to Clarkson’s house

Circle four
1st : one day, Aunt Polly scour the house in search of her nephew, Tom Sawyer
2nd : one night, Huck, one of the friends of Tom.....to the graveyard to bury a dead cat
3rd : on hot summer day, Tom and Huck.....surprisingly, one of them was Injun Joe
4th : two days later, Tom told to one of the society that he saw Injun Joe in the cave

Circle five
1st : .....based on real situation in the past. Dr. Frederick Treves is a doctor In London Hospital
2nd : even though his body was very ugly, but his left hand was very beautiful
3rd : Dr.Trever not see Merrick again for two years and give a letter to the editor
4th : one wonderful day, a very famous lady come to the hospital to visit him

Excerpt 2. Coherent devices which builds the chronological order from each synopsis

Antwordprofiler 1.4 was utilized to find out the words level contained in each synopsis. The percentages shown above also support the idea that Literature Circles encourage students
to not only understand a wide range of vocabularies as suggested by Nazri (2013), but have ability to utilize various standard base words while composing the synopsis as well. For further clarification, certain in-level-two words — miserable, sudden, cornered, upset, murder, downstairs, search, robbed, smelled, and creature — were also contained. The last yet not least, most words appeared actually depend on what context the reading sources which each circle got. Circle one and three, under crime & mystery genre, have more tendency to use possible associated words which comprise detective, suspect, consideration, chronology, interrogated, explain, and questions. Circle two, under thriller & adventure genre, used totally different words: crime, imprisoned, court, lawyer; or escape, discovery, treasure, adventure as in circle four’s (classics); or situation, visit, country, letter, office as in circle five’s (true stories). This word specification automatically gets the synopsis structure uniquely while clearly formulated.

Participants’ Composition Process Under LCs Framework

They interestingly argued that there seemed no significant barrier on completing each role worksheet. Clear and well-established tasks got their composition authentic in which they have known what to accomplish after reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#circle two : the discussion is easier since the roles have been clear; yes, it’s more specific so it’s easier to find out what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#circle three : in Literature Circles, everything is in detail, there is a structure, as well as specific parts; it eases us in the process of writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From other point of view, the role worksheets got them able to understand essential rules to formulate a writing (Nazri, 2013 stating that Literature Circles can expand students’ language awareness).

| #circle three : can be more detail in writing, and then know the patterns, the structures. |
| #circle four : it gets me more diligent to read. Also, the writing is more concerned especially the grammar; yes because we write purposively, the activity is more structured. |

Responses Toward Literature Circles Facilitation

Generally, they found Literature Circles a new approach to have writing activities initiated from guided-collaborative reading discussions. They found it either interesting or positively unique because of two major factors. First, there are roles, which can be explored before having a discussion. Second, they
have to collaborate with one another in purpose to get the synopsis well-written. Correspondingly, there was no circle member who dominantly contributed to get the synopsis well-organized as a result of peer reading discussions initiated in every meeting they undertook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#circle one</th>
<th>there are roles, so every single person has special responsibility. So, there is no dominant person in the discussion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#circle two</td>
<td>I prefer this framework. Usually, there are only few ideas from the dominant members, the others do not work. Here, no one is free of work anymore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, whether LCs is generally accounted a promoting means for their composition quality, most of their responses were positive. This gives a further justification from the previous study (Nazri, 2013) in which roles in LCs explore students’ proficiency in reviewing essential background information and language use. They could not only write based on authentic materials, but had an open sharing and correction in understanding the linguistic devices for their synopsis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#circle one</th>
<th>for me, it influences the coherence and unity. More on the relationship, the flowing.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#circle five</td>
<td>influencing. At first, I did not really fond of grammar, and then through shared meaning and collaboration, I can ask and share how to make good sentences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, such circumstances build the traditions of collaborative understanding to get the synopsis naturally well-organized. Creative composition through new words becomes the second reason why LCs interlinks with the composition quality. This suggests that LCs helps explore both the author’s craft and the composition rules by understanding the essential information, expanding discussion with W-H questions, and getting familiar with certain aspects of structure, theme, and style of the reading sources.

Hence, the sense of satisfaction on own writing becomes another interesting insight reflecting from the participants’ further arguments in which the previous circumstances (Balantukang, 2013; Nazri, 2013) only stated that Literature Circles emerges active joyfulness. On one side, role-based writing and shared-meaning discussions activate not only collaborative learning atmosphere, but also development of personal mastery. On the other side, detailed and structured guidance assists them to have adequate preparation and readiness before group discussion and composition.
Conclusions

This study is aimed at addressing two research objectives: (1) to know the role of Literature Circles in the composition process by looking at the transparencies of the synopsis as the final product; and (2) to find out the participants’ perspectives upon LCs. Its role-based reading discussion and students-centered sharing are two fundamental principles which help foster literacy awareness and skills of EFL learners. In particular, linguistic knowledge including cohesion, coherence, and word selection is not just a separate sphere to study, concerning that reading activities are the main step in LCs implementation, but integrated to the composition quality itself as well. One notable reason is every single circle member took responsibility with own role worksheets in which one another’s sharing and discussion appeared to clear out all content or language unclarity. Such circumstances fairly triggered a sense of satisfaction since there are a series of intriguing processes to get the composition well-written. As a result, LCs encourages them to have adequate preparation before having the discussion and composition process and enhance self-mastery.

References


Appendix A
Circle Synopsis

Circle Five - The Elephant Man

This short story was based on real situation in the past. Dr. Frederick Treves is a doctor in London Hospital. Someday, when he walked around, he saw a picture in the window of a shop. He was very interested, so he asked the owner to look what is in the picture. The owner took him to the small and dark room at the back of the shop. He smelled a bad things. He saw a creature sat on the chair. His name is Joseph Merrick looks cold, dark and diary. Also wore old trousers. He has an enormous bag, his skin looks strong and he has an enormous red tooth, like an elephant’s tooth. Even though his body was very ugly, but his left hand was very beautiful like a woman hard. He couldn’t stand up for a long time because the legs was very big and fat. The owner was rude to the creature. Then, Dr. Treves asked the owner to took him to the hospital and the owner allowed him. At seven o'clock, he came to the shop in a cab. He met Mr. Merrick, but he didn’t see his face and his body. Dr. Frederick opened the door of the cab, and get out, said good morning to Mr. Merrick. Then he said "elepmyupassteps." but doctor Frederick don’t understand.

Dr. Frederick gave him a card with his name on. He think Mr. Merrick can’t read. But Mr. Merrick took the card and look it carefully, then he put it in his trousers pocket. Dr. Trever not see Merrick again for two years and give a letter to the editor about Merrick and finally Merrick could live in the hospital. And then Merrick get two rooms at the back of hospital. He began understand and loves many new thing like books, talking to the people, book about love stories he was very happy.

I didn’t want Merrick to live by himself like a man in a lighthouse. One day, a beautiful young woman came to the hospital. Merrick looked at her for a minute with his mouth open for the first time in his like, he had some friends. He was a very happy man. One wonderful day, a very famous lady come to the hospital to visit him. He had many visits from the queen, and she sent him a Christmas card. It has the first letter of his life.

And finally Merrick had a lot of friends now like he wanted to go to the theater. Merrick loved the show in the theatre it was a children’s Christmas play, it was a must wonderful exciting story. Mr. Merrick appeal Dr. Treves to go to the country for saw the beautiful country once from a train. When Merrick went to the country in a train with dark windows, nobody could see him. There were a lot of trees near the house, but no people lived near it. I went back to London, but Merrick stayed there for six weeks, he was wonderfully happy. Every week, he wrote me a letter, he was very well, and his skin looked much better. He talked about the country a lot, he was happy to see his friends and his books again too.
Six months later, in 1890, the man slept on his back. Because his head was very heavy, it came off the bed, and he broke his neck. Unfortunately, I found him dead. Next day, the Chairman of the London Hospital, Mr. Carr Gomm, wrote the last letter to the editor of The Times again. (word count:594)

Notes:
➢ Red stands for linkers, time signals, and adverb of place.
➢ Green stands for verbs.
Blue stands for characters.

Appendix B
Word selection analysis by using AntWordProfiler 1.4
Circle Five - The Elephant Man
INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

A. Socio-demographic
   1. How old are you now?
   2. What is your previous educational background?
   3. How long have you been studying English?
   4. Do you ever take an English course? How long and until what level is it?

B. Responses to LC Implementation
   5. Have you ever known and done Literature Circles before?
   6. In your understanding, what is different in Literature Circles compared with other reading discussions or reading clubs?
   7. What role do you like most after being involved in the circle? Why?
   8. How have your experiences as a part of the reading circle influenced or not influenced development in the process of composing writing?
   9. How have your experiences in Literature Circles been or not been relevant with your academic writing ability?
  10. How have your experiences while composing a writing through Literature Circles process satisfied or not satisfied your feeling?
Non-English Learners’ Needs in Learning English as a Foreign Language

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**Abstract**

This paper aims to describe and overview the data analysis of non-English learners’ needs in learning English as a foreign language. Learning English in non-English learners has many obstacles, because the process of foreign language learning strongly influenced from learners’ weakness, both motivation or their basics English language, such as vocabulary mastery, grammar mastery, pronunciation mastery and others to support their English skills mastery. This paper can give understanding about English as a foreign language in Indonesia and students’ needs. Where, in learning English students are not only encouraged to master 4 skills of language; reading, writing, listening and speaking, but also the need of motivation both internal which can drive students in doing something from their self and external which can encourage students from their environment situation. Motivation as a driving force in achieving students purpose related with their learning English, without motivation it will hard for students to learn EFL. Qualitative descriptive method will use in this research to give a clear explanation and comprehensive study, because in qualitative can be embedded students’ need gather with their learning English as a Foreign Language. The data collection will take in list of questionnaire form to 35 students of 2nd semester from University of Muhammadiyah Jakarta as subject of the research. the use of questionnaire with consist of 20 questions is to observe students need based on their personal needed.

**Keywords:** Learning EFL, Students’ need, Learning English.
1. Introduction

In educational program one of the most highly impact factors in getting success is education curriculum which should be based on the learners needs, Richards (2001). Learning as a process to acquire the information in improving students’ knowledge. In improving knowledge language is needed, both verbalism or non-verbalism language, because language as a tool to communicate with other and expressing people ideas. language become important things in globalization era, especially English language, both productive or perceptive skill language is needed. Learning language is an inevitable process in Indonesia, start from beginner level until university students. In this research the researcher is going to take non-English learners needs as the main variable of the research.

Learning is called long life education because starts from a baby until die as a human being they need to learn. As a planning in increasing students’ potency and ability also one of the function of education, Arjulayana and Srikandi (2016). This research will discuss on learning English as a foreign language for non-English learners needs, because there are many problems play in researcher’s mind to enrich her non-English learner in acquiring their English skills. Learning English as a foreign language is a claim for Indonesian students, because, English lesson is stated in Indonesian’ curriculum, where thus become students’ requirements to learn and understand English.

Understanding students need is important in learning process to engage student’s interest. Motivation becomes one of the most fundamental aspect in learning process, because as a driving force in achieving learning result especially in EFL students should have a good motivation, both internal motivation or external motivation. Good internal motivation will drive students easier to enhance their knowledge and achieve their goals in education, where the motivation also a kinds of internal process to gain students goals, Eragamreddy (2015). On the other hand internal motivation linked with personal, with this students can do their passion, interest and inspiration independently, Tran (2007). Fur the more, external motivation it could come from their society, such: friends, family, institution, and teachers, Eragamreddy (2015). A good teacher will support their students every time, becoming a good teacher is also not only through support in advising students but also knowing their condition and needs. Teachers should be able to engage students with varied ways to learn English, it might be personal guidance or opportunities for their students to practice their minimum English acquisition.

In influencing students to learn a language, it is advisable for teachers and parents to share important things to their students in regard to their personal needs, because the way learners’ needs are also decided mainly by the teachers, Tran (2007).
Some studies have shown that students’ needs are closely related to the motivation and teachers’ ways in the class room. This paper will explain research questions, such as; what is learning EFL, what are non-English learners needs in learning EFL, does motivation is a fundamental aspect for students in learning EFL and what are the appropriate ways to be implemented by the teacher to overcome students’ needs.

2. Theoretical review

Students are not only can get knowledge but also can have their new ideas and information through learning. Beside of the process of learning, outcomes of the learning is very important, because learning as acquisition process in upgrading memory system permanently and the end of the process can change behaviour and can be implemented in real life.(Brown; 2000:7).

As language corpora, English become one of the most popular language in international communication. Higher education students in Indonesia should learn English because one of the goals of Indonesian education is behavior changes and able to practice their knowledge in international level, overall the purpose of learning is the effect of knowledge and their willingness based on what they have learnt, Harmer (2007). in processing of learning and teaching, learners are assumed to have an active and creative roles in language learning, Sadeghi at.al (2013). good learners are not always guided to find their own way, but they will find their own passion in learning, they not only learn based on teachers’ task, instruction, and classroom activity but also develop their creativity and try to find opportunities to practice in upgrading their language skill independently, Sadeghi at.al (2013).

2.1 Learning Reading

Reading is a process to get information through the text, where the process is quite different with listening, speaking or writing. In reading students need to have a motivation and willingness to read both in the classroom or outside. Reading skill is not only to find information based on the text but also the writer could be able to express and extend their knowledge, and in expressing their knowledge, the writer can use their capability in language (Patel and Jain (2008).

In learning reading, it is better for the teacher to know some stages in order to get easy for their students. There are 3 stages in reading process: firstly recognition; students are encouraged to be able to recognize the topic discuss in the passage. Secondly, structuring; students are required to understand the text’s structures and meaning syntactically based on the syntactical relationship unit of the text, thirdly; interpretation; this is the highest level of reading
stages because students are required to comprehend the text fully, they might be understand the phrase, words, sentence and meaning, Petel and Jain (2008).

Students should have motivation in learning reading, because to practice reading they can do in every time and everywhere, thus will easier to practice if the students have got their internal motivation. Moreover, if they have the motivation they will think that reading is their need and they will do it regularly.

2.2 Learning writing

Writing is the hardest skill for some students, if the student is not productive and does not have a good vocabulary this skill will be hard and bored. Some people are not interested in writing skill though this skill is able to convey ideas and language skill, either it is related to written skill as transactional function of language, (Brown and Yule, 2001). In writing activity students are required to have more vocabulary also in spelling, because the essential features in learning language writing involves of some aspect: vocabulary mastery, sentence pattern also spelling mastery, (Patel and Jain (2008).

In higher students learning writing will fun and easier if the students have their motivation, when they had motivation their ideas will play in their mind and their willingness to learn vocabulary and express their ideas in the text will be conveyed. In this section motivation is not only the essential things to have students learning fun but also as a driving force to stimulate students’ skill.

2.3 Learning Listening

The process of learning listening will be easy if the students have sufficient vocabulary, because listening is one of the perceptive skill in language. Otherwise this skill will hard to be understood if vocabulary mastery still low. To make students vocabulary mastery improve they needs to practice in their daily life, such as listening to music or try to open dictionary regularly. Those ways will easy to do if the students have a higher motivation, because in this term motivation can be influenced students’ personal interest and exercise capabilities, Woolfolk (2004). Before practise speaking skill or learn speaking skill it will be better for students to learn listening in the beginning to ensure their vocabulary mastery is good and learn people’s pronunciation, because in language learning process language is a sound contextualized, when learnt listening will come in the beginning before speaking skill is mastered, Petel and Jain (2008).
2.4 Learning Speaking

The last skill for learning language is speaking, this become last skill to be learnt by the students, because speaking involves receptive and productive skill. Receptive skill like a mechanic skill for students, include sound recognition, structure recognition and vocabulary building. Aampa at.al (2013). Learning speaking felt as the hardest language skill, because speaking unlike reading or writing, speaking happens in real time and can be responded spontaneously by the listener, Nunan (2003).

2.5 Learners needs

Regarding to the previous research about learners needs, this tends to be an umbrella term, which can give a harmony in achieving goals, thus refers to many varieties of learners information, teachers, language being learned, Sadeghi at.al (2013).

Learners everywhere actually have the same needs, Richards (2001). It was believe that vocabulary and grammar are general sub skill which can be included in learners needs in learning language. Needs refers to circumstance of lacking something or necessary and require a positive action. learners needs commonly described in what learners will be able to do with language at the end of their course, Richards (2001). There are some characteristic of needs. firstly, need for achievement; where in this characteristic will involve strong desire to gain some goals, both realistics or challenging, secondly, need for affiliation; people try to find social interaction or some one to be liked or seek to be liked by other people to make a good relationship in their environment. Thirdly; need for power; people not only need to reach and influence others, where at the end of this impact other people to be the result, but also control other people, Ciccarelli and White (2009).

a. Motivation

Motivation is not identical with students’ achievement in language, Eragamreddy (2015), but motivation can support students achievement in learning and teaching process. Motivation is the most fundamental aspect which highly related to the learners achievement factors in learning English, Gardner and Lambert (1972).

a) Intrinsic Motivation

According to Mahmoeed at al. (2015) Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is interesting or enjoyable. it is more likely that they will engage in the process, they might make a real effort to find the answer.
b) Extrinsic Motivation

According to (Moeed, 2015, p.26) Extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it has a separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation depends on external factors such as rewards, attention and praise. Extrinsic motivation is engaging in behavior to attain a reward or to avoid a punishment from external source.

3. Research Methodology

Qualitative method is used in this research, because with qualitative method, researcher not only able to describe, interpret the research finding descriptively, but also able to make the data analysis organize and provide the participant’s definition of the situation, Cohen at.al (2007). Research design uses list of questionnaire to know students needs in learning EFL with the total number is 10 questions with close answer question form. The questionnaire also give to 15 English teachers to know their students needs.

4. Results and discussion

Regarding the data analysis, this research can explain non-English students’ needs in learning EFL. Non-English learners’ need motivation because without motivation from their societies learning English as a foreign language will hard to understand and practice also make them boring, furthermore society can give great impact to learners’ needs, especially from their teacher, because teacher is not only deliver the material but also should be able to become facilitator and motivator. Being a motivator teacher migh not only judged their students when they have done some mistaken, such as wrong pronunciation, wrong spelling, wrong structure and others, but also give the solutions. Teachers are required to use appropriate ways in delivering EFL material to their learners; Teacher may find suitable strategy to encourage their learner in studying English, such as doing game or giving some assignments and drills. Non English learners’ needs are highly related with foreign language acquisition or language skill mastery, because to master some aspects of learning language learners should be able to acquire sub skill of language in the beginning. Without mastering vocabulary it will quite hard to master four skill of language; listening, reading, speaking and writing. the similari research also has done by the previous research from Sadeghi bahador at.al (2013) with the title “on the relationship between learners needs and their use of language learning strategies” with the result is students are preferring to do their needs based on their own ways.
5. Conclusion and suggestion

Concerning to the result of this research, the researcher can draw the conclusion that in processing of learning and teaching, learners are assumed to have an active and creative roles in language learning, they should have personal autonomies. English teachers should be able to give in line with their learners in learning EFL.

References


Managing Directed Motivational Currents of Religious Texts on English Language Achievement. A Mixed-Methods Study

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Abstract

Mostly current research on the role of motivation in different educational contexts has focused on the learners' expectancies so that their learning standards to be maximized, and their achievement goals to be guaranteed (Carole, 1992; Goodenow, 1993; Mc Combs & Whisler, 1997). The newly introduced concept of Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) by Dörnyei, Henry, and Muir (2016) opens a new horizon in the field of learner's motivation. Considering the rules of DMC, an exploratory mixed methods study was conducted in order to investigate the impressions of the religious texts on pre-university students' motivation. The aim of this study was to explore to what extent introducing and elaborating some selected religious texts initiated a directed motivational current in pre-university learners, as well as to find out the ways through which the motivational currents affected their performance on the English texts of University Entrance Exam (UEE). To accomplish this end, a pre-test-post-test was administered to 63 pre-university students as the quantitative part of the study, and for the qualitative part some spiritual vocabularies appearing in religious texts were taught to them, and an in-depth interview was conducted with them. The convergence of mixed methods findings demonstrated that teaching spiritual vocabularies simultaneous with focusing on religious texts creates an initial motive that energizes learners to perform acceptably better than before in the English texts of the UEE.
Keywords: Directed motivational current, language achievement, religious texts, spiritual vocabularies

1. Introduction

Developing motivation in language learning context is of a great importance in the field of applied linguistics in general (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), and second language learning in particular (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The term motivation means "to move" and usually people move to do a specific activity (Weiner, 1992, cited in Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998). The activity that people are engaged is affected by their thoughts and goals (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998), in this way, when people are immersed in a specific project, their sense of productivity helps them to experience an intensive motivational state for longer periods of time, sometimes for weeks or more (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). This motivation produces a sense of achievement beyond what seemed possible at the outset; therefore, people enjoy their complete absorption in an activity (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). The significant role of motivation in L2 learning process has always been considerable in social psychological research (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972), and the L2 motivation obtained in the process of second language learning has shed a new light on further research projects (e.g., Brown, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Skehan, 1989; Skehan, 1991). However, since the L2 motivation refers to an intense motivation experienced by individuals immersing in an activity, Dörnyei and his colleagues (e.g., Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2016; Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013) focused on the currents across which motivation seemed to have the capacity to be goal-oriented, meaning Directed Motivational Currents (Henry, Dörnyei, & Davydenco, 2015).

1.1. The Concept of Directed Motivational Currents

The concept of directed motivational currents (DMCs) refers to a motivational zone in which people experience an intense absorption in an activity, as well as a full enjoyment, and following it a certain feeling of elegance (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). Being fully absorbed in a project, people will enjoy the long-lasting effect of the completed project while remaining excited and satisfied with the results (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). This feeling goes beyond the feelings generated from the flow concept; however, unlike flow which refers to the state of enjoyment for the sheer sake of doing an activity in a specific moment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), the directed motivational currents deal with experiencing heart-warming moments while
doing a project and enjoying its long-lasting results (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). Within the DMC concept, the term Directed refers to a pathway through which one can move toward a specific target, and the term Currents represents the flow of energy used to take people to the right destination; the key concept Motivation indicates motives which enable people to be productive for prolonged lengths of time (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). It is believed that the DMCs mostly start with a sudden curiosity: it is when somebody starts a project eagerly, put his/her time and energy on it, and often achieves remarkable results (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015). This heightened motivational time has the capacity to act as a "regulatory force" through which people may achieve some distant targets or goals which seemed unmanageable for them before (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015, p. 96).

1.2. The Directed Motivational Currents in Learning

As language learning motives are accompanied with many affective factors like interest, attention, and goals, motives act as the collective scaffolding in learning achievement in general and language achievement in particular (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993). Considering motivation as a concentrated fuel for learning activities, it is believed that learners are directed toward educational targets by being energized in doing their learning projects (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). In a learning process, the more motivation enhances within learners, the greater attention to learning contents, and the more interest in the subject matter; in this way, learners become motivated both intrinsically and extrinsically (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Garris, Ahlers, & Driskell, 2002; Pintrich, 2003). Through enhancing intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, learners might find the activity interesting in itself; therefore their self-motivation leads them to self-directedness (Garris, Ahlers, & Driskell, 2002). When motivation makes directed forces toward a focal point in the process of teaching and learning, learners enjoy being able to connect their classroom activities with newly experienced activities in the real world (Bandura & Wood, 1989; Garris, Ahlers, & Driskell, 2002). Moreover, learners who value an activity, use their own capacity to achieve educational goals they desire (Garris, Ahlers, & Driskell, 2002); however, DMCs are not only pathways facilitating the achievement of goals, but they provide an extra energy for further motivations (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). By energizing motivation within learners, they are encouraged to put themselves in a directed current across which they achieve their educational targets (Dörnyei, & Skehan, 2003).

Assuming learner's powerful motivation, it has been claimed that learners' behaviors in the educational context stem from their interest, curiosity, needs, and obligations to be energized (Dörnyei, 2009; Garris, Ahlers, & Driskell, 2002); however, within the DMCs, it is
the motivated behavior which generates energy within learners; so, as it is obvious, in the
DMCs the motive and the related behaviors are a unified construct inseparable from each other
(Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). To put it in a nut shell, DMCs are serendipitous circumstances
through which the learners' past expectations are linked to their future desires beyond their
consciousness (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016).

1.3. Seeking Motivation in the Religious Texts

Finding ways to motivate learners through religious texts is of great importance (Abu-
Nimer, 2001; Beck & Jessup, 2004). Considering religious motivation as a stable feature within
individuals (Allport & Ross, 1967), one of the main tenets of religious texts used in learning
process is assuming them as sources of positive emotional experiences (Oman & Thoresen,
2003). It is believed that religious symbols or specific spiritual vocabularies used in a text
produce motivation, it is because they represent some kinds of truth, and people usually become
motivated by truthful texts (Asad, 1993). From a religious perspective, the religiosity of a text
is represented through its spiritual vocabularies; moreover, these vocabularies act as motives
through which individuals are encouraged and motivated in their activities (Mills, 1940).
Spiritual vocabularies, reminding some holy meanings in the individuals' minds, are those
words showing divinity and religiosity (Underwood, Teresi, 2002). These kinds of
vocabularies, referring to a wide range of personal experiences, show individuals' religious
involvement in different practices (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985; Wink
& Dillon, 2002).

Several studies have explored a relationship between motivation produced by religious
texts and successful behaviors in individuals (e.g., Carpenter & Marshall, 2009). These
behaviors help individuals to understand religious texts more simply while representing a deep
insight to encourage individuals to get immersed in doing a particular task in order to
experience a greater result (Csikszentinhalyi, 1996). This makes learners enhance their
religious knowledge while learning the religious truth in English, and enhance their English
proficiency as well (Lepp-Kaethler & Dörnyei, 2013). All in all, religious motivation refers to
overall learners' motivation in learning a language through religious texts; in this way, learners
experience a stronger motivation for their future achievements (Bakar, Sulaiman, & Rafaai,
2010).

In sum, when learners experience a DMC, they are aware that they are in a heightened
state of productivity (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015). This helps them to enhance their
motivational capacity, produce an ideal self, and reach their targets (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011;
Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Therefore, although reading spiritual vocabularies in a text may produce a kind of religious motivation in individuals, there has not been a systematic research to investigate the impact of religious texts on students' English language achievement considering the Directed Motivational Currents proposed by Dörnyei and his colleagues (2016). In this regard, the present study aims to explore to what extent some religious texts might generate a powerful motivational current across which students are directed to a higher achievement in comprehending religious texts used in their university entrance exam (UEE).

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Sixty-three pre-university female students took part in this study voluntarily. Their age ranged between 17 and 19 (Mean= 18). All students had registered in the state high school in Mashhad, Iran. They were majoring in Science and studied English as one of their courses twice a week. These participants were chosen based on their English teacher's accessibility and their willingness to cooperate after being explained about the effectiveness of the project and its effects on the results of their UEE. According to the Ministry of Education in Iran (2016), the pre-university students are those students who are in their last year of high school before being accepted as university students for higher education.

2.2. Instruments

Since the present study was a mixed-methods research, two kinds of instruments were employed in this study, the quantitative instrument and the qualitative one.

A pre-test-post-test consisting of four reading comprehension texts, two documentary and two religious texts, were administered to all 63 pre-university students. The selected texts were chosen from standard texts of Iranian Entrance Examination Book (Kiasalar, 2015). According to Kiasalar (2015), the texts used in the entrance exam are designed based on the standard procedures defined by the Ministry of Education in Iran, such as the degree of difficulty (for example, these texts are going to be designed more difficult than what students had in their books, with a mass of new topics consisting of new vocabularies), the length of the texts (consisted of nearly 300 to 450 words), and the number of comprehension questions related to the texts (between 4 to 6 questions). The texts applied in this study consisted of 5 multiple choice questions. Students were required to choose the best option for all 20 reading comprehension questions. The instruments employed in the qualitative part of the study were teaching spiritual vocabularies in nine different sessions of teaching English, as well as an in-
depth interview consisting of teacher-students' question-answers, and their comments on some selected religious texts.

2.3. Procedure
2.3.1. Pre-Test

After investigating about 184 reading comprehension texts based on the Kiasalar's textbooks of University Entrance Exam (UEE) (2015), two documentary and two religious texts were chosen to be administered to 63 pre-university students as the pre-test. These texts were basically those which had been performed before in the university entrance exam. University entrance exam is a standard exam performed every year when pre-university students finish their educational year. In this exam, there are different questions about different courses like Literature, Theology, Biology, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and two foreign languages: Arabic and English. In its English section, there are two reading comprehension texts consisting of 10 to 11 Multiple-Choice Item Tests (MCIT) together. As the researchers investigated about 184 texts, they found that the texts which had been used in the UEE were mostly about scientific issues, political news, or documentaries with few texts about religion. In this way, the researchers chose from the most popular texts, documentary ones, to the least, the religious texts. The designed pre-test consisting of 20 MCITs was administered to all 63 students in one session. From the 20 MCITs, 10 questions were related to documentary texts and the other 10 questions were designed based on the religious texts. Before administering the pre-text, one of the researchers, who was the participants' English teacher, explained the importance of reading comprehension texts in their UEE and the reason for choosing these kinds of texts, documentary and religious ones, and asked students to answer all questions in the specific time devoted to them. The time was about 30 minutes for students to answer all questions.

2.3.2. Teaching and Interview

One week after administering the pre-test, the researcher in charge, the English teacher, began teaching spiritual vocabularies and interviewing students simultaneously. The interview conducted in this study was a group interview, since the researchers were going to stimulate students in group discussions through religious questions. This kind of interviewing put specifically valuable insight on the group dynamicity while engaging them in their group interactions more efficiently (Frey & Fontana, 1991).
In order to explore to what extent introducing and elaborating religious texts might change the results of the post-test, the researchers decided to provide some religious texts based on what students had studied in their Theology course. To this end, the researchers managed a meeting with students’ Theology teachers and consulted with them about selecting appropriate religious texts consisting of more simple spiritual vocabularies. According to what Theology teachers proposed, as well as based on spiritual vocabularies the researchers found in the English texts, the selected religious texts were in the form of some verses from the *Holy Quran* or some *Hadith Narrations* from the Prophet Mohammad (peace be upon him). These texts were written on the board by the English teacher and were elaborated and taught by her. Following this, students were asked to discuss every point they apprehended from these texts in English. As the religious texts were not as easy as other texts to be understood or guessed, when the English teacher found students unable to discuss completely the texts in English, she allowed them to represent their comments on the texts in their mother tongue, Persian. The religious texts were discussed in 9 sessions, each about 20 to 30 minutes. When the students had a problem in understanding some new English spiritual vocabularies, the teacher tried to use the synonyms or antonyms for the words so that she would make her students be more active in guessing the meanings of new vocabularies. In the process of teaching and interviewing, the teacher recorded all comments given by students for future transcription.

2.3.3. **The Post-Test**

The post-test was administered to all 63 pre-university students three months after the pre-test. Now the teacher, believing her students are more familiar with religious vocabularies, referred to the reading comprehension texts as they were the same as the per-test. The time considered for this exam was 30 minutes as the pre-test, although mostly students finished their exams after 20 to 25 minutes.

2.4. **Data Analysis**

In order to analyze the data obtained in the quantitative part of the study, a repeated measure analysis of variance was conducted to show differences in scores due to the teaching intervention (before and after teaching spiritual vocabularies through religious texts) as the within-subject factor (level of significance: \( p < .05 \)), using SPSS version 21.0 for Windows.

According to the strategy used by the researchers to collect the qualitative data, all 63 students in three separate classes were taught spiritual vocabularies, and interviewed in order to express their comments on every one of the religious texts as well. After introducing and
teaching spiritual vocabularies, simultaneous with writing the texts on the board, students started iterating what comes to their minds. As we mentioned before, one of the main reasons the researchers chose this kind of interviewing, group interview, was that they believed peer work produces more motivation in students and it modifies their position to open-minded peers while helping each other in conveying the gist of the texts. In this way, the students would be put in a right path and being directed toward their target, meaning understanding the religious texts.

Through qualitative analysis of the transcribed interviews, two prominent themes emerged from the data: the role of sacred vocabularies and the importance of moral messages. According to what students commented on religious texts, these two themes were divided into 6 subcategories with 3 for each part: the learners' familiarity/unfamiliarity with spiritual vocabularies, the guessability/unguessability of their meanings, and the speed of reading, were considered for the first categorization, as well as deducing a general meaning from the text, relating the whole text to a moral value, means moral literacy, and guessing an ethical significance of the texts were assumed for the second one.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1. The Quantitative Section

The descriptive statistics concerning the distribution of scores in pre- and post- treatment conditions are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>17.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% Trimmed Mean</td>
<td>13.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1
Descriptive statistics for the study group in pretest and posttest
As indicated in this table, the mean score in post-treatment condition showed a large increase ($\bar{X}_{pre} = 13.65; \bar{X}_{post} = 17.68$), while the standard deviations happened to be smaller in post-test condition ($SD_{pre} = 1.85; SD_{post} = 1.46$); this shows an indication of less dispersion and more homogeneity after the intervention. Comparing the original means with the trimmed means, we detected small differences between them, so it indicated no strong influence of extreme scores on the mean scores. As an indication of the symmetry of the distribution, the skewness value for the pre-test (.41) was positive with the scores clustering to the left at the low values, while the distribution for the posttest was negatively skewed (-.30) and the scores clustered to the right at the high values.

Allowing for visual inspection of distribution in the pre-test and post-test conditions in the search for outliers, the boxplots, as tabulated through Figure 1, showed no outliers. Moreover, this graphic representation showed a dissimilar pattern of scores for the group in pre and post-treatment assessment with a higher median (Md=18), as well as scores distribution for the post-test condition.
To capture the possible effects of working with spiritual vocabularies and religious texts according to the rules of DMCs, a paired-samples \( t \)-test was used. As displayed in Table 2, there was a statistically significant increase in the scores on the study measure from the pre-test (\( \bar{X} = 13.65, \ SD = 1.85 \)) to the post-test assessment (\( \bar{X} = 17.68, \ SD = 1.46 \)), \( t \) (62) = -18.11, \( p<.001 \) (two-tailed). The mean increase in performance scores was -4.03 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -4.47 to -3.58. The eta squared statistics turned out to be high (.84), indicating a large effect size, with a substantial difference in the performance before and after the intervention.

**Table 2**

*Results of paired samples \( t \)-test for the study group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean (Std. Deviation)</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Interval Difference Lower</th>
<th>Confidence of ( \theta t ) Lower</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1: Pretest-posttest</td>
<td>-4.03 (1.76)</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>-4.47</td>
<td>-3.58</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the high and significant correlation of the scores, which is shown in Table 3, supported the odds for a high \( p \)-value of paired \( t \)-test significance.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation between scores in pre and post assessments of the group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 pre-test &amp; post-test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scores for the type of the texts, as well as the time of teaching were considered for analysis (see Table 1). A repeated measures analysis of variance was conducted to see the likely differences in scores due to teaching intervention (before and after practices with religious texts) as the within-subject factor (level of significance: \( p < .05 \)). The first factor, teaching, resulted in a significant \( F(1,62) = 411.45, ~MSE = 1.26, ~p < .001, \eta^2_p = .87 \) as the score levels after teaching (\( SD = 1.33, M = 8.84 \)), was higher than before teaching (\( SD = 2.34, M = 6.83 \)). Also the second factor, the kind of text, was proved to be significant, \( F(1,62) = 328.21, ~MSE = .78, ~p < .001, \eta^2_p = .84 \), with higher scores for documentary texts (\( SD = .83, M = 9.27 \)) in comparison to the religious texts (\( SD = 2.11, M = 6.40 \)). The two-way interaction teaching × text was significant as well, \( F(1,62) = 160.32, ~MSE = 99.06, ~p < .001, \eta^2_p = .72 \), with higher scores both for documentary and religious texts after teaching compared to the scores before teaching (see Figure 2).

Also, the paired t-test conducted in regard with the kind of the texts (documentary and religious), indicated the higher scores after teaching (\( SD = .54, M = 9.65 \)) compared to the scores before teaching (\( SD = .70, M = 8.89 \)), for documentary texts \( t(62) = -8.85, p < .001, \) Cohen's \( d = -1.03 \). For the religious texts, the higher scores after teaching (\( SD = 1.40, M = 8.03 \)), were significant compared to the scores before teaching (\( SD = 1.27, M = 4.76 \)), \( t(62) = -17.01, p < .001, \) Cohen's \( d = -2.45 \).
3.2. The Qualitative Section

The results of the qualitative part of the study refer to the obtained themes from transcribing the participants' interviews, and the outcomes researchers observed after teaching spiritual vocabularies. Table 4 indicates the 2 main categories and the 6 subcategories acquired from the students' interviewing processes.

Table 4

Obtained themes relating to participants' interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The role of sacred vocabularies</td>
<td>- The degree of learners' familiarity/unfamiliarity with spiritual vocabularies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The guessability/unguessability of meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The speed of reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The importance of moral messages</td>
<td>- Deducing a general meaning from the texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Relating the whole text to a moral value (moral literacy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Guessing the ethical significance of the texts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the students' point of view, the most problematic part of a religious text was its newly spiritual vocabularies, and this problem was doubled when these words could not be guessed even by their surrounding words. This means that facing a religious text with more
than three or four unfamiliar words, learners got mixed up with the whole text. In this regard some of the students mentioned:

*Now we are mixed up with some religious concepts which do not match with sacred vocabularies in our minds, so we may deduce a wrong perception of the text, unless something miraculously sparks in our minds and makes us able to get the gist.*

We think that the most difficult part of a work might be the most motivational part of it if it is done in a group. While students tried to guess the meaning of new concepts, they directed their motives in a wholehearted current across which they could achieve their goal, and understand the text appropriately. In this way, although unfamiliarity with spiritual vocabularies seemed to be problematic at the first glance, students could cope with that by sharing their thoughts. According to Dörnyei and his colleagues, these surges of motivational energy are different from the routine engagements in doing different tasks (Henry, Dörnyei, & Davydenco, 2015); therefore, the intense motivation that the present researchers observed in students while coping with the meaning of newly spiritual vocabularies showed the creation of a positive motivation among students which directed them to share their ideas more eagerly while enjoying being familiar with these new vocabularies. This showed that the starting point, the new spiritual vocabularies, accompanying students' peer work made a motivational behavior which continued even after they learned the meanings of the spiritual vocabularies. It is believed that the energy which emanates from the group, the group energy, as well as other's emotions and cognitions toward an issue will increase the process of "contagion" in doing tasks (Barsade, 2002, Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016, p. 142).

The student's familiarity with the spiritual words was a route to the second subcategory, the guessability/unguessability of the meanings. This subcategory revealed the students' beliefs on how some texts were easier to be guessed. In this way some of the students commented:

*Some of these texts seem to be more pleasant, because from the first words written on the board we can remind their Arabic texts and guess their meanings; these texts produce a kind of motivation within us and make us be absorbed in the whole text even if we do not know the meaning of one or two spiritual vocabularies.*

It is important to remind that the Iranian Theology books are full of the verses of the Holy Quran; however, it is crucial for pre-university students to memorize some of these verses and know the meanings of them. The present researchers found out that when students were exposed to the verses of the Holy Quran or some Hadith Narrations from the Prophet Mohammad (peace be upon him), they immersed in linking them to what they have in their minds, meaning their previously religious knowledge, unconsciously. Now it seems that the
familiar vocabularies energize students and direct them to guess the gist of some parts of the texts based on their knowledge eagerly. This absorption in tasks might guarantee the students' success in the future currents they would be placed in different situations in their life, such as their university entrance exam.

When students were capable of linking their previous knowledge to the new concepts and enjoyed guessing correctly, they enhanced their speed of reading while maintaining their comprehension ability. In this way, the students enjoyed coping with the comprehension of the whole text, as some researchers claim that speed, enjoyment, and comprehension are connected to each other (e.g., Chang & College, 2010; Mezynski, 1983; Nuttall, 1996). This issue seemed more considerable for students, as some of them expressed:

*What is important for us is not only dealing with the new vocabularies, but our speed in reading is a kind of saving time when we take a real entrance examination.*

Having an appropriate speed in reading texts in general and religious texts in particular, shows the dynamicity of students’ engagement in doing their tasks. It is believed that being fast while reading a text affects the learners' attentional capacity for comprehension processes (Stanovich, 1980); however, the better starting point in doing a task, the more powerful and energized during the process of performing the task, and the higher speed to reach the final target (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016). This represents that when students were given the opportunity to guess the meanings of new vocabularies based on their previous knowledge, they found themselves quicker in understanding the whole text; therefore, they felt closer to their goals while saving their time. Some of the students believed:

*Our speed shows how we had a fascinating power to guess the meanings of spiritual vocabularies as fast as possible, with this we find ourselves more successful in answering the comprehension questions correctly.*

Although the speed of reading is believed to be a verbal ability (Blachman, 1984; Bowers, 1995; Bowers & Swanson, 1991; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987), the speed of reading a foreign language text is not as fast as a native one, and since students resort to any kind of strategies to get the meaning of new vocabularies, finding a general meaning help them to comprehend the content more efficiently (Nation, 2009). So, considering the second theme, deducing a general meaning of the texts, the researchers concluded that the texts seem more valuable when students extract a whole meaning in one glance. So, what students represented in this regard was:

*Sometimes we use a particular comprehension strategy in order to take us to the right destination more quickly. When we deduce a general meaning while scanning the text,*
it seems that we put a special value on it and we are encouraged to answer its related questions more thoroughly.

The general meaning deduced from the whole text makes students more motivated in their task, and their personal capabilities will increase as well. This directs students to be more satisfied with the result of trying to deduce a general meaning, while considering their speed to answer the questions of the related text simultaneously.

Understanding the moral narratives relies on the individuals’ expertise, as well as the developmental level of their moral schema (Narvaez, 2001). The learners’ moral developmental level of schemas depends on their background knowledge, and this affects their moral comprehensibility of the text; this is what researchers called the moral literacy (e.g., Bennett, 1993, as cited in Narvaez, 2002). Some researchers believe that the moral arguments done in this way help readers find different moral schemas in their minds, so based on their moral schema development they understand the texts differently (e.g., Narvaez, 2002). Interestingly, although the researchers of this study believed having different schemas in mind might bring different results; they observed that the students, the readers of the moral texts, enjoyed the identically religious schemas they have in their minds. Therefore, it can be concluded that since the spiritual vocabularies students have learned through their Theology course are the same for every individual, they have the same stored religious knowledge and schemas in their minds. However, the students might find a different view while being taught spiritual vocabularies, as some of them expressed:

Although we might get the specific meanings of new vocabularies differently, we believe that religious texts have mostly a moral message within, which is the same for everyone; therefore, according to the moral schemas we have in our minds we find ourselves more successful in answering the related comprehension questions. If we were not in the strict condition of Entrance Examination, we would enjoy more from the messages we got from the text, sometimes the moral messages make our minds busy, and create some kinds of filliping within us.

As mentioned before, what the present researchers explored from this subcategory might be to some extent different from what other researchers had declared before. The present researchers believe that since the origin of the religious texts and sacred messages are the same for every individual, when they are faced with such texts they deduce a common concept from the texts, otherwise when they are in the condition of reading a religious comprehension text and answering its questions they will not act appropriately. The moral literacy of students in religious texts makes them be more curious about the specific current they are placed in. This
current joins to their personal lives directly; it means that the more religious teachings are focused within the family lives, the more moral literacy their children will have, and the better performance in doing their religious tasks (Ellison & Levin, 1998; Graham & Haidt, 2010; Inzlicht, McGregor, Hirsh, & Nash, 2009). When individuals use their moral knowledge, they are more satisfied with the way they are trained morally and religiously earlier in their lives. This represents how the students’ previously religious training in their family creates a long-lasting satisfaction which might continue even in their future life.

Also, according to the obtained results of this study, the present researchers found that what makes students’ actions seem different is not only their different moral schemas, but it is their different interpretation of the texts while representing it orally for their peers, and their teachers as well. This helps them to find the ethical significance of the religious texts they are engaged in. Understanding or guessing the ethical significance means how students are able to explore the ethical messages behind these texts, so while apprehending the moral messages of the texts they may be more capable of achieving their target (Elliott, 2009). In this way, one of the advantages of guessing the ethical significance is that finding out the ethical matters interwoven with the religious texts may direct students to be engaged in the ethical message hidden in texts (Lesnick, 2006). This target made some of our participants express wholeheartedly:

*Although we believe that the massages extracted from the religious texts are worthy enough to immerse us completely in the task, we quest a greater target, that is when we are able to take the ethical significant of the texts, and we find ourselves more successful in guessing the ethical message hidden within the religious texts, we may cope with answering the comprehension questions more successfully.*

This can be considered as one of the strategies used by students (Gray, 1999) to cope with the comprehension questions in the Entrance Examination while caring their limited time. Therefore, if they get a general message of the texts, they will be able to form an ethical significance based on the moral schemas they have in their mind. These processes, which happen in a few seconds, are essential to direct the students in a right continuous current across which they may achieve their final target, which is being successful in doing their tasks more efficiently. In this way, when students feel they are more capable of achieving newly better results from their performance on religious texts in entrance exam, they feel more satisfaction.
4. **Conclusion**

When individuals feel their inner pleasure is not a temporary sensation while doing a task, they can profoundly understand "who they really are" and "where they are going in life" (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016, p.103). This creates a motivational energy within individuals and makes them focus on their activity wholeheartedly. The present researchers alongside with other researchers (e.g., Ellison & Levin, 1998; Levin, Wickramasekera, & Hirshberg, 1998) believe that religiosity is a motivational current which exists within individuals intrinsically; however this current is able to direct them to be connected to their religious identity in order to experience a greater life satisfaction (Ellison, 1991; Ellison & Levin, 1998; Idler, 1995).

According to the findings of this study, the pre-university students tried to put themselves on the right path of guessing, understanding, and grasping the meanings of new vocabularies while coping with answering the related comprehension questions simultaneously. It means that when our students were not familiar with the texts given, they looked for different strategies to find the gist of the texts such as guessing the meaning of new vocabularies from their surrounding words, sharing their ideas with their peers, or asking for help from their teacher. As the present students were exposed to new vocabularies, they found themselves more able to cope with the problem, as long as they felt how they were responsible for the completion of their task patiently and thoroughly. This new experience provided an opportunity to engage them in a meaningful activity, so that they could be directed motivationally in a right current to get to their destination which might have seemed out of reach at the first glance. When the pre-university students were immersed in the process of learning unfamiliar vocabularies, as well as when they were capable of being productive because of their peer work, they could enjoy a positive connection between what they experienced in their real life as their religious identity and the new currents they were placed in, as some of them expressed:

*When we try to connect our previously religious knowledge to the situation we are put in, we feel an unimaginable energy which helps us to guess the right meanings, to find what we thought to be unreachable before, and to enjoy our achievement in doing tasks.*

According to Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir (2016), this initial energy, the motive, will reach outstanding outcomes, since it makes individuals powerful enough to be successful in their tasks. The present participants showed how the initial motives they received from the spiritual vocabularies aroused their curiosity and interest to achieve their final goal which was being successful in coping with religious texts in their future life in general and their final University Entrance Exam in particular. This specific mainstream in which our participants felt more
energetic than before shows how they were directed toward a long-lasting goal while they valued their beliefs. The ultimate goal for which the present participants were being motivated in every moment of doing their tasks originated from their initial motives to find the final target more accessible and achievable. Furthermore, according to the results of both quantitative and qualitative sections of this study, the present researchers concluded that the positive satisfaction which the pre-university students experienced individually at the end of teaching sessions was because of the energy they received when they work with their peers and their group interventions. These processes might be compatible with the rules of DMCs, as in this directed current the group motivation has a crucial role to run the tasks and projects more successfully.

References


Learning Conditions for Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in L1 and L2

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Abstract
It is believed that language learners can acquire vocabulary as they are exposed to the target language. Second language learners in particular, can pick up unfamiliar words spontaneously from either oral or written context. However, the level of incidental vocabulary learning varies across studies. Having examined various researches on both incidental and intentional vocabulary learning either in first language (L1) or in second language (L2) acquisition, it is informed that these variations are affected by several factors such as students’ proficiency, the richness of context, the number of exposures and the types of words being learned.

Keywords: vocabulary learning, incidental, intentional, L1, L2

Introduction
Second language vocabulary is often acquired incidentally as learners read or listen to the target language. Many studies confirm that language learners learn words as they engage in extensive reading and listening (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Jenkins, Stein &
This paper examines several studies investigating incidental vocabulary learning in learning first and second language. It will first look at incidental language learning in general and incidental vocabulary learning in particular, comparing the different terminologies of incidental and intentional learning based on the learning condition. It will then focus on incidental vocabulary learning in the acquisition of first language (L1) and second language (L2), through reading and listening, evaluating the learning conditions prone to incidental word acquisition in both learning contexts.

**Intentional Learning and Incidental Learning**

In psychology, the term ‘incidental learning’ is commonly known as an activity without any intention and therefore it is often distinguished from intentional learning. Eysenck (1982) uses the term incidental learning as the type of learning without instruction to the learners. The absence of intention and instruction are key points in incidental learning. Although it is clear from the above definition that these two types of learning seem different from one another, it is still unclear to what extent the learning process is incidental or intentional.

In light of the basic concept of incidental and intentional learning in the psychological domain, the terms incidental learning versus intentional learning in second language acquisition (SLA) research are traditionally associated to acquisition versus learning (Krashen, 1981), or implicit versus explicit learning (Bialystok, 1978; Ellis, 1990) respectively. Krashen (1981) asserts through his acquisition-learning hypothesis that adults have two distinct ways of developing competence in a second language. These two ways are through acquisition, a subconscious process, similar to the process of children mastering their first language, and through the conscious process of learning. Thus, acquisition is assumed as a subconscious process, whilst learning is a conscious process that usually occurs in a formal learning environment and it is typical of settings where English is learned as a foreign language.

From a slightly different perspective, Bialystok (1978) describes the notion of explicit learning and implicit learning in the way in which information is stored in the brain and is used in production. According to Bialystok (1978), explicit learning is a conscious process of information admission as well as the ability to articulate it. The information may include some grammar rules, some vocabulary items, pronunciation rules, and so on. Conversely, implicit learning is an intuitive process of getting information that language learners operate in order to
produce responses (comprehension or production) in the target language spontaneously. Again, the information may contain grammar rules, vocabulary and so on.

In the case of acquisition and implicit learning, learners pick up L2 rules without focusing their attention on L2 items. In terms of learning and explicit learning, learners primarily focus their attention on the target language in order to learn the rules and learning occurs in a formal setting. While incidental and intentional learning differ in terms of the stimuli, acquisition and learning or explicit and implicit learning are different in terms of the learners’ attention to the target language and the learning environment (formal vs informal).

Furthermore, beside the absence or presence of direct attention, Schmidt (1990) considers the degree of consciousness when learners notice new items and rules in the input as another factor that contributes to incidental learning or intentional learning of a second language. Thus, in incidental learning, learners are unlikely to notice L2 rules consciously, whilst in intentional learning, learners learn a second language consciously. Schmidt (1990) describes the term ‘conscious’ as having an awareness and control. In line with this, Hulstijn (2001) adopted Eysenck’s (1982) idea about incidental and intentional learning in general and maintained that the term ‘intentional’ be used when language learners are aware that they will be tested on particular items in the target language and ‘incidental’ be used when the learners are not aware of a later evaluation.

To summarize, incidental learning in second language acquisition is often classified as a type of learning that does not require learners’ attention, awareness and control, where the learner’s focus is on conveying meanings rather than on language forms or grammar rules. Intentional learning on the other hand is the type of learning that requires learners’ attention and awareness as they focus on the target language.

Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Hulstijn (1992) defines incidental vocabulary learning as the learning of words that is caused by inexplicit involvement in a language activity. It is called incidental because the process of learning occurs unintentionally as a result of learners being involved in activities that require them to access and use a language. Thus, incidental learning may occur through exposure to normal language use as learners interact with parents, caretakers, foreigners and peers. It can also occur through reading literature, newspapers, magazines, and so on, where the main focus during reading is on the text’s message rather than on the particular vocabulary within the text.
Incidental Vocabulary Learning in First Language (L1) Acquisition

The fact that incidental learning does occur in the acquisition of a language in general and vocabulary learning in particular, has encouraged many researchers to explore further this topic. Attention was mainly given to extensive listening and extensive reading as the main sources of vocabulary.

In first language acquisition, Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984) investigated incidental L1 learning through normal classroom reading tasks, and factors (words presentation and prior exposure) that might influence it. 112 fifth-graders of average and below average ability read narrative passages that contained unfamiliar target words and were contextually rich, and were randomly assigned to read different numbers of context presentations over several days. Some students read the words twice in different passages, others read them six times and the third group read them ten times. In other words, some students had two exposures of the target vocabulary, others had six exposures and the rest had ten exposures. Later in the experiments, all children were tested on their knowledge of the target words.

The results indicated that students acquired some word meanings from context even without explicit directions to consider the unfamiliar words. Students who encountered ten repetitions of a word in different contexts acquired more knowledge than students who encountered the same words only twice. The findings indicate that the number of exposures to a word can affect children’s L1 vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, more skilled readers were better able to derive and learn word meanings than their less skilled peers. Based on several measures of vocabulary knowledge, better readers benefited more from context than did less skilled readers. Researchers concluded that incidental learning from reading accounts for students’ vocabulary growth. However, a closer examination of this study indicates that learning might not have been entirely incidental since students may have been alerted to the nature of the study because they had to read aloud the target words beforehand.

The probability for incidental learning from context to occur during normal reading is also found in a later study (Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985). After reading grade-level texts (narrative or exposition) data from two vocabulary post-tests (an individual interview and three level-multiple-choice tests) showed that learning occurred at all levels of knowledge. Some of the students went from no knowledge to some knowledge, whereas others went from some knowledge to fuller knowledge of the words, even though words appeared only once in the narrative or exposition. The probability of learning a word through reading was found to be
between 15% and 22% on the multiple-choice test. These findings indicate that incidental learning from context through free reading accounts for students’ vocabulary growth.

This result is confirmed in their later study (Nagy, Anderson, & Herman, 1987) on 352 third, fifth, and seventh grade students. Although, the students’ gain in this study is about one third as much as the earlier one, this study found that the proportion of unfamiliar words that were conceptually difficult, and the average of length of unfamiliar words significantly influenced learning from context. In the long term, students’ acquisition of vocabulary from written context is predicted to be significant.

The fact that new words can be learned incidentally while reading appears to be universal for all children learning a first language. In a study of American and Chinese children’s natural learning of word meanings while reading, Shu, Anderson and Zhang (1995) found significant incidental learning of word meanings in both grades in both countries. This study mentioned the importance of conceptual difficulty, children’s oral vocabulary and their general world knowledge as important factors for incidental acquisition of written vocabulary. Due to the strength of contextual support, the data from both Chinese and American students indicated that words surrounded by richer contextual information have a higher probability of being learned, and that children with high and low ability were similar in the amount of learning that occurred from context during reading. This was consistent to the result of previous research in L1 settings (Nagy et al., 1987).

These studies (Nagy et al., 1987; Nagy et al., 1985) conclude that incidental vocabulary learning from normal reading alone accounts for students’ vocabulary growth. However, the result of intentional word learning can significantly higher that learning word incidentally. In order to compare two conditions of word learning, intentional and incidental, Konopak et al. (1987) investigated 65 eleventh graders’ spontaneous learning of specific vocabulary embedded in history text passages, by assigning the intentional learning group to read the text passage with the target words underlined and completing a redefinition task. The incidental learning group read a second form of the passage without the words emphasized, while the control group read the newspaper passage. After post-tested on the same self-report and definition task, the incidental learning group did acquire some knowledge whilst the intentional learning group made the greatest gain. The control group on the other hand only gained little, and there was no significant difference regarding the number of exposures, ranging from one or two to four among the three groups.

Contrary to these research findings, other studies discovered that the frequency of vocabulary appearance in the text appears to be an important factor in incidental learning.
(Nagy, 1997; Saragi et al., 1987; Wittrock et al., 1975). In fact, vocabulary learning from written context appears to be closely connected to the frequency of occurrence of the target words in the text. Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) assert that multiple exposures to unknown words increase the possibility for the words to be learned. Thus, sufficient exposure to the target words is necessary to allow learners to process lexical information and commit it to the long-term memory (Nagy, 1997). This was confirmed in a quasi-experimental study on 34 L1 learners of English, where Horst, Cobb, & Meara (1998) found that learners are more likely to pick up words that are encountered more often in a text. The data on text frequency suggest that sizable and consistent learning can be expected to occur for words that are repeated eight times or more in the text. Meanwhile, Saragi, Nation, and Meister’s (1987) study on L1 acquisition suggested that at least 10 exposures were needed for full acquisition. Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985) estimated that the probability of learning a word from context through a single exposure is about .10 to .15. This number is even lower in a follow up study conducted by Nagy and Herman (1987). They discovered that reading textbooks designed for a particular grade produced a small increase in word knowledge among 3rd to 8th grade L1 students, and estimated that the chance of learning a word from a single exposure in a text is small, about 1 in 20. In line with this, Wittrock, Marks and Doctorow (1975) discovered that young native speakers were able to learn some of the unknown words through rereading the same story. The establishment of the familiar words on the first reading seemed to make it easier to learn the unfamiliar words during the later reading.

Based on the foregoing, incidental learning does occur in the acquisition of L1 vocabulary, adding support for the existence of this type of learning. In fact, some studies have demonstrated a considerable amount of vocabulary growth without any instruction. As far as these studies are concerned, reading and listening to normal language are the two ways to expose learners to the target language, although most studies were more likely to focus on reading rather than listening, through the use of natural texts, such as reading textbooks, history passages, and newspaper articles. Thus, reading and listening materials provide the context that is crucial for words to be guessed and learned. Moreover, contextual clues and conceptual difficulty of the words can significantly affect word learning, adding evidence for the importance of learners’ oral vocabulary and their general world knowledge for the incidental acquisition of written vocabulary. For words to be learned, students need enough exposure to the target language that may allow them to process the language. Most studies have confirmed that the number of word repetitions in a text determine the possibility for words to be learned.
To search for more evidence for incidental vocabulary learning, it is inadequate to see it only from the perspective of first language acquisition. It is therefore necessary to extend the discussion by also examining this phenomenon from the field of second language acquisition, to see whether there are similarities or perhaps different learning conditions between the two.

- **Incidental Vocabulary Learning in Second Language (L2) Acquisition**

Following the research on incidental learning of vocabulary in first language (L1) acquisition research, many studies in SLA tested the same hypotheses in second language vocabulary acquisition. There is one common belief among scholars in this area that vocabulary is not solely learned as a result of direct instruction (Ellis, 1999; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Nation, 2001; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). Rather, there is agreement among researchers that most vocabulary, except the first few thousand most common words, is predominantly learned as a result of picking up the words in either oral or written context, that is through incidental learning (Ellis, 1999; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Hulstijn, 2001; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999).

Considering both oral and written contexts to promote incidental learning, Brown, Sagers and LaPorte (1999) conducted a study on 9 advanced university EFL learners in one semester period. Two types of input (teacher and students’ oral and written dialogue journals) were used as the source of data. The data analysis of the two modes of input indicated significant evidence for the existence of incidental vocabulary learning. According to the researchers, “the speech and writing of the native English-speaking teacher became a major input source (the only native input) for the learners and their speech and writing became the major output evidence of what they were acquiring” (Brown et al., 1999:262).

A combination of written and oral inputs was also tested on English Immersion (IM) program to find out whether vocabulary learning could occur incidentally in untutored L2 acquisition (Wode, 1999). The term incidental is used in this study to show “language learning as a by-product of language use by the teacher or by anyone else in the classroom, without the linguistic structure itself being the focus of attention or the target of teaching manoeuvres” (Wode, 1999). Comparing one IM class with one non-IM class from another school, the results showed that IM offers plenty of opportunities for incidental vocabulary learning, and that the IM students outperformed the non-IM class in the vocabulary test. Although IM students produced more types of tokens, used more synonyms, and appeared to have more variety of
vocabulary than their peers in non-IM classes, this study was not specific in the types of exposure (written and oral) that best facilitates incidental learning.

Focusing more on written context as the main source of learning, Paribakht & Wesche (1997), compared two types of learning conditions, Reading Only (RO) and Reading Plus (RP) instructional conditions. In the RO condition, learners read four texts on two themes with multiple exposures to a number of nouns, verbs, and discourse connectors that had been identified as unfamiliar to students at their level, and later answered comprehension questions. In the RP treatment, students read four texts on two themes and then carried out text-based vocabulary activities focusing on the same set of words. Results based on the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Paribakht & Wesche, 1993; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996), indicated significant gains in both conditions. Although students in the RP treatment showed the greater gain, multiple exposures to the target language alone proved to increase the learners’ knowledge of the words. Similar finding showed in a 15-week study of EFL extensive reading program (Wang, 2013). EFL extensive reading treatment had produced a beneficial effect on the incidental vocabulary learning gains of the 50 randomly selected target words by 45 lower-level proficiency EFL Taiwanese learners, with word pick-up rate reached to a modest level on recognition test and moved from 6% to 15%.

Specifying on the amount of exposure Rott (1999) carefully investigated the effect of word frequency of occurrence for word acquisition and retention as a result of reading. 95 intermediate learners of German as a foreign language were divided into three groups, which then either received two, four, or six exposures during reading (one reading each week). Result of translation tests of word acquisition and retention on 50 lexical items (12 target words and 38 distractors) indicated that the frequency of occurrence of unfamiliar words had an impact on the amount of vocabulary gained. In fact, two encounters with unfamiliar words during reading significantly affected learners’ vocabulary growth. Moreover, two or four exposures resulted in fairly similar word gain, but six exposures produced the most gains in vocabulary knowledge.

Similar to L1 setting, studies on incidental vocabulary learning in L2 context also highlighted the importance of word repetition. Considering the importance of word exposure for incidental word learning from reading, Saragi, Nation, and Meister (1987) found that the minimum frequency of appearance for words to be learned from text is 10. Gitsaki and Melani (2013) concluded that three encounters of the target words during reading may result in some words gain, but the probability to learn is accelerating after encountering the word ten times. Reviewing some studies on incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition, Nation (1990) concluded that
full vocabulary acquisition requires a range of exposure to the target vocabulary, between 5 to 16 exposures. This means that learners need to encounter the target words five to sixteen times in various contexts in order to fully acquire them without intentional effort. The exact number of word occurrences needed for acquisition has been in debate, but many researchers put it somewhere between 6 and 12 (Jenkins & Dixon, 1983).

Studies focused on listening input however, revealed very little vocabulary learning. An investigation on learners’ L2 vocabulary from listening using three vocabulary knowledge dimensions, form recognition, grammar recognition, and meaning recall did not show strong effect of frequency of word occurrence (3, 7, 11, or 15 exposures) (Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). Thus, for listening to be a valuable source for vocabulary learning, it appears that considerably more than 15 exposures are needed (Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013). Word retention as a result of learning word through listening is also low. When subjects were tested by unprompted recall, there was almost no difference of word retention. Thus, the meaning of only 1 of the 28 items met in the reading conditions and the meaning of none of the items met in the listening-only mode, would be retained after 3 months (Brown, Waring, Donkaewbua, 2008).

Besides frequency of word occurrence, the effects of pictorial cues and glosses were also tested for their possibility to promote incidental word learning. A study (Yoshi, 2006) in a multimedia environment indicated no significant differences between L1 and L2 glosses for translation and recognition tasks and showed significant differences between picture (text-plus-picture) and no-picture (text-only) glosses for translation test only. Findings suggest that both L1 and L2 glosses are effective for incidental vocabulary learning, but long-term retention may differ between the two types; and that the effect of additional visual cues on vocabulary learning may rely on the nature of the tasks given.

A closer look at the type of word prone to be learned under incidental condition suggests that learners’ retention of receptive word knowledge can be twice as much as productive vocabulary knowledge when tested after 4-week delayed (Rott, 1999). Gitsaki and Melani (2013) found that word category and word frequency (high or low) determine vocabulary learning from reading. Thus, technical words were more likely to be incidentally learned than general vocabulary, due to a number of intralexical factors (i.e. similarity of lexical forms, abstractness, word class and multiple meanings). Furthermore, low frequency words that had a concrete meaning were better acquired from reading than multi-meaning high frequency words.

From the above review of several studies, it becomes clear that the nature of incidental vocabulary learning in L2 acquisition is almost the same as in L1 acquisition. Both contexts
require learners to be exposed to the target language and involve the process of guessing the
meaning of unknown words through available context. However, the number of exposures
needed for learning to take place in a L2 setting may be different to the L1 setting. In addition,
L2 acquisition may require exposure to a richer context, such as manipulating the learning
condition with picture aids and L1 or L2 glosses.

**Summary**

Previous research on incidental vocabulary learning shows great possibility for
incidental learning to occur naturally as learners get exposed to the language. This exposure is
basically through two types of input, written input and oral input. Studies that focused on
written input as a source for incidental learning showed that written contexts often provide
clues that can be used by readers to guess the meaning of unknown words. This cognitive
process is believed to support the learning process of new vocabulary. The level of vocabulary
learning varies across studies, depending on the students’ proficiency, the richness of context,
the number of exposures and the types of words being learned.

In terms of student’s proficiency, research in L1 acquisition concluded that more
proficient readers tend to be better at guessing than less proficient readers, whilst in L2
acquisition, proficiency does not seem to play an important role. However, research in both L1
and L2 agree that contextual richness such as context clues that surrounded the target words is
crucial for incidental vocabulary learning. In terms of the amount of exposure needed to learn
words incidentally, although studies in L1 acquisition reported that even a single exposure
might affect learning, this is not the case in L2 acquisition. In fact, studies in L2 acquisition
reported that multiple exposures are needed for word learning, with the number of exposures
ranging between 2 to 16. In order for the words to be retained, more word repetition may be
required. However, not many studies focused on the types of words that are likely to be learned
from either written or oral context under incidental or natural condition.

**References**


Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition from Reading, Reading-While-Listening and Listening to Stories. Reading in a Foreign Language, 20(2), 136-163.


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

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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 folklore 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 was interesting. They love using technology to create their project presentation and 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 as well as organizing ideas in a meaningful storyline. (“I learn how to analyze 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 ideas 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


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

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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-to-sound 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correct pronunciation</th>
<th>Participants’ pronunciation</th>
<th>Affecting words</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Freshmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>/ˈprefəs/</td>
<td>/ˈprɪfɪs/</td>
<td>Face</td>
<td>85 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cowardice</td>
<td>/ˈkɔədɪs/</td>
<td>/ˈkɔədɪs/</td>
<td>Dice</td>
<td>80 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/ˈkɑːpriːs/</td>
<td>/ˈkɑːpraɪs/</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>75 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caprice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designate</td>
<td>/ˈdez.ɪɡ.neɪt/</td>
<td>/ˈdrˌzaimeɪt/</td>
<td>Design</td>
<td>65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface</td>
<td>/ˈsɜːfəs/</td>
<td>/ˈsɜːfɪəs/</td>
<td>Face</td>
<td>65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite</td>
<td>/ˈɑpəˌzɪt/</td>
<td>/ˈɑpəˌsɒɪt/</td>
<td>Site</td>
<td>41 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novice</td>
<td>/ˈnɑvəs/</td>
<td>/ˈnɑvɛəs/</td>
<td>Vice</td>
<td>35 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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* [ɛI]. The second most error is the word *cowardice* [ɪs] 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
The Potential of Using Visual Aids in Reading Literary Texts

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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.

**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 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.

Table 1: Types of Visual Aids that Can Be Used as a Motivational Tool

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree and Disagree N (%)</th>
<th>Uncertain N (%)</th>
<th>Agree and Strongly Agree N (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Animation videos</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>8 (15.4)</td>
<td>43 (82.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>3 (5.8)</td>
<td></td>
<td>49 (94.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>15 (28.8)</td>
<td></td>
<td>37 (71.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projectors</td>
<td>14 (26.9)</td>
<td></td>
<td>38 (73.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings showed that the teachers (94.2%) were mostly interested in using pictures 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.
Table 2: Benefits of Using Visual Aids to Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree and Disagree N (%)</th>
<th>Uncertain N (%)</th>
<th>Agree and Strongly Agree N (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Poems</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>3 (5.8)</td>
<td>49 (94.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understandable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>51 (98.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The literary concepts are identifiable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>8 (15.4)</td>
<td>43 (82.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Short Stories</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>3 (5.98)</td>
<td>49 (94.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understandable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>51 (98.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The literary concepts are identifiable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>9 (17.3)</td>
<td>42 (80.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Novels</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>4 (7.7)</td>
<td>48 (92.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understandable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>51 (98.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The literary concepts are identifiable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>7 (13.5)</td>
<td>44 (84.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plays or Dramas</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>4 (7.7)</td>
<td>47 (90.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understandable</td>
<td>3 (5.8)</td>
<td>49 (94.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The literary concepts are identifiable</td>
<td>1 (1.9)</td>
<td>8 (15.4)</td>
<td>43 (82.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 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


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

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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 in Padang, 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.
**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, 2000a, 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**


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

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Abstract
This present study aims at investigating the effects of focused and unfocused prompts in EFL classroom as one type of corrective feedback. Three low-intermediate intact classes are selected as focused prompt, unfocused prompt and control groups. The focused (intensive) prompt group emphasizes correction on simple present tense and degree of comparison, while unfocused (extensive) prompt group is emphasized on the correction for any grammatical errors. Furthermore, the control group is not given any feedback. I formulate 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? A statistical package of SPSS 20 was used by applying repeated-measurement of ANOVA and post-hoc comparisons in pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test. Pre-test was given a week before the treatments, while delayed post-test was conducted three weeks after post-test. A set of Grammatical Judgment tests (GJTs) were given for all groups, while students’ WTC was measured by using questionnaires regarding motivation, anxiety, and confidence as variables.
affecting WTC. The results reveal that both focused and unfocused prompt groups more outperformed than control group on the grammatical accuracy and WTC, while there was no significant difference statistically between focused and unfocused prompt groups on WTC. However, focused prompt group more outperformed than unfocused and control group resulting in GJT. The results also indicate the confirmation of the previous research findings regarding the efficacy of prompts in facilitating second language learners. Accordingly, 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), interlocutors (teacher and peers) (Kang, 2005; Zarinnabadi, 2014; MacIntyre, 2011; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak’s, 2015), motivation, confidence and anxiety (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei and Noels, 1998; Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002; and Liu and Jackson, 2009), and error correction (MacIntyre, 2011; Zarinnabadi, 2014).

The body of research on error correction or Corrective feedback (CF) has been reported by some researchers. Zarinnabadi (2014) reports that error correction provided after learners finish their speech can increase learners’ L2 WTC in upcoming situation. Another research finding shares a similar voice. By investigating four Korean male students, Kang (2005) 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). CF denotes through, but not limited to input hypothesis, interactional hypothesis, noticing hypothesis, and output hypothesis (see e.g., Lyster and Sato, 2010 as the main review). Researchers have investigated that 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).
Two prominent CF types mostly discussed are prompts and recasts. Some research reports have made an endeavor effort to compare the implementation of 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 pinpoint that both CF types are effective, while learners are more outperformed by providing prompts than recasts. Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined prompts as CF strategies which are derived from various shapes and types: clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitations. Lyster and Izquerdo (2009) make the comparison between Prompts and recasts in dyadic interaction using repeated measures of ANOVA. Their finding postulates 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 negative evidence and opportunities 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, Sato and Saito’s (2013) assert ‘a variety of CF types is probably more effective than consistent use of only one type’ and it is not necessary to use only single type of CF strategy (p. 21). It is necessary to use more than one type of CF to fit individual factors such as prior knowledge and developmental readiness of learners (Sarandi, 2016). Accordingly, prompts are best suited for having more than one form of CF strategy.

In its development, there are still no consensus regarding prompts in the relationship with focused and unfocused linguistic target and learners’ differences. First, whether prompts are best suited to the focused and unfocused tasks remain debatable. 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 linguistic target can be elicited as CF addressed to induce the use of particular construction or linguistic forms for the former and CF that do not have a predetermined language focus or certain linguistic forms for the later. Mackey and Goo (2007) suggest that feedback provided in focused linguistic target leads to L2 development. Little attention is addressed to the use of unfocused linguistic target due to the assumption of the insufficiency detailed linguistic target descriptions for categorizing target focusedness. Second, a few studies report CF in the relationship with learners’ differences. 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 Rassaei (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.

The present study is addressed to reveal the efficacy of focused and unfocused prompts on the linguistic targets and learners’ WTC variables; anxiety, motivation, and confidence resulted in CF provided. Such variables are relied on McIntyre et al. (1998) pyramid model in which anxiety, motivation and confidence as the antecedents of L2 WTC. Accordingly, I formulate two research questions as follows:

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 grammatical accuracy and WTC?

**Review Of Related Literature**

**Corrective Feedback**

Corrective feedback (CF) 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. Generally, the strategies mostly used in CF fall into two dimensions of feedback namely explicit and implicit dimensions and input-providing and output-providing dimensions that are widely accepted in second language acquisition studies (Ellis, 2010a). Implicit dimension 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. Thus these dimensions concern the degree of ranging from the explicitness to the implicitness in correcting learners’ errors. Input-providing dimension 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 dimension, however, allows learners to work out the correct form of their deviant utterances using their own language correction repertoire. So these dimensions regard the extent to which CF generates input or output (Sarandi, 2016: 236). R.Ellis’s (2009) asserted that taxonomy of
CF dimension constitutes that prompts are classified as output-providing that provide the moves from implicit to explicit strategy.

**Prompts**

Prompts are defined as “a variety of signals that push learners to the self-repair (Lyster, 2002). Several studies reveal that prompts were 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). 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.

The following utterances are the forms of prompts

Learner’s utterances: ‘She has cat’

1. Asking for clarification: ‘Sorry?’;
2. Making a metalinguistic comment: ‘You need an indefinite article’;
3. Eliciting the correct form: ‘She has …?’; or
4. Repeating the wrong sentence: She has a cat?’

Lyster and Saito (2010, p.268) pinpoint 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. 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.

**Method**

**Participants**

The present study was conducted in a private university in Surabaya, Indonesia. Three intact classes comprising 60 second year 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 assigned as treatment groups (focused and unfocused prompt groups), while one class was as a control
group. 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 Judgment Tests (GJTs)

Three sets of grammatical judgment tests were given during pre-test, post-test and delayed test. The tests consist of grammatical and ungrammatical forms of simple present and comparison. Instances of the tests such as the use of V-s/es, and be (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 correct answer weight 1, while incorrect answer or no answer weight 0. There was no penalty for incorrect answers.

**WTC Questionnaire**

A set of questionnaire of WTC was deployed to the participants during pre-test, post-test 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). Focused and unfocused prompt groups have the same questionnaire in pre-test and delayed-test (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 asking 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of prompts</th>
<th>Feedback types</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elicitation, metalinguistic-clue, clarification requests, and repetition</td>
<td><strong>Focused prompt group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Elicitation</td>
<td><strong>Metalinguistic</strong></td>
</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
| 2. Metalinguistic clue | **Gives technical linguistic information about the error**  
  *e.g.*
  
  \( S = \) the girl take some paper  
  \( T = \) the third singular person for verb should end.....  
  \( S = \) oh sorry .... takes, the girl takes some paper  |
| 3. Clarification | **Elicitation:**  
  *Prompts the students to self-correct by pausing and students can fill in the blanks*  
  *e.g.*
  
  \( S = \) Ali’s book is more thick than Andrea’s  
  \( T = \) comparative form for thick? One syllable?  
  \( S = \) thicker  |
| 4. Repetition | **Repetition**  
  *Repeat the students’ errors while highlighting the error or mistake through emphatic stress*  
  *e.g.*
  
  \( S = \) are you understand the picture?  
  \( T = \) are you understand ....?  
  \( S = \) Ohh..Do 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  
\( T = \) how to state superlative form in a sentence?  
\( S = \) the novel is the most expensive of all
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elicitation, metalinguistic-clue, clarification requests, and repetition</th>
<th><strong>Unfocused prompt groups</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Elicitation</td>
<td><strong>Elicitation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Metalinguistic clue</td>
<td>e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Clarification</td>
<td>S=the woman is leaves to work by foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Repetition</td>
<td>T=the woman is leaves?.....by foot?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S=the woman leaves to work <strong>by</strong> foot (needs repair on preposition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Metalinguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e.g.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>S=Ary book more expensive than Ani</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>T= put apostrophe -'s to show possession....you need to use tobe –is to show the singular subject</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>S=Ary’s book is more expensive than Ani’s book</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetition</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repeat the students’ errors while highlighting the error or mistake through emphatic stress</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e.g.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S= is she deliver the homework?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T= is she deliver?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S= does she deliver..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T=deliver?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S=what is <strong>mengumpulkan</strong> in English sir?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>T=oh you do you mean submit?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S=ye submit</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Clarification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Design and procedure

This study uses 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’ grammatical accuracy and willingness to communicate (WTC). Regarding the accuracy, participants are tested their English grammatical target 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.

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.

Findings

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.

Mauchly’s Test of Sphericity\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: WTC</th>
<th>Within Subjects Effect</th>
<th>Mauchly’s W</th>
<th>Approx. Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Epsilon(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tests</td>
<td>.984</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 testing of variance

Table 2 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 meet the statistical 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 3). The test interaction in table 3 postulates that there is significant difference among the three tests with significant value (\(p<.05\)). Furthermore, the best visualization can be seen clearly in figure 1, profile plot, indicating the difference of mean among the three tests.
Tabel 3 group means comparison among the tests

**Pairwise Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: WTC</th>
<th>(I) tests</th>
<th>(J) tests</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre–test</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>2.356</td>
<td>.2944</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>3.098</td>
<td>.3602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>2.958</td>
<td>.3442</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 5). It also answers research question 2 whether focused prompts are different from unfocused prompts.

**Multiple Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: WTC</th>
<th>(I) groups</th>
<th>(J) groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scheffe</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>-.0500</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>-.3280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>.4333*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.1553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.0500</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>-.2280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>.4833*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.2053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding the grammatical target, it reveals 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 6). Furthermore, Post-Hoc test indicates that both focused and unfocused prompt group outperform more than control group in grammatical target; while, focused prompt group outperforms more than unfocused prompt groups. Table 6 points out 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 indicates 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: Accuracy</th>
<th>(I) groups</th>
<th>(J) groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>3.667*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>6.374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>12.167*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>9.459</td>
<td>14.874</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>-3.667*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-6.374</td>
<td>-.959</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>8.500*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.792</td>
<td>11.208</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>-12.167*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-14.874</td>
<td>-9.459</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>-8.500*</td>
<td>1.098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-11.208</td>
<td>-5.792</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 comparison of mean difference among the groups

### Homogeneous Subsets

#### Accuracy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control unfocused prompts</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>69,4167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>77,9167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>81,5833</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 Homogeneous subset of the three groups
Profile Plots

Figure 2 plot of grammatical accuracy

Discussion

Based on the finding, it can be said that focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform significantly both in participants’ WTC and accuracy over control group. Both groups receiving treatment show the statistical differences in the grammatical accuracy but not in WTC. Participants receiving CF in focused prompt more outperformed 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 Motlaq, 2016) revealing that learners are reluctant to participate in the classroom due to afraid of negative evaluation. The present study, however, reveals that one type of corrective feedback strategy, prompts, gives significant effect on students’ WTC. It also confirms the previous findings that error correction gives an effect on the L2 learners’ WTC (see e.g., Kang, 2005; Zarinnabadi, 2014; MacIntyre, 2011). 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 can be said 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 provided to the learner’s WTC. The similar increase also occurs in unfocused prompt group with pre-test (2.70) and post-test (4.15).
Furthermore, the finding also confirms the efficacy 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 L2 learners’ WTC. Krashen (1982) argues that CF is potentially detrimental to L2 learning due to the increase of learners’ anxiety. In addition, he argues 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 the grammatical accuracy, it reveals that the three groups 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 retrieving existing knowledge and therefore assist learners to construct their inter-language 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 in pre-tests 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 prompt M=84.5 and control M=75.25). furthermore, It also confirms the efficacy of 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. The result shows different target of language regarding L2 learner’s grammatical accuracy and WTC. Focused and unfocused prompt treatment shows significant improvement over no treatment group in both WTC and accuracy. This finding also rejects the argument that CF can hinder learner’s communication and raise anxiety. It will be meaningful when teachers give an 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 comprehensible finding to the efficacy of the CF on L2 learners’ WTC. Regarding the grammatical accuracy, further research may consider about the use of CF to the new grammatical target to see the efficacy of CF rather than grammar that has been already learnt albeit no mastering it.

References


**Appendix A**

**Willingness to Communicate variables**

**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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Anxiety about speaking English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fear to speak in front of classmates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Being embarrassed to communicate in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Enjoy participating in class discussion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Positive attitude toward learning English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Motivation to develop oral English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Willingness to communicate in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Excited to improve spoken English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-confidence to speak in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Enjoyment of learning oral English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Confidence to initiate conversation in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Self-confidence to communicate in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>high</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 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**

<p>| | | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Anxiety about speaking English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fear to speak in front of classmates</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Being embarrassed to communicate in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Enjoy participating in class discussion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Positive attitude toward learning English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Motivation to develop oral English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Willingness to communicate in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Excited to improve spoken English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-confidence to speak in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Enjoyment of learning oral English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Confidence to initiate conversation in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Self-confidence to communicate in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>somewhat agree</td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I don’t think good about getting my teacher’s corrective feedback on my oral English error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I have high anxiety about receiving my teacher’s oral corrective feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. When the teacher corrects my errors, it makes me embarrassed to communicate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. I am afraid of the other students will laugh at me when the teacher corrects my utterance errors</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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
7. 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
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
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a more competent EFL learner, even outside of the classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>28. More oral corrective feedback of my English means more investment to develop my oral English</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>29. The more teacher corrects my oral English, the more self-confidence I have to speak English correctly</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30. Teacher’s oral corrective feedback facilitates me to speak out in front of my classmates during in class presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>31. Oral Corrective feedback on my English enables me to speak without any hesitation or fear of making mistakes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32. Whenever I get teacher’s oral corrective feedback, I realize that I can speak English fluently with more confidence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>33. My teacher’s oral corrective feedback lets me speak to native English speaker with more confident</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>34. My teacher’s oral corrective feedback encourages me to engage positively in classroom discussions and activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>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</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>36. I think my teacher’s oral corrective feedback is connected with improvements in my self-confidence to speak English</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>37. My teacher’s oral corrective feedback allows me to ask or question in class confidently without any hesitation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>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</strong></td>
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| 6. |
Professional English Teaching on the Basis of Blended Learning

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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-to-face 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:

1. 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.
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Listening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>F2F</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>projects, presentations, discussions</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Short tracks (less than 5-6 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asynchronous</strong></td>
<td>Reports, essays, abstracts, summary</td>
<td>Video presentations</td>
<td>texts and articles (for self-study or as a part of home assignment)</td>
<td>Long audio tracks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Synchronous</strong></td>
<td>Tests, quizzes, chat discussions, forums</td>
<td>Webinars, chat discussions, forums</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Short tracks (less than 5-6 min)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.
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

How do Undergraduate Students avoid Plagiarism?

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**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.

![Figure 2. Question 1: Plagiarism is...](image)

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’s work and ideas since some of the students state that claiming someone idea’s is including in plagiarism.

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 & Arik, (2011), Reingold & Baratz (2011), Fazel & Kowkabi (2013), Fish & Hura (2013), Henslee, Goldsmith, Stone, & Krueger (2015).

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:

1. 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.

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

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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.

Keywords: Reflection strategy, ability, interest, learning model.
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 my 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
Poetry in EFL Teaching: Perspective of the Students based on Gender

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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


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

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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.

Keywords: Communication skills, Conversation Lounge, and Speaking Skills
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. Learners 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 (Leonatief, 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 Swierbin (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 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 in 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

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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S10</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S11</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S12</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D : Difference between scores of pre-test and post-test
Table 2: The Result of T-Test Value (Confidence)

Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Confidence1</td>
<td>22.50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.216</td>
<td>1.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence2</td>
<td>45.8333</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.14929</td>
<td>1.48647</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-.213</td>
<td>.506</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Vocabulary1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Vocabulary1</td>
<td>24.17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.686</td>
<td>1.930</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary2</td>
<td>35.8333</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.68558</td>
<td>1.92996</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Vocabulary1 – Vocabulary2</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.16667</td>
<td>-15.33498 -7.99836 -7.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Pronunciation1</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Pronunciation2</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pronunciation1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.149</td>
<td>24.17</td>
<td>1.486</td>
<td>Pronunciation2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.97724</td>
<td>35.0000</td>
<td>2.30283</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Pronunciation1 and Pronunciation2</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pronunciation1 and Pronunciation2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Pronunciation1 – Pronunciation2</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>95% Confidence</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pronunciation1 – Pronunciation2</td>
<td>-1.08333</td>
<td>6.68558</td>
<td>-15.08115</td>
<td>-6.58552</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar1</td>
<td>21.67</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.77350</td>
<td>1.66667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar2</td>
<td>28.33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.17741</td>
<td>2.07194</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp; Grammar2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Paired Samples Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Total1</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.374</td>
<td>4.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tota2</td>
<td>96.6667</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.56998</td>
<td>4.49467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Paired Samples Correlations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Total1 and Tota2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Paired Samples Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Total1</td>
<td>-13.70689</td>
<td>3.95684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tota2</td>
<td>2.66667E1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency1</td>
<td>27.50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.523</td>
<td>1.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency2</td>
<td>35.8333</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.14929</td>
<td>1.48647</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency1 &amp; Fluency2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.683</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Mean</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Fluency1 - Fluency2</td>
<td>3.89249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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


Brown, G and Yule, G. Teaching the Spoken Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press


Penny, Ur. (2012). A Course in English Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press


