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Reconstruction of Cognitive Process in Popular Article Writing

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

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

Keywords: cognitive process, argumentative writing, columnist, cognition

Introduction
Literacy is an integration of observing, speaking, reading, writing, and critical thinking skills. As stated by Ontario Ministry of Education [OME] (2004), literacy is the ability to use language and images in rich and varied forms to read, to write, to listen, to speak, to view, to represent, and to think critically about ideas. Indeed, literacy is not a generalized ability a person possesses, it is a set of actions and transitions in which people use reading and writing
for personal and social purposes (Ibid). Thus, literacy skill includes being able to read and write different sorts of texts for different purposes and this skill would not come without practice since it can only be achieved and mastered by practicing intensively and continuously.

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

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

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

In line with Flower and Hayes, McCutchen, Teske, and Bankston (2008) declared that cognitive models tend to define writing in terms of problem-solving. According to McCutchen et al. (2008), writing problems arise from the writer’s attempt to map language onto his own thoughts and feelings as well as the readers’ expectations. In addition, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) proposed that expert writers often “problematize” a writing task, adopting a strategy called knowledge transforming. Meanwhile, expert writers often develop elaborate goals, particularly content, and rhetorical goals, which require sophisticated problem-solving. In contrast, novice writers typically take a simpler, natural approach to composing, adopting a
knowledge-telling approach in which content is generated through association, with one idea prompting the next (Ibid).

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

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

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

**Method**

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

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

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

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

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

Findings and Discussion

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

As result, the researcher found that there were some different ways in which the writers got inspiration to write their arguments until closed their writings influenced by their areas of expertise, interest, cognition, and writing styles. Besides, the researcher also found some internal and external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process and stages of publication. The detail explanation of the findings of this research is presented in the following parts.
1. **Writers’ way to get inspiration**

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

Table 1 Writers’ way to get inspiration

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

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

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

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

2. Values that underlie writers to give their argument

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant A (MDK)</th>
<th>Participant B (AT)</th>
<th>Participant C (INS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The values of truth, goodness, and beauty based on religious, philosophical [logical], constitutional [law], and historical perspectives.</td>
<td>The values of truth, justice, and public interest that refer to democracy and election principles.</td>
<td>Value of truth that comes from Holy book (Al-Qur’an and Hadits). Al-Qur’an</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

Angle is defined as “standpoint or viewpoint; a position from which something is looked” (Hornby, 1995, p. 39). In deciding the writing angle, there are some aspects considered by the writers, such as the actuality and the closeness of the issue toward the readers. Those aspects need to be considered when a writer is trying to decide his/her writing angle in order to create a unique angle that will make readers interested in reading the argumentative writing. Writers’ way to decide the angle are shown in table 3.

Table 3 Writers’ way to decide the Angle

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

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

In brief, the aspects considered by the writers when deciding the writing angle are; 1) the actuality of the issue, 2) the closeness of the issue toward the readers, 3) the significance of
4. Writers’ way to start writing

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

Table 4 Writers’ way to start writing

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

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

“Dari siapa warga Negara ini –di tataran sosiologis– menguasai kemampuan menulis, kalau bukan dari guru?”
(From whom the citizen—in sociological level—master the writing skill, if it is not from the teacher?)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In contrast, Participant B decided his standing position of argument after elaborating the social-political reality that was being talked by public. The social-political reality was the “problem notes” needed to achieve the argument and analysis area. Here, he created a “problem note” that was focus so that he would not be difficult to explore the argument and analysis area. It was clear that the ways in which Participant A and Participant C decided their standing position of argument were different from what Participant B did.
To sum up, there were several ways done by the writers in deciding their standing position of argument, those are; the argument is based on factual-rational argument of religious, philosophical, constitutional, and science; the argument is oriented on public interest; holds the principle to keep the old things that are good and find new things that are better; and focus on the writer’s areas of expertise.

6. Writers’ way to defend their argument

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

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

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


(In HDR UNDP year 2014, it is informed that HDI or IPM of Indonesia year 2013 is in the 108th ranking from 187 states in the world with the IPM grade 0.684)

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

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

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

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

“Hal ini ditegaskan dalam Al-Qur’an, ‘Maha Suci Allah yang telah memperjalankan hamba-Nya pada suatu malam dari Al-Masjidil Haram ke Al-Masjidil Aqsha, yang telah kami berkahii sekelilingnya agar Kami perlihatkan kepadanya sebagian dari tanda-tanda (kebesaran) Kami…’ (QS. Al-Isra [17]: 1)”

(It is confirmed in Al-Qur’an, ‘The Almighty Allah who had allowed His follower travelled in a night from Al-Masjidil Haram to Al-Masjidil Aqsha which had been blessed so We show him some of Ours (bigness)...’ (QS. Al-Isra [17]: 1)

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

7. **Writers’ way to develop their argument**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7 Writers’ way to develop their argument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participant A</strong> (MDK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After knowing the main topic that will be talked and the goal of writing, so, considerable, the writer proposes a relevant argument that supports his argument.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this research, it was found that Participant A, as it can be seen from his argumentative writing products, often proposed a relevant argument that supports his thesis statement. He presented a relevant argument after knowing the main topic that would be talked and the goal of writing. In contrast, Participant B developed his argument by stating factual and actual examples, delivering the writer or public expectation, and elaborating a particular case. Then, Participant C developed his argument by presenting a relevant argument that was supported by factual data that have been collected. This step was done after the writer (Participant C) knew the main topic and analyzed it.

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

8. Writers’ way to close their writing

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant A (MDK)</th>
<th>Participant B (AT)</th>
<th>Participant C (INS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Praying and hoping for goodness.</td>
<td>- Stating a brief suggestion or the writer’s consideration related to the writing theme.</td>
<td>- Presenting a conclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Presenting a rhetorical question.</td>
<td>- Stating a proverb, poetry, or statement of public figures/actors that are popular in society.</td>
<td>- Presenting an expectation that can be a prayer or about how the problem that is talked can be solved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Stating a critical statement [persuade to do a reflection].</td>
<td>- Giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer’s opinion.</td>
<td>- Presenting a statement and confirmation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

“Semoga melalui peringatan Isra dan Mi’raj Nabi Muhammad SAW ini membangkitkan semangat umat Islam seluruh dunia untuk bersatu dalam membeli kaum muslimin Palestina untuk meraih kemerdekaannya.”

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conceptualization of Idea

Values
Values of truth, goodness, justice, and beauty based on philosophical, constitutional, and historical perspectives.

Writing Angle
1) The actuality of the issue.
2) The closeness of the issue toward the readers.
3) The significance of the issue.
4) The exclusivity of the issue.
5) The uniqueness

Position Argument
1) The argument is based on factual-rational argument.
2) The argument is oriented on public interest.
3) Focuses on the writer’s areas of expertise.

The Writing Process

Start Writing
1) Presenting the title and an introductory paragraph that are unique and interesting to get readers’ attention.
2) Explaining the main topic.
3) Proposing a relevant question.
4) Proposing a general viewpoint in both theoretical and philosophical.

Defend Argument
1) Presenting a logical argument, in both textual and contextual argument.
2) Stating theorems that are suitable with the writing topic.
3) Presenting a comprehensive explanation that is supported by factual data, religious theorems, and some relevant books.

Develop Argument
1) Proposing a relevant argument that supports the thesis statement.
2) Stating factual and actual examples.
3) Delivering the writer or public expectation.
4) Elaborating a particular case.
5) Presenting a relevant argument supported by factual data collected.

Close Writing
1) Presenting a prayer.
2) Stating a critical statement and confirmation.
3) Presenting a rhetorical question.
4) Giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer’s opinion.
5) Presenting a conclusion.
6) Stating a brief suggestion.
7) Stating a proverb, poetry, or statement of public figures/actor's.
1. **Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing**

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

Table 9 Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing

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

All of the writers have experienced getting stuck when writing even it often happens to them. The factors causing the writers got stuck when writing were the lack of writing materials.
and the demand to do another task. Besides, factor such as the writer’s condition (when the writer is in a bad mood) also influenced the writing process itself.

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

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

2. External factors influencing the continuity of the writing process

Beside internal factors, there are also external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process. According to Zascerinska, et al. (2013), external factors are determined as surroundings and resources. Here, external factor is factor outside the writers that influences them in the act of writing. The external factors are such as the availability of the writing materials and the quiet condition to write. The following table shows some external factors influencing the continuity of the writing process experienced by the writers.
Table 10 External factors influencing the continuity of the writing process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant A</th>
<th>Participant B</th>
<th>Participant C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(MDK)</td>
<td>(AT)</td>
<td>(INS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The material for the writing process, the writing equipment, food and drink, and other close things that mean a lot for me. The condition of the close things that mean a lot for me should be good, so I will concentrate (I will not feel worried and frustrated) in writing.</td>
<td>The references are adequate, issue/problem that becomes writing theme has been mastered, the time to write is very conducive (quiet situation, I’m not facing a serious activity/problem), and there is a strong belief that my writing product will be published several days later.</td>
<td>Some factors that influence the continuity of the writing process are the availability of the writing materials, and the supported time and environment (quiet situation and not too noisy).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

After writing, there are still some stages until the argumentative writing is published, it is called publication. According to *The 1976 Copyright Act* (in Litman, 1987), publication is the distribution of copies or phonorecords of a work to the public by sale or other transfer of ownership, or by rental, lease, or lending. Each writer in this research explained the stages and gave his own suggestions when someone wanted to publish his argumentative writing. Those stages are presented in the following table.
Table 11 Stages of Publication

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

From the table above, we can see that Participant A usually sent his argumentative writing completed with his curriculum vitae, ID card, and photo to the editor through the editor’s email address (in an argumentative writing context in newspaper). Participant B sent the softcopy file of his written product via editor’s email address completed with cover later that told about the main topic of the writing theme. Here, Participant B suggested that the notification should be delivered by using polite language, humble, and do not act like a teacher/dictate the editor. Although a writer has a belief that his/her written product will be published, but still he/she should show that the publishing authority is on the editor’s hand. So, it is important to show the writer’s ethic and appreciation to the editor, although the last written product has been published.
In contrast, Participant C prepared it from the beginning of the writing process, starting from deciding the writing theme that is up-to-date, knowing the characteristics of the media, following the rules of the writing (since there are some difference rules between each media), reviewing the written product, and after that sending it to the media via the editor’s email address.

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

**Figure 3 Stages of Publication**

![Figure 3 Stages of Publication](image)

**Conclusion**

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

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

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

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

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

References


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

Author
Feky R. Talahaturuson
Email address: tfeky@yahoo.com

Hendrik J. Maruanaya
Email address: hjmaruanaya@gmail.com

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

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

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

Keywords: Wondershare Quiz Creator, Multimedia, reading comprehension
Introduction

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

Hendrik J. Maruanaya  
English Language Department of Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia

Feky R. Talahaturuson  
SMK Negeri 2 Ambon, Indonesia

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

Literature review

Reading Comprehension

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

**Method**

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

**Intervention**

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

The data obtained from the initial stage of implementing WQC program in reading comprehension lesson was used as the baseline data to develop intervention as shown in the chart below.
Chart 1. Instructional Framework of Reading Interventions designed in WQC program

Before Reading
- **Create Vocabulary Matching Quiz from the selected passage**
  - The quiz is meant for the students to learn vocabulary about the passage they are about to read.
  - The answers to the quiz are revealed and are discussed with students.

During Reading
- **Create True and False (T/F) Quiz based on the selected passage.**
  - Placed the quiz for the students to complete before reading the text.
  - The answers to the quiz are not revealed to students or are remained secret as they contain only the students’ best prediction of the content based on their background knowledge.

  - **Reading the selected passage**
    - Students read the passage by considering the statements they made earlier in the T/F quiz or reviewing the passage and the statements.

  - **Place a similar T/F quiz**
    - Students respond to the quiz after reviewing the passage.
    - The answers to the quiz are revealed to students.

After Reading
- **Discussion**
  - Teacher and students discussed.
Result and Discussion

Student’s engagement in reading lesson

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

Table 1 Elements of engagement in reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Did you do the following when reading?</th>
<th>Frequency (in percentage)</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reviewing or reread the text</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Making connection</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Think aloud</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Finding the main idea and details</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=30

Students’ view of reading activities designed in WSQ program

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>What do you think about reading lesson designed in WQS</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Encourage me to read</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Enjoyable</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Help me to read independently</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Increase my confidence in reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=30

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

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

References


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

Author
Geminastiti Sakkir

English Education Department at STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang, Indonesia

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

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

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

**Introduction**

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

Richard and Willy (2002: 56) argue that “the difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable text. In fact, the writer will try to cover the difficulties faced by students in writing process. There are two major difficulties
in composing writing for ESL students are connecting and writing ideas in readable form. That is why, the writer needs writing process which comprise four main stages: planning, drafting, revising and editing. Those are defined as steps for writer to have good preparation in writing activity with any reformulation for revision (Krashen, 1984: 201).

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

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

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

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

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

**Purpose of the Study**

This study aims at answering the following questions:

1) Are the students’ interests on the use of the Social Media- Facebook in the writing class?

2) What are the levels of students’ writing skill on Facebook wall in the process of teaching writing English in STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang?

**Method**

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

**Findings and Discussions**

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

**Students’ Interest**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Interested</td>
<td>85-100</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interested</td>
<td>69-84</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>52-68</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td>36-51</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Uninterested</td>
<td>20-35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. The Mean Score of Students’ Interest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Respondent</th>
<th>Total of students' score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1711</td>
<td>85.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Students’ Writing Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Experimental Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>89-100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>78-88</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly Good</td>
<td>67-77</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>56-66</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>45-55</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the Table 3, it is known that most of the students’ writing skill still was in poor category. Because only one student (5%) got fairly good, 6 students (30%) got fair, 9 students (45%) got poor and 4 students (20%) got very poor. It showed that students’ writing level was very low and need more help to improve it.

![Figure 1. Students' Writing Level (N=20)](image)

**Table 4. Components of Students’ Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Language use</th>
<th>Mechanics</th>
<th>Writing Score</th>
<th>Category Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Fairly good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Related on the theories after looking those scores, Asfah Rahman’s (2007:2) statement said that descriptive statistics are a way of summarizing data-letting one number stand for a group of number, can also use tables and graphs to summarize data. Thus, descriptive statistics serves as a toll to describe or summarize or reduce to a manageable from the properties of an otherwise mass of data. And then, inferential statistics or research statistics are a measure of the confidence that we can have in our descriptive statistics, the statistics that we use to test hypothesis. The purpose of inferential statistics is to predict or estimate characteristics of a population from knowledge of the characteristics of only sample of the population.

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

Conclusion

The study concluded that the use of Social Media- Facebook increased the students’ interest in joining the writing class. It was proved by the mean score based on the questionnaire was 85.55 which were categorized as strongly interested based on interpretation data. This led to the conclusion that the students have interest to use Social Media- Facebook in writing English and it keep the students’ interest to study English. This media attract the students of English very well. There are many ways to arouse students’ interest by considering clear goals, varied topics, visuals, challenging, entertainment, and personalization (Ur, 1996: 281).
But the data from writing test showed that most of the students were still in poor category. Only one student got fairly good and the others got fair, poor and very poor. Even thought the students very interested to use Facebook in classroom but their writing skill need more practices. So, this study should be continued to develop the material through Facebook and the students writing skill can improve significantly.

References


Title
Developing Second and Foreign Language Proficiency: Insight from the Learners

Author
Hairus Salikin
*Universitas Jember, Indonesia*

Muhlisin Rasuki
*Universitas Muhammadiyah Jember, Indonesia*

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

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

Abstract
This paper presents a study of two learners’ experiences in learning Indonesian and English. One of the learners is from the Philippines and the other is from Thailand. As the study was conducted, they were studying in an English language teaching program at an Indonesian university. The two learners maintained quite unique learning experiences in that both of them neither had knowledge of nor communicative skills in Indonesian language prior to coming to Indonesia. Although they faced lots of difficulty at first, both of them were able to communicate in Indonesian language fluently after some period of living and studying in Indonesia. As regards their proficiency in English, however, there was a marked difference in that although both of them had learned English for years prior to their undergraduate study, only one of them
managed to develop high level of proficiency in English. Interviews were carried out to reveal their learning experiences and to see the factors that might have shaped their level of proficiency in both Indonesian and English. The results indicated that there were a number of factors that might have strongly shaped the different level of their proficiency.

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

**Introduction**

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

**Literature Review**

**Good language learners**

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

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

In regard specifically to learning a language in a context where it is not widely used in the community but is only restricted to classroom contexts (such is the case of foreign language learning), one key factor that determines a high degree of success in mastering the target language is related to the learners’ agency (Oxford, 2008), i.e. the ability to compensate the lack of exposure to the input of the target language through employing certain strategies of learning. The importance of maintaining agency in the process of learning a second language is confirmed by lots of studies. In one study, for instance, Muhlisin and Salikin (2015) found that among three variables investigated: the length of instructional experience, the perceptions of and habits in learning English grammar by adult Indonesian EFL learners, only the learners who developed sense of agency (sic. self-directed learning habits) managed to develop ample proficiency. Likewise, in a study dealing with high and low proficient Chinese learners of English, Wong and Nunan (2011) found that among a number of factors investigated, the main characteristics of good (sic. effective) second language learners included the charactestics of being communicative, active and field independent. On the contrary, poor second language learners exhibit the characteristics of being “authority-oriented, field-dependence and passivity” (p. 152).
Language learning styles refer to “general approaches to language learning” (Cohen, 2003, p. 279), whereas language learning strategies refer to “specific behaviors that learners select in their language learning and use” (ibid.). Insofar second language learning is concerned, in addition to the general learning styles such as visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic, there are also styles which relate specifically to process of learning a second language. These styles include communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete (Willing 1994 in Wong and Nunan, 2011). As defined by Wong and Nunan (2011), the communicative style refers to the style where learners tend to use the target language in order to learn it. The analytical style, on the other hand, refers to the style where learners like doing problem solving tasks, such as analysing set of words on page. The authority-oriented style refers to the style where learners are largely dependent on the teachers or other learners to help them learn the target language, while the concrete learning style refers to the style where learners prefer learning the target language with the help of concrete objects and activities. These four types of language learning style, however, are not exclusive in that they operate in a degree of continuum. In other words, learners with a communicative learning style, for instance, will not always feel daunted when asked to study grammar of the target language through abstract reasoning. However, such learners are likely to perform better when the tasks given require them to produce output in the target language.

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

Methodology

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

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

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

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

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

1. How did learning contexts relate to the process and outcomes of second language learning carried out by Rodi and Liam?
2. How did Rodi and Liam cope with learning two different languages in two different learning contexts?

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

**Findings and Discussion**

**Findings**

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

**Table 1: Summary of the interview data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>The Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age group</strong></td>
<td>23 - 25 years old</td>
<td>20 - 22 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>As the study was conducted, they were enrolled in</strong></td>
<td>Semester 8 (the fourth year)</td>
<td>Semester 4 (the second year)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of studying English since elementary school</strong></td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English communication skills</strong></td>
<td>Very good (able to understand and produce the normal rate speech. Repetition or rephrasing was only occasionally required).</td>
<td>Poor (only able to understand and produce careful and simplified speech and often needed repetition or rephrasing).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategies of learning English</strong></td>
<td>Focused on language systems, especially on grammar and vocabulary.</td>
<td>Focused on language systems, especially on grammar and vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most striking similarity in the data is that the two learners developed their ample proficiency in Indonesian language quite shortly. Both of them reported that they were able to communicate with the people in Indonesia using Indonesian language within the first year of living in the country. The other most striking similarity is related to their experiences in learning Indonesian language, including the contexts where they usually learned Indonesian and the strategies they employed when learning the two languages. Furthermore, according to the learners the fact that they were exposed to the use of Indonesian language and were also able to practise using the language in a wide range of communication contexts make their learning easier and more successful as compared with their experiences in learning English. Thus, it is obvious that contextual factors constitute the most facilitating factor in learning a language.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Question: Waktu kamu ngobrol ama temen-temen sekelas mu, biasanya menggunakan bahasa Indonesia apa bahasa Inggris?

[When you talk with your classmates, do you usually use Indonesian or English?]


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

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

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

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

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

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


Grammar. I mostly study grammar. In my country, the smart persons are those who are good at grammar. Speaking. uh. . . what should I say? Well, a little bit, but grammar must be good. I also memorise vocabulary. Though I’m quite lazy to do it.

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

In most forms of skill acquisition, people are presented with information, e.g., . . . put a French sentence together in explicit form (“declarative knowledge”). Through initial practice they incorporate this information into behavioral routines (“production rules,” “procedural knowledge”). This procedural knowledge consists of very specific rules and can be used fast and with a low error rate. . . . Once established, procedural knowledge can become automatized. (emphases in original).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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


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

Question: Siapa? Kamu?

[Who? You?]

[Yes, why friends didn’t help each other. It is not the same like friends there [in Thailand]. There, many would take care those coming from overseas. I was staying in a dorm back in Thailand. There were many students coming from overseas in my school. From the Philippines, Cambodia, Myanmar, where else? Many! No one from Indonesia. People from overseas would be helped. No money, we’d give it.]

Question : Pinjam ya?
[you mean “borrow”?]  
Liam : Gak usah pinjam. Dikasih.
[No need to borrow. We’d give it.]

Question : Kalo disini beda ya?
[So, it’s different here]

Liam : Beda banget.
[So different]

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

Learning strategies in second language learning contexts

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

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

Question : So, how did you learn them?

Rodi : I checked in Google. I typed the description for affixes in Bahasa Indonesia. That’s it, and I tried to learn [them]. Penggunaannya. Dan dari situ aku paham dan bisa menggunakan. [Their use. I then understood and could use them in communication]

The fact that Rodi found it fruitful to compensate his lack of knowledge of a particular language system of Indonesian with explicit study lend support to the studies which have found that even in an immersion language program where there is ample input to the target language,
there is still a need for the learners to focus on the language systems if they are to develop high level of accuracy and thus proficiency in the target language (Swain, 1985; Lapkin, et al., 1991), especially when the target language and the learners’ first language are far different from each other.

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

Conclusion

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

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

References


**Appendix 1. The interview guideline**

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

Name:  
Gender:  

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

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

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

**Core questions specifically related to learning Indonesian**
10. Have you encountered any problems when learning Indonesian? Can you tell me what it is? Why does it trouble you? What do you usually do then?  
11. If you don’t, can you tell me your experiences when you first talked with Indonesians using Indonesian language?  

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

**Closing**
OK. Thank you for your participation in this study. We really appreciate your responses and participation in this interview. We will contact you again later. Thank you very much.
Title
The Qualities of an Effective English Teacher: University Students’ Perception

Author
Hanna Sundari
Indraprasta PGRI University Jakarta, Indonesia

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

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

Keywords: effective English teacher, students’ perception

Introduction
When language exposure is not much available outside the classroom, English teacher apparently has significant roles in the class. Effective and good teaching comes from effective
teachers. Rosenshine and Furst (cited by Williams and Burden, 2007) sum up factors contributing in effective teaching, such as clarity, teacher enthusiasm, various activities, achievement-oriented behaviors, and guiding of students answer.

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

Literature Review

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

Research by Kalebic (Shishavan, 2009) listed the characteristics: linguistics and communicative competence, communication and presentation skills, abilities in some areas of motivation, learning strategies, lesson plan, classroom management, assessment, knowledge about teaching, culture, teaching method and literature. Park and Lee (2006, by Shishavan, 2009) found that the students mark pedagogical knowledge as the first important characteristic; whereas, English proficiency posits as the highest rank of characteristics of effective English teachers by the surveyed teachers. Furthermore, in 2009, Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) found for teachers, knowledge of language is a crucial factor in effective teacher; in contrast, the students assign that teachers’ personality and the way s/he behaves to students are more important. Meanwhile, Wichadee’s research (2010) has yielded organization and communication skill posse on the highest rank of importance of all important categories. However, teachers indicated English proficiency as the highest rank. Kourieos and Evripidou (2013) found that effective English teacher takes into account students’ individual differences, language anxiety, abilities and interest, and designs learning environment. Research by Nghia (2015) showed English competence, teaching methods, and socio-affective factors were the most important qualities of English teacher.
Method
This research was descriptive qualitative method. The respondents were 63 students in a university in Jakarta Indonesia. The instrument was two-section questionnaire adopted from Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009). The first part was 46 statements of close-ended questions. The open-ended question has been modified into three questions to meet the research questions.

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

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

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

Most of respondents agree with more than 80% scores to the personality characteristics, such as helpful, friendly, humorous, and attentive and open to criticism. These characteristics were also reported on the study by Shishavan & Sadeghi (2009), Wichadee (2010) and Nghia (2015). Yet, respondents also state that the teacher’s availability and attention to students and
their personal needs posit as the lowest percentage on this features with only 68% and was supporting study by Nghia (2015). The respondents mostly agree, with 95%, that effective English teacher has neat, tidy appearance and is disciplined and punctual. The same perception has also been reported by Nghia (2015). However, with only hit 50%, half respondents refuse to stick to administrative rules and regulations which make their creativity and improvement restricted.

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

**Conclusion**

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

**References**


Title

Multiple Intelligences and Group’s Performance in TEFL Projects

Author

Hendrik J. Maruanaya

English Language Department, Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia

hjmaruanaya@gmail.com

Bio-Profile:

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

Abstract

Current pedagogical practice emphasizes the critical role of social groups in the development of understanding. Following the identification of multiple intelligences profile of the individual student within the group using MI inventory survey, the study examined the group’s performance on three different assigned TEFL projects. Six groups of an equal number of students were taken as the sample. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistic. The result indicated significant differences between the groups of having the least diverse intelligence profile (compatible profile) and the groups of having the most diverse intelligence profile (complimentary profile) on their performance on three different TEFL projects.

Keywords: Multiple intelligences, Group work, TEFL projects.

Introduction

There are huge numbers of research in small group work within the class. However most of research focused on heterogeneous grouping, either mixed-ability or mixed-gender, in which the level of subject–matter proficiency was used as an entry point to explore the group and individual’s performance (Sukhnandan, & Lee, 1998; Oakley, Brent, Felder, & Elhajj, 2004; Fitzpatrick, & Hardman, 2000; Wilkinson, & Fung, 2002). This present study explores
small group’s performance by considering the group’s intelligence profile as a basis for analyzing their performance in three TEFL projects in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) course.

Hendrik J. Maruanaya,
English Language Department of Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University
Jl. Dr. Tamaela, Ambon, Indonesia

Literature review

Multiple Intelligences

The emergence of Howard Garner’s multiple intelligences theory (MIT) in education triggered a great deal of research that highlight the importance of incorporating multiple intelligences in instructional design to accommodate individual differences for producing a better learning result (Ellison, 1992; Weber, 1994; Haley, 2004; Arnold, & Fonseca, 2004; Tracey, & Richey, 2007; Lunenburg, & Lunenburg, 2014). Gardner views intelligence as the ability to create an effective product or a set of skills a person employs to solve problems (Gardner, 1999). There are nine distinct intelligences identified by Garner which among them are, linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist, and existential. All these intelligences are possessed by the individual student and are not isolated but interact with one another to produce a variety of outcome (Gardner, & Moran, 2006; Moran, Kornhaber, & Gardner, 2006).

Collaborative Learning

Small group work comes from the concept of social constructivist theory of learning. The theory highlights individual student collaboration and interaction with the environment as a way of constructing knowledge (Oakley et al., 2004; Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005; Wilson, & Peterson, 2006). This model of learning provides opportunities for students to develop, examine, and evaluate their thoughts with other group members in a conversation, discussion and joint work (Soller, 2004; Umble, Umble, & Artz, , 2008). In term of multiple intelligence points of view, small group work helps students develop ‘interpersonal intelligence’, and enhance individual performance (Moran, et al., 2006) it also enables them to assemble one or more intelligences to produce proficient result in combination with other strong intelligences from other students (Gardner & Moran, 2006; Jackson, & Brown, 2009).
Method

This is a descriptive research. 24 students who enrolled in TEFL class were divided randomly to form 6 groups of equal number. Each group was assigned three different projects to work independently. These projects were designing EFL Activities from the group’s self-selected video, reflection on a self-selected digital application used for EFL teaching and learning, and reflection on pedagogical aspects of video viewing. The group’s performance was assessed by two raters used a rubric which has been validated in the inter-rater reliability test.

Following the analysis of Multiple Intelligence (MI) of an individual student in a group (adapted from McKenzie’s Multiple Intelligences Survey, 1999), the six groups were then classified into two categories: 1) the groups with the most diverse intelligence profile (the complimentary profile) in which the majority of the group member did not share similar pattern of the intelligence strength, and 2) The group with the least diverse intelligence profile (the compatible profile) in which the majority of the group members shared similar pattern of strength.

Findings and discussion

The groups’ performance on three TEFL projects

The result from the descriptive analysis (table 1 and 2) found differences between the mean score of each group’s performance on three TEFL projects.

Table 1- The mean score of the group’s performance on each TEFL project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Project 1</th>
<th>Project 2</th>
<th>Project 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (M)</td>
<td>SD (SD)</td>
<td>Max (Max)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most diverse profile</td>
<td>87.8 (.57)</td>
<td>58.</td>
<td>87.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The least diverse profile</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>85.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table. 2 - The mean score of the group’s performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most diverse</td>
<td>86.77</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>82.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The least diverse</td>
<td>82.50</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>80.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Comparing the mean score of the two groups, in fact, the mean of the most diverse profile groups (mean=86.77) was higher than that of the least diverse profile groups (mean=82.50).

To analyze whether the different diversity level of group intelligence profile makes significant differences in their performance on three different projects, Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences between the groups of having the most diverse intelligence profile and the group of having the least diverse profile as the p-value ($p=.004$) is lower than 0.05 (table.3)

Table.3 - Level of significance between the group’s performances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project performance</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Exact Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most diverse</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The least diverse</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Collaboration among different intelligence profiles can be functioning as complimentary and enhancement in project work. The result of the analysis shows that the group with the most diverse intelligence profile (the complimentary profile) performed better in three different TEFL project assignments as comparing to the group with the least diverse intelligence profile (the compatible profile). This finding indicated that the collaboration
among diverse individual strong intelligence profile that functioned as complimentary to one another is more effective for a small group work as comparing to the group work whose member exhibit a similar pattern of intelligence profile or the least diverse intelligence profile group.

**Conclusion**

In collaborative learning like small group work, student’s intelligence profile can be used as an approach to grouping the students. As there was a significant difference between the performance of the group of having the most diverse intelligence profile and the group of having the least profile, it is therefore suggested that small group work contains a more diverse intelligence profile would help in a variety of group assignments.

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Title
The Effectiveness of Folklore Media
Against Students’ Motivation in Learning English

Author
Honest Ummi Kaltsum
Ratnasari Diah Utami
Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Honest Ummi Kaltsum. Currently, she is active in Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta, Indonesia, Primary Education Department. She finished her undergraduate at Universitas Diponegoro, Indonesia, and her post graduate was from Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia. Her research interest is English for Young Learners. She can be reached at huk172@ums.ac.id

Abstract
The objective of this research was to find out whether or not the use of folklore media improves the students learning motivation. This research employed an experimental design. The sample of this study were elementary students of grade IV B as experimental class which is 30 students and IV C as controlled class which is 30 students. Both are in academic year 2015. The object of this research was the use of media folklore and students textbook against students' motivation to learn English. Hypothesis testing was done by using the t-test. The result of the research showed that folklore media, effectively improved students’ motivation.

Keywords: folklores, students’ motivation, English

Introduction
This study aims to find out whether or not the use of folklore media improves the students learning motivation. In present decades, the Indonesian government has made its new policy regarding English at elementary school. In particular, the lowering age of English instruction has been a major change in English language policies in many Asian countries
(Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003) in Kusumoto (2008:1), Su (2006: 265). Besides, considering Indonesia as a developing country in many aspects; such as industry, trade, technology, tourism, the importance of foreign language teaching will increase. Children in elementary schools are open to ideas of global understanding. In other words elementary school education period can be said to be the right time to expand the students’ intercultural views and enhancement of cognitive skills. In order to make children successful in learning English, we should provide the children with a well-organized language teaching.

In line with this statement English in Indonesia has been introduced in early levels of elementary schools as a local content, apparently based on assumption the earlier the better (Afia, 2006: 10). Besides, there are many tentative reasons for learning a foreign language (Tilfarhoglu and Ozturk, 2007: 204). Apparently, the attempt to start providing English instruction to younger children seems to be undertaken as a possible solution to the problem of senior high school graduates’ low achievement level, a problem widely acknowledged (Yusuf and Sewoyo, 1997) in Raja (2001:102).

However, implementing English subject at elementary school it is not a kind of easy task as we know that our mother language is not English. Besides, the teachers have to be able to foster the students’ motivation in learning English by creating some innovation including innovation in the teaching media to catch the students ‘interest. Innovation in a teaching media is able to make the learning runs well and enjoyable for children, so they will love English now and by the days. Before discussing further about innovation in the teaching media, let us take a look into some government official policy related to English subject for elementary school in Indonesia. The policy to include English as one of the subjects in elementary school is in accordance with the policy of the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia (Department of Education) No. 0487/1992, Chapter VIII that states that Elementary School can add subjects in the curriculum, provided that the lesson was not contrary to the national education goals. In this case, the school has the authority to enter English subjects under consideration and the needs of the situation. In Curriculum of Education Unit in 2006 stated that, the English language is a tool to communicate orally and in writing. Communicating is to understand and express information, thoughts, feelings, and develop science, technology and culture. The ability to communicate in full understanding is the ability of discourse, namely the ability to understand or produce spoken or written text that is realized in the four language skills, ie listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The fourth skill is used to respond to or create a discourse in public life. Therefore an English course aimed to develop these skills so that graduates are able to communicate and discourse in English at a certain level of literacy.
Based on Permendiknas No. 22 of 2006 on the Content Standards and Permendiknas No. 23 of 2006 on Graduates Competency Standards, the English language is one of the local content required for all elementary school students from grade I to grade VI. Allocation of time available is 2 hour lesson. Local content is curricular activities to develop competencies that are tailored to the characteristics and potential of the region, including areas of excellence and the material cannot be grouped into the existing subjects. The substance of local content is determined by the school. After having a look into the government’s policy related to English subject for Elementary School, it can be said that English is categorized as a local content. It has been written, local content is curricular activities to develop competencies that are adjusted to the characteristics and potential of the region, including areas of excellence and the material which cannot be grouped into the existing subjects. Based on the background above, this research wants to find innovation in teaching media which tries not only to represent the local content but also to enhance the children’s motivation to learn English. Based on the previous statements, this experimental study aims to determine whether the application of learning English using folklore effectively enhance learning motivation. The innovation here is the story-based teaching media in the form of audio visual and textbook which provides the folklore. Why folklore? Because folklore is a story and the story is closed to children. Furthermore, it is able to catch the students’ interest since it is closed to children. As we know when teaching English to children, we have to pay attention not only to their cognitive development but also their psychological aspect. This statement is supported by Fauziati’s statements that is teaching English to Young Learner involves more than merely teaching the language. Both the social and cognitive development of learners as well as the linguistic need to be taken into account (Fauziati, 2010:89). In relation to the children psychological and social aspect, folklore, as a story-based approach is one media to teach English to children which is able to bridge the children psychological aspect. (Scott and Ytreberg 1990: 84) states that in teaching English to children, there are three approaches applied; topic-based, story-based, and activity-based while storyline approach itself was specifically designed for the use at primary schools. By applying folklore, it can foster the students’ imagination as high as possible, so the learning will be fun for them. This is in line with the basic character of children that children have imagination (Scott and Ytreberg, 1998: 7). Story is one of the most suited activities to very young learners (Reilly and Ward, 1997: 9).

In selecting the folklore, teachers must adjust the chosen stories based on the students’ cognitive development, which are not linguistically complicated, not too long and include repetition and illustrations. The stories should have a limited number of characters and contain
an uncomplicated plot. All of these criteria help children to understand the English language. Teachers should be able to adapt the story to eliminate any possible confusion. For example, unfamiliar words can be substituted with familiar ones. From a grammatical point of view, children can be introduced to new tenses, sentence structures and word order. Children can also be exposed to English in art, music, drama, etc. This is how the storyline approach can be applied in teaching and learning English.

Current research into motivation can be found in Wimolmas, Bernaus, and Fadel. Wimolmas conducted a study that investigated the motivation of 30 first-year undergraduate students at an international institute of engineering and technology in Thailand. The findings indicated that the students are slightly more strongly instrumentally motivated to learn English. The students ‘inclination toward instrumental motivation could be a great value for the institution to be more focus in the program enhancement. These findings were related with the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972) which suggested that a person’s need for studying a second language is for the ability to socialize with the leaning language community or integrative motivation and the ability to gain knowledge applied from that learning language or instrumental motivation.

Bernaus investigates the role of motivation in foreign language learning and the factors that might affect learners’ motivation. From the result of the qualitative and quantitative analyses prove that motivation affects students ‘foreign language acquisition, and show that the foreign language teachers’ personality and his/her way of teaching affect students’ motivation.

From the Fadel research on students’ motivation, it can be concluded that motivation plays a significant role in enhancing and expediting students’ English language learning (2013: 238).

**Literature review**

**Folklore**

Folklore is a narrative story, which can be categorized as an oral tradition. Folklore has a storyline that is clear and direct, namely: the first part includes characterizations and background, content area developed problems and continues to climax, and the final section contains troubleshooting. Folklore is generally formed by a sequence of episodes that do not vary but each has a unique character that is magical in very deep at every event.

Characters in the story usually have dichotomous traits, good and bad. The characters in folklore have a relatively fixed figure, the general nature of the good or bad which is rarely
changed during the story. The properties of good and bad, for example, wisdom, virtue, ignorance, featured in the story through the character in ways that can be predicted. Theme of the story is shown quite clearly though not stated explicitly, expressing the values of society and reflect the philosophy of the author their lives. Folklore presents a view of life based on those beliefs.

Virtues upheld by the people featured in the story, for example, virtue, modesty, honesty, courage, patience, perseverance, and morality. The common themes in folklore are such as "the truth will prevail, the baddies will always be defeated". The language used in the story is straightforward, using the dialect (the local language) which is clear, and not be distracted by the construction of rigid and complicated language. English-language conversation in the story has a sense of the language, which reflects the legacy of oral stories told from generation to generation for centuries. With a distinctive dialect and certain societies, folklore has its own charm. Folklore has a background story that geographically there is no clear boundary that gives the impression of a complete world in the story. Similarly, events in the story are not limited by time and place (Kaltsum and Utami, 2015: 387-388).

Igha et al (2016, 245 -246) writes that the word folklore is derived from two words, folk which means collection or a group people with similar culture and lore which means knowledge handed down verbally: acquired knowledge or wisdom on a subject such as local traditions, handed down by word of mouth and usually in the form of stories or historical anecdotes (Sims and Martine 2005). Radmond (2009) said that the word folklore was coined in 1846 by the English antiquary William John Thomas to replace the term popular antiquities. Ndukwe (2013) opined that folklore (or lore) consists of legends, music, oral history, proverbs, jokes, popular beliefs, fairy tales, stories among others.

Folk tales and lores are part of customs included in the traditions of a culture, subculture, or group. It also includes the set of practices through which those expressive genres are shared. People sharing a culture may have in common an occupation, language, ethnicity, age, or geographical location. This body of traditional material is preserved and passed on from generation to generation, with constant variations shaped by memory, immediate need or purpose, and degree of individual talent. Hamam (2012) stated that folklores comprise the sum total of traditionally derived and orally or imitatively transmitted literature, material culture, and custom of subcultures within predominantly literate and technologically advanced societies. Redmond (2009) opined that folklore is a general term for the verbal, spiritual, and material aspects of any culture that are transmitted orally, by observation, or by imitation. Furthermore, Danandjaja (2014) defines folklore as “those materials in culture that circulate
traditionally among members of any group in different version, whether in oral or by means of customary example. Archer (2008) defines folklore as materials handed on by tradition, either by word of mouth or by custom and practices (moraine). According to Azubuike (2013), folklore includes; folktales, riddles, proverbs, myths, songs, legends and superstitions. Folklore developed in pre-literate societies and still flourishes in communities where the oral culture still dominates. The academic study of folklore is called folkloristics and those that study folklore are known as folklorists. As a part of culture, folklore is commonly recognized as “literature orally transmitted. Although, it actually includes the arts, beliefs and so on (Utley, 2011). Authors of folklore are usually anonymous because it is transmitted from one generation to another (Danandjaja, 2014). Moreover, it is difficult to determine the origin of most folklore since there can be various references to other cultures in one folklore (Dundes, 2011) Although folklore is possibly as old as human civilization, but the use of it is still relevant today. This is because of high level of moral decadence in the society. According to Azubuike (2013), there are several justifications of using folklore in the society. The reasons according to him are that folklore contains universal values necessary for correcting moral anomalies. Folklores like proverbs, story tells parable are veritable instrument for moral teaching for children youths and adults. In line with the above, Anayochukwu (2009) stated that most of folklores used in typical Igbo setting have themes of morality, virtues, justice, love and patriotism.

According to Akanbi (2014), folklores in the moonlight setting are used to teach the youths, children and adults about values of life. For him whatever moral value the story teller desires to pass across to his audience will form the basis of the story he chooses. There are different but significant moral values embedded in each story. For instance, there are lessons on hard work as against laziness. There are those on kindness and love as against wickedness and there are those on being hospitable as against being rude to the strangers and of course, there are those on contentment as against greediness and covetousness among many others. The importance of folklore in society can never be over emphasized.
Motivation

Rehman et al states that motivation is considered as an integral part in the achievement of any goal. It is important factor that has a positive influence in any educational learning process especially in learning second language. Woolfolk (1998) in Rehman, defines motivation as an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintain behavior. Salvin (2001) in Rehman et al defines motivation as an internal process that activates, guides and maintain behavior over time. In the light of these definitions, motivation can be considered a process that influences the success of L2 learning (Rehman et al, 2014: 245). Gardner (1985) in Wimolmas (2016: 904), (Anjomshoa, 2015: 126) states that motivation has long been identified as one of the main factors affecting English language learning. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) in Abbas (2012: 10) identify motivation as the learners ‘orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language.

Uno (2007: 23) states some indicators on learning motivation, as follows: the willing to succeed, the drive and need to learn, the existence of hope, the existence of reward in learning, the existence of interesting activities in learning, and the existence of conducive learning environment. While Sardiman (2011: 83) states the characteristics of motivated person, as follows:

1. Finishing the task diligently.
2. Facing the adversity resiliently
3. showing the interest in various issues:
4. Prefer to work independently
5. quickly tired of the routine task
6. Able to hold his/her opinion
7. Hold strongly on his beliefs
8. Happy to solve the problems

To address the research question, this study focuses on five indicators of motivation as follows:

1. Finishing the task diligently
2. Facing the adversity resiliently
3. Showing the interest in various issues
4. Prefer to work independently
5. Quickly tired of the routine task
Methodology

This research uses quantitative research using the type of experimental research. This experimental study was conducted in Muhammadiyah elementary school at the fourth grade, Surakarta, Indonesia. The chosen spot is expected to answer the problems to achieve the research objectives. Subjects in this study were students of grade IV B as experimental class which is 30 students and IV C as controlled class which is 30 students. Object of this research is the use of folklore against students' motivation to learn English and the use of students’ textbook against students’ motivation to learn English.

The variables of this research are independent variables and dependent variable. The dependent variable (y) is the students’ motivation and the independent variables (x) are folklore and the students’ textbook.

This study applies observation and documentation to collect the data. The observations were done by observing the students' motivation when learning activities taking place in the subjects in English. In this study, documentation is used to determine the list of students, pre-test and post-test scores, and photos. To determine differences in motivation to learn English by using the media folklore and students textbook, it is using t - test.

Findings and Discussion

Students Motivation Using Folklore Media

The implementation of learning using folklore media is done in the grade IV B and takes two meetings, each meeting has duration of 2 x 35 minutes. The data of learning motivation using folklore media presented as follows:

Table 1: Learning Motivation Using Folklore

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Abdul Rofiki K.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Maulana Ahmad</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ahmad Syarief</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Rajasa Wibawa D.</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Aulia Intan A</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Raka Eka S</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Dinar D.P</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Yusuf Satria N.N.A</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the table 1, it is known that the value of the average (mean) = 52.13, a middle value (median) = 52.00, frequently appearing value (mode) = 52, the value of standard deviation (Std. Deviation) = 5.704, the value of a variant (variance) = 32.533, within the data (range) = 28, the lowest value (minimum) = 36, the highest value (maximum) = 64, and the total score (sum) = 1564. To present the data to be more easily understood, the data presented back in the form of a frequency distribution table and a bar chart of motivation to learn English using the media folklore as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The Distribution of Frequency of Learning Motivation of Grade IVB
Based on table 2, it is known that the interval value of the highest is among 51-55 that are 11 students or 36.7%.

**Students Motivation Using Textbook**

The implementation of learning using folklore media is done in the grade IV C and takes two meetings, each meeting has duration of 2 x 35 minutes. The data of learning motivation using textbook media presented as follows

**Table 3: Learning Motivation Using Textbook**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Abyan Allin R</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>M.Hafidz</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ara Nethra W</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Muh Rizal</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excel Radja P</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Nabil Abian Jalu</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>M. Daffaal G</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Nayla Artika Dewi</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Najwa Saska T</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Salma Nadia</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Naufal Fakhrix</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Zahwa Nisrina M.</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Raihan Natha H.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Ananda Aulia P</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Tita Bayu Aji</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Arwa Asilah</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Vania Tertia P.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Az Zahra G.N</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Weka Sidhi P.R</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Clarence Willa</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Aleandro Ibra P. A.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Muhammad Fattan</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Amelia Balqis S.P.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Muhammad Royhan</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Askhya Adema S</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Naila Kairun Nisa</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Khayla Amanda C.F.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Najwan R.S</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Moch. Ariya Putra</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Veria Lexitanur A</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table 3, it is known that the value of the average (mean) = 31.87, a middle value (median) = 32.00, frequently appearing value (mode) = 32, the value of standard deviation (Std. Deviation) = 5.005, the value of a variant (variance) = 25.049, within the data (range) = 20, the lowest value (minimum) = 24, the highest value (maximum) = 44, and the
total score (sum) = 988. To present the data to be more easily understood, the data presented back in the form of a frequency distribution table and a bar chart of motivation to learn English using the media folklore as follows:

Table 4: The Distribution of Frequency of Learning Motivation of Grade IV C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24-27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-31</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32-35</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-39</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on table 4, it is known that the interval value of the highest is among 32-35 that are 11 students or 36.7%. Before performing the test data processing, it is necessary to make sure that data were normally distributed and homogeneous, by doing the prerequisite test that is normality and homogeneity test. In this study, the research data processing carried out with SPSS.

Table 5: The Result of Normality Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students learning motivation when folklore applied</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52.13</td>
<td>1.227</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students learning motivation when textbook applied</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31.60</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The normality of the data can be seen from the probability value. If it is more than 0.05 meaning that it is normally distributes. Meanwhile, when the probability value is less than 0.05 meaning that the data is not normally distributed. Based on the table 5, it is known that:

1. The probability value of learning motivation when folklore applied is 0.98 and 0.98 is more than 0.5, meaning that the data is normally distributed.
2. The probability value of learning motivation when textbook applied is 0.372 and 0.372 is less than 0.5 meaning that the data is not normally distributed.

Homogeneity test is used to determine if the variance is derived from the same variance. Homogeneity test in this study using One Way Anova

**Table 6: The Homogeneity Test**

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiment</th>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.401</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.267</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test results are known homogeneity and variance data comes from the same population or homogeneous distribution of data, this is evidenced by obtaining a significance value> 0.05, more details can be found in table 7 as follows:

**Table 7: The Decision of The Homogeneity Testing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Levenes Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Folklore – Textbook</td>
<td>1,401</td>
<td>0.267</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Homogenues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypothesis**

Test the hypothesis put forward in order to address and prove the hypothesis proposed in the study.
**Hypothesis 1**

Having known both treatment classes were normally distributed and homogeneous, then testing the hypothesis. Test hypothesis is unpaired t test or Independent Sample T-Test. Unpaired t test results can be seen in table 8:

**Table 8: The result of Hypothesis Testing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>The students motivation in learning English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-test for Equality of Means</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95% Confidence Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95% Confidence Upper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the hypothesis test, it is known t count > t table (15.017> 2.002) and significance < 0.05 (0.000 <0.05), then Ho is rejected and accepted Ha means there is a significant difference between folklore and students textbook against students motivation to learn English. Hypothesis testing can be seen in table 9 as follows:
Table 9: Decision on the Hypothesis 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t count</th>
<th>T table</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Folklore</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52.13</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>15.017</td>
<td>2.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students Textbook</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31.60</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 2

The average value of motivation to learn English with folklore is 52.13, while the student book is 31.60 (52.13 > 31.60), so the hypothesis 2 proved to be true. The use of media folklore is better than students textbook in increasing motivation to learn English.

This experimental research takes sample in grade IV B as experimental class and in grade IVC as a controlled class. After knowing that both class are normally distributed and homogeneous, the next step of research is conducted. The next step studied, both classes are given different treatment. The treatment uses folklore is in IV B while C using students' books. Observation on students’ motivation to learn English is done while the treatment is conducted. The results of observations of learning motivation were compared using unpaired t test (Independent Sample T-Test).

Results of the unpaired t test obtained t count > t table and sig <0.05, it can be concluded that there are significant differences between the folklore and students textbook toward English learning motivation, so the first hypothesis proved true.

Based on the average value of motivation to learn, it is known that the average value on folklore is higher than students ‘textbook, 52.13 > 31.60, so the Hypothesis 2 is proved to be true.

It can be concluded that the use of folklore in learning English in elementary school can improve students' motivation. The use of folklore as an alternative medium of learning is able to bridge or provide variation in the model of learning English which is fun for elementary students. Fun and exciting because the story is something close to the children. Thus some of the reasons for the selection of media stories in the form of folklores as follows:
1. The story is part of a child's life

2. The story is the media language learning for children

3. In the story, the language learning process is more fun for children

4. Learning a foreign language will be more attractive to children

This is in line with http://digilib.uinsby.ac.id/10317/4/Bab2.pdf, that is: Tina L. Hanlon illustrated some advantages of teaching with short works of folklore: 1. They are short! It is easy to distribute copies of short tales or rhymes to a whole class, discuss them during a class period, and compare a variety of examples relating to different topics, without needing time for extensive reading assignments. 2. They are fun! Many types of folklore are entertaining and most of us have fond memories of stories and rhymes we have known since childhood. Viewing illustrated versions or film adaptations can also add variety and enjoyment to class assignments.

Based on the findings, it can be said that folklore can increase the students' motivation, therefore, this media can be used as a variety of textbook media in learning English in elementary school. As a media which is story-based, folklore can be considered as one variation of a textbook or instructional material on English language in elementary schools, without forgetting the principles and strategies of learning English for children. This study is in line with research in https://etd.ohiolink.edu/rws_etd/document/get/bgsu1308255584/inline that is students’ learning history, motivation and attitude concerning their English language learning have an influence on their perceptions of the effectiveness and enjoyment of teaching and learning practices.

This study is supported by the previous study from Bernaus on students ‘motivation. The foreign language teacher must pay attention on students motivation and on teachers personality and her/his way of teaching. From the result of the qualitative and quantitative of Bernaus, the analyses prove that motivation affects students ‘foreign language acquisition, and show that the foreign language teachers’ personality and his/her way of teaching affect students’ motivation. From the Fadel research on students’ motivation, it can be concluded that motivation plays a significant role in enhancing and expediting students’ English language learning.

In the highlight of students’ motivation, it can be concluded that motivation in English language learning can be a great source of knowledge and understanding to implement relevant programs or activities to stimulate the more motivating learning atmosphere. Students with
adequate motivation will become efficient language learners with ultimate language proficiency.

From above discussion, it can be implied that in order to foster the students motivation to learn English, teacher must create an innovation or varied learning model which is able to maintain the regularity and boost the interest of the students to continue learning, especially learning English. The use of folklore media is able to increase students' motivation to learn. By learning English using folklores, students are not only motivated, but also at the same time, students learn their culture, so students simultaneously learn the noble values and the moral character of their nation.

Conclusion

Motivation is one of the most essential aspects determining success in learning the English language since motivation it affects someone in learning English. When someone is having a high motivation, he or she would get the best achievement in his or her language learning. There are many ways in fostering the students motivation, one of them is by providing innovation in the teaching media. By providing an innovation media like folklore textbook, students is triggered to be more enthusiastic in learning English. This is proven by the higher score in motivation when it is measured using the five measurements of motivation. This study measure the children motivation based on the five criteria of motivation. The next study can be extended to the inner and outer factors motivation and types of motivation the children have.

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Title
EFL Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices of Formative Assessment to Promote Active Learning

Author
Ida Ayu Made Sri Widiastuti
Mahasaraswati Denpasar University

Bio-Profile:
Ida Ayu Made Sri Widiastuti is a doctoral student of Malang State University. She is a fulltime lecturer in Mahasaraswati Denpasar University, Bali. Her research interests are language learning and teaching mainly in writing skill, language teaching strategies, educational development and language assessment. Her research findings have been published in various educational journals and printed books. She can be reached at misswidia@yahoo.co.id

Abstract
This study investigated the teachers’ beliefs and practices of formative assessment and how formative assessment triggers the students’ active learning. In depth semi-structured interviews were conducted to three experienced junior high school teachers to collect the required data for this study. The results of the study revealed that the teachers in this study have strong beliefs that formative assessment practices can promote the students’ active learning. However, all teachers in this study conduct the formative assessment based on their own understanding of formative assessment. This study indicates that urgent comprehensive understanding is needed by the EFL teachers to appropriately implement the formative assessment in order to effectively achieve the best quality of learning standard.

Keywords: Formative Assessment, EFL Teacher, active Learning

Introduction
English has been considered to be the most important subject and taught at all formal schools in Indonesia. Consequently, English language teaching has drawn serious attention
from most educationalists and researchers. As a matter of fact, the teaching of English cannot be separated from language assessment. This phenomenon creates strong dynamic discussions on the assessment of the students’ English language competence. Considerable numbers of various appropriate and efficient methods of assessment have sought by English teachers for assessing the students’ progress in English language learning (Forbes, Sabel, & Biggers, 2015; Fullan, 2007; Schmoker, 2006). This is clearly essential for the language teachers to be done, due to the fact that assessment is a tool used by the teacher to collect evidence about students’ progress toward the achievement of prescribed learning objectives and a process of gathering detail information about what students have learned (Decristan, et al, 2015).

As an effort to foster a successful classroom assessment, collaborative working partnership from the teacher and the students are seriously needed (Pedder and James. 2012:41). In Indonesia, the assessment of English language learning has been criticized for its strong emphasis on testing, which is merely intended to score the students’ achievement. Therefore, teachers need to develop their skill in assessing their students in order assessment does not bring negative impacts on English language learning. A teacher should really comprehend the curriculum prior to language teaching implementation to avoid uncertainty of language assessment purposes. Brown (2004) and Gardener (2011) state that assessment is integrated into the school curriculum design which enables teachers to obtain reflection on the actual leaning condition, by this means teachers can change their teaching style in order to focus on developing the students’ progress (Bennet, 2011; Elliott, 2013).

Although the educational reform movement has promoted the new way of assessing the students, it seems that the EFL teachers are competently unable to do as what is expected by the new educational curriculum Guidelines. This might be caused by a wide range of assessment suggested by the curriculum, and in addition, the continual changes of the national curriculum contents make even teachers more difficult to deal with proper assessment administration. Brown, 2004; Coffey, Sato and Thiebault (2005) explain that there are various types of assessment procedures in a curriculum correspond to course goals and learning objectives. The teachers are expected to have the ability to choose the appropriate type of formative assessment to be used to progressively enhance the students’ leaning achievement (Hermandez, 2013; Clark, 2012).

Formative assessment is a reform promoted by educators in recent years in EFL learning in which formative assessment practices is considered as a type of assessment which bring a great deal of benefits toward the improvement of learning and teaching (Filsecker and Kerres, 2012). Moreover, Shepard (2005) describes that formative assessment is essential to be
developed in classroom practices. He further describes that formative assessment also link up to scaffolding. Scaffolding is important to make the students independent learners and build up their confident in learning. Effectively and successfully implementing formative assessment in an EFL classroom bring up effective development in students’ skills since it creates positive reflections on students’ learning activities.

Formative assessment is used to inform decisions concerning the teaching styles to meet the learning needs of the students in achieving their learning objective (Bennet, 2011). Moreover, Wiliam (2009) adds that formative assessment is used to figure out the difficulty of a group of students in learning so the teachers can make adaption and modification on their teaching in order that the students can achieve the learning objectives previously indicated (Nyberg and Olander, 2015). This confirms that the result of formative assessment can be applied to change the teaching and learning for the sake of the students’ better learning progress. Gardener (2011) describes that formative assessment as a tool for students and teachers to enhance the learning progress. Several researchers have stressed that formative assessment can improve student learning. Hattie (2009) points out that formative assessment is used to assist the students in further steps in their learning process. Formative assessment can be used as reflections for the students, and to shape and improve the students’ achievement in classroom practice as well as an evidence of the students’ learning progress (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Akter, 2010).

Several studies on formative assessment have conducted which are mainly related on the effect of formative assessment practices but there is hardly any study investigating the teachers’ belief of formative assessment and practices of formative assessment in a real classroom setting especially the impacts of teachers’ beliefs of formative assessment to the appropriateness of formative assessment practices. Phelan et al. (2011) carried a study on formative assessment which revealed the teachers’ difficulties in identifying effective formative assessments. Inbar-Lourie and Donitsa-Schmidt (2009) revealed that there are a number of formative assessments that the teachers can use in classroom practices. Coffey and Thiebault (2005) revealed that teachers and students can get a great deal of benefits from the result of formative assessment.

Wiliam and Harrison and Black (2004) found that teachers can develop various assessments which give impact on the students’ achievement. James et al (2013) conducted a study on the Effect of Formative Assessment on Students’ achievement. The findings of their study indicated that formative assessments have positive impacts on the students’ learning achievement. Wiliam (2006) revealed that in conducting formative assessment, teachers
should make sure that they really focus on the purposes of formative assessment implementation. Effective formative assessment practices mainly rely on serious implementation conducted by the teachers by considering aspects which may influence their its successes.

Considering the importance of formative assessment, it is important for the teachers to have positive beliefs on formative assessment practices (Kuzel and Shumba, 2011; Box, Skoog, Dabbs, 2015). Beliefs are formed through active individuals’ engagement in personal experiences, interactions, interpretations of events that are occurred in daily life. These beliefs become the bases of the remedy in making decisions that lead to action. In educational contexts, this concept of belief system governs the teachers’ teaching attitudes and behaviours which reflect on how the teaching and learning processes and assessment are conducted in the classroom (Phelan, Choi, Vendlinski, Baker & Herman, 2011).

Teachers’ belief in formative assessment certainly influences the quality of formative assessment conducted by the teachers. Heritage, Vendlinski and Herman (2009) describe that it is absolutely important to carry out a high quality of formative assessment to ensure the achievement of formative assessment objectives. Nyberg and Holmqvist (2015) argue that formative assessment have a significant high impact towards the students’ learning outcomes if the formative assessment has specific objectives. Karimi (2014) found that teachers have various perceptions and beliefs on how formative assessment be conducted by the teachers. This happened because most teachers have low understanding of formative assessment in teaching.

The teachers’ beliefs of formative assessment are vital to be appropriately conducting formative assessment in EFL classes. The teachers’ beliefs of formative assessment may certainly influence the formative assessment implementation in every classroom setting (Box, Skoog, and Dabbs, 2015). However, Dunn and Mulvenon (2009) on their critical reviews argue that there is limited scientific evidence of the impact of formative assessments in education. This indicates that further in depth study on formative assessment is needed to be carried out. Therefore, this phenomena makes the researcher curious in conducting a study which investigates the following questions: (1) what are the EFL teachers’ beliefs of formative assessments?, and (2) How is the formative assessment practices in EFL classes?. These questions are briefly discussed in the section of data discussion and argumentations are also provided to give a clear crystal insight on the investigated variables.
Literature review

Some literatures related to formative assessment are reviewed and the discussion of the reviews are presented in this section. The reviews are mainly dealing with formative assessment implementation and formative feedback.

Formative assessment practices

Formative assessment is considered as one of the most powerful ways to promote a better teaching condition (Newton, 2007; Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009; Box, Skoog, Dabbs, 2015). Nyberg and Holmqvist (2015) emphasize that formative assessment strategies is employed to attain higher learning progress for the students. Moreover, Black and Wiliam (2009) explain that sufficient formative assessment theories and having the ability to give appropriate feedback is needed for the teacher to posses. It is also confirmed by McMillan, Venable, & Varier (2013) state that formative assessment is much needed by both teachers and students to create positive learning environment.

Formative assessment may also create more dynamic and intensive learning. A good understanding leads to a better success in the implementation of formative assessment. Teachers should comprehend the formative assessment theories and ho to carry out properly to ensure the achievement of the targeted learning goal (Good, 2011; Bennet, 2011). Moreover, Ruiz-Primo (2011) adds that the formative assessment may develop new model of learning and affect the awareness by the teachers. Nicol and Macfarlane (2006) adds that teachers need a good understanding on formative assessment theories to effective in decision making in the classroom. Formative assessment leads to effective decision in selecting teaching strategies (Rahman, Babu, and Ashrafuzzaman (2011).

Asghar (2013) describes that formative assessment represents a set of instructional practices and specific strategies that embody the theoretical underpinnings of student-responsive instruction. Teachers can assess students’ understanding and adjust instruction to engage students more effectively in practices that promote learning (Bell and Cowie, 2001; Coffey et al., 2011). Shepard (2005) describes that formative assessment also link up to appropriate teaching strategies to be taken to improve the students learning. Bennet (2011) and Elliott (2013) further confirms that formative assessment is a process to vary the learning and teaching practices to be more innovative and challenging for the students. Lewis, Perry and Murata (2006) suggest that formative assessment practices helps teachers improve their teaching strategy and make them critically determine the learning material to be given to the students.
Integration of formative assessment into teaching resulted in enhanced student performance (Peddler James et al, 2012; Brown, Hui, Yu, and Kennedy, 2011). Moreover, Clark (2012) affirms that formative assessment is a tool used by the teacher to collect evidence about students’ progress toward the achievement. Teachers are expected to have the ability to choose the appropriate type of formative assessment to be used for assessing the students’ learning progress (Decristan et al, 2015; Coffey, Sato and Thiebault, 2005). Filsecker and Kerres (2012) clarify that formative assessment allows the teachers to improve their teaching competence to assist their students achieve the previously determined learning goals. Hernandez, 2013; Clark, 2012) adds that the formative assessment conducted by the teachers should be in high quality to achieve the formative assessment purposes (Bennet 2011, Phelan, Choi, Vendlinski, Baker & Herman, 2011).

**Formative Feedback**

Feedback is one of the most powerful influences on learning and achievement (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Akter, 2010). Feedback to learners on their performance is an important aspect of effective teaching. Feedback is a key aspect in assessment and is essential in promoting students to learn from assessment (Black and William, 1998). Feedback can move the students forward, and the students can formative feedback to improve their learning achievement. Formative assessment also provides teachers with feedback on the effectiveness of their teaching strategies (Phelan, Choi, Vendlinski, Baker & Herman, 2011). Appropriate formative assessment implementation improves student’s achievement and improves the pedagogical practices of teachers (Dunn and Mulvenon, 2009).

Formative assessment is intended to improve the students’ learning. Feedback is vital to be given to the students in order the students’ progress better in learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; McNeil, 2010). Feedback is a part of formative assessment; consequently every formative assessment should be followed by feedback (Black and William, 1998; Rahman, Babu and Ashrafuzzaman, 2011). Feedback has considerable potential to enhance the students’ learning. It should always be given to the students to ensure the maximum use of formative assessment to improve students’ learning (William, 2011). Teachers have to change their classroom practices to get the optimum benefits of formative assessment (Black and Wiliam, 2003).

Feedback should always be given after formative assessment administration (Black & William, 2009). Moreover, Filsecker and Kerres (2012) highlighted that providing learning feedback is a vital aspect of formative assessment practices. The accurateness of feedback to
be given to the students to improve the students’ learning achievement is essential (Elliott & Yu, 2013). It is important for the teachers to do it in the classroom because it allows them to make decisions about instructional improvement. Ruiz-Primo & Furtak (2007).

Formative assessment as described above is considered as assessment for learning which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities to meet the students’ need. In most Indonesian school, most teachers have their own personal theories and understanding on how to implement formative assessment. There are several factors that constrain the use of formative assessment in classroom practices. Teachers’ knowledge plays a critical role in shaping the actual formative assessment (Box, Skoog, and Dabbs, 2015). The impact of formative assessment should be focused on the improvement of students’ learning. The emphasis on the students’ responses to the feedback is vital (Wiliam, 2011; Black and Wiliam, 2003). In this case, teachers have to change their classroom practices to get the optimum benefits of formative assessment (Filsecker, & Kerres, 2012; Forbes, Sabel, & Biggers, 2015).

Methodology

This study make use of a qualitative research design investigating the teachers’ beliefs and formative assessment practices in EFL classroom. The data was analyzed descriptively. The data was collected through direct observation in EFL classes and semi-structured interviews to English teachers. The total numbers of the participants of the study were three Junior High School English teachers who have been teaching English for more than five years in Junior High School of Saraswati Denpasar Bali. In addition to the length of their teaching time, the English teachers are also experienced teachers in teaching the students in all different grades in junior high school. This was done to ensure that the required data were collected reliable source of learning. The participants were not informed regarding the focus of the study until all the required data were completely collected to comprehensively answer all questions of this study.

Teacher A is 35 years, she has been teaching English in Junior High School for 8 years and she is a certified teacher. Meanwhile, teacher B Teacher A is 37 years, he has been teaching English in Junior High School for 7 years and he is also a certified teacher. Teacher C is 39 years, she has been teaching English in Junior High School for 9 years and she is a certified teacher as well. All teachers have considerably long period of English teaching experiences and have undergone the same professional development program. In addition, they have been
teaching in the same school with the students in similar social economic background and the the same English language exposure.

Data Collection

The required data was collected through semi structured interviews to the three EFL teachers of junior high school of Sarasawati Denpasar and direct observations. The Semi-structured interviews was conducted in relax and conducive atmosphere to ensure that the teachers. Various open questions related to teachers beliefs and practices of formative assessment as indicated on the interview guide were asked to the EFL teachers to find out the teachers’ beliefs and practices of formative assessment. Direct observations were also conducted to gather data concerning the teachers’ formative assessment practices in a real classroom setting. Supplementary data were gathered through document study. It was conducted to figure out the accurateness of teachers’ assessment planning to the real assessment administration in real EFL classroom. The collected data were analyzed descriptively using in depth qualitative analysis completed with detail descriptions and argumentation. Reliability and validity of the data were obtained by merging the data in the form of triangulation.

Findings and discussion

Based on the data analysis from the result of the interviews conducted to the three English teachers and direct observation in EFL classes on formative assessment practices, it was found that the English teachers have various beliefs of formative assessment and several strategies and procedures in implementing formative assessment. In this section, the main findings and discussion of this study which deals with teachers’ beliefs and practices of formative assessment are discussed briefly.

Findings
Teachers ‘Beliefs of Formative Assessment

The EFL teachers in this study are mainly have a strong beliefs that formative assessment is important to be conducted to find out the students’ learning progress and modify teaching and learning activities in order to intensify the achievement of learning goals.

“in teaching English, I think doing a good assessment is important. I believe that by doing assessment the students will learn better. Assessment can motivate the students because they can see their score about their ability”.(teacher A)
The excerpt of the interviews above indicates that the teachers understand that formative assessment is important to be conducted in classroom practices to improve learning. She additionally explained that she believes formative assessment makes the students more active in learning and leads the students to be better learners. Moreover, she also believes that by conducting formative assessment makes the students more motivated to learn the lessons.

“I carry out formative assessment in every end of learning unit. This is important for me to do because it helps me know how successful I am in teaching English. This also helps the students understand their learning achievement. I really believe that if we do formative assessment properly, it will make the students cleverer”. (Teacher B)

This excerpt of the interviews shows that formative assessment is usually conducted at the end of the lesson. The purpose of conducting formative assessment is to improve the students’ achievement in order that the students can achieve better standard of learning. In addition, the teachers also believe that formative assessment helps her to change her teaching strategy to be successful in teaching English. She believes that formative assessment builds up the students’ ability.

“Formative assessment is essential for me to implement properly because it helps me to know my students’ learning progress so I can decide whether I should give a remedial or change my teaching strategy so the students can easily achieve the learning objectives”

(teacher C)

This excerpt indicates that the teacher believes that proper implementation of assessment is vital to be done by the teacher because it helps the teacher understands the students’ learning progress. Knowing the students’ progress is essential in making decision whether remedial or modification of teaching strategy should be done by the teachers. This indicates that the teacher aware of formative assessment purposes in which to change the teachers’ teaching practices to help the students gaining the learning goals quicker in a shorter learning time.

“I find my students are more active in learning after I give them corrective feedback based on the result of the formative assessment. My students are more active in participating the lesson” (teacher A)

“After I give my students the formative assessment result and some necessary feedback, my students study more diligently. They are more willing to do the assignment in their course book and sometimes they ask me some questions if they cannot do their assignment” (teacher B)
“most of my students are getting active in the class after they read the feedback and the result of the formative assessment” (teacher C)

The excerpts of the interviews above indicate that students are getting active in learning after they know their formative assessment result and feedback given by the teachers. The students’ active learning are in the forms of asking more question related to the lesson or the learning material which they do not understand, doing more assignment in the course book and also active engagement in learning activities. The students’ active learning participation in the classroom activities are certainly indications that formative assessment practices conducted by the teachers in this study has positive and significant impact towards the students’ learning.

Formative Assessment Practices

The data concerning the formative assessment practices were collected through semi-structured interviews and direct classroom observations. The data of the interviews indicated that the teachers conducted formative assessment in several different ways. The data of the interviews can be described as follows.

“I conduct formative assessment in every end of the lesson unit. I usually select one of the assignments in course book and ask the students to answer them correctly” (teacher A)

This excerpt indicates that the teacher usually carries out formative assessment at the end of learning unit. The teacher utilizes the assignment existed in the course book as formative assessment instrument. The course book is the main focus of learning material which the teacher thinks important to be completely done by the students. This also indicates that the teacher is not really constructing formative assessment instrument for the sake of the achievement of formative assessment purposes.

“I often asks the students open-ended questions to check the students’ understanding on the learning materials. If they don’t know the answer, I give them some suggestions how to learn better to make them understand. Besides that, I also ask them to answer one of the assignments on the course book to check their real comprehension” (Teacher B)

This excerpt shows that the teacher implement formative assessment to check the students’ understanding. The teacher makes use of open-ended questions to find out the extent of the students’ understanding. In addition, the teacher asks the students to do the assignment
in the course book to check the students’ comprehension on the learning material being discussed in the classroom.

‘I give the students formative assessment by giving them extra assignments from the course book. These tasks are in line with the learning objectives, I think. So the students will find easier to answer and make them motivate to do the test” (teacher C)

This excerpt shows that the teacher C also usually conducts formative assessment by giving more assignment from the course book. This is done by the teacher because she believes that all the assignments in the course book are more suitable for the students as they are designed in accordance with learning objectives. In addition, the teacher finds the students are more motivated to do the assignments in the course book.

In addition to the results of the interviews, the classroom observation also showed that the teachers in this study usually conduct the formative assessment. However, the teachers still make use of assignments from the course book for the formative assessment tasks. The teachers believe that the tasks in the course book are important for the students to do completely because they think that the assignments are really designed to fulfill the students’ learning needs to achieve the learning goals in a shorter time.

Discussion

Formative assessment is absolutely important to be conducted in classroom practices. This is due to the fact that formative assessment leads to the improvement of teaching and learning activities in order that the students are getting active in learning to achieve the learning goals. This section presents the discussion concerning the teachers’ beliefs and practices of formative assessment.

The teachers in this study have strong beliefs that formative assessment is really important to be properly implemented in classroom practices to help the teachers to understand the students’ learning progress and also can be used by the teachers as reflection of their teaching styles. Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick (2006) suggest that the most important thing in formative assessment is the ability of the teachers in giving feedback based on the formative assessment result. The students can learn from the feedback given by the teachers. Hernandez (2013) affirms that verbal feedback after the learning activity certainly helps the students achieve higher learning competence.

On the other hands, by knowing the students’ achievement in formative assessment, the teachers then can decide whether they need to modify their teaching styles or not (Adamson and Walker, 2011). This teaching reflection is definitely essential to do to effectively achieve
the active learning of the students. Elliott (2013) further confirms that formative assessment is a process to vary the learning and teaching practices to be more innovative and challenging for the students. However, by understanding the result of the formative assessment, the teachers’ ability in teaching can be developed continually. This is the fundamental purposes of formative implementation. Lewis, Perry and Murata (2006) suggest that formative assessment practices helps teachers improve their teaching strategy and make them critically determine the learning material to be given to the students. In addition, the learning materials should be specific and relevant to learning goals (Nyberg and Holmqvist, 2015).

The teachers in this study have a certain degree of formative assessment understanding. This is indicated that they all conduct formative assessment in their classroom practices and more importantly that they believe that formative assessment is absolutely important to be conducted to make the students to be active in learning in order the students gain high quality of learning achievement. Most teachers believe that formative assessment make the students motivated in continually learning to attain the learning objectives that previously indicated in course curriculum. Elliott and Yu (2013) suggest that the learning activity will be in high quality if the learning activities are conducted in a diversity learning strategies. Moreover, Holmqvist (2007) argues that in addition to actual active learning engagement of the students, the teacher should have comprehensive understanding on pedagogy of learning.

The teachers in this study believe that formative assessment should be always conducted at the end of the lesson because all teachers need to know the students’ learning progress. Knowing the gaps between the students’ achievement and the prescribed learning objectives is vital in instructional practices. This will help the teachers to be able to decide how the upcoming lesson should be conducted in the classroom. New teaching strategy may need to be applied in order that the students get better understanding and learning competence. Wiliam (2011) describes that assessment is highly beneficial for both teachers and the students. Teachers need continually assess their students in order the improvement to teaching styles can be done immediately if there is any unsatisfied occurrences in learning activity being conducted. Furthermore, Good (2011) emphasizes that formative assessment is a process. The teachers should consider it as a process of learning rather than focusing on the result of the students’ outcomes.

The teacher believes that accurate implementation of assessment is important to be conducted to know the students’ learning progress and also as positive reflections for the teachers to their teaching practices. Knowing the students’ progress is essential in making decision whether remedial or reflections for the teachers towards their success in teaching and
how the upcoming lessons should be done in the classroom in order to make the students more active in learning (Clark, 2012). Filsecker and Kerres (2012) clarify that formative assessment allows the teachers to improve their teaching competence to assist their students achieve the previously determined learning goals. Moreover, Herman, Osmundson and Silver (2010) adds that the formative assessment conducted by the teachers should be in high quality to achieve the formative assessment purposes.

The teachers seem to have limited understanding on the types of formative assessment test forms. This can be seen from the way the teachers administer the formative assessment in which the teachers simply ask the students to do the tasks in the course book. In a certain sense, this may due to the teachers’ laziness in constructing the appropriate test for formative assessment. Kuzel and Shumba (2011) revealed that teachers in their study have various ways in implementing formative assessment including deciding the assessment types and assessment content and assessing procedures. However, the interviews indicated that the teachers in this study strongly believe tasks in the course book are more suitable for the students since the course book is specially designed to fulfill the students’ learning needs to achieve the learning goals quicker in a shorter time. Clark (2012) adds that formative assessment is an artistic process. Teachers are expected to be able to design formative assessment in order to achieve the intention of doing the assessment.

The observation also confirmed that the teachers in this study have a strong belief and carry out formative assessment in their teaching practices. Their strong beliefs certainly affect the formative assessment implementation. This study revealed that the teachers are diligently administer formative assessment to identify the students’ learning progress and to modify teaching strategy. Adamson and Walker (2011) describe that teachers needs to know the students existing ability to be able to vary the teaching strategy and contextualized the learning materials. Although this study indicated that the teachers’ have sufficient understanding on formative assessment practices but the teachers seem to have low comprehension on constructing appropriate tests for formative assessment. Newton (2007) clarifies that purposes of formative assessment implementation needs to be comprehensively undestood by all teachers in order they can keep up with their profesionalism. Fullan (2007); Schmoker (2006) describe that innovation that should be done by the teachers to develop their teaching professionalism is often ignored. Therefore formative assessment is a kind of effort to help the teachers to find their problems in developing their teaching competence in order to be professional.
Conclusion

Formative assessment is a vital process to be carried out in the teaching practices as this can be used to modify teaching and learning to make the students active in learning. The EFL teachers in this study have strong beliefs of formative assessment and they carry out formative assessment practices in their own way by utilizing the assignments and learning tasks in the course book. This study indicates that the teachers believe that they can easily diagnose the students’ difficulties in learning through formative assessment. In addition, the teachers believe that they can effectively develop their teaching strategies once they obtain detail information on the students’ learning achievement from the result of formative assessment. This study found that the teachers’ ability to determine the appropriate forms of formative assessment need to be addressed seriously in order to effectively implement formative assessment in EFL classes.

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Website Entry


Title
Teacher Professional Development in an Online Community of Practice (OCoP): Teacher’s Engagement and Participation in a Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC)

Author
Ismail Anas
Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Ismail Anas is a lecturer of English at Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang, Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests fall within the area of ICT, CALL, e-learning, multimedia, digital literacy, and methodology in English language teaching and learning. He can be reached at ismailanas@poliupg.ac.id

Abstract
The rise of web-based technology in the field of language learning has brought significant changes to the way people interact and learn. Today, the ESL teachers can have the ease of access to the internet and web-based learning tools that support online learning interaction. This paper sheds light on how the ESL teachers engaged and participated in a Facebook-mediated communication as a means of virtual professional development (PD) community. The data sources were the member’s posts, comments, replies, live group chats, personal messages, likes, and shares. This investigation employed a micro-ethnographic study from the emic perspective on how the ESL teachers perceived the community of practice through a Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC). The analysis used a thematic analysis, critical discourse analysis (CDA) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to inform a meaning-making process within an online community of practice.

Keywords: Teacher’s Engagement and Participation, Facebook-Mediated Communication, Collaborative Learning, and Micro-Ethnography
Introduction

The advances in educational technology bring many contributions to the field of language learning. The technology is neither to replace teacher nor to solve the problems occurred in the field, but it can be utilized to stimulate learning process (Smit-Kreuzen, 1988). Also, it has brought changes to the teacher-student interaction and learning strategy. The rise of the web-based technologies and the leading-edge applications has created a new nuance in the language learning environment. Along with the advances in web-based learning tools, the use of microblogging sites (e.g., facebook, twitter, and google+) in the field of education, has attracted the CALL researchers to investigate these social media platforms for use in language teaching and learning and, more importantly, supporting the making-meaning process. The penetration to social networking sites (SNS) as an online learning platform has been popular among the teachers and students. They can make a significant use of Facebook to build an interactive communication via text chat, group conversation, and video conference feature. Facebook has brought changes and made a difference in the process of teaching and learning (Adnan, 2014). In the late 1970s, a social learning theory has been introduced (Bandura, 1971). In the past, the social learning behavior was shaped by the direct human interaction in a social environment while in the post-millennium era, the social interaction is shaped by human interaction within a virtual environment. This changing behavior has affected the way people communicate and share information among the others.

Realizing the needs of professional development in the area of ELT, the current Indonesian EFL teachers will need to upgrade their knowledge and skill to meet the student expectations. The teacher’s use of SNS for continuing professional development has also been outlined (Xerri, 2014). In fact, they lack adequate time and financial support to attend the professional training related to their expertise. They need an ease of access to a community-based learning where they can share knowledge, learn new things, and improve their skills. In this digital era, a community-based learning has shifted from face-to-face interaction to an online learning interaction—so called community-based learning 2.0. The online interaction using the social networking sites such Facebook and Twitter has shaped a new culture of social interactional behavior (e.g. Bosch, 2009). This culture empowers the virtual learning communities to build connections among the netizens around the world. The netizens are social agents who are now living in a digital world that enable them to engage and participate in a virtual communication environment.
Literature Review

Facebook is potentials for collaborative learning

The use of Facebook as a potential tool of web 2.0 application empowers the netizens to build a culture of collaborative learning. Either the Facebook group or Facebook page are the popular features which mediate the online Facebook users to collaborate in the learning process and shape a culture of community-based learning (e.g., Ataie, Shah, & Nasir, 2015; Cerdà & Planas, 2011). Given the importance of online collaborative learning, Facebook has gained much attention from teachers where they can share and obtain information, socialize among scholars in the same interest and expertise, and develop their pedagogical understanding. The Social Networking Site (SNS) reinforces the online communication skills, participation, and engagement in the learning process and supports the culture of collaborative learning (Dogoriti & Pange, 2013). Facebook is also seen as an emerging technology in the field of education in which this web-based technology can provide social support and collaboration in the online community of practice (Bissessar, 2014). The study began to interview four administrators and twenty-two members of a group called “A Teacher’s Voice—henceforth ATV.” The result of the interviews revealed that the ATV helped the to develop teachers knowledge and cognition through the provision of information on some aspects of teaching and learning processes. This idea is also in line with Xerri’s (2014) work that the use of Social Networking Sites (SNS) could provide the teachers with a continuing professional development program. In his paper, he also put an emphasis on the significance of a Community of Practice (CoP) in which this setting constituted a social participation framework. The social participation within the community involves a participatory social process where the members of the community shaped social interactions that can shape learning.

Online Community of Practice (OCoP) and Continuing Teacher Professional Development (TPD)

In this digital age, the OCoP has contributed significantly to continuing TPD as a medium to share knowledge and information for their members (Riding, 2001). Learning beyond the formal environment is now becoming possible and affordable since the provision of ICTs in the field of education has allowed the teachers to incorporate and integrate them into the teaching and learning context. Lave and Wenger (1998) has coined the components of the community of practice; they are: 1) the domain, 2) the community and 3) the practice. The rise of the internet and web-based technology in the field of education has brought significant changes to the way people interact and learn. Eleven years later, Wenger, White, & Smith
(2009) reworked and redeveloped the concept of the CoP as a response to the digital age. In this digital era, the way people communicate has changed significantly from the face-to-face communication to the virtual communication environment as a tool for collective learning (Ardichvili, 2008). This situation brought significant impact on the CoP where people moved to the virtual or online community of practice (OCoP). The rise of web-based technologies such as e-learning platforms and social media has made it possible for implementation where people can now share learning and build virtual communication with other people. The virtual communication practice can now be done through online discussion platforms that provide an online community of practice (Burhan-Horasanli & Ortaçtepe, 2016).

In Indonesia, communities of practice can be defined as teacher’s forum, teacher association, subject-teacher association (MGMP), etc. These domains should facilitate the members to stay connected and updated with the current development in the area of their interest and expertise, respectively. In fact, there is changing behavior in human communication practice where technology played a significant role in the field of education. Learning beyond the formal educational setting, the web-based technologies have made it accessible to bring the professional development (PD) into a setting of virtual learning environment where people can do a variety of activities such as problem-solving, asking and requesting for information, sharing knowledge, communicating ideas, fostering experiences, and building a virtual communication network amongst the scholars. Vavasseur & MacGregor (2008) reported that online community of practice could extend the content-focused professional development in which it brought impacts on teacher competence and efficacy. This online social learning practice allowed every single one of the members to take benefits from the community in which they can help, encourage, and motivate each other. The last characteristic of CoP is the practice itself in which people can learn from other people experiences, practical guide, the step-by-step workflow, and best practices in the field of interests.

Method

Research design

A narrowly-defined online social group of a facebook-mediated communication facilitates the members of the given community of the Indonesian scholars. The study began to select a cultural setting of a Facebook group involving more than 100 scholars from universities and high schools in Indonesia. As an ethnographer, I gained entrance to and participated in the community as one of the most important processes in studying that culture of learning. Grazes
(1997) outlined a method in language and education research, so-called microethnography. This study used this approach to investigate the participant’s online micro-interactional engagement from the emic perspective. The emic perspective is the ethnographic research approach to the way the members of the given culture perceive their world (Helen, 2008 p.57). The study focuses on how they perceived the community/culture, behavioral engagement, cognitive engagement, the contribution to professional development, and the willingness to participate in the discussion.

Although there is a change in the social interaction context from face-to-face interaction to online interaction, an ethnography microanalysis of interaction can be studied. In the late 1980s, a microethnography suggested videotaping the classroom interaction and then analyzed to determine its social organization features (Hu-Pei Au & Mason, 1982). Today in the era of technology, the social interaction has shifted from face-to-face to the virtual communication channels where people can now socially build communication wherever they are as long as they are connected to the internet and able to utilize the online communication platform.

The data source was from the member’s posts, comments, replies, live group chat, personal messages, emotions, likes, and shares. The discussion usually starts with a topic of the current issue of teacher professional development. The comments usually follow a post from the members of the group that sparks a social interaction within the given culture of online community-based communication. Some of the members are proactive in writing posts and comments, and some are not. The study also sought to investigate the member’s behavioral engagement and participation in the discussion. The investigation began to classify the group members who were proactive, less active, and inactive. The member's activity was seen in their posts, comments, chat records, messages, and shares. I then tried to communicate with them via Facebook communication features such as personal chat and group chat. I developed an interview draft to obtain information from the selected group members and then analyzed to determine the influential factors pertaining their engagement and participation in the culture. Also, an investigation was also done to find out the reason of some members who decided to leave the group. The inclusion of the escapees within the inquiry is an interesting part of the study to obtain an authoritative overview from the inactive members.

**Participants and access to the community of practice**

The research participants are the OCOP members who are the Indonesian EFL teachers, lecturers, and educational researchers who join and participate in a community of practice for teacher professional development using a Facebook-mediated communication. They are from high schools, universities, educational institutions, and research centers spread out in
provinces, regencies, and cities across the Indonesian archipelago. They are invited and added to the group of professional learners where they can socialize, follow and participate in the discussion (e.g. make inquiries, give comments, state opinions, share and get information.

**Data collection and analysis**

Since this study lies under qualitative-based research, I obtained the data directly from Facebook group and conversation (messenger). The data sources were the member’s posts, comments, replies, live group chats, personal messages, likes, and shares. The members’ posts, comments, and responses were screen-captured for closer analysis while the entire conversation records were retrieved from Facebook archive system in which this feature was provided for each Facebook user. The data retrieved from the Facebook archive system which displayed in HTML format was then converted into Microsoft Word for easier analysis. The teacher’s engagement and participation from the emic perspective involved a private online interview using Facebook messenger. I chose representatives under three main categories; they are: 1) the pro-active, 2) neither active nor passive, 3) inactive and those who left the group.

**Thematic-informed analysis**

The analysis used a thematic analysis, critical discourse analysis (CDA) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to inform a meaning-making process within an online community of practice (Widodo, 2015). The thematic analysis was to categorize the themes in the discourse by following systematic procedures as follows (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Widodo, 2015):

1. **Familiarization with the data**
   
   To do a closer analysis, the data obtained from Facebook posts, comments and replies were screen-captured for easier and more comprehensive analysis. I read the script in many times to familiarize myself with the pattern of responses. I started familiarizing the Facebook features and communication properties such as posts, share, likes, emoticons, comments, and replies. I needed to know the patterns of communication on how the community members utilized such features to build a virtual communication among them. I checked the data properties such as dates, shared links, images, and videos.

2. **Coding**

   This step allowed me to organize the data for the analysis in which the coding system made me easier to select the discourse (texts, emoticons, images) that I would take for further analysis. I screen-captured the data using the build-up feature of the laptop (Fn+print-screen) and then cropped them using an image processing tool (paint). In respect to the
research ethic, I blurred the participants account details such as name and profile pictures. I also circled the texts, marked the emoticons, and highlighted the texts that I would analyze.

3. Identifying the themes
After doing such coding activity, I looked up into the entire data for searching the themes. I then made some categories based on the frequently-occurred texts and similar key themes. This allowed me to identify the coded data closely and enabled me to conduct further analysis.

4. Reviewing themes
In this process, I focused on the coded data and the key themes to synchronize with the research questions and scopes. I re-read and re-checked the coded data and key themes to find out the relevance with the participant's engagement and participation in an online community of practice using a facebook-mediated communication.

5. Defining and naming themes
Based on the key topics and the relevance with the research questions, I finally worked out on defining and naming the themes. It began with identifying the similar key topics and transformed into a new theme that represented the key themes.

6. Writing up
The final step is the writing up by completing the process of analysis using critical discourse analysis (CDA) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL). These analyses were needed to shed light on what the data as texts tell about.

**CDA and SFL informed analysis**

The data obtained from an online communication using Facebook-Mediated Communication contains multi-interpretative meanings. For example, the posts, comments, and chat conversation records contain a chronological process of communications which host a large number of texts. Besides that, emoticons as texts represent a multitude of meanings in which they are widely used in computer-mediated communication (CMC)- as it is called a micro-communication symbols as texts. These texts are semiotic resources containing meaningful information which can be analyzed using CDA and SFL. The SFL-informed analysis focused on how the participants use language in an online communication platform. This may include how they use the language to express their feelings, acceptance,
agreement/disagreement, communicate their cognition, comprehension, and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). SFL also enables me to identify the participants on how they put themselves in the community, signal their attitude, and respect the presence of others (see Martin & White, 2005; Widodo, 2015, p.74). Grounded in the SFL-informed analysis, I examined the virtual experiences of the group members through their engagement and participation in an online community of practice via FMC. To obtain a clear picture of what was going on the online community of practice, CDA was used to identify the member’s roles, interactions, and social justice in the online group conversation practice. Ziegler et.al (2014) point out that discourse analysis can be used to understand an informal group learning in online communities.

**Result**

This section presents the finding of the study consisting three main domains of investigation in the *Online Community of Practice (OCoP)* using the *Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC)*, they are: 1) the condition of OCoP in a Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC), 2) the thematic patterns in the OCoP, and 3) The participant’s engagement and participation in the OCoP.

*The condition of OCoP in a Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC)*

The OCoP represents a social semiotic practice which involves the field of discourse, tenor of discourse, and mode of discourse (Halliday & Hasan, 1991). The virtual interaction amongst the OCoP members provides a larger text which represented the actual social learning enterprise and communication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Field of discourse</strong></td>
<td>ELT methodology</td>
<td>The field of discourses within the OCoP via FMC mainly covers a pedagogical-content discussion on how the members took benefits and developed their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Journal writing and publication</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Seminars and conference</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Language research methodology</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Tenor of discourse</strong></td>
<td>In-service EFL teachers</td>
<td>The online interaction within the FMC involves ELT practitioners coming from different work contexts and expertise. The</td>
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<td></td>
<td>English language researchers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Journal editors and reviewers</td>
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The online conversations within the FMC mainly covered four fields of discourses, they are: 1) ELT methodology, 2) journal writing and publication, 3) information on the upcoming seminars and conferences, and 4) language research methodology. These four areas become the trending topics of discussion that attracted more attention and passion from the tenor of discourse. This social process put an emphasis on the teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge (TPCK) that improved the teacher’s understanding and cognition on the field of discourse. According to some members whom I interviewed separately, the OCoP has contributed to their PCK and practice as well.

Table 2. Samples of interview excerpts of the OCoP members: the contribution of OCoP to teacher’s PCK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCoP members initials</th>
<th>Original excerpts</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
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| JMR                   | “N lbh membuat sya how to cultivate 10 teacher competence..dr mulai kompetensi pedagogi, riset, kurikulum, dll. Dan itu yg promote dialogic proses to learn to my self, to the others, even to some different learning sources.Yg lbh” | The excerpts show that he is improved in pedagogical competence, research, and curriculum development. He does feel comfortable in which the
The Online Community of Practice (OCoP) within the FMC presented a significant number of texts which mediated a virtual communication practice among the members. Based on the thematic analysis, I found some patterns of communication within the discourse that represented a social evidence on how the OCoP informed an emerging culture of learning in this digital era. This material evidence contained a variety of social communication practices that informed a social learning process in a virtual learning environment. The following patterns of communication found within the discourse are expected to shed light on how this online community of practice shaped a social culture of learning within the virtual communication platform (FMC) and also how the members of the community participated and engaged in the culture.

1. Participant identity

From the immediate contexts of this online community of practice, it was identified a variety of identities that shaped a culture of virtual communication practice amongst the participants occurred as evidence and social representations within the FMC.

a. Social positioning

The social positioning as one of the evidence in this online culture of learning and communication was in play here. The notion of social positioning is to classify the relational characters of identities as a social reality in which they represent the richness of social-individual dynamics (Andreouli, 2010). In a day-to-day reality within the FMC, some dimensions of characteristics were found, they are: 1) social relationship amongst the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Quote</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DP</td>
<td>&quot;It's a contributing group for me since I didn't find any other group having similar chemistry and passion.&quot;</td>
<td>The OCoP has brought changes to her PCK in which it met her needs and expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAA</td>
<td>I had a lot of changes on my perspective about language skill, research academic skill, and international journal. Starting point is inspiring, encouraging, engaging, and improving.</td>
<td>Regarding PCK, he felt improved in his language, research, and journal writing skills. The situation in OCoP was also inspiring, encouraging, engaging, and improving.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note*: the data source is taken from interview records retrieved from Facebook.

The thematic patterns in the OCoP

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participants within the same virtual environment, 2) virtual communication activities of knowledge, experiences, interests, goals, and objectives sharing in which the FMC made it possible, 3) the need for a professional online development forum where a participant was able to stay connected with other scholars without a space and time limitation.

The social relationship amongst the participants/members of the online community of practice shaped social interactions that allowed them to build a multi-way communication. It might be a little bit pragmatic to claim that the existence of OCoP has brought significant changes to the way they socialize virtually and open up the opportunities to build connections amongst the Indonesian scholars. Therefore, further research will be necessary to stand on the claim strongly. In fact, informed by this social context, most of the participants confirmed through a series of interviews that this social practice allowed them to cultivate multiple competencies in the area of English language learning, research, and publication (see Table 2).

The second dimension of the characteristics is the self-access to the knowledge, experiences, interests, goals, and objectives sharing. The OCoP provided some advantages for the members where they could learn a lot from the ELT experts, practitioners, researchers, book authors, and journal reviewers as well. Besides that, they could also have quick access to relevant information regarding the research grants, symposiums, seminars, and international conferences in the area of their expertise. Also, the participants could also share files and documents such as articles, digital books, reports, and generic either from their work or free volume series from reputable publishers.

Given the need for teacher professional development programs either online or offline, a community of practice attracted more attention from the Indonesian scholars. Voiced by the members of the community that it was necessary to build connections with other scholars to open the opportunities for social support, research collaboration in the area of interests, and Personal Learning Networks (PLN) (Xerri, 2014).

b. Leadership, power, and self-domination

A leader in this context of OCoP is someone who has a controllability in directing, encouraging, motivating, and addressing the goals and objectives of the discussion. In this virtual micro-interactional learning context, a leader or a “guru” played a pivotal role in directing and coordinating the discussion in case of the topic misunderstanding and unclarity.
“Mau tahu tentang xxx?” (Anyone wants to know about xxxx?)

“Baca dulu sebelum berkomentar”. (Before making a comment, read first!)

“Mereka perlu baca publikasi terkini”. (They will need to read the latest publications)

“Apa pandangan “suhu” tentang hal ini”. (What “guru” think about this?)

The above excerpts show a meaning of “power” in which this type of discourse informed a self-domination within the OCoP. The self-domination defines the maneuver of a member of the group in initiating conversation, opening a discussion, stating an opinion, engaging participants, promoting new insight of knowledge, tutoring/guiding other members regarding research and publication, and responding the members’ inquiries.

c. Followers

The interplay of leader and followers self-identities within the OCoP has bound a social and academic relationship of the members as a means of knowledge and information exchanges within a virtual community of practice. In this context of discourse, the followers tended to be proactive and fully-engaged in any topic of discussion. Proactive and fully-engaged followers define as individuals who are actively asking questions, posting comments, giving responses, doing a task, and liking the ideas of the leader.

2. The hegemony

The power, self-domination, and leadership within the social micro-reality of OCoP informed a socio-academic interaction amongst the Indonesian scholars. This socio-academic virtual environment as a means of knowledge and information sharing has defined a hegemony of interest amongst the members of OCoP. A hegemony of interest in this context defines the communication practice amongst the OCoP members who try to build connections and academic relationships. It was observed that the patterns of communication practice included the discussion of academic matters (curriculum, evaluation, material development, etc.) educational policies (language, wages, employment, rewards, etc.), current issues in ELT, and professional development programs (workshop, seminar, conference, and symposium). Most of the group members tended to communicate their ideas in the area of their interest and remained less active when the topics did not meet their needs and expectation.

3. Teacher’s agency

Teacher’s agency in this context of OCoP is a self-directed professional development through a growth-driven approach in a virtual environment. Extrapolated from the result of
interviews, comments, chats records, and participation helped cultivate information of the teacher’s agency. They argued for some rational choices why they finally decided to join the community for their PD. One of the most common reasons is the need for a collaborative learning that connects scholars with various contexts of learning, culture, and experience. They could learn from other scholars on how to deliver an effective teaching, create and develop materials, write and publish a scholarly paper.

Some of the members are senior researchers, writers as well as book authors, academic mentors, and experienced teachers who always shared knowledge and valuable information regarding the TPD. The rest of the members are novice researchers, newly-employed teachers/lecturers, and in-service teachers. Some of them were always engaged in a discussion such as asking questions, confirming ideas, and clarifying their existing knowledge and understanding of a particular topic.

This type of interaction shaped a micro-reality of online learning situation that promotes a social learning communication practice. It also helps bring out the expertise from each member who has different experiences and areas of interest (see Mak & Pun, 2015). They could work on a collaborative decision-making, inquiry-based ideas, action plan and implementation.

4. Social injustice in a virtual communication environment

Although OCoP can promote teacher professional development, I found an interesting issue that some members experienced a social injustice that hampered them from active participation within a virtual communication environment. Social injustice in OCoP was a social situation experienced by the members when they neither to be heard nor to take control over the discussion. The occurrence of social injustice is closely related to self-domination and power resulting impacts on social communication practice (see 1b).

- I am interested in the topic, but the discussion seemed to be undirected.
- I sometimes post a question, but I was sometimes not heard.
- I am not familiar with the topic, so I decided to be a silent reader.
- The discussion was not well-organized, people were free to talk, and I didn’t know when to begin.
- He dominated the discussion; I felt I didn’t have a chance to talk.

Given the OCoP as a collaborative reflective practice, this social learning practice should inform behavioral and cognitive engagement as well as self-reflection and feedback. In fact,
as I observed, some members remained silent and became passive participants in which they neither stated opinions nor responded to any questions. Revealed from the interview, they were interested in the topic of discussion, but they felt unconfident to participate due to some reasons such as unfamiliar topic, self-dominated talk, and undirected flow of discussion.

**The participant's engagement and participation in the OCoP**

1. **Member’s attitude towards the OCoP**

   Currently, and still counting, there were about 106 members joined the community since it was launched in early 2015. The number kept growing since that time embracing Indonesian EFL scholars such as researchers, in-service teachers, lecturers, writers, doctorate students, book authors, English tutors, and teacher trainers. They all joined the community to learn and share knowledge, and information as well as their professional experience in the field. This community is an open group in which everyone can join and participate in the discussion.

   ![Diagram](image.png)

   **Figure 1. Member’s attitude towards the OCoP**

   Informed by the discourse, the member’s engagement and participation in the OCoP are categorized into four types, they are: 1) active members who actively participate in asking questions, giving responses, giving comments, objecting, and confirming their existing knowledge and understanding. Active participation defines the member’s role in the community who actively engaged in the discussion, 2) neither active nor passive members who occasionally participated in the discussion only if they think the topic attracted their interest and attention. This type of members was frequently identified online but not actively involved in the discussion, 3) passive members defined as inactive members since they were rarely identified online and participating in the discussion. They never ask questions, give responses, give comments, and send emoticons, 4) the last interesting issue is the left members who signed out from the group. Informed by a private online interview, I gained some interesting responses revealing why they finally decided to leave the group.
In conclusion, they mostly felt inconvenient regarding the social communication and culture in which group didn’t facilitate the novice or inexperienced teacher to voice in the community.

2. The socio-academic interaction within the OCoP

Building a learning community online using a computer-mediated communication (CMC) can promote a socio-academic interaction amongst the members (Lally & Barrett, 1999). Like many other online learning communities, the members of the community utilized the platform to build connection and increase the potential for knowledge-building (Delahunty, Verenikina, & Jones, 2014). Besides increasing the potential for knowledge-building, as it is a social learning culture, it also builds socio-emotional connections that encapsulate a socio-academic interaction. The social and academic patterns of interaction shaped a social presence, social learning context, and online communication and interactivity. The social presence within the OCoP helps the members to socially connect with other scholars who have similar interest and expertise. They could also share knowledge and information to the community such as academic matters and current issues in English language education. Gaining an in-depth understanding of a social presence and its impact on socio-academic interaction within the OCoP should come into further research and analysis.

3. The members’ engagement

Given the importance of the participant’s engagement in an online learning community, it is also important to have a look at the social communication process on how they socially, cognitively, and behaviorally engaged. From a social engagement perspective, they perceived OCoP as a social learning community that allows them to socialize with other scholars from many different cultures and educational context. They could share current issues happening in their context of learning and start having a discussion on them. They also used the platform to build connections and make new friends that shaped a culture of an online social collaborative learning. From a cognitive engagement perspective, they perceived OCoP as a medium for improving knowledge and cognition of the current issues in the field. They could also find a place to ask questions and get answers to their inquiries. The community has contributed significantly to their professional learning and development in which they felt improved in an academic and social relationship. Although the community has contributed to the professional development, serious attention should go to the novice teachers or researchers in which they need a place in the community to learn and be guided by the experts. From a behavioral engagement perspective, It was
observed that some members have a positive attitude towards the community in which they could directly learn from the experts about some particular topics and interests. They received tasks such as reading scholarly journals, reviewing books, doing small research in their learning context although they had to work beyond the comfort zone.

Conclusion

The Online Community of Practice (OCoP) could promote online collaborative learning activity as a medium for a social and academic interaction that shaped a social learning culture through a virtual learning environment. Grounded in the thematic analysis, CDA, and SFL, the activity of the community members showed a positive participation and engagement which informed a social learning practice within the Facebook-Mediated Communication (FMC). Informed by the analysis, the following suggestions will contribute to the future development of OCoP to provide a better online learning platform for their members.

1. The presence of experts in the community will sustain the continuity of this social learning practice
2. The flow of discussion should be well-organized and scheduled so the members of the community have a clear picture of what and how the community works.
3. A serious attention should go to the community members who are novice practitioners in the field so they will have a place in the community to share their problems and experience.

Acknowledgment

The author would like to thank the Directorate of Research and Community Service (SIMLITABMAS-DIKTI) for the 2016 research grant. He also would like to express his sincere gratitude to the members of Professional Learners of OCoP and TESOL Indonesia international conference committees as well.

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Title
Digital Storytelling Production as a Learning Tool in Improving ESL Learners’ Verbal Proficiency

Author
Chung Jessica, Melor Md. Yunus
Faculty of Education
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Bio-Profiles:
Jessica Chung is an English teacher in one of the public schools in Malaysia. She received her first degree with Honours in TESL from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. Her research interests include the use of ICT in teaching English to non-native English speakers. She can be reached at jessjeev8889@gmail.com.

Melor Md. Yunus is a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She holds a B.A. in English (Linguistics) from the University of Nevada-Reno, USA and a M.A. in TESL from the Arizona State University, USA. She then earned her Ph.D. in Education (TESL) from the University of Bristol, UK. Her areas of concentration are TESL, language pedagogy and the use of technology. Currently she is the Deputy Dean and teaches TESL methods, writing courses, research methodology and academic writing. She can be contacted via melor@ukm.my.

Abstract
The present study investigated how the process of digital storytelling production can help ESL learners to improve their verbal proficiency. Five Form 4 students were chosen as participants and a case study approach was used in this study and data was collected using three different instruments; self-assessment surveys, focus group interview and reflective journals. The findings indicated that digital storytelling projects improved all the participants’ verbal skills. The data revealed that the participants reflected their positive experiences in using digital storytelling due to communicative practices and continuous imitation of pronunciation.
accuracy using Google Translator. It was also found that digital storytelling was an effective motivational tool. The findings have significant implications to shed some light on the potential use of digital storytelling production as a pedagogical tool for in ESL for English course.

**Keywords:** Digital storytelling, Learning Tool, ESL, Verbal Proficiency

1.0 Introduction

There is a growing concern about the declining standard of English among Malaysian students particularly in speaking skills (Spolsky and Sung, 2015). Despite the fact that students have been exposed to formal English lessons in school for average 11 to 13 years, yet their command of the said language is still far from satisfactory. This can be a great obstacle for them in securing success at tertiary education as well as job employment (Yamat, Fisher and Rich, 2014). Thus, there is a strong need to improve Malaysian students’ verbal proficiency as according to policymakers, mastering English language was an important prerequisite for Malaysia to be a developed nation and a key player globally by the year 2020 (Ministry of Education, 2012).

The issue of ESL students’ lack of verbal proficiency has been frequently attributed to ineffective pedagogical strategies (L. Quentin, Jing, Jee, Shuang, Jung, Renata, Melike and Catherine, 2012). Conventional speaking activities like drilling, reading aloud, teacher-student discussion and public speaking are very common in English classes in Malaysia. Such activities are too teacher centred, less authentic and mundane. Hashim, Yunus and Embi (2016) state that with current technological innovation, students have wide range of access to interactive resources and tools. Such resources and tools have shown positive effects in facilitating the process of language teaching and learning (Yunus, Nordin, Salehi and Embi, 2013). Therefore, teachers should realize that as our world is approaching to 21st century learning, a paradigm shift needs to take place especially in pedagogical aspect in order helping students to be fluent ESL speakers. Perhaps, digital storytelling is one of the ways to attain this goal.

Despite the fact that Digital storytelling has gained popularity and recognition in many learning institutions worldwide, yet its effectiveness in Malaysian context is not fully discovered yet. Unfortunately, many local teachers are unaware of the potential digital storytelling can have on students’ speaking skills even though the Ministry of Education with the support from Multimedia Development Cooperation (MDeC) has introduced it 5 years ago (Cut, 2010). Hence, a study must be conducted to investigate how digital storytelling
production can be fully utilized in improving students’ verbal proficiency based in Malaysian context. This paper will report in depth discussion on how the process of producing digital stories can help ESL students to improve their verbal skills.

2.0 Digital Storytelling and Its Benefits in ESL Classroom

Digital storytelling; a modern, fluid, dynamic and interactive expression of the traditional art of storytelling, is pioneered by Joe Lambert and Dana Atchley in 1993. It combines still images with a narrated soundtrack including both voice and music using video maker softwares. At the end of Digital Storytelling production, a two to ten minutes digital story is expected as the outcome. According to Banaszewski (2005), producing a digital story involves five basic steps:
1. Write a three to five minutes first person story
2. Collect images or short video clips accompany the story
3. Import images or short video clips into the computer
4. Record the voice over (Narration Stage)
5. Align images or videos with script

In general, many studies conducted worldwide agree that digital storytelling can result significant educational values on students’ language skills. For instance, studies claim that digital storytelling production can serve as an effective tool to enhance ESL students’ speaking skills (Tahriri, Tous and MovahedFar, 2015; Elys, 2011; Rida and Yazid, 2011 and Yuksel, Robin and Sara, 2011).Yuksel et al. (2011) stated that digital stories based activities can enhance second language learners’ speaking skills, narrative skills, and also pronunciation skills. There were two case studies conducted in Indonesia that could be the evidences to support Yuksel’s claims. Both studies conducted by Elys (2011) and Rida and Yazid (2011) successfully proved that the implementation of digital storytelling in teaching speaking to EFL students managed to help reluctant speakers improved their pronunciation and vocabulary skills as well as encouraged them to be more active and supportive in speaking activities. There were two factors behind these improvements. First, since that Digital Storytelling production is a group based activity, the collaboration between students encourage students to be brave in asking questions and introducing new points. Plus, it also helped them to respond appropriately in discussion. Secondly, samples’ pronunciation showed great progression because of the narrating practices in Digital Storytelling production. They further added that narrating process forced the samples to speak more frequently. They had to repeat the pronunciation of some words correctly for the purpose of telling their story. This kind of oral drilling enhances speech
and skills related to enunciation and articulation (Elys, 2011 and Rida and Yazid, 2011). This finding was in congruence with Normann’s (2011) as he claims that digital storytelling production can improve oral skills like pronunciation, intonation, stress, rhythm and pacing.

Digital storytelling is not merely focusing on the verbal narrating skills but it stresses on the writing and vocabulary skills as well. For instance, Xu and Ahn (as cited in D. Gibson and B. Dodge 2010) were in favour of utilizing Digital Storytelling as part in teaching writing as Digital Storytelling can improve students’ writing self-efficacy and writing flow. For vocabulary knowledge, Nor, Michi and Sharifah (2011) asserted that students build and retain more words, phrases and sentences when engaging in any digital stories based activities due to the extra visuals and audio stimuli.

The same positive review also reveals for ESL listening and reading skills. For instance, Verdugo and Belmonte’s research (2007) hypothesized that digital storytelling can be effective in developing students’ listening skills. In fact, his theory was proven right when the outcome of his research showed that his Spanish learners of English in the experimental group improved (the group who used digital stories) their listening comprehension skills and outperformed the control group. Ramirez stated that Digital Storytelling can be very useful as it tends to be visual, interactive and reiterative. Meanwhile, Ariffin, Nurulnadwan and Zatul (2011) conducted a local study to investigate whether Digital Storytelling contributed to engaging and entertaining reading. Their finding affirmed that Digital Storytelling was entertaining reading material and was able to invoke fun among the readers.

In addition, Reinders (2011) claimed that Digital Storytelling can be a successful strategy to motivate students to use English language both inside and outside the classroom as compared to the traditional oral storytelling. This is akin to Tahriri et al. (2015) who state that digital storytelling instruction foster positive effects on students’ motivation as it promotes personalize learning experience over the digital story they created. Lastly, Smeada, Dakich and Sharda (2014) added that digital storytelling in ESL classroom can promote active engagement, foster collaboration and enhance learning skills like organizing, reflecting and library research.

3.0 Methodology

This study used a case study approach and the participants consisted of five Form 4 students in one of the schools in Putrajaya, Malaysia. The selection was based upon purposeful sampling. The criteria were obtaining scores of 15 to 20 in their Oral Proficiency Based Assessment and had basic skills in operating Window Movie Maker. For this study, the five
participants; *Siti, Faizal, Tahir, Murni and Amir* (pseudo names), were required to produce one digital story project within 6 weeks.

In order to ensure high validity and transferability, data was collected through various qualitative methodologies; students’ reflective journals, focus-group interview and pre and post self-oral evaluation surveys. Each week the participants wrote an individual reflection on the process of creating their digital story. They reflected on what they did and recorded what they had been working on. For self-evaluation survey, the surveys were conducted individually for two times; before the project and at the end of the project. This verbal proficiency self-evaluation survey was adapted from Heaton’s Second Language Learners’ Verbal Proficiency (1988). There were three indicators; accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility. Moreover, in order to gain more in-depth information, focus group interview was conducted at the end of the project.

The data procedures started with a one-day workshop conducted by the researcher and the purpose of the workshop was to introduce the participants what a digital storytelling is and also to show them step-by-step tutorials on how to produce one. After the respondents were all familiarized with the digital storytelling concept, they were assigned a project in which they required to produce a narrative video about a person they love the most. They were given 5 weeks to complete the task. At the end of the project, the respondents were requested to publish their story online.

4.0 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Digital Storytelling Improves ESL Learners’ Verbal Proficiency

Similar to the studies conducted by Yuksel et al. (2011), Elyss (2011) and Tahriri et al. (2015), this study successfully affirmed that digital storytelling production had a positive impact on participants’ verbal proficiency. All of the five participants experienced improvement in their speaking skills and these experiences were documented in their reflective journals, interviews as well as verbal proficiency self-assessment surveys.
Figure 1: Difference between the pre oral proficiency self-evaluation average score and the post self-evaluation average scores.

Figure 1 exhibited the number of increment in Heaton’s pre and post verbal proficiency self-assessment surveys. From the graph, From Graph 1, three participants; Siti, Faizal and Tahir, believed that digital storytelling production has improved their accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility equally. However, different cases for Murni and Amir. Murni believed that digital storytelling production improved her accuracy the most as compared to other two components and for Amir, it was fluency.

The trustworthy of the data collected from the self-evaluation surveys could be verified from two extracts taken the participants ’reflective journals;

If I say no, it’ll a big fat lie. So, I have to say yes even it improves a really tiny bit. I caught a cold when I decided to record my voice – it did affect my voice.

(Siti’s Reflective Journal)

Yes, the digital storytelling production improves my speaking skills through my pronunciation. I think my pronunciation improves.

(Murni’s Reflective Journal)

In short, the findings of the study suggested that digital storytelling production could support ESL students to improve their speaking proficiency.

4.2. Processes In Digital Storytelling Production That Cause Improvement In Students’ Verbal Proficiency

The data collected showed three emerging themes that illustrated how digital storytelling production can improve the participants’ verbal skills. The themes were practising or drilling, modelling pronunciation accuracy using Google Translate and lastly boost students’
confidence. These themes emerged throughout the participants’ reflective journals and focus-group interviews.

4.2.1 Improvement in Verbal Proficiency Through Practices or Drillings

Practising or drilling narration was credited to be as one of the factors that aided participants’ improvements in verbal skills. All participants admitted that their speaking skills improved because they practiced and rehearsed narrating their story scripts before doing the recording. The words “practise” and “repeat” occurred in all of the participants’ responses as showed in Table 1;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements from Participants</th>
<th>Name/Data Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I kept on practicing reading my script for 5 times before I decided to record it into my video</td>
<td>Siti/Reflective Journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I practiced so many times to make sure what I said were clear and heard clearly</td>
<td>Murni/Reflective Journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have record my voice for digital storytelling more than 3 times. It is because i have to get the perfect voice</td>
<td>Amir/Reflective Journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I kept on practicing my narration before I start recording my voice and myself as well.</td>
<td>Tahir/Reflective Journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 clearly indicated that all the participants confessed that they practiced their verbal narration more than one time. This occurred during the narrating step; the stage when the participants recorded their narration before putting it into their digital story. The reason was to ensure that their voice narration would be clear; words were correctly pronounced hence, made their digital storytelling easy to be understood. This step usually takes more than one time until students are satisfied with their voice, pronunciation as well as the quality of the recorded narrative. This kind of oral practice enhances speech and skills related to enunciation and articulation and this can be supported by Elyss (2011) and Rida & Yazid’s (2011) studies. Their studies reported that sample’s pronunciation showed great progression because of the narrating practices in digital storytelling production. The students’ repetitions in telling their story could train their pronunciation and by listening to their recorded narration in digital storytelling, students can evaluate their own fluency (Rida & Yazid, 2011).
4.2.2. Improvement in Verbal Proficiency Through Pronunciation Accuracy using Google Translator

The website “Google Translator” had been selected by the participants as their main technological reference in order to check the pronunciation accuracy. Tahir, one of the participants indicated in his interview how he used Google Translator in his digital storytelling production;

I also use Google Translator to check what the correct way to say a certain word is. So, I listen very carefully the demo in the Google Translator.

Apart from that, Faizal’s reflective journal recorded “I also can listen to Google Translate voices so I do not speak wrong words again.”

The production of digital storytelling allowed the participants to use Google Translator in order to check their pronunciation. This process occurred during the narration stage. They listened to the correct pronunciation of a word, practiced it and then they recorded their narration. It is very important for the respondents to include clear and correct pronunciation to ensure the message of their digital stories can be well-understood by audiences. It is undeniable that Google Translate is a very useful technology tool which can be used in the ESL classes to improve second language students’ both English and technology skills. Using electronic dictionary like Google Translate in their digital storytelling production, the respondents can compare their pronunciation with the system pronunciation and immediately correct their pronunciation. So, students can improve speaking via continuous imitation and practice at the computer (Pınar Kasapoğlu-Akyol, 2010). Plus, this learning process can improve listening skills because students learn to listen to the demonstration tentatively until they get the most accurate pronunciation.

4.2.3 A tool to boost students’ confidence to speak fluently

The finding also discovered that digital storytelling production served as a tool to help the participants to find the confidence to speak better English. Different respondents had different point of view on how digital storytelling production can help them to increase their motivation. First, Siti found that she was less embarrassed to express herself with her desired emotions without being conscious how funny she looked and sounded like because no one would look at her. The similar thread also experienced by another respondent; Tahir. Tahir wrote in his journal:

I feel more relaxed to express my feelings through the use of digital story video as compared to the normal face to face conversation that we normally have in our class.

(Tahir’s Reflective Journal)
For Murni, her source of motivation was audiences who will watch her digital story in the video. She believed that there will be people would watch and listen to her digital story, therefore, she made sure that her voice projection clear, accurate and full of expression in order to attract her audiences. Consequently, this process helped her to improve her speaking skills.

These results were concurrent with various studies made by researchers like Smeada, et.al (2014), Tahriri et.al (2015) and Green (2013). Smeada et. al (2014) argued that digital stories provided students with voice and confidence. Tahriri et. al (2015) supported their statement as he stated through digital storytelling students were able to express themselves verbally and visually in artistic, ingenious and productive ways to their classmates. Green (2013) reinforced this statement by claiming that digital storytelling project promotes less threatening learning environment.

5.0 Conclusion and Implications

This research evidently verified the suitability of digital story production in improving ESL students’ verbal skills particularly accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility. Hence, the introduction of Digital storytelling in speaking activities is definitely a springboard for English teachers towards a more student-centred teaching and learning process that eventually leads to the production of more verbally proficient, independent, highly motivated as well as highly technological literate students. In this regard, the implementation of digital storytelling project is vital and can be taken into consideration in Malaysian ESL curriculum.

However, there are few challenges that educators and policy makers need to be aware with digital storytelling implementation. First is time constraint. The findings of the case study indicate that digital storytelling is a time-consuming method. Another challenge is inequities in access to computers and internet. Although our society has become increasingly connected digitally, teachers who plan to use any computer-based instruction must be concerned about equal access for all learners, taking into consideration an individual’s socioeconomic background and learning needs.

As a conclusion, future studies can consider using students from semi-urban or rural schools which come from different ages. Apart from that, the findings of this research suggest that a longer timeframe could be beneficial as the participants could be given more opportunities to share their stories with bigger audiences. For future studies, it is better to ask students to complete digital storytelling production as a peer or group project. This will allow greater interaction among participants, hence more improvements can be observed in their speaking skills.
References


I. Introduction

Research of developing learning model is intended as an attempt to create an example or model of learning activities in the classroom. The model includes things like: 1) Textbooks, 2) Guideline of textbooks, 3) Guideline of the activities of teaching and learning in the classroom, 4) Guideline of the activities of teaching and learning outside the classroom, and 5) Formulation and implementation of the achievement test.

As we all know, learning activity is an activity that takes place inside and outside the classroom that involves the learner and the teacher. In other words, learning activities can refer to all activities between the learner and the teacher. Typically, learning activities may also mean form of transformation of knowledge from the teacher to the learner. Learning activities take place due to the material to be transferred. In this case, the material refers to the teaching materials.

One material that can and should be taught to students is any related material used to raise or stimulate the students’ ability to speak in English. The ability to speak in any language is an important skill because speaking is the most commonly used skill used or done during communication. The ability to speak has stages according to types of learners. For learners in basic level, the ability to speak is still in the stage of the pronunciation of letters, words, and simple sentences. Furthermore, to the next level learners, speech includes the ability to carry out and comprehend dialogue, as well as express certain things. Finally, at the highest level, the ability to speak can be in the form of the ability to argue and give presentations.

Teaching students to be able to speak in English is one of the hardest teaching activities for elementary school students. In other words, to make student to speak in English is not easy to teach. Until now, the students’ speaking ability in English is still very low. This happens
because a lot of things. One of them is a learning model that does not fit. Therefore, learning model which is equipped with supporting devices is important. One of the devices is meant learning materials in accordance with the reception power levels of student learning. Therefore, learning materials, one of which is based on the theory of Theme and Rheme, can be an alternative that can make it easy for students to learn and for teachers to teach.

Simply, the theme is expressed as a part of the sentence that becomes a staple or core. On the contrary, Rheme is a section explaining the theme. Theme is generally located at the beginning of the sentence. Meanwhile, Rheme generally also follows the theme. By understanding the concept of Theme and Rheme, especially on the definition and position, the students are expected to express their feelings in simple and easy to understand sentences appropriately.

Of course the development model of learning to stimulate the ability to speak in English which is based on the Theme and Rheme theories must still have no success guarantee in teaching speaking skills. Therefore, the results of this study are expected applicable for the targeted level of students as well as in higher levels.

**Formulation of the Problem**

Based on the above discussion, the formulations of the problem of this research are:

How to develop the model for the teaching of English focusing on the development of the ability to speak in English in elementary school in East Jakarta?

How does the concept of Theme and Rheme apply in the development of the ability to speak in English to students in elementary school in East Jakarta?

How is the development of materials and textbooks for the development of the ability to speak English is based on the application of the concept of theme and Rheme for students in an elementary school in East Jakarta?

**II. Literature Studies**

The learning model is defined as a form of learning framework that can be used as a standard or model. The learning model is expected to be the most ideal form of learning. This means learning model provides maximum yield levels of learning objectives than the other (which is not yet standardized). Furthermore, learning model plays an important role in the uniformity of the learning process so that it will produce the same results in all aspects of learning.
Dedeng (2000) states that learning design should be created in such a way so that the learning process becomes attractive and easy for the learners to understand. The main objective of designing the learning model is to improve and enhance the quality of learning through selecting, establishing and developing the optimal learning methods. Thus, the desired learning outcomes can be achieved.

According to experts of the development of learning materials, as delivered by Dedeng (2000), guidelines for the development of learning materials must meet the components of learning relevant to the needs of learners. The components of these learning materials are expected to be able to motivate and facilitate learners in learning and motivate the content of the learning materials.

Learning conversational skills is an important lesson. It is given because the ability to speak is the ability to be productive. Hammer (2007) stated that the ability to speak is part of the communication skills that are productive. On the other source, Tarin (1981) stated that the ability to speak is the ability to pronounce sounds articulation or words to express, express, and convey thoughts, ideas, and feelings. Therefore, the ability to speak is the most emphasized capability.

Although it is a skill that needs attention, but the teaching of speaking skills is a difficult lesson. Bueno, Madrid, and McLaren (2006) stated that the teaching of speaking skills is a difficult teaching because teaching has been more focused on reading. Therefore, learning speaking skills should be taught from an early age and must be able to lay the solid foundation for higher speech. In addition, the application of the concept of language is also important to be the basis of learning to speak. One concept to apply is the concept of Theme and Rheme.

Understanding the concept of Theme and Rheme means talking about how to understand the language in terms of functions. According to Halliday (2000), the theme is the beginning (or starting point) of a sentence that contains a message delivered by the speaker. Meanwhile, Rheme is part of the theme which is the development of a theme. Jones (1977) states that an important part of a paragraph is called theme. This is a core part of a paragraph that was later developed by the sentences supporters.

Learning ability to speak based on the concept of Theme and Rheme is in accordance with the concept that teaching must be in accordance with the language.
III. Research Objectives

In accordance with the formulation of the problem, then the purposes of this study are:
Knowing how to develop the model for the teaching of English focusing on the development of the ability to speak in English in elementary school in East Jakarta
Knowing how to apply the concept of Theme and Rheme in the development of speaking skills in English for students at the elementary school in Jakarta
Developing materials and textbooks to develop speaking skills in English, based on the application of the concept of Theme and Rheme for students at the elementary school in East Jakarta.

IV. Benefits of Research

In general, the benefits of this research can be addressed to the parties as follow:
1. The Ministry of National Education, in this case the Directorate General of Primary Education; to obtain feedback on the importance of the best model of learning English for the ability to speak in order to achieve the learning objectives and to implement the model nationally.
2. Primary Schools in East Jakarta Municipality; to obtain feedback on the importance of the best model of learning English for the ability to speak in order to achieve the learning objectives and to implement the model locally in all Primary Schools in East Jakarta.
3. Teachers of English who directly and or indirectly teach English to students; to be able to use the model that has been developed, so as to obtain the maximum learning outcomes and uniformity.

V. Research Methodology

In general, this study used qualitative research methods with the application of Research and Development Approach. This approach refers to the theory of Borg & Gall in his Applying Educational Research; A practical Guide for Teachers. The definition of Research and Development Approach in the field of education is a process that produces a product on education development or in other words "A process used to develop and validate educational product".

The steps of the study can be seen in the design of this study as follows:
From the design of the research above, it can be seen that this research stems from a preliminary study in the form of observational research on a phenomenon / sub-phenomenon. In this case, a phenomenon that is discussed here is the phenomenon of the lack of ability to communicate verbally (speaking) in English among students, university students, and people in general. Furthermore, researchers focused the phenomenon in some sub-phenomenon so that this study focused on the things that are smaller and more focused. Thus, the results of this study are expected to be better in providing solutions for each sub-phenomenon. The sub-phenomenon may include all of the issues raised in research problems. The sub-phenomenon also limits the scope of the study. In this case, researchers focused on sub-phenomena related to the teaching of English in primary schools.

Researchers then set the research issues raised by sub-phenomenon. The research problem is written in the form of research questions. Each research problem was resolved through a process of research or in this case the preparation of the learning model.

To start a modeling study, the researchers conducted preliminary observations. Preliminary observations is an activity in which researchers observe things that are real occurring in the study site (school) and matters related to the research, for example, the application of curriculum, learning models that exist, including those of the inputs taken from the preliminary study related to the topic research from several sources. After collecting baseline data, so researchers can continue the preparation of learning model in order to fit the purpose of this study.

The next step was preparation of model of learning in which the researcher created a syllabus of learning based on the concept of Theme and Rheme. This step is done entirely by the researcher. Furthermore, researchers compiled teaching materials. Students involved in this step, but only limited to typing and designing.

The third step is model trial where the researcher was assisted by students applying teaching materials in the classroom. The purpose of this test is to test the learning model. This step is done in some schools that previously had given a permit to practice teaching or doing research. The population of schools to be a teaching practice is all elementary schools, both public and private, in the city of East Jakarta. However, given the limitations of time and ability, then from the existing population, researchers only set of samples from existing schools, just as many as 12 private schools and 12 public schools. Sampling technique used is a blend between the cluster and random sampling methods.
After several test models of learning in schools that have been established, the next step is data collection. The data is the result of observation in the implementation of the developed-learning model undertaken by the teachers. The observations results were put in a table containing the completeness of all stages in the process of teaching and learning. Therefore, the observation was directed at all the object of research, namely teachers, learners or students, and the model being used. However, to be able to add the necessary information, the questionnaire to the school teachers were also be used.

Furthermore, researchers processed data that had been collected. Researchers processed data by using data processing techniques so that the data processing was valid and reliable. After these steps were undertaken, researchers and students conducted the test of the model for the second time. Finally, researcher established model of learning that is considered the most appropriate.

The final results serve as a recommendation for decision making. Recommendations are expected to be a solution to the problems related research, for example: recommendation on teaching materials, textbooks, teaching methods, and others.

VI. Research Instruments

The research data was obtained from interviews conducted to the principal and teachers of English from schools selected at the research sites. Interviews with principals and teachers were conducted separately. More details can be seen in the following paragraphs.

The instrument of interviews with the principal consists of five questions (see Appendix 1). Interviews were conducted in person by the researchers after applying the permit of doing research. After obtaining the permit, researchers conducted interviews. Interviews recorded by using recording equipment (mobile phones). The recordings were then written in the form of a transcript.

In general, an interview with the principal focuses on the views or policies of the school related to the implementation of English language teaching. In more detail, the focus of the question is also related to teaching English, especially in the ability to speak or speaking skills.

As well as the interview with the principal, the instrument for interviewing Teachers of English was also made directly by the researchers. Interviews were also recorded and the results were set forth in the form of a transcript. Beads of the interview can be seen in Annex 2.

In contrast to the Principal, interviews with English Teacher emphasis on the teaching practices in the classroom. Therefore, questions are related to teaching techniques, handbooks, and others.
VII. Results and Discussion

From interviews with the Principal, the researchers obtained the following information:

1. The policy of teaching English in public school generally refers to government policy; in this case the implementation of Curriculum 2009 through KTSP (Curriculum based on Level of Students). This curriculum states that the teaching of English in primary schools can be in the forms of mandatory content and local content. Mandatory means that each student will do the teaching learning process.

2. In general, the school gives considerable attention to the process of teaching English. The attention, for example, is to give students the opportunity to learn English in outside of formal learning. In addition, the school also gives teachers the opportunity to participate in improving the quality of teaching in the form of training or seminars, and others.

3. Teaching English, which focuses on the ability to speak English is not too much of a concern. Therefore, given the importance of this capability, then the school gives the opportunity the school teachers to improve teaching skills, especially the teaching of speaking skill, so that they can focus on improving this skill.

Furthermore, the results of interviews with teachers, it can be seen that:

1. In general, the teachers have the appropriate background to the task in hand as a teacher of English. Thus, it is a plus to the expectations of the government.

2. Teaching English refers to the Curriculum 2019 or KTSP.

3. The purpose of teaching English is still referring to the objectives set in the curriculum. However, in the implementation of purposes in the class, teaching objectives are still not formulated clearly and accurately.

4. Teachers do not have any official handbook so that the teaching tends to be unfocused.

5. Teachers apply mostly on integration method or a mixture of whole language skills. In addition, teaching refers to a specific or short-term need, such as the ability to join or win competition, like speech competition, debate competition, and others.

6. Teaching conversational skills is of particular concern yet.

7. The evaluation on the students’ ability to speak English has not been done well because of the number of students in every class which is usually more than 40 students.

Furthermore, in accordance with the objectives of this research, namely the design of modules for teaching English for speaking skills or speaking skills, then in accordance with a predetermined schedule, researchers have succeeded in drafting a module consisting of:

1. Teacher's Guide; in Appendix 3

2. Module; in Appendix 4
3. Test Guide and Items; in Appendix 5

VII.1. The Development of Teacher’s Guide

Teacher's Guide is a kind of guide book for a teacher to proceed the teaching learning process. This book is a standardized one, so all teachers can use it. Teacher's Guide consists of steps of this teaching comprising the steps of teaching adapted to the allocated time, the psychological condition of the students, and the purpose of learning.

In accordance with the application of KSTP curriculum, it is known that the allocation of time provided for teaching learning in classroom is 35 minutes. In addition, the English learning session is given 2 times in 1 week. Meanwhile, the psychological condition of students indicates that learning English is still something 'new' or 'heavy' to master. Furthermore, the purpose of learning the appropriate curriculum is also not defined explicitly but general in nature, which is to encourage students to be able to compete globally so it can coexist with community members of other nations (see Model Unit Level Curriculum (SBC) SD and MI Based Permendiknas No. 22 2006 on the Content Standards and Permendiknas Number 23 on Graduates Competency Standards). Due to not having specific learning objectives related to the learning of English, the Teacher's Guide contains more specific learning objectives.

From the observation of the seven co-researchers who practice the teaching or in other words to follow all the steps and conditions or directives in the Teacher's Guide that has been made, the study found that the Teacher's Guide which has been created has the following inputs:

1. It is necessary, especially by inexperienced teachers and in order to standardize
2. Easily understood and followed or practiced
3. It should be repaired in some parts.

The revision of Teacher's Guide is performed on Step Four or Revision Step. Results of repair can be found in Appendix 6.

VII.2. The Development of Module and Teaching Material

Just as has been mentioned in the description of the development of Teacher's Guide, the development of modules and learning materials is also based on the allocation of time, the psychological aspects of the students, and the learning objectives. In connection with this, the researchers are very concerned on the time allocated for each phase of activity, ease of material for students, and a clear goal of each stage teaching learning.

To be able to meet the existing allocation of time, then the learning steps are arranged in a tight timeline. Each learning activity has specific learning objectives to be achieved by the students. Here is a table that contains learning activities with time and learning goals, as follows:
Table 1: STUDY OBJECTIVE ACTIVITY TIME ALLOCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
<th>TIME ALLOCATED</th>
<th>PURPOSES OF LEARNING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Repeating Text or Dialogue</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students are accustomed to hear and imitate the correct pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after the Teacher aloud</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reading aloud in Pairs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students are accustomed to utter words and sentences correctly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Memorizing Text or Dialogue</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students are able to recall and use the exact phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Substituting Words to complete</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students are able to use the sentence in accordance with a precise pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Expressing for Free</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students are able to use the sentence in accordance with a precise pattern more freely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Testing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teachers determine the effectiveness of learning activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In practice, all six activities are conducted in various ways in each session or meeting. In other words, not all of the activities are carried out in every meeting. In more detail, the steps activity per session or meeting can be viewed on the module which has been developed. From the implementation of the First Trial phase, the co-researchers who conducted the teaching learning process reported that although all activities were able to be carried out, but the allocation of the available time was not enough. Based on these inputs, the modules that have been developed are still to be revised. Revisions made after all the input from teachers is summarized and analyzed. The revision appears in Annex 7.

To complete the module, then the learning material is developed. The teaching materials are all things that will be learned by the students. In general, all the designed study materials is arranged or created based on the activities that have been set. Furthermore, to achieve the objectives which have been set, then the learning material is packaged in the form of dialogue and monologue. In addition, the sentence which was made, is a simple sentence
that is consistent with the concept of Theme and Rheme. In addition, to be more easily understood, then all sentences refer to the common themes are easily learned. The theme are as follow:

1. Introducing  
2. Telling Time  
3. Telling Activities  
4. Telling about Person  
5. Asking About Feelings  
6. Asking about Hobbies  
7. Asking for Help

Each of the above themes are equipped with learning material in the form of dialogue and monologue in the learning unit separately. Thus, from the 7 existing themes, with each theme was developed with 2 units of learning, then in the end the total units is 14 units or sessions or meetings. More details, theme and the unit can be seen in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>UNIT</th>
<th>SESSION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introducing</td>
<td>1 and 2</td>
<td>1 and 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Telling Time</td>
<td>3 and 4</td>
<td>3 and 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Telling Activities</td>
<td>5 and 6</td>
<td>5 and 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Telling about Person</td>
<td>7 and 8</td>
<td>7 and 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Asking about Feeling</td>
<td>9 and 10</td>
<td>9 and 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Asking about Hobbies</td>
<td>11 and 12</td>
<td>11 and 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Asking for Help</td>
<td>13 and 14</td>
<td>13 and 14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the above themes, the learning material is developed in such a way that all the phrases and vocabulary are related to these themes. What is meant by the phrase is a phrase that applies all the standards in English-language conversations (in this case the American-English). Meanwhile, the vocabulary that is raised is not too much, covering 5-10 words. All that vocabulary is raised separately or included in the sentence.

As described above, each theme presented in the form of dialogue and monologue. Dialogue in this study is a brief dialogue between two people with the second turn of the role, so in each dialog only has 4 lines. Furthermore, existing conversations in every dialogue is a conversation according to the theme and contains simple sentences (not a complex or
compound sentence). Sentences that appear to apply the theories of Theme and Rheme which means that each sentence begins with the subject matter (called Theme) followed by supplementary (called Rheme). In the dialogue of course there are questions. Questions are also shaped in the form of short-questions Wh and Yes-No-questions simple.

Meanwhile, the monologue is learning materials in the form of descriptive sentences about something. In this module, a monologue simply have no more than four sentences. All kalimatnyapun simple and apply the theory of Theme and Rheme described above. This means that all sentences have a simple sentence patterns in the form of subject and predicate. Subject and predicate means the theme is Rheme.

VII.3. The Development of Test Guide and Items

Theoretically, a test developed according to the learning objectives. If the test results illustrate the objectives to be achieved, then the test is made in compliance. This criterion is often called the validity of the items. In addition, a test must also satisfy the criteria of regularity, which means no change in the measurement result (measure what should be measured) although given several times to learners alike. This criterion is called reliability problems. Likewise, the development of test items and manual execution of tests in this study, criteria validity and reliabilities maintained.

In accordance with the validity of the theory, the purpose of learning the ability to talk to elementary school students in this study to be a reference held researchers. In connection with this, the following is the learning goals berbiicara ability of elementary students as follows:

1. Students are able to initiate simple conversations using simple common phrase
2. Students are able to answer or respond in a simple conversation by using simple common phrase
3. Students are able to develop a theme at the beginning of the sentence with Rheme to form simple sentences
4. Students are capable of stringing a few simple sentences so that a descriptive phrase that describes something simple.

Furthermore, to maintain the regularity, the researchers tested about. Therefore, the points that have been made selanjutkan tested with split method. This means that there are items given to two different groups of learners. From the results of testing, researchers looked at whether each item fixed or steady in achieving learning goals.
In order for the implementation of the test can be applied to standard the researchers compiled a Test Guide which will be a guide for all teachers. Test Guide consists of the following sections:

A. Background: This section describes the reasons why the required Test Guide
B. Purposes of Test: This section describes the purpose of the implementation of the test, as already mentioned above
C. Kinds of Test: This section describes the types of tests
D. Conducting Test: This section describes how the test is performed
E. Calculating and Interpreting Scores: This section describes how pemrolehan scores and interpretation Silverback

In accordance with the stages of research, then all of the above development piloted. The trial results were analyzed and eventually made the conclusion to be tested further back.

VII.3. Implementation and Results of Phase I Trial
To conduct the test, the researchers made preparations include:
1. Increase the module design (manual teaching, learning materials, and a test guide)
2. Conduct training to teachers teaching (students)
3. Strengthen the study schedule with the school

After all the preparations done, the activities carried out pembelajaranpun. Here is a report and the results of the implementation of learning activities or conduct of the pilot phase, as follows:
Lesson Study - Based Instruction for Enhancing EFL Teacher’s Pedagogical Competence

Author
Lalu Suhirman

University of Cenderawasih, Papua - Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Lalu Suhirman is a lecturer at English Teaching Program of Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Cenderawasih University, Papua, Indonesia. He earned his Master in English Education at State University of Malang (UM) and Doctoral Degree in English Language Education at State University of Makassar (UNM). His research interests are in the area of Lesson Study, TEFL, EFL teachers’ professionalism, second language acquisition (SLA), and English to Young Learners (EYL). He can be contacted at lalusuhermanmpd@gmail.com

Abstract
Lesson study is a study of teaching to provide learning opportunities for teachers to advance teachers' pedagogical knowledge. The purpose of this study is to enhance EFL teacher’s pedagogical knowledge and instruction based on the practice of lesson study. In lesson study a small group of EFL teachers jointly design lesson research, open class, observe and reflect a few class lessons called research lesson. The writer describes how Junior Secondary School of EFL teachers at Jayapura city can implement lesson study in the natural classroom environment context. He attempts to explore how the practice of lesson study generates multiple pathways for refining teaching and how the knowledge teachers craft can support to improve the practice of teaching in their fields. In addition, EFL teachers work collaboratively to research lessons for promoting student centered learning and student active learning utilizing available local materials based on learning resources.
Cenderawasih University, Jln. Sentani – Abepura, Jayapura – Papua, Indonesia 9358, phone (0967) 572109, Fax (0967) 572110
**Keywords:** lesson study, open class, pedagogic, student-centered learning

**Introduction**

Lesson study is a literal translation for the Japanese word *Jugyokenkyu—jugyo* which means lesson and *kenkyu* which means study or research. This translation can be misleading in the sense that lesson study is more than the study of lessons; it is rather a systematic inquiry into teaching practice much more broadly defined, which happens to be carried out by examining lessons (Fernandez, 2002). Teachers in Japanese schools have attributed much of their professional growth to the practice of *jugyokenkyu* (lesson study). Lesson study (*Jugyokenkyu*) is defined as a professional development practice in which teachers collaborate to develop a lesson plan, teach and observe the lesson to collect data on student learning, and use their observations to refine their lesson. It is a process that teachers engage in to learn more about effective practices that result in improved learning outcomes for students, (Yoshida, 1999; Lewis, 2002; Stepanek, et.al., 2007; Brown & McDougall, 2011; Lewis, 2005; Lewis, 2011; Wiburg & Brown, 2007; Rock & Willson, 2005).

Numerous researchers (Fernandez, 2002; Fernandez and Chokshi, 2002; Lewis and Tsuchida, 1998; Stigler and Hiebert, 1999; Yoshida, 1999) have commented that the use of “Lesson Study” (LS) has become prominent among teachers and educators. Improving teaching and student learning has become the focus of teachers’ professional development. LS emerged in Japan early in the 1900s and drew the attention of the USA in the late 1990s. As defined by Lewis (2000), in LS, teachers plan, observe and discuss together to produce a research lesson. In LS, teachers take an active role as researchers to explore and refine lessons for teaching and learning improvement. LS has been extensively used in Japan. Recently there has been a rapid proliferation of Lesson Studies in the USA (Chokshi and Fernandez, 2004)

While in Indonesia, LS term is still relatively strange among the majority of teachers. Actually, LS has long developed in Japan, which was about the 19th century. The LS has just come in and has been started to be tried out since 1998 in three Universities in Indonesia, namely: Education University of Indonesia (UPI) in Bandung, State University of Yogyakarta (UNY) in Yogyakarta, and State University of Malang (UM) in Malang. They (the three universities) conducted collaboration with JICA (Japan International Corporation Agency) to implement IMSTEP (Indonesia - Mathematics and Science Teacher Education Project) for improving the quality of mathematics education and natural sciences in Indonesia. The first three years, the activities of IMSTEP were focused on improving the quality of pre-service
programs at three universities (UPI, UNY and UM) through the curriculum revision of pre-service program so that it better suited the needs of the field (MoNE, 2010b).

Then, the Indonesian government tried to continue an endeavor to a technical cooperation program of lesson study between JICA and the Ministry of National Education known as IMSTEP. It was implemented as an alternative to top-down conventional in-service teacher training with school-based teacher professional development in a few schools (Firman 2005; Samsuri & Ibrohim, 2006; Hendayana, et al.,2006). The aim of this project was to strengthen the in-service teacher training of mathematics and science education at junior secondary level in three different settings: East Java was represented by State University of Malang (UM), West Java was represented by Indonesian Education University (UPI), and Central Java was represented by State University of Yogjakarta (UNY) with the schools in their own surrounding areas as the pilot areas through which lesson study was developed and implemented, (MONE, 2010; Hendayana, et al., 2006; Syamsuri & Ibrohim, 2008).

Because of the success of mathematics and science teachers in applying lesson study, the writer is interested in conducting the lesson study model of in-service training to junior secondary school (JSS) EFL teachers who gathered in district-English teacher or Subject Teachers Deliberation (MGMP) in Jayapura Municipality. The characteristics of all Indonesian teachers’ teaching methods or styles for all fields of study are not different, it means that we still find teachers’ teaching method monotonous (Susilo, 2007), whereas predominantly occupied only by lecturing method followed by doing exercises on the available textbooks. Students just listen to their teacher lecturing the lesson. Students do not get much access to more practical experiences, which would help them boost and create the learning process. They just have to memorize what they have listened and studied from their teacher. The teachers do not care for their students’ learning potencies, and they would be proud with their students result with the high score of memorizing.

On the other side, the competency standard in English lesson, namely students have skill to use and practice English communicatively whether oral or written is not able to be applied better yet. This case happens possibly because of as long as the instructional process conducted is much more emphasized on ‘how to learn English’ in terms of knowledge only but not on ‘how to use English’ yet which is related to language skills, that is the effort to make learners skillful in using English whether spoken or written. Therefore, the result is the English communication skills among students suffer with this teaching strategy. According to Act No 19/2005 Standard of Indonesian National Education, the teaching-learning process should be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, and motivate students to be active and creative.
However, the lecture type of teaching still dominates lessons at schools, so that students get bored and do not engage in learning (MoNE, 2010b; MOEC, 2012).

Based on the description above, the implementation of lesson study on English language lesson is a solution to advance EFL teachers’ pedagogical knowledge, particularly on Junior Secondary School (JSS) EFL teachers who merged on Deliberation of Subject Teacher (Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran – MGMP) of English language in Jayapura Municipality. That is why, this research issue is to explore the practicing of lesson study in the context of the natural environment in the classroom as an endeavor to improve pedagogical competence of EFL teachers in Jayapura Municipality.

The purpose of this study is to describe the effects of the lesson study process on fifteen EFL JSS teachers from eight JSS in the city of Jayapura in Papua, Indonesia. The study will specifically address the following research questions: (a) How do EFL teachers perceive their pedagogical knowledge advancing as long as the practicing of lesson study? (b) How does lesson study provide to improve EFL teacher’s teaching effectiveness? The findings of the study are important in determining if the model is effective in helping teachers to examine and improve their instructional practice.

Review of Related Literature

A. Lesson Study

Characteristics of Lesson Study

Lesson Study is an ongoing cycle of professional development in which teachers work together in a team to plan a unit of study based on learning goals, teach the lesson while collecting data on student learning (the research lesson), discuss and revise the lesson (debriefing), and re-teach the lesson with the modifications that were made based on the findings from the prior research lesson (Fernandez, 2002; Lewis, 2002; Ono & Ferreira, 2010). Teachers often choose to focus on a concept that is particularly challenging for students (Lewis, 2002; Stepanek, et al., 2007; CfBT., 2009). Goals are set for both academic content knowledge and life long learning (Stepanek, et al., 2007; Lewis, 2002; Ono, & Ferreira, 2010).

Before the research lesson, the LS team clearly identifies what type of evidence of student learning they will collect throughout the lesson (Stepanek, et al., 2007; Baba, Takayu. 2010). During the research lesson, one member of the LS team teaches the lesson in his/her own classroom while the other members of the team observe as teacher researchers collecting data on the elements of the lesson previously determined by the team (Fernandez, 2002; Stepanek, et al, 2007; CfBT. 2009). Sometimes other teachers or specialists are invited to attend
the research lesson as well. Because the lesson was developed together as a team, there is collective ownership of the lesson (CfBT. 2009; Ono & Ferreira, 2010). It is the lesson’s impact on student learning that is being analyzed, not the teacher who is facilitating the lesson (Perry and Lewis, 2003; Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011).

After the lesson is taught, the LS team comes together for a debriefing (Stepanek, et al, 2007; Baba, 2010; Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011). The teacher who taught the lesson is the first to speak about his or her perception of how the lesson went (Hurd, 2005; Stepanek, et.al, 2007). Each member of the team has an opportunity to comment on the lesson following the team members, other invited observers are also given a chance to note observations (Campbell, 2003; CfBT. 2009; Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011). The discussion during the debriefing centers around the initial goals set forth by the team. The data collected are compiled and the findings to each of the research questions are discussed (CfBT. 2009; Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011). As a part of this process, any work samples collected from the students are reviewed to gain additional insight into how students were processing the information from the lesson (Stepanek, et al., 2007; Corcoran & Oreilly, 2011). Sometimes research lessons are videotaped, and that videotape is used at this time to review a particularly pivotal moment and to collect additional data that may have been overlooked in the real-time observations (CfBT. 2009; Baba, Takayu. 2010 Meyer & Wilkerson, 2011).

The Process of Lesson Study

There are three phases or sequences of implementing lesson study, plan, do, and see.

PLAN (Create a Lesson Plan)

The team develops a plan to investigate how students learn from the lesson. The plan specifies the type of evidence the team will collect and how observers will observe and record data during the lesson (Stepanek, et al., 2007; Wiburg & Brown, 2007; Rock & Willson, 2005). After have chosen the research theme and explored the curriculum and materials on the topics, the LS teams are ready to begin constructing the teaching learning plan. It guides the teaching, observation, and discussion of research lesson, and captures the inquiry that occurs in lesson study group. The teaching learning plan differs from an ordinary lesson plan because it is designed to stimulate, capture, and share the learning as well as guide the lesson (Lewis, 2006; Stepanek, et al., 2007; Lewis & Hurd, 2011). Planning the study coincides with planning the lesson. As teams design the lesson they discuss what types of data they will collect as evidence of student learning and thinking. For example, one team used students’ explanations as a measure of conceptual understanding. The team designed several exercises in which students explained key ideas, both orally and in writing. During the lesson, observers attended to how
students explained the material and also collected students’ written explanations for later analysis (Cerbin, Cary, Dixon, & Willson, 2006).

**DO (Teaching and Observing the Research Lesson)**

The lesson is taught at the scheduled time during the term. One member of the team teaches the lesson and other members attend the class to collect data. Teams may also invite guest observers (e.g., departmental or professional colleagues, administrators, graduate students). Instead of observing how the teacher teaches, as in typical classroom observations, observers focus on how students respond to the lesson, which was designed by the team rather than by the person who happens to be teaching. The collective ownership of the lesson helps pave the way for public knowledge building (Stepanek, et al., 2007; Perry & Lewis, 2003; Lewis & Hurd, 2011). Observers gather rich evidence related to the learning goal during the lesson, capturing the complexity of actual teaching and learning.

Depending upon the team’s data collection strategy, observers may record detailed field notes, focus on specific types of student activity, or use checklists or rubrics to categorize or monitor student engagement, performance, thinking, and/or behavior (Perry & Lewis, 2003; Lewis & Hurd, 2011). They may observe the entire class or focus on specific students during the lesson. The lesson is videotaped, sometimes from multiple vantage points, for future reference and review.

**SEE (Reflection)**

Soon after the lesson is taught the team holds a debriefing meeting to examine evidence related to the learning goals and to reflect on the experience. Participants include the lesson study team members and guest observers. Teams may adopt ground rules to guide discussion (e.g., the lesson instructor talks first followed by team members, and guest observers) but there is no standardized process for data analysis and reflection (Fernandez & Chocshi, 2002; Lewis, 2006; Stepanek, et al., 2007). Participants share their observations and examine additional evidence from the lesson, such as student written work, searching for patterns that may reveal important insights into teaching practice and student learning. Stepanek, et al., further stated, “It is important for teams to reflect on the process of observing and debriefing. If they have completed the post-debriefing log, the team members have already thought about what they learned about students, content, and instruction around this specific research lesson, as well as what is transferable to other lessons. It may be helpful to share the logs with each other.” (Stepanek, et al., 2007: 103). In the debriefing after the lesson, teachers discuss student learning based on the data they have collected during the observation (Murata, 2011).
B. Pedagogical Competence

Shulman emphasizes the importance of pedagogical content knowledge in designing program content. In planning the content of programs to strengthen teaching, it is important to emphasize pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987), which involves a focus on subject matter content with its implications for pedagogy (planning, instruction, and assessment). Pedagogical content knowledge helps teachers understand curricular content better and be more effective in making a subject comprehensible to students. It serves as a bridge between teachers’ knowledge of the subject matter and their knowledge and skill in planning and managing their interactions with students in ways that facilitate learning (Grossman, 2005).

Pedagogical content knowledge, on the other hand, refers to knowledge that provides a basis for language teaching (Richards). Further Richards states, “it knowledge that is drawn from the study of language teaching and language learning itself and which can be applied in different ways to the resolution of practical issues in language teaching. It could include course work in areas such as curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching, classroom management, and the four language skills” (Richards, 2011: 6).

Consequently, Indonesian government policy defined teachers’ pedagogical competence refer to a teacher’s ability to manage the learning process, including planning and implementation, evaluation of learning results and the development of students as individuals (Ministerial Education & Culture, 2012). Further more detail Pedagogical competence is an ability to be possessed by the teacher regarding to the characteristics of learners viewed from various aspects such as physical, moral, social, cultural, emotional, and intellectual. It implies that a teacher should be able to master the learning theory and principles of learning that educates for learners who have the character, nature, and interests are different (MOEC, 2012).

With regard to the implementation of the curriculum, a teacher must be able to develop curriculum at each level of education units and tailored to local needs. Teachers should be able to optimize the potential of learners to actualize his ability in the classroom, and to be able to carry out an assessment of the learning activities that have been performed (MONE, 2010).

Methodology
A. Research Design

This study was explored through qualitative research methodology, particularly a single case study of multiple lesson study teams. Yin (2006) indicates within this case study it was further intended to explore reflective practices in general and the transferability of explicit EFL teaching as a result of participating in lesson study. Through this qualitative research design,
the researcher intended to collect data related to teachers’ pedagogical competence which conducted through LS in terms of their teaching practice and students’ learning in the natural classroom context. The implementation of LS characterized by collaboration, participation, and collegiality work (Lewis, 2002; Fernandez, 2006; Dudley, 2014). Therefore, the LS supported by multiple instruments and data resources.

B. Setting and the Research Subjects

The research setting was in eight Junior Secondary Schools included Religion Junior Secondary Schools (JSS/RJSS) registered under the supervision of the Education Department of Jayapura Municipality (JM) in Papua. The Subjects of this study were EFL teachers who incorporated in MGMP (deliberation subject teachers) of Junior Secondary School (SMP/MTs) in JM. There were 15 EFL teachers expressed their willingness as LS members, but three of them stated that they were as non-active participants – intended they were just ready for observing few teaching practices. From all those participants, there was only a male teacher emerged in this project.

C. The Role of Researcher

The role of researcher is as a participant and a “knowledgeable other”, (a) the researcher participated in the investigation as a participant-observer in facilitating the introduction of lesson study to EFL teachers in Jayapura City, and (b) as a “knowledgeable other”, before conducting the core activity of LS project, he trained the MGMP EFL teachers about the concepts of LS and the procedures of conducting it.

D. Research Procedure

The procedure of this research lesson follows form commonly used in Indonesia which consists of three steps, such as: PLAN, DO, and SEE (REFLECT). Before implying this research procedure, the participants who were ready to engage in this project would be facilitated in workshop (see figure 1).

Before conducting the core phase of LS, the participants were directed to work in a way that helped them to understand the concept of Lesson Study. In this workshop, the EFL teachers were immersed in an intensive experience in which they focused on the process and the procedure of LS activities. In this workshop opportunity, it was also used to recognize collaboratively English teachers’ pedagogical problems that they encountered in daily instruction.
The planning stage (PLAN) aimed to produce instructional lesson plan which was believed to educate learners effectively and trigger learners’ active participation in learning. Good planning could not be done alone. On this stage, English teacher groups members of LS could collaborate and participate to enrich ideas, knowledge or experiences related to design of learning that would be produced and presented, whether in terms of teaching materials organization, pedagogical aspects, or aspects of the preparation of instructional tools. Academic quarrying activity was directed to conduct a study or an analysis of competency standards, basic competency and understanding of teachers to the concept of the material to be taught. Before it was decided as a final result, all of the components contained in the learning design should be tried out (simulated).

The implementation stage (DO) was addressed to determine for the purpose of implementing the design of instruction that had been formulated in the previous stage. The lesson was taught at the scheduled time during the term. One member of the team taught the lesson and other members attended the class to collect data as observers. A person of the member of the LS team acted as a "model teacher" (volunteer) while the others acted as observers. Other observers (guest observers) could also act as observers. The focus of observation was directed to the learners’ learning activity which based on the procedure guidance and instruments observation that had been agreed at the planning stage. It was not to evaluate the performance of teachers who was in charge of teaching. The presence of observers in the classroom instead of collecting data but also aimed to learn from the lesson was going on.

Stage of reflection (SEE) was intended to discover the advantages and disadvantages of instructional practice. A volunteer teacher or a model teacher who had been pointed to present the lesson requested to initiate the discussion by delivering the impressions conveyed in implementing the instruction. Next opportunity was given to the other members of groups whereas in stage DO acted as observers. Furthermore, outside or guest observers were requested to submit comments and lessons learned from the instructional practice especially accordance to the learners’ learning. Criticisms and suggestions submitted wisely without degrading or hurting a teacher for improvement. In contrast, volunteer teachers or model teachers were criticized should be able to accept input from the observers for the next learning improvement. Based on feedback from these discussions could be designed back in the next better learning. As a result of the review, teachers in the group agreed how to revise and refine and adjust the lesson or lesson sequence and what they hope to achieve by doing so. They re-planned with a different class or group in mind.
Figure 1 could be described briefly that for each research lesson, the group met three times, once each for the initial planning (PLAN) session, the lesson implementation (DO) session, and the debriefing (reflection and revision) (SEE) session.

G. Data Sources

Data sources used were (1) field notes/observations, (2) teacher reflection scripts (model teachers and teachers as observers), (3) documents (lesson plans), and (4) participant interviews. The researcher conducted interviews with twelve teachers who volunteered to be interviewed. Of these twelve, there were one male interviewee and eleven female interviewees.
The interviews were conducted after the lesson study cycle and the group presentations had been completed.

H. Data Analysis

The data collected in this research was qualitative case study. Yin (2006) identifies that the scope of a case study aims to investigate contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context. In this study, the contemporary phenomenon to explore is the transition of EFL views within the real-life context of lesson study. Throughout the lesson study process, dominant themes were identified from the data collected and these themes were then further classified into categories. These categories were then validated across the numerous data sources. These in opportunity provided rich insights into the growth of pedagogical and professionalism knowledge of these JSS English teachers during the lesson study process. Data from the lesson study phases and stages were analyzed by using interactive qualitative model (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher initiated data collection without generating any hypotheses or without any pre-established theories regarding the results. Data collection and analysis were done simultaneously.

I. Findings

This section presents the findings from all data instruments and data sources, such as the teacher interviews, observation field notes, reflection notes, research lesson documents and include reflective researcher memos that concern to the two research questions. Interviews with the twelve teachers were immediately after conducting open classes of lesson study from four JSS venues (SMPN 9 Jayapura, SMP Al-Ihsan, SMP Muhammadiyah, and MTs Muhammadiyah) which provided the major sources of evidence for the findings. However, data evidence from other data instruments with teachers who elected to participate in lesson study also provided auxiliary evidence regarding some of the benefits of lesson study, thus serving to confirm the dependability of results originating from the issues. Several perceptions and reflections from the EFL teachers’ and researcher’s records helped to increase dependability of the data and credibility of the findings, and the scrutiny of the findings by cross-checking the result of multiple data sources helped to promote credibility and ensure valid and reliable results (Cresswel, 2007).
1. FINDINGS RELEVANT TO RESEARCH QUESTION #1

Research Question #1: How do EFL teachers acquire their pedagogical competence advancing along with the practicing of lesson study? The data related to this question were drawn from, interview transcripts, observation field notes, reflection observation scripts and documents of lesson planning. The findings acquired in this first research question consists of four main themes, *professional confidence, teaching strategies, classroom management, and assessments*.

a. Personal confidence

Self confidence is one the pedagogical competence of the impact of practicing Lesson Study on teaching or open class process. Instructional process in practicing Lesson Study has prompted EFL teachers to feel more confident about their ability to continue or to improve their teaching. The participants reflected their impressions that the confidence building aspect of Lesson Study had strong impact on their teaching.

Data associated with confidence in this lesson study were derived from the model teachers who practiced directly the instructional process. Information relating to the confidence gained from the model teachers' self-reflection delivered in reflection and discussion sessions immediately after the process of teaching and learning process ended. Efi as one of the ten model teachers reflected her impressions, “I felt a little bit nervous at the beginning of the lesson because of the presence of the observers. When I realized many eyes watching me in instructional process, I felt excited and made me more confidence” (SELF-REF. 8 – MT – Efi, November 2015). Purwanti also admitted that she felt the same thing as what was perceived by Efi. Purwanti felt nervous at the beginning of class, but then her confidence returned back stable. She said, “I was very nervous, there were other teachers from other schools to see my class. I supposed that their presence just looking for my mistakes in teaching…but then my confidence returned stable” (SELF-REF. 1 MT – Purwanti, November 2015)

Conversely Danreng explained that at the beginning of her teaching process she felt nervous but then she tried to trigger her confidence, “Honestly, I was a little bit nervous, but soon I triggered my self confidence because I have got enough time engaging in this LS” (SELF-REF. 4 MT – Danreng). Ade also stated her high confidence by noting, “Generally I felt comforted because all students took participation in group to complete their worksheets” (SELF-REF. 6 – MT Ade). On the other sides, Bety also expressed her mood at the time of presenting the lesson, “At the beginning I was very nervous. But, then I tried to look calm, I didn’t want to show that I was nervous. I felt that my teaching was optimal enough” (SELF-
REF. 7- MT – Bety). Kuntari added that, “I felt a little bit nervous at the beginning of the lesson because of the presence of the observers but then I felt more confidence. I was glad that the students learned well and active” (SELF-REF. 9 – MT – Kuntari).

b. Teaching strategies

There were almost all EFL teachers expressed their class observations and reflections designated that they could learn kinds of teaching – learning strategy by watching their friends’ teaching practice. Adawiyah, Ira, Ade, Elen, and Wahyuni expressed their interest in teaching strategies conducted by Yuli and they stated that they could learn from her. As Adayah noted, “I liked the teacher’s way of motivating and empowering students learning by their own willingness without being forced. It looked like an autonomous” (OBVR-REF. 3 – Adawiyah, November 2015). Ira also stated his reflection, “Class also looked joyful and safely far from threatened and pressured feeling. I liked the approach taken by the teacher to motivate students with deviant behavior” (OBVR-REF. 3 – Ira, November 2015).

Elen and Wahyuni enthusiastically acknowledged that they had learned a valuable lesson, especially teaching strategies from teaching practice conducted by Yuli. Elen said, “I have learned many things in this instruction: teaching strategy, classroom management, managing learning tasks and time management”. Wahyuni, further stated, “I got valuable knowledge from this class how to treat lazy students in instructional process wisely” (OBVR-REF.3-Elen & Adawiyah, November, 2015)

From her observations, Kuntari stated that she has got a new knowledge about teaching strategy of open classes conducted by Ade Sari. Kuntari further stated, “Each student had done thing, the teacher always gave praise to students who did a good job. like the strategy used by the teacher. I want to try it in my real class” ( OBVR-REF. 6 Kuntari, November 2015). Adawiyah also adored the teaching strategy performed by Ade Sari in Lesson study open class. Something made her interested was the trick used by the teacher that the students could do their work without any pressures from the teacher. Adawiyah mentioned, “I liked the teacher’s way of motivating and empowering students learning by their own willingness without being forced. Class was running very active, creative and enthusiastic” (OBVR-REF. 6 Adawiyah, November 2015).

Contextual instructional materials developed by the teacher can trigger students’ motivation to learn English. This case has been conducted by a model teacher in LS open class. Kuntari as a model teacher used all objects in the classroom context as her instructional media, including people (students and observers). Efi and Atik felt acquiring a new knowledge about real object media and how to use them to make students feel delighted to learn to use the media.
This case made the two teachers (Efi and Atik) interested in developing this kind of teaching media.

c. Classroom management

Data dealing with the classroom management drawn from the observation field notes and reflection scripts of teachers. Based on the results of her observation on Danreng LS open class presentation, Wardah mentioned that class atmosphere conducted by Danreng was conducive enough. She revealed that, “The class management was conducive, the class was not crowded. I like it, it might be I can learn from this experience.” On the contrary, Yuli watched class atmosphere less conducive in the class taught by Wardah. Yuli then declared, “I didn’t see the empowering of students learning. Classroom management was not effective enough. Communication among students in the teaching - learning process was not occurred” (OBVR-REF.5-Yuli). Meanwhile, Kuntari declared her appreciation to Ade who has presented the lesson with a properly classroom management. Kuntari then mentioned, “I can learn from this lesson how to manage the class and personal approach to students in order the students doing their tasks sincerely and voluntarily” (OBVR-REF.6- Kuntari). Ira on the other occasion stated that he could acquire a valuable knowledge from Efi’s LS open class. He clarified, “Interaction in learning process was very good, it made class alive. I can learn from this class, especially from MT that I acquire how to manage the class, teaching strategy, treat the learners to learn actively” (OBVR-REF.8- Ira).

Kusmiati also admitted that she got a good lesson from Efi’s trick in managing the class. Kusmiati further stated her interest: I like the way the teacher reprimanded the students by coming near to them, not shouted from the front of the class that could be embarrassing or even as psychological effect on those students” (OBVR-REF.7-Kusmiati). Similar with Kusmiati, Adawiyah also stipulated her appreciation to Efi’s way of managing her class. Adawiyah declared that she got lesson learned of it, and said, “Lesson learned that I can acquire from this study, the teacher had managed the class very good during the lesson process. All students learned in accordance with the purpose of competency standard and basic competency” (OBVR-REF.7-Adawiyah).

d. Assessments

The assessment conducted by the EFL teachers in the LS activity was very contextual and variative, i.e. non-test assessment such as: performance, products, projects, and attitude. Yuli stated that she explicitly assessed her instructional process by administering role playing. She said, “I made an effort to trigger learners to take participation and learning collaboratively in group work to discuss their listening worksheet. Instead of that, I also asked them to prepare...
a simple dialog for role playing about shopping (one as a customer and another as a shopkeeper) (SELF-REF.3- MT- Yuli). Ade praised the evaluation models used by Yuli because all students did their task with full of responsibility. Further she mentioned, “Each student worked and learned in their own group, completed their worksheets with full of responsibility. When the teacher asked two students represented each group for role playing in front of the class, they did it well” (OBVR-REF. 3 – Ade).

On the other chance, when Ade presented her LS teaching activity, she used performance and product to assess students’ English competency. She clarified in her self-reflection, “I made an effort to activate learners to take participation and learning collaboratively in group work to discuss their reading and writing worksheets. Instead of that, I asked them to write a short simple functional text about ‘greeting cards’” (SELF-REF. 6 – MT Ade). Ira tried to explain the type of assessment used by Bety to determine the ability of the students’ English. Bety apparently used a few types of assessment, such as process, product, and attitude. Ira clarified, “The MT paid attention and control each group when students collaborated to do their worksheets. At the end of the class the MT gave formative evaluation by collecting student’s individual worksheet dealing with procedural written text” (OBVR-REF. 7 – Ira).

2. Findings Relevant to Research Question #2

Research Question #2: How does lesson study provide to improve EFL teacher’s teaching effectiveness? The data related to this question were drawn from, interview transcripts, observation field notes, reflection observation scripts and documents of lesson planning. The findings acquired in this second research question consists of two main themes, peer – collaborative collegiality and peer-coaching and mediations

a. Peer Collaboration

Regular collaboration with colleagues about instructional objectives, teacher instruction, and information learned from an EFL facilitator helped the participants learn new approaches to instructing students. After planning collaboratively for the first research lesson, the participants indicated a desire for continued collaborative sessions (Researcher Observation, October, 2015). The EFL teachers indicated that group planning was powerful. Ati said, “It was amazing! We took what we got from sharing ideas and planned some innovative and contextual EFL teaching strategies” (Interview, Atik, November 28, 2015).

Yuli delivered her insight on the focus on student learning she experienced during the group planning sessions for lesson study. She assessed the meeting in the workshop lesson
planning in the lesson study event was unique because many opinions were fruitful and large donated by her colleagues. She did not expect that could happen, this might influence by joining in the lesson study. Indirectly, she saw the great benefits of this LS activity, each participant could learn from each other, the content of the lessons learned, learning to restrain and manage emotions, learning to trust each other, social learning and community learning. In lesson planning workshop was no teacher had a higher position with the other, and neither did feel a senior or junior teachers. Everyone in group of lesson planning workshop had the same status and these activities were democratic. She said, “I think in designing a lesson plan in a group that consists of several teachers who work together and each takes participation to give great ideas, especially how to encourage learners learning actively” (Interview, Yuli November 29, 2015)

Irsah, Ade, and Kuntari noted their experiences in planning the lesson research collaboratively with their colleagues, they stated that the nuance in incorporating in LS was very contradictory with the regular meeting of MGMP for designing the teaching learning devices. Irsah represented to say, “the inner atmosphere in the meeting to design a lesson plan in the LS is different from the regular meeting of MGMPs for the same purpose, it seemed we had strong spirit, disciplines and responsibility” (Interview, November 30, 2015). 

Danreng, Adawiyah, and Wardah claimed that collaborative planning was particularly beneficial to them as a new teacher at JSS in Jayapura Municipality. Adawiyah further said, “The collaboration and cooperation were incredible for us. I know this planning time is critical for us as new teachers to my MGMP English group in Jayapura municipality”. Similarly, Kuntari considered the collaborative and cooperative planning sessions to be ideal for teachers. She noted, “Some meetings in this lesson study project were basically like a teacher’s meeting conference. It was wonderful to sit down together and focus on a lesson plan with the purpose of designing it to meet all of our students’ needs” (Interview, November 29, 2019).

2. Peer Coaching and Mediation

Evident explored from the interviews indicating that participants or EFL teachers involved in lesson study would benefit from peer coaching and mediation training. The training should help them feel more comfortable when providing or receiving constructive feedback from their peers. Wardah and Adawiyah expressed concern about providing constructive feedback to more experienced teachers, “That was one of the biggest things when we got back to discuss the lessons; it was very difficult for me as a new teacher and not as experienced to comment or critique a more experienced teacher” (Interview, November 30, 2015). Adawiyah
also showed that she would be very uncomfortable to criticize the more experienced teachers but she could attempt to convince herself to be parallel and have the same position in the activities of lesson study. She said, “Though I understand they do not consider themselves as experts or seniors. But I feel awkward deliver direct criticism, nonetheless they welcome that make me more confidence as a junior teacher” (Adawiyah, Interview, November 28, 2015).

Other participants felt that peer-coaching in training, collaborating and participating to create effective lesson plan, observing and reflecting for giving feedback to peers and for self-appraisal might prevent ‘hurt feelings’. It means that peer coaching can prevent team members or teachers from feeling of egocentric, feel smarter, feel the most clever, but on the contrary peer coaching can foster a sense of strong togetherness among teams or senior teacher with juniors. Ade Sari stipulated the importance of peer-coaching, as follows, “I think it is important, peer coaching I think is very important in improving the pedagogical and professionalism of teachers. Peer coaching at each school must be implemented to enable the understanding between senior and junior teachers” (Interview, Adesari, November 30, 2015).

According to Purwanti, peer coaching provides many benefits, she stated that in peer coaching she could measure her pedagogical and professional competence. She could also measure her friends’ teaching practice because peer coaching in planning the lesson plan, they work collaboratively, discuss appropriate topic to be taught, then one of team teaches the lesson other members observe and record each event occurs in the classroom, and at the post lesson conducted reflection, debriefing, sharing experiences explored from observation. She added, “Deeply felt peer coaching for me is very helpful when we collaboratively plan the lessons, …when our idea jamm ed, senior teachers give mediation to coach us, then explain things to get the contents of a lesson plan” (Interview, November 30, 2015).

Discussions

A. Pedagogical Competence

All LS participants admitted their pedagogical competences developed better especially on their confidence of teaching, teaching strategies, classroom management and assessment. These pedagogical competences acquired because of their engagement in LS activities. According to Lewis (2002b), lesson study does impact teachers’ instructional practices; however, more follow-up studies need to focus on whether these instructional changes transfer into classroom practice. It is imperative for teachers to strive for continuous improvement in instructional strategies and content knowledge because teachers are the key to students’ understanding and achievement in English (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Successful
instructional changes occur in sustained efforts and in small incremental steps (Guskey, 2000). Lesson study addresses one lesson at a time, but impacts learning and instruction in several aspects. Lesson study allows teachers to view teaching and learning as it occurs in the classroom. Lesson study also keeps students as the main focus. Lesson study is teacher-led which ultimately allows teachers to be actively involved in instructional change (Takahashi & Yoshida, 2004; Wilms, 2003).

B. Teaching Effectiveness

1. Peer Collaboration

EFL groups of lesson study prepare collaboratively produced lesson plans. They need to provide learning objectives and determine specific objectives on competency standard and basic competency. They also need to plan student-centered strategies for each objective. Further they highlight some of the themes in individual teaching plans. They face difficulties and challenges in providing to open class lesson plans because they have to think on their own in every step of the lesson and thinking about anticipate student’s response (MONE, 2013).

The view of EFL teachers of LS teams indicates that they need to support creating lesson plans. In this case, the LS provides EFL teachers the opportunity to discuss with the current members of the group when preparing a lesson plan. Through the lesson study approach, things that are highlighted in the lesson plans by the students in the group are sharing of ideas, collaboration in preparation of instructional materials and teaching aids, improvement of lesson plans, joint evaluation and enhancing learners’ motivation (MoNE, 2009). The lesson plan that is prepared jointly will establish cooperation in the sharing of ideas between them through collaborative discussions. The processes in doing lesson plans in a group is that they are able to share and gain various ideas, whereas small ideas can be developed further in group discussions (Lewis, 2002; Stepanek, et al., 2007).

2. Peer Coaching

In this study, senior and experienced EFL teachers coaching and mentoring the junior and unexperienced other EFL teachers. Peer coaching is natural extension of team teaching. The process of peer coaching in their cases grew out of team-teaching experiences. In all cases, the desire for peer coaching came from a perceived need in all two teams to better integrate language and content instruction. In one case, the co-teachers began their course with a high level of mutual trust. In the others, that trust had to be earned over time. As the teams worked out their course learning objectives, developed materials, and instructed together, they were critically appraising each other’s work. In short, they met regularly to work on specific aspects of their course and their development as teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2005).
The qualities of a coach as consultant require her/him to be a good listener; capable of handling sensitively and neutrally both personal and professional issues; experience; the capacity to see the world through another’s eyes; the ability to change without threat (Tomlinson, 2004). Coaching supports the authorship of self-development since the purpose of coaching is to help precipitate and support changes in practice that benefit the individual and the organization. The ideal outcome is for an individual to become a reflective, evidence-based practitioner who will continuously evaluate and develop his or her working practices (Stepanek, et al, 2007; Rock & Kopp, 2005).

**Conclusions**

Conclusions based on the findings of the study, it is concluded that there had been progress of pedagogical competencies and sustainable effectiveness of the EFL teachers after practicing of LS in real classroom context of instruction. The EFL teachers as the subjects of this study reflected a high level of performance in accordance with the pedagogical competence. Engaging in lesson study has delivered valuable impact on EFL teachers’ pedagogical knowledge, especially on the aspects of personal teaching confidence, the variation of teaching strategies, innovative classroom management, and multiple ways of assessment. The EFL teachers also discovered treasured experience of sustaining the effectiveness of teaching by involving collegial collaborative work and peer collegial coaching to develop instructional devices. The focus of research in this paper is restricted on pedagogical competence to its link to the implementation of LS. It recommended that deeper and more thorough research on the subject matter will obtain more comprehensive understanding related to the teachers’ professional development.

**References**


Title
A Sociolinguistic Investigation to English Words in the Cebuano-Visayan Text Messaging Corpus

Author
Leo Hucamis Aberion
University of San Jose-Recoletos, Cebu City, Philippines

Bio-Profile:
Leo Hucamis Aberion is a College Professor at the University of San Jose-Recoletos, Cebu City, Philippines. His research interests include linguistics, language variations, literary criticism, and sociolinguistics. He is currently teaching English language, literature, business communication, research, and technical writing. He can be reached at aberleo2014@gmail.com.

Abstract
This study focused on how English Words are incorporated in the text messaging corpus since students tend to use text words in their academic writing compositions in English. The data were analyzed categorically without the use of statistics. Results reveal that dropped vowels got the highest text words, followed by grapheme changes, aphesis and abbreviation, numeric characters replacing homophones, homophonic single grapheme abbreviation, acronyms, and contraction. Also, the social factors that affect the change of English words in text messaging corpus included culture, technology, trendiness, and convenience. Hence, language teachers have to remind their students on the proper venue of using text words, and these should not be used in their written compositions.

Keywords: Sociolinguistics, Cebuano-Visayan, Text Messaging

Introduction
This study aimed to analyze the language phenomena in Short Messaging Services (SMS) among selected text messages from avid Cebuano-Visayan (one of the major languages
in the Philippines) mobile phone users most especially on the different ways of word formation in short messaging system. It also intended to look into the possible social factors that affect the change of English words in text messaging corpus because some students tend to use text words in their written compositions. This study was anchored on the theory of language change and development by Hymes (1967) as cited by Ball (2005) since language has to be interrelated with society. He stated that interaction is always related to operational characteristics, and it is based on the assumption that social action involves contextual relativity. Of the all areas in language analysis, the word is the most familiar. So, as literate speakers of English, there is always a difficulty in segmenting a stream of speech sounds into words or deciding where to leave spaces when writing a sentence (Gumperz, 1971; Botha, 2006; Hilier, 2004; O’Gardy, 1996).

Department of Languages and Literature, College of Arts and Sciences, University of San Jose-Recoletos, Magallanes Street, Cebu City, Cebu, Philippines

**Literature Review**

According to Bautista (1981) in her study entitled ‘The Filipino Bilingual’s Competence: A Model Based on an Analysis of Tagalog-English Codeswitching as cited by Hammink (2000), she classified codeswitching into several types namely: borrowing, calque, intersentential and intrasentential. While another on Spanish-English bilinguals shows how bilinguals shift with the use of the four types of codeswitching (Espiritu, 1996; Yanzon, 2005). In another study of Laurilla (2004), she focused her study in understanding and explaining the sociolinguistic dynamics of text messaging (texting or SMS) within the Philippine context. Using the theoretical framework of Hymes (1972) - the ethnography of speaking, the Filipino texters’ text messages were described in terms different aspects. On the other hand, Hilary Hillier (2004) discussed new language forms in her book Analyzing Real Text and found out that the text messages taken from the participants of the study revealed that the participants used traditional punctuation features such as question and exclamation marks and full stops arguably in conveying meaning.

**Methodology**

This study employed the qualitative-quantitative method of research since data were analyzed according to the frequency of occurrence in the short messaging system and the words
were classified accordingly based on their categories, and the descriptive method of analysis was used since the researcher had to present in details the social factors affecting the word formation. These English words were taken from the 5,569 computer mediated text messages sent to a television program in a form of commentaries for the issues.

**Findings and discussion**

Table 1. Types, descriptions, and occurrences of nonstandard type of spelling in order of frequency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Number of Occurrences</th>
<th>% of total nonstandard spellings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dropped vowels</td>
<td>This is a quick way of dropping vowels in a word but retain the consonants for word recognition</td>
<td>“fwd” for “forward”, “msgs” for “messages” and “txt” for “text”</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>48.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grapheme changes</td>
<td>This is getting of some unnecessary vowels and consonants but change another letter which is other than what is original in a word</td>
<td>“luv” for “love”, “cud” for “could”, “dat” for “that” and “plz” for “please”</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>25.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aphesis and abbreviation</td>
<td>This refers to a word that severs the beginning of the word while abbreviation severs the end of the word</td>
<td>“sec” for “secretary”, “bro” for “brother” and “cell” for “cellular phone”</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>10.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeric characters replacing homophones</td>
<td>This are numbers replacing the sound in a word. This is one of the ways of English word formation in the study</td>
<td>“gr8” for “greet”, “l8r” for “later” and “2moro” for “tomorrow”).</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>06.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Example</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronyms</td>
<td>“bdw“ for “by the way” and “fyi” for “for your information”</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>04.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homophonic</td>
<td>A phonetically transcribed sounds to shorten the language. “b” for “be”, “f” for “if” and “k” for “okay”</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>02.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contraction</td>
<td>includes some vowels in a word for immediate recognition “bday” for birthday” and “werru” for “where are you”</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>01.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1,390</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dropped vowels got the highest in all categories. This confirms to the findings of Grish (2010) that commonly nonstandard spelling in text messaging is on dropped vowels. Also, this supports to the idea that vowels are usually dropped because a message is usually understood even if it is more on consonants rather than vowels. As regards the contraction which got the lowest, this implies that a careful analysis should be done first before sending a message, for it might not be understood.
Figure 1: Number of words occurred in all categories

Figure 1 illustrates that dropped vowels has the highest frequency because there are more words which can be understood even in the absence of vowels. Dropping vowels does not mean that the writer does not know how to spell a word. Rather, this would mean the opposite. On the other hand, Thurlow (2003) reiterated that there are factors that affect the changes in word formation. Based on the interview with a sociolinguist, Pesirla (2014) said that the common factors that affect changes in text words are culture, trendiness, convenience, and technology especially that the young are within the 21st century era.

Conclusions

It is concluded that in text messaging, dropped vowels is a category with the highest frequency and the lowest is contraction. Moreover, the factors that affect the different ways of word formation in text messaging is dependent on the nature and the culture of the person.

References

Books


**Journal Articles**


**Website Entries**


Interview

Title
Effect of Group Work and Student-Selected Online Material Strategies on Students’ Reading Achievement

Author
Lilies Setiasih
Bandung Islamic University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Lilies Setiasih is an English Lecturer at Bandung Islamic University (UNISBA), located in Bandung, West Java, Indonesia. She has been teaching EAP for years. She got S1 degree, Master degree (S2), and Doctorate degree (S3) in English Education. Her research interest is reading and writing development. She can be reached at lies_hadi@yahoo.com.

Abstract
The objectives of this research were: (1) to find out whether or not the teaching strategies applying group work (GW) and student-selected online materials (SSOM) improve the students’ reading achievement; and (2) to identify students’ perceptions on GW and SSOM strategies. This research employed a pre- and post-test control group design. The sample consisted of sixty Management students in the academic year 2014 at a Faculty of Economics and Business in Indonesia. The data on the students’ reading achievement were analyzed using t-test, and those on the students’ perceptions using descriptive analysis. The results of the research showed that: (1) the application of GW and SSOM in the teaching of EAP reading improved the students’ reading achievement; (2) the students’ perceptions on the strategies were mostly positive. These results provide significant insight into the teaching of EAP at the university level in Indonesia.

Keywords: group work; student-selected online materials; mapping strategy
Introduction

In the context of EFL at the tertiary level in Indonesia, the students’ English proficiency to read textbooks or journals is important to support their study program. Therefore, the teaching of English at this level, particularly in non-English majors, serves as academic purposes to equip students with the ability to acquire knowledge in their field of study (Sadtono, 1997). However, despite realizing the importance of EFL reading ability, most of university students still see reading textbooks as an uninteresting activity (Firmanto, 2005). This condition was in line with that at the university where the research was conducted. Most students’ ability to read English textbooks and journals was not yet sufficient to undertake most reading tasks.

Many studies on improving students’ EFL reading skills have been conducted in Indonesia (e.g., Cahyono, 1996; Hariyanto, 1998; Tupan, 2004; Author, 2015). In fact, the research in EFL reading is relatively abundant but the teachers teaching reading skills in these studies still used teacher-selected reading materials. Considering the great influence of communication media and ICT literacies on students’ functioning in and out of campus, the author reflected on the advantages of ICT media to youth culture and conducted this study.

Explicitly, the lack of EAP reading research using student-selected materials, the gap resulted from students’ incapability to read English textbooks and journals and their needs to be able to read them, coupled with the existence of online media that can be used to improve students’ English reading skills (Robinson & Verluis, 1985), encouraged the author to do an experimental study in which the objectives were to find out whether or not the teaching strategies applying GW and SSOM improved students’ reading achievement and to identify their perceptions on these strategies.

Literature Review

The major goal for any reading activities is “comprehension” (Hillerich, 1983, p.125), or “to get meaning from a text” (Nuttal, 1996, p.4). The comprehension processes involve the skills that students have to learn to comprehend a text (Vacca & Vacca, 1993; Irwin, 2006). These processes work together and the readers control and adjust them in line with their goal and the total situation in which comprehension is taking place. Thus, while reading, the readers transact with a text, process visual information, relate it to background knowledge, construct a meaning, and select appropriate strategies to interpret information (Author, 2015).

Teachers can facilitate students’ reading comprehension by teaching various strategies for identifying and utilizing the structure during reading process (Prapphal, 2003, para.3). Among the reading strategies used to read content area materials, the author emphasized
mapping and summarizing strategies (Author, 2015). Mapping is one way to encourage students to construct a diagram of ideas or content (Roe, Stoodt, & Burns, 1987, p.84). “Readers who use the author’s organizational pattern to organize their own memory of the passage actually recall more than those who do not” (Irwin, 2006, p.48). Then, summarizing is important to ensure that the students understand the text. Generally, if the purpose of the reading task is organized, systematic, and well understood by the reader, reading progress will be fostered (Alfassi, 2004, in Woolley, 2011). With this in mind, mapping and summarizing strategies facilitate students’ reading comprehension.

In addition, GW and SSOM strategies are promising. First, having synthesized from several studies, Lipson and Wixson (2007) stated, “Grouping practices can exert a strong influence on student achievement and motivation (p. 156), and group discussions clearly improve students’ comprehension” (p.575). By employing group work, positive interdependence and social skills are created and the social skills determine the way students interact with each other as teammates so group activities maximize students’ interaction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Meanwhile, interactions and participations in literacy activities are important because the participation is both the product and the process of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). Second, the student-selected online reading materials related to the students’ specialist benefit them. The texts taken from the learners’ specialist area help less-skilled readers in comprehending EAP texts (Hutchinson & Water, 1987). Similarly, Hudson’s study (1991), cited in Prapphal (2003), found that “the content comprehension approach can improve reading comprehension as well as knowledge of reading grammar and general ability to read English for science and technology” (para, 4). Then, the texts are meaningful, authentic, and purposeful. “When teachers present students with target language materials in a meaningful, contextualized form with the primary focus on acquiring information, successful language learning occurs” (Richards, 2001, p. 209).

Third, ‘affective aspects, such as motivation to read and reading interests, need to be taken into consideration in setting goals’ (Quandt & Selznick 1984, in Woolley, 2011, p.33). Students learn best when learning is meaningful and interesting. When they make their own choices, they would be motivated and grasp more easily what has meaning and interest for them (Fisher, 1991, p.3). Thus, the author believes that taking ownership of the students’ reading goals has more of an impact on learning outcomes. At last, considering the great influence of communication media and ICT literacies on students’ functioning in and out of campus, the author reflected on the advantages of ICT media to students’ culture. By searching, reading, and summarizing interesting and appropriate articles, they have opportunities to
practice new reading skills. ‘The students can probably become mature and competent readers if they have extensive opportunities for practice in connected interesting texts’ (Pressley, 2000), in Lipson and Wixson (2007, p.578). With this in mind, the GW and SSOM strategies combined with mapping and summarizing reading strategies in the teaching of EAP reading are convincing.

**Research Methods**

The author employed a pre- and post-test control group design. The sample consisted of sixty students in the academic year 2014 at a faculty of Economics and Business in Indonesia. There were two groups randomly selected from nine classes of the first year students— an experimental group and a control group.

To find out the effectiveness of the teaching strategies, both groups received two sets of measurement conducted before and after the treatment. The researcher formatted the reading tests related to Economic and Business issues using multiple-choice questions. Using concurrent validity and alternate-form method, the tests were found valid and reliable. Both groups were trained similar reading strategies using two different kinds of reading materials taken from their specialist and different instructional settings during eight teaching sessions.

The teacher introduced and demonstrated micro-, integrative, macro-, elaborative, and metacognitive processes (Irwin, 2006) to both groups in the first and second teaching sessions. The differences between the experimental and control groups were: 1) the teacher divided the experimental group into six groups; 2) the group selected the reading texts from any online economic-related journals. In each teaching session, two groups presented the summaries of two selected journal articles using the charts of ideas. It means that the experimental group discussed twelve different journal articles during the experiment period; 3) the other group members were required to question about the articles; and 4) the teacher ended the presentation of each group by providing questions, comments, and feedback. The reflection activity was done after the students had presented their summaries.

Meanwhile, the teacher treated the control group differently. 1) The group received six different texts taken from Management and Economics textbooks during the experiment period; 2) The teacher prepared reading comprehension questions about the texts; 3) The participants read a text and answered the reading comprehension questions individually in each teaching session; 4) The teacher and the group discussed the answers of reading comprehension questions. After the treatment had finished, all participants completed the questionnaires about their perceptions on the GW and SSOM strategies individually.
Research Results and Discussions

The research findings include the data on pretest and posttest results and the students’ perceptions on GW and SSOM strategies. Applying SPSS Ver. 10.0., the author found the means of the score differences between pre- and post-tests of both groups as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Results of Statistical Calculation Using SPSS ver.10.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diff.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
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<td>3.2641</td>
<td>.5959</td>
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<tr>
<td>Score MC</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.9767</td>
<td>3.0133</td>
<td>.5501</td>
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</table>

Table 1 shows that the mean of the score differences of experimental group is 5.2067 and that of control group is 2.9767. The data were analyzed using $t$-test. First, the author verified the equivalency of the variances. Using Levene’s Test, she found that the F value was .375 with the probability .543. Statistically, if the probability is $> .05$, Ho is accepted and if the probability is $< .05$, Ho is rejected. The result shows that probability is $> .05$. It means that Ho is accepted. In other words, the experimental variance is equivalent to the control variance.

Then, $t$-value was calculated. The hypothesis was:

Ho: Mean of score differences between experimental group and control group was equivalent, meaning that the treatment had no significant effect on the students’ reading achievement.

The author found that $t$-value with equal variance assumed was 2.750 with the probability .008. Statistically, if the probability is $< .05$, Ho is rejected. It means that the means between experimental and control groups are different.

Furthermore, the strength of association calculated using Hatch’s and Lazaraton’s formula (1991, p. 265) was found .1153. It indicates that 11% of the variability in this sample could be accounted for by the treatment. 89% of the variability could not be accounted for by the independent variable. It means that the treatment had an effect on the students’ reading since the variability of individual achievement between two groups was small. In other words, this study demonstrated that the teaching strategies applying GW and SSOM were effective in improving students’ reading comprehension.

To identify the students’ perceptions on GW and SSOM strategies, the researcher instructed both groups to complete the questionnaires. Figure 1 and 2 show their perceptions on these aspects.
Figure 1. Students’ Perceptions on Group Work Strategy

Note: TT (undecided), STS (strongly disagree), TS (disagree), ST (agree), and SS (strongly agree)

Figure 1 shows that the percentages of the participants stating positive perceptions on the group work strategy in both groups are greater than those stating negative perceptions. The results indicated that both groups preferred group work to individual work even though the control group did not employ the group work strategy during the experiment. Meanwhile, Figure 2 shows that the percentages of the participants stating positive perceptions on the student-selected online material strategy in both groups are greater than those stating negative perceptions. The results indicated that both groups preferred student-selected materials to teacher-selected materials even though the control group did not employ this strategy. Thus, the study revealed that
most participants had positive perceptions on GW and SSOM strategies.

**Conclusions and Implications**

In conclusion, first, the study demonstrated that the teaching strategies — GW and SSOM — were effective in improving students’ reading comprehension. Second, the students’ perceptions on GW and SSOM strategies were mostly positive. Therefore, there is an interrelation between the students’ reading achievement and their perceptions on the applied teaching strategies. Practically, the results of the study provide significant insight into the application of the strategies for the teaching of EAP reading at the university level in Indonesia. Theoretically, they enrich the previous research findings addressing the teaching of EAP reading comprehension.

The study suggests the followings. 1) Teachers should employ the teaching strategies applying group work rather than individual work, and student-selected materials rather than teacher-selected materials, and train reading strategies, such as mapping and summarizing strategies, in the teaching of EAP reading because those strategies have facilitated students’ reading comprehension. 2) Teachers should not ignore the influence of media and ICT literacies on students’ functioning both in and out of school and should benefit the literacies that count in their culture.

**References**


Appendices

Appendix: A

Differences of Teaching Treatment between Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sessions</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st} &amp; 2\textsuperscript{nd}, Introducing and training reading strategies</td>
<td>• Teaching Materials: Texts were prepared by the teacher from an Economic Textbook and a journal; • Teaching Technique: Guided reading; • Reading Strategies: 1. Setting the purpose of reading and activating students’ prior knowledge; 2. Previewing/surveying/question generating; 3. Chunking Strategy (micro-processes); 4. Scanning (micro-processes); 5. Selecting main and supporting ideas by applying mapping strategy (macro-processes); 6. Locating references (Integrative processes); 7. Making Inferences and elaborations (elaborative and metacognitive processes); 8. Monitoring (metacognitive); 9. Writing the summary using the students’ own words based on the chart of ideas or mapping strategy guided by the teacher (reading-writing connection);</td>
<td>• Teaching Materials: Texts were prepared by the teacher from an Economic Textbook and a journal; • Teaching Technique: Guided reading; • Reading Strategies: 1. Setting the purpose of reading and activating students’ prior knowledge; 2. Previewing/Surveying/question generating; 3. Chunking Strategy (micro-processes); 4. Scanning (micro-processes); 5. Selecting main and supporting ideas by applying mapping strategy (macro-processes); 6. Locating references (Integrative processes); 7. Making inferences and elaborations (elaborative and metacognitive processes); 8. Monitoring (metacognitive); 9. Writing the summary using the students’ own words based on the chart of ideas or mapping strategy guided by the teacher (reading-writing connection);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd} to 8\textsuperscript{th}, Training to apply reading strategies</td>
<td>1. Teaching Materials: Texts were selected by the teacher from Economics and Management Textbooks; 2. Teaching Technique: Individual work; 3. Students read the text silently, did the comprehension questions prepared by the teachers, and drew the chart of ideas of the text;</td>
<td>1. Teaching Materials: Texts were selected by the students from Online Journals on Economics and Management; 2. Teaching Technique: Group work; 3. The groups mentioned the purpose of the selected articles. Then, each group presented the summary of the article using a chart of ideas and their summary notes. The original text was also displayed using in-focus projector. Comprehension questions were asked by other group members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. The answers were discussed by the whole class; 5. They were asked to write the summary of the text individually using the chart of ideas. and answered by the members of the group presenting the text; 4. The teacher ended the presentation by questioning the important ideas and providing comments and feedback.

Appendix B

*Tabulation of Score Differences Obtained from Pre- and Post-tests*

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No</th>
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Appendix C: PRETEST

Name : 
Group : Experimental/ Control Group
Date : 

Direction: You will read three passages. Each one is followed by several questions about it. You are to choose the one best answer, (A), (B), (C), or (D), to each question. Then on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

Reading 1:

Until recently, most American entrepreneurs were men. Discrimination against women in business, the demands of caring for families, and lack of business training had kept the number of women entrepreneurs small. Now, however, business owned by women account for more than $40 billion in annual revenues, and this figure is likely to continue rising throughout the 1990s. As Carolyn Doppelt Gray, an official of the Small Business Administration, has noted, “The 1970s was the decade of women entering management, and the 1980s turned out to be the decade of the woman entrepreneur.”

What are some of the factors behind this trend? For one thing, as more women earn advanced degrees in business and enter the corporate world, they are finding obstacles. Women are still excluded from most executive suites. Charlotte Taylor, a management consultant, had noted, “In the 1970s women believed if they got an MBA and worked hard they could become
chairman of the board. Now they’ve found out that isn’t going to happen, so they go out on their own.”

In the past, most women entrepreneurs worked in women’s fields—cosmetic and clothing, for example. But this is changing. Consider ASK Computer Systems, a $22-million-a-year computer software business. It was founded in 1973 by Sandra Kurzig, who was then a housewife with degrees in math and engineering. When Kurzig founded the business, her first product was software that let weekly newspapers keep tabs on their newspaper carriers—and her office was a bedroom at home, with a shoebox under the bed to hold the company’s cash. After she succeeded with the newspaper software system, she hired several bright computer-science graduates to develop additional programs. When these were marketed and sold, ASK began to grow. It now has 200 employees, and Sandra Kurtzig owns $66.9 million of stock.

Of course, many women who start their own businesses fail, just as men often do. They still face hurdles in the business world, especially problems in raising money; the banking and finance world is still dominated by men, and old attitudes die hard. Most businesses owned by women are still quite small. But the situation is changing; there are likely to be many more Sandra Kurtzigs in the years ahead.

Questions 1-11

1. What is the main idea of this passage?
   A. Women today are better educated than in the past, making them more attractive to the business world.
   B. The computer is especially lucrative for women today.
   C. Women are better at small businesses than men are.
   D. Women today are opening more businesses of their own.

2. The word “excluded” in line 11 is closest meaning to
   A. not permitted in
   B. often invited to
   C. decorators of
   D. charged admission to

3. All of the following were mentioned in the passage as detriments to women in the business world EXCEPT
   A. women were required to stay at home with their families
   B. women lacked ability to work in business
   C. women faced discrimination in business
   D. women were not trained in business

4. In line 14, “that” refers to
   A. a woman becomes chairman of the board
   B. women working hard
   C. women achieving advanced degrees
   D. women believing that business is a place for them

5. According to the passage, Charlotte Taylor believes that women in the 1970s
   A. were unrealistic about their opportunities in business management
   B. were still more interested in education than business opportunities
   C. had fewer obstacles in business than they do today
   D. were unable to work hard enough to succeed in business

6. The author mentions the “shoebox under the bed” in the third paragraph in order to
   A. show the frugality of women in business
B. show the resourcefulness of Sandra Kurtzig
C. point out that initially the financial resources of Sandra Kurtzig’s business were limited
D. suggest that the company needed to expand

7. In line 16, the word “this” refers to
A. women becoming entrepreneurs
B. women buying cosmetics and clothing
C. women working in “women’s fields”
D. women staying at home

8. The expression “keep tabs on” in line 20 is closest in meaning to
A. recognize the appearance of
B. keep records of
C. provide transportation for
D. pay the salaries of

9. The word “hurdles” in line 27 can be best replaced by
A. fences
B. obstacles
C. questions
D. small groups

10. It can be inferred from the passage that the author believes that business operated by women are small because
A. women prefer a small intimate setting
B. women can’t deal with money
C. women are not able to borrow money easily
D. many women fail at large businesses

11. The author’s attitude about the future of women in business is
A. skeptical
B. optimistic
C. frustrated
D. negative

Reading 2:

There are four basic types of competition in business that form a continuum from pure competition through monopolistic competition and oligopoly to monopoly. At one end of the continuum, pure competition results when every company has a similar product. Companies that deal in commodities such as wheat or corn are often involved in pure competition. In pure competition, it is often the ease and efficiency of distribution that influences purchase.

In contrast, in monopolistic competition, several companies may compete for the sale of items that may be substituted. The classic example of monopolistic competition is coffee and tea. If the price of one is perceived as too high, consumers may begin to purchase the other. Coupons and other discounts are often used as part of a marketing strategy to influence sales.

Oligopoly occurs when a few companies control the majority of sales for a product or service. For example, only five airline carriers control more than 70 percent of all ticket sales in the United States. In oligopoly, serious competition is not considered desirable because it would result in reduced revenue for every company in the group. Although price wars do occur,
in which all companies offer substantial savings to customers, a somewhat similar tendency to raise prices simultaneously is also usual.

Finally, monopoly occurs when only one firm sells the product. Traditionally, monopolies have been tolerated for producers of goods and services that have been considered basic or essential, including electricity and water. In these cases, it is government control, rather than competition, that protects and influences sales.

Questions 12 – 17

12. Which of the following would be the best title for the passage?
   A. Monopolies
   B. The Commodity Market
   C. The Competition Continuum
   D. The best Type of Competition

13. An example of a product in monopolistic competition is
   A. corn
   B. electricity
   C. airline tickets
   D. coffee

14. The author mentions all of the following as characteristic of monopoly EXCEPT
   A. the use of coupons or other discounts
   B. government control
   C. basic or essential services
   D. only one firm

15. The word “tolerated” in line 16 could best be replaced by which of the following?
   A. permitted
   B. reserved
   C. criticized
   D. devised

16. The word “it” in line 12 refers to
   A. competition
   B. group
   C. company
   D. revenue

17. It can be inferred that this passage was first printed in
   A. a business textbook
   B. a government document
   C. an airline brochure
   D. a newspaper

Reading 3:

Not all economic systems are the same. The economic system of the USA differs greatly from the system of the USSR. The American system is based on private enterprises with private ownership of the means of production, while the Russian system is communistic and is based
upon the principles of Karl Mark, the 19th century political economist. The economic ideologies of these two nations contrast very strongly.

Britain is similar to the USA. It has an economic system based on private enterprise and private supplies of capital, which can be defined as surplus income available for investment in new business activities. Property in both the US and Britain can be owned by individual citizens and these citizens exercise considerable economic freedom of choice. They can choose what they want to do and how they want to earn their living, but are not of course entirely free to do as they wish. They must obey the law. Otherwise, however, they can use their time, money and effort as they wish.

Questions 18 -20

18. Which of the following would be the best title for the passage?
   A. Economic system of the USA differs from USSR
   B. Different Economic System
   C. The Different Economical System
   D. US, Britain, and USSR Systems

19. Why do the economic ideologies of the USA and the USSR contrast strongly?
   A. The USA based on private ownership and capital.
   B. The USSR is based on Karl Mark’s principles
   C. The principles of the economic system are different
   D. Karl Mark’s principles are different from private enterprise principles.

20. What is the main idea of the second paragraph?
   A. Surplus income available for investment in USA.
   B. The USA and Britain have the economic systems based on private enterprise and private supplies of capital.
   C. All citizens have economic freedom of choice.
   D. All the citizens in those countries must obey the economic law.

Appendix D: POSTTEST

Name : 

Group : Experimental/ Control Group

Date : 

Direction: You will read three passages. Each one is followed by several questions about it. You are to choose the one best answer, (A), (B), (C), or (D), to each question. Then on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

Reading 1:
Telecommuting is some form of computer communication between employees’ homes and offices. For employees whose jobs involve sitting at a terminal of word of processor entering data or typing reports, the location of the computer is of no consequence. If the machine can communicate over telephone lines, when the work is completed, employees can dial the office computer and transmit the material to their employers. A recent survey in *USA Today* estimates that there are approximately 8.7 million telecommuters. But although the numbers are rising annually, the trend does not appear to be as significant as predicted when *Business Week* published “The Portable Executive” as its cover story a few years ago. Why hasn’t telecommuting become more popular?

Clearly, change simply takes time. But in addition, there has been active resistance on the party of many managers. These executives claim that supervising the telecommuters in a large work force scattered across the country would be too difficult, or, at least, systems for managing them are not yet developed, thereby complicating the manager’s responsibilities.

It is also true that employees who are given the option of telecommuting are often reluctant to accept the opportunity. Most people feel that they need regular interaction with a group, and many are concerned that they will not have the same consideration for advancement if they are not more visible in the office setting. Some people feel that even when a space in their homes is set aside as a work area, they never really get away from the office.

Questions 1-5

1. With which of the following topics is the passage primarily concerned?
   A. The advantages of telecommuting
   B. A definition of telecommuting
   C. An overview of telecommuting
   D. The failure of telecommuting

2. How many American workers are involved in telecommuting?
   A. More than predicted in *Business Week*
   B. More than 8 million
   C. Fewer than last year
   D. Fewer than estimated in *USA Today*

3. The author mentions all of the following as concerns of telecommuters EXCEPT
   A. the opportunities for advancement
   B. the different system of supervision
   C. the lack of interaction with a group
   D. the fact that the work space is in the home

4. The word “resistance” in the second paragraph could best be replaced by
   A. alteration
   B. participation
   C. opposition
   D. Consideration

5. It can be inferred from the passage that the author is
   A. a telecommuter
   B. the manager of a group of telecommuter
   C. a statistician
   D. a reporter

Reading: 2
A massive banking crisis occurred in the United States in 1953. In the two preceding years, a large number of banks had failed, and fear of lost savings had prompted many depositors to remove their funds from banks. Problems became so serious in the state of Michigan that Governor William A. Comstock was forced to declare a moratorium on all banking activities in the state on February 14, 1933. The panic in Michigan quickly spread to other states, and on March 6, President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared a banking moratorium throughout the United States that left the entire country without banking services.

Congress immediately met in a special session to solve the banking crisis, and on March 9 it passed the Emergency Banking Act of 1933 to assist financially healthy banks to reopen. By March 15, banks controlling 90 percent of the country’s financial reserves were open for business.

Questions 6-13

6. The passage states that all the following occurred prior to 1933 EXCEPT that
   A. Many banks went under
   B. Many bank patrons were afraid of losing their deposits
   C. A lot of money was withdrawn from accounts
   D. Governor Comstock canceled all banking activities in Michigan

7. Look at the word failed in paragraph 1. This word could best be replaced by which expressions?
   A. Not passed a test
   B. Forgotten something important
   C. Gone out of business
   D. Paid little interest

8. The word “moratorium” in line 5 is closest in meaning to which of the following?
   A. Death
   B. Temporary cessation
   C. Murder
   D. Slow decline

9. The passage indicates that the moratorium declared by Roosevelt affected
   A. The banks in Michigan
   B. The banks in most of the US
   C. Only financially unhealthy banks
   D. All the banks in the US

10. What does the word ‘it’ in paragraph 2 refer to?
    A. A special session
    B. The banking crisis
    C. Congress
    D. Emergency Banking Act

11. Which of the following can be inferred from the passage?
A. Congress didn’t give any special priority to the banking situation.
B. The Emergency Banking Act helped all banks to reopen
C. Ten percent of the country’s money was in financially unhealthy banks
D. Ninety percent of the banks reopened by the middle of March.

12. Which of the following best describes the organization of the passage?
A. A theme followed by an example
B. A problem and a solution
C. Opposing viewpoints of an issue
D. A problem and its causes

13. What is the possible best title for the passage?
A. Moratorium
B. Banking crisis
C. Monetary crisis
D. Emergency Banking Act

Reading 3:

It is the role of the Federal Reserve, known simply as the Fed, to control the supply of money in the U.S. through its system of twelve regional Federal Reserve Banks, each with its own Federal Reserve District Bank. Many commercial banks belong to the Federal Reserve System and as members must follow the Fed’s reserve requirements, a ruling by the Fed on the percentage of deposits that a member bank must keep either in its own vaults or on deposit at the Fed. If the Fed wants to change the money supply it can change reserve requirements to member banks; for example, an increase in the percentage of deposits required to be kept on hand would reduce the available money supply. Member banks can also borrow money from the Fed, and an additional way that the Fed can control the money supply is to raise or lower the discount rate, the interest rate at which commercial banks borrow from the Fed. An increase in the discount rate would reduce the funds available to commercial banks and thus shrink the money supply. In addition to using reserve requirements and the discount rate to control the money supply, the Fed has another powerful tool: open-market operations.

Questions 14 - 20

14. This passage is mainly about
A. the functions of the Federal Reserve
B. the organization of the Federal Reserve
C. reserve requirements
D. the effect of lowering the discount rate

15. According to the passage, the main purpose of the Federal Reserve System is to
A. increase reserve requirements
B. increase or decrease the amount of money available
C. increase the number of Federal Reserve Banks
D. increase the money kept on deposit by member banks
16. The word “regional” in line 2 is closest in meaning to
   A. Dozen
   B. Similar
   C. Separate
   D. Area

17. When the Fed controls the percentage of deposits kept on hand by member banks, it controls
   A. district banks
   B. the discount rate
   C. the reserve requirement
   D. borrowing by commercial banks

18. “Vault” in line 6 are
   A. accounts
   B. cash drawers
   C. compartments for safekeeping
   D. personal safety deposit boxes

19. The passage implies that a lowering of the discount rate would lead to
   A. an increase in the money supply
   B. a decrease in borrowing from the Fed by commercial banks
   C. a decrease in the money available
   D. an increase in the reserve requirement

20. Where in the passage does the author discuss the organization of the Fed?
   A. lines 1 – 3
   B. lines 5 - 7
   C. lines 8 – 10
   D. lines 11 – 12
Title
Optimizing EFL Learners’ Communicative Competence through Short Movie Project

Author
Nargis
Lisa Armelia
Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang
Jl. Perintis Kemerdekaan I/33 Cikokol Tangerang
Banten-Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Nargis earned her Master of Humanities in Linguistics from Postgraduate School Indonesian University of Education. She has been English Lecturer at several Polytechnics and universities in Bandung and Jakarta since 2004. She is keen on doing researches to improve her language teaching skills.

Lisa Armelia earned her Master of Humanities in Theoretical Linguistics from University of Indonesia in 2012. She has been teaching English since 2003 at several language institutes in Jakarta and the Surroundings. She is also currently a lecturer of English Linguistics at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang. Her areas of research interests include foreign language acquisition, pragma-semantics studies and sociolinguistics studies.

Abstract
To prepare EFL learners in facing their future challenge, educators should apply 21st century language teaching method; PBL (Project Based Learning). PBL emphasizes on real-world application of knowledge and skills by giving learner’s autonomy through designing and constructing actual solutions to real life problems which are required in the 21st-century competencies such as critical thinking, communication in a variety of media, and collaboration. In PBL, learners not only understand content more deeply but also learn how to take responsibility and build confidence, solve problems, work collaboratively, communicate ideas, and be creative innovators. Moreover, PBL allows learners use modern technology, which they
have already used so much in daily lives. Through PBL, learners are active, not passive; since a class project engages their hearts and minds whereas the process of accomplishing the project provides EFL learners real-world relevance for learning. After completing a project, learners remember what they learn and retain it longer than it is often the case with traditional instruction. Besides, EFL learners who gain content knowledge with PBL are much better in applying what they know and can execute quick actions towards new situation. One example of PBL in teaching English as foreign language is producing short movies. Through this project, EFL learners expose their four language skills; Reading and Writing (The Scripts) as well as Speaking and Listening (Acting out). Furthermore, the problems and difficulties during the process of making short movies enable learners to know how to overcome and deal with them.

**Keywords:** Communictive Competence, Project Based Learning, Social Context, Collaborative Learning.

1. **Introduction**

Teaching English in the 21\textsuperscript{st} century is more challenging than before, because there are a lot of qualifications and demands towards EFL learners. There are a lot of strategies that teachers can apply in the classroom to achieve this goal. In this research, the researchers apply Project Based Learning (PBL) in order to achieve this goal. Project Based Learning provides teachers some techniques and strategies to meet the 21\textsuperscript{st} century skills as well as prepare the EFL learners in facing globalization era which become more competitive and complicated.

Speaking of EFL learners’ learning goal, many teachers find it is difficult to empower the EFL learners only through classroom activities. This affects to the learners’ lack of motivation and poor result in their academic record. One of the strategies that teachers can apply to improve EFL learners motivation in learning is through class project. The researchers think that movie project is the best answer to meet their 21\textsuperscript{st} qualifications and characteristics. In the 21\textsuperscript{st} century people should be able to master many competencies which enable them to survive their existence for a long term period. Moreover, having the ability to use high-tech gadget will reduce their problems in life.

In addition to this, having movie project for EFL learners would enable them to apply high technology (using the movie equipment such as camera, lighting, microphone, and many more) as well as improving their skill in social interaction such as; dealing with their cliques’ different opinions and way of thinking, tolerate peers’ condition and others. The purposes of
the research are (1) to find out the level of learners ‘communicative competence through movie making, as well as (2) the difficulties and positive things they get by doing this project.

2. Conceptual Framework

There are many definitions of communicative competence. According to Savignon (1971), in her research project at the University of Illinois defines the term of ‘communicative competence’ as characterization the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning as distinct from their ability to recite dialogues or perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge. By encouraging learners to involve in the project based learning and create their English script, the teachers are leading learners to take risk, to venture beyond memorized patterns. However, Savignon (1972) doesn’t include four areas of knowledge and skills which are linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence.

On the other hand, Canale and Swain (1980) produced the first and most influential model of what they called ‘communicative competence’. They create their own definition of communicative competence as something leading to ‘more useful and effective second language teaching, and allowing more valid and reliable measurement of second language communication skills’. They attempt to do this firstly by reviewing how a variety of authors had so far defined communicative competence, and argue that for them it refers ‘to the interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use’. They firmly distinguish between communicative competence and communicative performance, the latter term referring only to the actual use of language in real communicative situations. For assessment, Swain (1985) argues that tests need to tap both aspects of communicative competence through tasks that require communicative performance like role play or acting out with a specific topic.

Meanwhile, Pillar (2011) accomplishes Savignon’s definition of communicative competence by including the four areas of knowledge and skills that has been mentioned before. He even sets a parameter to test the learner’s speaking skill based on the latest definition of communicative competence. Moreover, Pillar (2011) exposes the importance of paralinguistic behavior in developing communicative competence. Paralinguistic behavior is defined as combination of three subsystems: 1) Kinesics refers to posture, gesture, facial expressions and eye movement.
2) Proxemics refers to ‘social and personal space and man’s perception of it.

3) Prosodic refers to non-lexical dimension of speech communication such as accent (articulatory, emphasis, stress, and pitch prominence), intonation (tune, melody, pitch contour, pitch duration) and rhythm (speed, duration, pause, and tempo).

Speaking of technique to identify the importance of paralinguistic behavior in second language oral communication and assessment, it is important to design a realistic and practical framework of the human communication process. It means that the framework should recognize all relevant aspects of interpersonal communication through the combination of second language verbal (linguistic) and non-verbal (paralinguistic) structure and content. In his research, Pillar (2011) sets a standard of communicator into five categories which are: (1) Intermittent communicator where communication occurs only sporadically, (2) Limited communicator is the person who has receptive/productive skills where the skills do not allow continuous communication, (3) Moderate communicator where communication can flow without serious breakdowns. However, misunderstanding and errors cause difficulties, (4) Competent communicator where they can cope well but have occasional misunderstandings or makes occasional noticeable errors, (5) Good communicator are people who can cope well and perform competently. Questionnaire and rating schedule for scoring communicative competence (Pillar, 2011) can be seen in appendix 1.

PBL (Project Based Learning) is the appropriate way to measure students’ communicative competence. Researchers use the concept of PBL from The Buck Institute of Education (BIE). Moreover, Thomas (2000) stated that there are five criteria for PBL (Project Based learning): projects should be central to the curriculum, focused on problems that drive the students to struggle with major concepts, involve the students in constructivist investigation, student-driven, and realistic. PBL has eight essential elements, they are: (1) Significant Content 2. 21st century competencies 3. In-Depth Inquiry 4. Driving Question 5. Need to Know 6. Voice and Choice 7. Critique and Revision 8. Public Audience.

Making movie as a project is a fun activity for students. Based on the Oxford dictionaries, movie or film is a story or event recorded by a camera as a set of moving images and shown in a cinema, big screen or on television. By making movie, EFL learners learn how to produce script in English and record their peer’s performance which involving emotional expression as well as critical thinking using the appropriate language in different context.
3. Research Methodology

3.1. Qualitative Quantitative research

According to Thomas (2003), qualitative research is a research conducted to get an interpretation related to specific subjects and matters. Meanwhile, quantitative research is defined as method to seek general description by using numbers and statistical data. In this research, researchers use questionnaire and rating score result to get an interpretation of what phenomenon is happening.

3.2. Setting and Subject of the Research

The participants of this research are EFL learners at LBPP LIA Depok from across age, level and proficiency; one Conversation Class 1 (age: 16-40), one Intermediate 4 (age: 15-21), one Elementary 3 Level (age: 16-27), two English for Teens, level 6 and 11 (age: 12-15). Totally there are 134 respondents are involved in this research. They are considered competent in writing and speaking based on their levels.

3.3. Research Instrument

Questionnaire, rating schedule for scoring communicative competence and interview for the EFL learners are used by the researchers to conduct the study. Questionnaire is the first instrument that is used by the researchers to conduct this research. According to Thomas (2003:66), questionnaire is any printed set questions that participant in a survey are asked to answer, either (a) by checking one choice from among several possible answer listed beneath a question or (b) by writing out an answer. In this research, the researchers makes 15 blending statements (see Appendix 1)

Thomas (2003:63) states that interview usually involved researchers orally asking questions for individuals to answer orally. The interview consists of 10 open-ended questions and five close-ended questions.

After collecting the data, the next step is to analyze the data. Based on the questionnaire and rating score of EFL learners, the researchers explain the level of EFL learners’ communicative competence and the positive as well as negative things EFL learners are facing in the process of movie making project.
4. Result

4.1. The result of EFL learners’ communicative competence score based on the movie project (The top six)

From 134 respondents in this research, 77% (103) of the total respondents get rating score for their communicative competence between the range 3-5, with one learner gets the perfect score: 5 (Good Communicator).

4.2. The questionnaire asking about EFL learners’ collaborative learning and critical thinking

The researchers find that the current seven difficulties that EFL learners in LBPP LIA Depok are facing in accomplishing the movie making project are:

1. To discuss with team about the project in particular restaurant (76 %)
2. To discuss with team about the project in one of the team member’s house (68 %)
3. To discipline team to come on time during the shooting process (66 %)
4. To deal and come to an agreement about arranging fixed schedule for the project (63 %)
5. To hold meeting before the filming process (55 %)
6. To arrange the fixed schedule for the project (52 %)
7. To discuss about the project (48 %)

The difficulties above explain learners’ characteristics in dealing and tolerating towards each other. Today’s learners are becoming more individual and self-centered due to their personal activities such as having many extra courses that their parents set for them to achieve future goals. Moreover, high-tech gadget are available anytime they need them, so they do not see the urge to meet socially and gather with their peer anymore. (According to the answer of respondents in interview).

On the other hands, the EFL learners at LBPP LIA Depok also get some benefits and positive things through this project. The top seven list of positive things they get from doing the movie making project are:

1. Learners do not count on one person to run the project (75 %)
2. Learners are able to find solutions for difficulties (62 %)
3. Learners are able to follow the director’s instruction (58 %)
4. Learners are able to communicate their ideas easily during the shooting (54 %)
5. Learners are able to discuss on the difficulties (53 %)
6. Learners are able to compromise to accomplish the project (53 %)
7. Learners are able to find alternative ways to solve problems (51 %)
The top seven list of positive things tells us about learners’ critical thinking in anticipating problems. Learners do not count on one person to run the project. They have back-up plan and extra strategies in accomplishing the project. Furthermore, learners have intention and initiative action in this project. They are willing and eager to compromise to make the project running. In addition to this, they are more capable in finding alternative solutions due to their ability in using high-tech gadget and social media. So, problems in the past are no longer barrier for them. (Based on the respondents’ answer in the interview).

Conclusion

Based on data analysis and explanation in chapter 4, the researchers can conclude that approximately EFL learners at LBPP LIA Depok have satisfying rating score of communicative competence which is range between three until five. It means that they are somewhat moderate communicator to good communicator. Although researchers find some mispronunciation and grammatical errors both in their script and practical dialog, most EFL learners of LBPP LIA Depok are capable of conducting the human communication in terms of using appropriate emotional expression and intonation.

Speaking of learners’ collaborative learning in this project, the researchers come to an understanding that current learners have more options in conducting collaborative learning. It means that EFL learners are not always physically present and see face to face, but more likely to have existence in many social media. some difficulties during doing their project doesn’t bother them to finish the project.

References


http://bie.org/about
Title
The Effect of Using Think-Pair-Share Strategy on Students’ Motivation and their Speaking Ability

Author
Lisa Septiany

lisaseptiany@yahoo.com

Abstract
The present study aims to find out the effect of using Think-Pair-Share (TPS) strategy on students’ motivation and their speaking ability. The population was the eleventh grade students. Cluster sampling was used in this research. The study was a quasi-experimental research by using non-equivalent control group design. The design was based on pre-test and post-test. In order to obtain the information about the students’ motivation, they were invited to respond to questionnaire. Besides, an oral test was administered for them to collect data of their speaking ability. The collected data were then analyzed by using Independent Samples T-test. It was found that Sig (2-tailed) for both students’ motivation and speaking ability, was 0.000 which was smaller than 0.05. Furthermore, the eta-square calculation of students’ motivation was 53.07% which was categorized as a large effect. Also, the eta-square calculation of students’ speaking ability mean score in the post-test between experimental and control group was 84.03% which was categorized as a large effect. In other words, there was a significant effect of using TPS strategy on students’ motivation and their speaking ability.

Keywords: TPS strategy, motivation, speaking ability

I. Introduction
Speaking is one of the language skills that learners need in pedagogy area. Basically, speaking is a students’ way to convey his thought orally and becomes the pivotal thing in FL. Richards(2008:19) says the mastery of speaking skills is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners should develop their spoken proficiency and it should be practiced regularly. It is acknowledged that it is difficult to speak English since
it is not their mother tongue. Richard and Renandya (2002:201) also state that there are some purposes of speaking; the purpose may be to seek or express opinions, or to clarify information, and to describe things in academic settings.

Relating to speaking ability, motivation cannot be neglected as a factor of students’ language learning. It is in line with Coyle (2014:52) who points out that there are two factors which are fundamental to high quality and successful language learning. It is motivation which is the driver for learners to engage in the learning process. It interpretes that if students have good motivation, it is easier for them to learn.

Students use English more frequent in the class and less frequent outside the class. They tend to translate word by word from their mother tongue into English. In addition, students need to find out the appropriate words to convey meaning accurately. Besides, the students also think twice to speak English because of grammar and other language features; therefore, it is difficult for them to speak English.

When students are motivated to learn, they try harder to understand the material and learn more deeply. It is an inducement to action (Mayer in Liu: 2010). Harmer also defines that motivation as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal or internal drive in a person that initiates and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial desires are selected (2001:98).

Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed behavior is instigated and sustained. It postulates that learners set goals and employ cognitive processes and behaviors attaining their goals (Schunk: 2012, 346). There are some behavioral indicators of highly motivated students (Meece and McColskey: 1997, 18). The indicators of motivated students are Attendance and discipline; Participation and completion of work; Task persistence and acceptance of errors; Quality of task involvement; Independent learning; and Interest and liking.

The Think-Pair-Share strategy provides students time and structure for thinking on a given topic, enabling them to formulate individual ideas and share these ideas with a peer. This learning strategy promotes classroom participation by encouraging a higher degree of pupil response. Additionally, it is to discuss their ideas, teacher can circulate and listen to the conversations taking place (Simon)

It is simple but useful (Slavin, 2010:257). The teacher gives a topic to the students. The students, next, are asked to think their own answers, and then students try to find an agreement for the answer in pairs. It is effective to share from pair to pair. Each students must report to
his own partner, and his partner, then, must report to the class (Atkinson, 2008). Silent students will speak up through this activity.

Two research questions, therefore, were composed in order to understand Think-Pair-Share strategy on students’ motivation and speaking ability, that is: (1) Is there any significant difference of students’ motivation mean score of post-questionnaire between experimental and control group?; and(2) Is there any significant difference of students’ speaking ability mean score of post test between experimental and control group?

II. Methods

The research is Quasi Experimental Design-Nonequivalent Pre-test and Post-test Control Group design in order to seek the significant effect of using Think-Pair-Share strategy on students’ motivation and speaking ability. Two classes were used as the sample of this research, experimental of 31 students and control group of 32 students which got pre-test. Then, the treatment was only given to the experimental group for four meetings. Furthermore, the post-test was to find out the effect of using Think-Pair-Share strategy on students’ motivation and speaking ability. The population was 328 students.

The procedures were 1) students responded to the questionnaire 2) validity and reliability of questionnaire which were analyzed after try out; 3) the students got oral-test as the pre-test; 4) experimental class got treatment and control class without TPS; 5) oral test was given as post-test.

In order to analyze the data, the independent sample t-test was to measure the difference between students’ motivation and theirs speaking between both groups.

III. Findings

Students’ Motivation between Experimental and Control Group

The following table shows the analysis result of students’ motivation mean score of post-test between both groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard-Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>70.14</td>
<td>5.89870</td>
<td>8.306</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>58.02</td>
<td>5.68490</td>
<td>8.301</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig (2-tailed) .000 is smaller than .05. It demonstrates that there is a significant difference of students’ motivation mean score of post-questionnaire between two groups. It
determines that the subjects both groups are not equivalent after the treatment. Furthermore, the effect-size statistics provides an indication of the magnitude of the differences between the groups. Eta-square is used to determine how far the differences between the groups.

\[ \eta^2 = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N1+N2-2)} \]

\[ \eta^2 = \frac{(8.306)^2}{(8.306)^2 + 31 + 32 - 2} \]

\[ \eta^2 = 0.530731819 = 53.07318193\% \text{ large} \]

Based on the calculation, students’ motivation mean score of the post-questionnaire between two groups is categorized into large effect. To identify as a percentage, multiply eta square value by 100. It means the magnitude of the differences between students’ motivation mean score of pre-questionnaire between two groups is very large which is 0.5307 or 53.07%. So, students’ motivation mean score of post-questionnaire between two groups has developed after treatment and the scores between two groups is different.

**Students’ Speaking Ability Between Experimental and Control Group**

The following table shows the analysis result of students’ speaking ability mean score of post-test between both groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard-Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>73.1774</td>
<td>3.59061</td>
<td>17.920</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>55.1250</td>
<td>4.35520</td>
<td>17.975</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a significant difference of students’ speaking ability mean score of post-test between two groups. It could be interpreted that the subjects both groups are not equivalent after giving the treatment.

\[ \eta^2 = \frac{(17.920)^2}{(17.920)^2 + 31 + 32 - 2} \]

\[ \eta^2 = 0.840366957 = 84.03669571\% \text{ large} \]

Based on the calculation above, students’ speaking ability mean score is categorized into large effect. It is 0.8403 or 84.036%. It indicates that students’ speaking ability mean score has developed after treatment and the scores between two groups is different.
IV. Conclusion

Findings from the questionnaire and speaking test confirmed that there was a significant difference of students’ motivation mean score of post-test between experimental and control group, furthermore, students’ speaking ability mean score of post-test between experimental and control group had a significant difference. The strategy was treated to the homogenous students and the findings proved that the students’ motivation and their speaking ability improved significantly. This is relevant to the related studies that supported this research.

V. References


Title
Developing Interactive Media of Phrasal Verbs for Adult Learners to be used for Communication

Author
Lusia Eni Puspandari
Olivia de Haviland Basoeki

Bio-Profiles:
Lusia Eni Puspandari, S.Pd, M.Pd is an English lecturer at Shipbuilding Institute of Polytechnic Surabaya. She is a Master of English as Foreign Language and concentrates on topics about Learning Technology. Email: luciaeni@yahoo.com

Olivia de Haviland Basoeki is an English Lecturer of Kupang State Polytechnic. She teaches English to Engineering students at Kupang State Polytechnic. Email: oliviabs@yahoo.com

Abstract
The paper is directed to find out an alternative way for English learners to use phrasal verbs in communication. The result of this study is in form of courseware which is directed to overcome the English learners’ boredom in understanding kinds of phrasal verbs for communication. It is inspired by the previous research on young learners.

In developing attractive learning media, the concept of independent learning to be used individually is the basis of the study. It is supported by some components namely: attention-gaining material, pretest/posttest, instructional objectives, tutorial, content, exercises, and feedback.

Creating an interactive courseware must be suited with the learners need such as instructional objectives, attractive tutorial, interactive exercises, discussion and problem solving in each parts of the exercises.

Using the courseware as additional learning media to facilitate the adult English learner is easy to be applied because it can be accessed directly through internet or it can be installed it in the gadget/ computer. The result of the try out shows that most of the English learners
become more understands the kinds and the characteristic of the phrasal verbs to be applied in communication.

**Keywords:** Phrasal Verbs, Attention-gaining material, Instructional Objectives, Individual Learning

**Introduction**

In some developing countries, English is considered as second language or as foreign language. It is the principal language chosen for international business and for communication between countries all over the world. English is also used in all sides of human activities in that country, from science, education, entertainment, politics and others. All sides of human life are related to English as the International Language. (Lusia, [http://jlt-polinema.org/?tag=instructional-objectives](http://jlt-polinema.org/?tag=instructional-objectives))

Consequently, a great deal of effort has been trying to make English teaching and learning interesting, especially for teenagers who have many activities besides studying. So many books are written in attractive way in order to attract learners’ motivation and attention to learn English. Firstly, the existence of English books in market has accommodated the learners’ need of English but together with the advance of technology, they can not accomplish the learners’ needs.

Beside the creativity and the attractive books used in English learning, the used of technology is also has an important role in achieving successful English learning. Information Technology development has proven that it holds a significant role in teaching learning process, especially in language learning.. Many language learners and language teachers use internet as the source of material to improve their ability in learning English.

Knowing that many language learners and language teachers are familiar in using internet, the writer has an idea to facilitate a material that can be accessed by using internet to be used as learning media. It is emphasized by Kweldju (1995:37) who argued that computer has self-access procedure which is completed with eye-catching color and animation to increase the users’ attractiveness.

In order to create ideal learning software, some aspects should be considered, such as: (1) the software must be designed to support the available curriculum, (2) the software must contain the learning objectives, (3) the software must use multimedia animation, (4) the product
software must be analyzed and must be tested by the experts of subject material, learning technology and computer graphic. (Puspandari, 2014: 5)

**Method**

There were five stages that had been followed in the process of developing this learning courseware as the product of this study. First, deciding the material matter which was going to be developed via the needs analysis. Second, identifying the syllabus of the material that was going to be developed. Third, develop the courseware through 5 steps, namely: (1) identifying learning objectives, (2) analyzing the learning objectives, (3) identifying learners’ characteristics, (4) developing exercise items, (5) designing learning courseware Fourth, producing the courseware that covers 6 components: (1) attention-gaining material, (2) the instructional objectives, (3) tutorial, (4) content, (5) exercises, (6) feedback, Fifth, conducting the product-try-out that consists of an expert’s evaluation as the product first evaluation and field try out as the second evaluation. The procedure that had been done during the product development are presented diagrammatically as shown in Diagram 3.1.
First Step: Decide the material to be developed through Needs Analysis

The first step that was done in developing the electronic courseware is analyzing the situation in order to grasp ideas upon which the material would be developed. The methods used to decide the material are: (a) interviewing some students in Shipbuilding Polytechnic to find out some information about the material which is needed to be developed in the form of courseware; (b) distributing questionnaires to students to find out the students’ difficulties and students’ interest in learning phrasal verbs via courseware.

Second Step: Identifying the Syllabus of the Material to be developed

After deciding the material to be developed, the next step is identifying the syllabus in order to match the students’ competence with the material to be developed. The syllabus of English subject is focused the ability of students in understanding some vocabulary (phrasal verbs) for communication.

Third Step: Developing the Electronic Courseware

The steps in developing the courseware consist of:

(a) Identifying the learning objectives
(b) Analyzing the learning objectives
(c) Identifying learners’ characteristics
(d) Developing exercise items to assess the learners’ ability in achieving the predetermined specific objectives.
(e) Designing the learning media that will be developed.

There are three steps that should be followed in designing this learning media/courseware; (1) deciding the kinds of courseware, (2) writing storyboard, (3) developing program, (4) developing animation, (5) recording voices, (6) creating the courseware script.
Fourth Step: Producing Electronic Courseware

The courseware which is developed must fulfill some requirements, such as: (1) attention-gaining material, (2) the learning objectives, (3) content, (4) exercises, and (5) feedback.

Fifth Step: Conducting Product Try-Out

The comments and suggestions from the experts were used as the basis for improving or revising the product. After being revised, the product was tried-out to the real subjects to get data that were used as the basis for revisions.

Findings and Interpretation

The results of this study shows that most of adult learners who familiar with computer as a media for learning can use this developing media well and enjoy the model of instruction developed. It can be proven by the feed back and the result of evaluation that increasing from the first try out to the third try out.

Conclusion and Suggestion

The developing interactive media for alternative way to learn about Phrasal Verbs can be accepted by learner because the criteria of attention gaining material, learning objectives, the model of tutorial which use animation were presented in attractive way.

By knowing the reality of this product development it can be concluded that this product can be accepted by adult learners as alternative media for learning phrasal verbs.

Suggestions for utilizing this product:
1. This developed courseware can be used as alternative media to support the main media in teaching.
2. Further development studies can be carried out in form of android or ios operation system that can be downloaded in cellular phone.

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Title
The Analysis of the English Teacher-Made Tests Based on the Taxonomy of Instructional Objectives in the Cognitive Domain at the State Senior Secondary Schools in Palopo

Author
Madehang

IAIN Palopo, Agatis Street No.1, Palopo – South Sulawesi, Indonesia
Madehang1973@gmail.com

Bio-Profile:
Madehang is born on June 15, 1973. He holds bachelor’s degrees in English Teaching at IAIN Alauddin Makassar and master degree in Teaching English at State University of Makassar. Further, his professional interest includes language testing and assessment. In 2015, he is the chief of quality assurance at IAIN Palopo.

Abstract
This study aims at identifying whether or not the English teacher-made tests measure the taxonomy of education objectives in cognitive domain as stated in a lesson plan through item relevancy and item balance, well-constructed tests based on the item facility, item discriminability, effective distracters, language review, and following the test specification as a blue print before making a test at the state senior secondary schools in Palopo. The research design was a descriptive documentary analysis taking the lesson plan, syllabus, the teacher-made summative English tests, table of test specification, and the students answer sheets as the population of this study. The sample consisted of English teacher-made summative tests, lesson plans. Syllabus, blue print, and students’ answer sheets. Then, the sample technique applied was a purposive sampling. In addition, the collected data were not randomized. The finding of this study showed that; 1) the teacher-made English tests did not measure all the six levels of the taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain as stated by Bloom in a lesson plan or syllabus; 2) there were still some items of the tests not well-constructed dealing with the item facility, item discriminability, and effective distracters; 3) there was only one teacher made the blue print even she did not state the instructional objectives in the test specification.
In short, the findings indicated that the teachers should still do their best to prepare well-constructed tests in order that the items of a test measure the instructional objectives as stated in the syllabus.

**Keywords:** Teacher-made English Tests, Taxonomy of Education Objectives, Cognitive Domain

### A. Background

Evaluation is a set of activities to obtain, analyze, and give the interpretation about the data about the process and learning outcomes done systematically and continually that the results become useful information in making decision and policy in education (Fulcher & Fred, 2007; Norris, 2016; & Gracely, 2016). Evaluation is needed to get information about the quality of education and the students’ achievement based on the requirement of the national curriculum (Palacio, M., Gaviria, S., & Brown, J., 2016). Then, since the objectives of evaluation of the achievement are very important, techniques in language testing become more crucial problems (Schmitt, 2012). Tests that are not well-designed will become trouble for students (Zhang, Liu, Zhao, & Xie, 2011). Therefore, the tests have to be designed to fulfill the requirement of characteristics of good tests and to avoid inaccurate measurement of learning objectives (Hall, 2010; Mcnamara & Knoch, 2012; Altowaim, 2015; Cerezo, & Amengual, 2013).

Well-made English tests can help students in at least two ways (Madsen, 1983). Firstly, tests can help create positive attitudes toward the class. In the interest of motivation and efficient instruction, most of the teachers want to provide their students positive classroom experience. Secondly, tests can benefit by helping them master language. Nevertheless, little attention is paid to determine precisely and specifically what type of students’ performance is desired at the end of an instructional sequence that results limited to the learning materials covered in a textbook – teaching and evaluation procedures are primarily concerned with the retention of textbook content.

The quality of the teacher-made tests is sometimes in a big question whether or not they are well-done according to the underlying concepts of good tests and measure the instructional objectives as of instruction (He, Lu, & Lianzhen, 2013). Norris (2015) points out that the students have always complained that they are fed up with a test that is ambiguous, unclear, and irrelevant. Some comment from students such as *I do not know what the teacher looks for and I studied the major details of the course but was only examined on the trivia and the footnotes.* Some weaknesses have been found in teacher-made tests because of some reasons and constraints faced by the teachers.
Due to the preliminary study of the researcher in Palopo, the problems were mostly on the lack of facilities, lack of training and lack of books related to the tests construction analysis. The time provided to make the test is very limited because the teachers are teaching more classes than their abilities; likewise, the budget to make tests is not enough for designing a good test. Based on the facts stated previously, the need of the test analysis is very important to get information about how far the instructional objectives are attained. The analysis is needed to know the problems in constructing their own test set, on the whole procedures of constructing tests such as specification, item writing, and interpreting the teacher-made tests qualitatively based on underlying techniques of constructing good tests.

This study aims at finding out the quality of English teacher-made tests produced by the English teachers at the senior high school in Palopo. In this case, the researcher described whether or not the English teacher-made tests measure the taxonomy of instructional objectives in the cognitive domain as stated in general instructional objectives and specific learning outcome in Bloom Taxonomy (Adams, 2015; Soleimani & Kheiri, 2016; Natasha & John, 2013). Then, he also analyzes the tests in order to know whether they have met the criteria of constructing a good test. Finally, he describes whether or not the English teachers design an appropriate blueprint as their guidance in constructing their tests.

B. Research Method

The researcher applied quantitative and qualitative analysis. It described the analysis of English teacher-made tests based on the taxonomy of instructional objectives in the cognitive domain at state senior secondary schools in Palopo. The research subject was the English teacher-made test items designed at 4 Senior High Schools (1, 2, 3, and 4) of Palopo. The test consists of 25 questions in form of multiple choices. Then, the instruments used were; 1) teachers’ lesson plans covering instructional objectives; 2) teacher-made summative tests; and 3) students’ answer sheets from four senior high schools.

The procedures for collecting data were; 1) collecting documentary data; 2) collecting English teacher-made test specification; 3) collecting students’ answer sheet; 4) analyzing all the documents; and 5) concluding the findings. Then, the data collected were qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative data were evaluated by findings out the item relevancy, item balance, language review, and test specification of the tests. Finally, the quantitative data were examined by using the formula of item facility and item discrimination.

1. Item Facility

The formula of analyzing item facility (Brown, 2004: 59) as follows;
Before applying the previous formula, the researcher classified students’ ability into two classifications; 1) high ability and 2) low ability. After classifying them, the researcher, then, applied the formula.

Item facility could be found out by the classification of item facility index as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Amount of Facility</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0,00-0,30</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0,31-0,70</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0,71-100</td>
<td>Easy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Item Discrimination**

The formula of analyzing item discrimination (Brown, 2004: 59) as follows;

\[
ID = \frac{high \ group \ # \ correct - low \ group \ # \ correct}{\frac{1}{2} \times total \ of \ your \ two \ comparison \ groups}
\]

Item discrimination could be found out by the classification of item discrimination index as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Amount of Discrimination</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0,40-1,00</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0,30-0,39</td>
<td>Accepted and Revised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0,20-0,29</td>
<td>Revised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0,19-0,00</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. **Findings and Discussion**

1. **Item Relevancy**

The data were only obtained from SMAN 1 and 3 Palopo since the researcher was not given a lesson plan or a syllabus by English teachers of SMAN 2 and 4. The analysis of the teacher-made English test of SMAN 1 Palopo indicated that the skill and the sub-skills to be measured in tests were reading, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary. The other two skills were already measured in the other
form, not in the summative test. It was found that a lot number of instructional objectives determined in the indicators were not measured or controlled by the tests (12 out of 20 indicators). The taxonomy of educational (behavioral) objectives in the cognitive domain as stated by bloom in curriculum found was knowledge, comprehension, application, and analysis. Then, the other two levels of thinking, synthesis and evaluation, were not found in instructional objectives. Also, the illustrative verbs for stating the indicators were to find, search, summarize, complete, identify, understand, define, describe, discuss, change, apply, express, and discover.

Furthermore, the analysis of the teacher-made English test of SMAN 3 Palopo indicated that the skill and the sub-skills to be measured in the tests were reading, speaking, structure, and vocabulary. It was found that some numbers of base competences were not measured by the test (3 out of 11 base competences). In this case, 24 out of 50 (48%) items met with the instructional objectives; whereas 26 out of 50 (52%) items did not meet the instructional objectives. In addition, the taxonomy of educational objectives in the cognitive domain found was knowledge, comprehension, and application. The other, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation were not found. Finally, the illustrative verbs for stating the indicators were to find, search, identify, understand, express, and use.

2. **Item Balance**

The test items of SMAN 1 Palopo were not balanced among the instructional objectives. It was found that comprehension was 50%, knowledge 27.5%, application 15%, analysis 7.5%, and synthesis & evaluation 0%. Therefore, it can be concluded that the comprehension totally dominated the test items. Further, the test items of SMAN 3 Palopo were also not balanced. In this case, the comprehension was about 30%, knowledge 14%, and application 4%. The others were not found. In this case, 26 out of 50 items did not have instructional objectives.

3. **Language Review**

The data indicated that there were four deficiencies dealing with the language review of the test item. First, 2 out of 154 (1.3%) items did not refer to the indicators. Second, 4 out of 154 (2.5%) items had more than one correct answer. Third, 4 out of 154 (2.5%) items had a wrong answer key. Finally, 4 out of 154 (2.5%) stems/options were ungrammatical.

4. **Test Specification**

It was found that only one teacher (SMAN 2 Palopo) designed a table of test specification. Nevertheless, it is very simple because it did not contain the instructional objectives. Then, the test items specifically measure much more on vocabulary and grammar. It was supported by the evidence that the reading tests contain more vocabulary and grammar test than the reading test itself.

5. **Item Facility**
The item facility of the test was good enough. It was indicated by the high percentage of acceptable items. However, the teachers should still revise some items of the test because there were a lot of easy items to be answered by both good and poor students.

6. Item Discrimination

The item discrimination of the tests was various. The number of the unacceptable items based on the items discriminability analysis was much more than the acceptable ones. Meanwhile, the discrimination of acceptable items was considered to be low.

7. Distracters Effectiveness.

It was found that the distracters were not totally effective and suggested to be revised or replaced. The distracters were not effective to use in the tests. The effective distracters are those which lower than the key answers and chosen by more of low group students than of high group students.

D. Conclusions

The teacher-made English tests based on the perspective of Bloom Taxonomy did not measure all the six level of the taxonomy of educational objectives in cognitive domain as stated in curriculum. The items should represent all the instructional objectives and balance among them. Then, the tests were still not well-constructed in terms of the item facility, item discrimination, and distracters effectiveness of the four SMANs of Palopo because they still included too easy and too difficult items, discriminable items, and distracters that did not work well. Finally, the items were not relevant to the instructional objectives and not balanced actually because the English teachers at the three SMANs of Palopo did not make a blueprint in order that the test items measure all the instructional objectives.

E. References


Title
Empowering Teachers' Collaborative Skills with Coaching Through Learning Walks

Author
Martha Castillo Noriega
Independent Researcher

Bio-Profile:
Martha Castillo is an EFL Instructor, Ontological Coach and the Science and Social Studies Area Coordinator at Monte Tabor Nazareth in Guayaquil, Ecuador. She is also finishing her Master’s Degree in TEFL at Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral (ESPOL). Her research interests include Educational Leadership, Professional Development, and Emotional Intelligence. martha_castillo_noriega@hotmail.com

Abstract
This mixed-method case study analyzed the impact of implementing coaching though learning walks, in an elementary school, as a way to empower collaborative skills in an EFL team to take this instruction to a higher level. Three EFL instructors were considered for this study. PCI Forms, in-depth teacher interviews, and Observation forms were used to identify the perceptions of the EFL instructors regarding the stages of learning (acquisition, making meaning, and transfer) presented in the tasks observed, as well as the implementation of learning walks with a non-judgmental perspective.

The results indicated a slightly change in the teachers’ attitude towards being coached through learning walks. Effective communication, support, empathy, concern for another, and criticism for ideas, not people, were mentioned as the collaborative skills reinforced during this study. One remarkable result that emerged from the findings was the culture of trust; consequently, EFL instructors’ attitude moved from “What went wrong?” to “What is next?” by identifying themselves as coaches, designers, and facilitators in a learner-centered environment.

Overall analysis showed that when formal leaders express a clear vision and show the positive correlation of learning walks with improved student engagement, and relationships
within the EFL community, instructors are able to innovate ideas that emerge to improve teaching and learning in an environment where trust is the starting point of coaching in the school.

**Keywords:** Coaching, EFL instruction, Collaborative skills

**Introduction**

This paper, which is part of a Master’s thesis in TEFL, comprises the relationship between EFL instruction and partnership by analyzing the conditions under which an EFL team empowers its collaborative skills through self-reflection to support high level instruction without a judgmental attitude towards the EFL team members. The purpose of this research is to identify what collaborative skills are empowered through learning walks in EFL instruction. Specifically, it seeks to answer two related research questions:

1. What are the stages of learning mostly managed in the tasks observed?
2. What are teachers´ perceptions and attitudes towards the usage of learning walks as a way to improve a collaborative environment?

The participants of this study are three EFL teachers that teach Language Arts, Science and Social Studies in an elementary school. The Coach leader is their Science and Social Studies Academic Area Coordinator who had been trained in Coaching, Personal development and Educational leadership.

Coaching as a tool of educational leadership has been implemented by school principals that promote a culture of trust through institutional management. Abbott, Baker, & Stroh (2004) as cited by Knight, Stinnett & Zenger (2008) underline that 10 out of 10 school districts in the Effective Districts Study apply coaching. Moreover, Schein (1992) as cited by Tschannen-Moran (2004), defends that the way a school culture develops is through the application of new solutions to old problems. As an illustration, she argues that the role of a principal as a coach is to point out any issue directly and discreetly, without affecting people’s dignity, which helps teachers modify their performance and meet expectations that represent the identity of the school in an accurate way.

**Theoretical background**

*Learning walks and Coaching*

The role of educators as coaches has been increasingly adapted in institutions. In fact, Dotlich & Cairo (1999), as cited by Campbell (2003), reflect that every leader is a coach in
present day organizations due to two main aspects: firstly, it delivers remarkable change in behavior, attitudes, values, and emotional intelligence that help create new opportunities for the organization as for the leaders. Secondly, coaching has helped people get faster and better results, so that Senge (1990) refer to educators as “designers” and “stewards” that design learning by showing rather than telling.

Myers (2015) also establishes that coaching is basically a relationship between two professionals based on trust, open and honest conversation, skilled questioning and deep listening, sincere reflection, and feedback, that requires a mutual investment of time and of presence. Moreover, she mentions a study conducted by Cornett and Knight (2008) that remarks a significant transfer of teachers’ new attitudes towards teaching practice when coaching is given in a constant way and guided by professional learning inductions.

Moreover, Downey (2014) as cited by Rissman, Miller & Torgesen (2009), requires principals to spend time visiting classrooms in order to be familiar with what is happening by conducting two-to three-minute classroom walkthroughs that help them conduct short and informal observations of curriculum and instruction. With no evaluation in mind, Downey (2014) remarks that principals are able to gather information in order to foster and facilitate reflective thinking and collaboration where feedback is given as a reflective conversation that promotes a change of high work performance and self-generated change.

Steiny (2009) clarifies that the walks are visits to classrooms by a small number of educators through a specific protocol. They try to move teachers from the “My class” mind-set to help focus on the big picture. The learning walks, therefore, ease teacher resistance to professional development to the point that they may request help when feeling vulnerable.

At the present time, the authors Guilott & Parker (2012) have taken these ideas of walkthroughs and improved them to establish that learning walks is a process designed to look for what’s next in teachers’ learning about learning. It is a collaborative professional development process designed to support everyone’s thinking about instructional practice through questions that promote self-reflection.

One of the main differences between previous models and the learning walks designed by Guilott & Parker (2012) is the evaluative part. Since this is a non-evaluate technique, trust must be present in a non-judgmental community, where the leader must remain trustworthy to the process and the protocol that provides meaningful feedback in the reflective process. As a matter of fact, one of the benefits is that experienced teachers who become skeptical because of previous ineffective evaluation protocols perceive significance in the learning walks. This is because of the motivation obtained from a principal who is open to learning and able to
facilitate the learning of the community that consequently improves the learning climate for everyone included, since the focus is not the teacher, but the learner; consequently, what is discussed in the learning walks stays in the learning walk.

Finally, the authors Guilott & Parker (2012) point out that one of the first challenges for teachers and administrators is the misconception of the learning stages because of the lack of knowledge when identifying them: educators may think they understand and apply understanding but they do not. They identify a tendency to identify making meaning as transfer. During making meaning, they say, students relate facts to some familiar context that makes the information valuable. In this stage, students can also reflect about the different ways the acquired information can be used. On the other hand, transfer is meta-cognition; this means that students know how to use the information, and discern for themselves when to use it in new situations.

**Peer Coaching**

Myers (2015) judges that teachers coach one another when they listen to conversations in the teachers’ room, where teachers often share personal accomplishments or issues. In fact, she argues that they look for their coaches in colleagues with whom they share a mutual respect. She also remarks that administrators may fail to provide better collaborative environments to foster constant improvements for a teacher-to-teacher interaction and/or coaching from other internal or external sources.

As an illustration, Cowie (2010) demonstrates that the experienced teachers in his study remained in the EFL profession for some time due to their willingness to find ways to associate and develop collaboratively with peers, especially with those with they have some sense of closeness as fellow professionals. These collaborative opportunities can occur, he says, through in-service training, conferences and local teacher development groups.

Davut (2005) also emphasizes that in schools, where collaboration and trust between individuals is weak, management teams need to plan strategies to enable closer working relationships between colleagues, so that trust and mutual support can be developed. As an illustration, Kohler, Cullough, Shearer & Good (2012) reports that peer instruction allowed instructors to make few modifications in their instructional approach, where most of the activities were related to teacher and student processes. They also state that teachers expressed different levels of satisfaction with the innovation that helped promote teacher change and their expertise.
**Stages of Learning**

McTight, Emberger & Carber (2008) remark three stages of learning in their model *Understanding by Design*: acquisition, meaning making and transfer. Acquisition is the stage where students learn important facts and basic skills that are needed in performance. The aim is the automaticity of recall. Meaning making allows students to make connections and generalizations, using the facts and skills already acquired; for example, interpret, gist, main idea, empathize, critique, etc. The aim is to have independent and defensible student inferences about situations. Transfer is the highest stage of learning in which knowledge, skills and understanding are adapted to specific and realistic situations and contexts. The aim of this stage is to have efficient students able to find effective solutions for real world challenges, audiences, as well as purposes.

Regarding these levels of cognitive skills, the authors remark that Bloom's (1956) taxonomy aims to classify and clarify the range of possible intellectual objectives, from the cognitively easy to the difficult in order to classify levels of understanding. An understanding, they argue, is a mental construction that able people to make sense of many distinct pieces of knowledge, so students are able to take whatever they know and go beyond the facts to use it creatively in different settings or problems. This contrasts with teachers’ ideas that want students to know several pieces of information when the core focus is on a set of facts, skills, and procedures that must be learned with a purpose. For this reason, McTight, Emberger & Carber (2008) remark the relevance of big ideas as they provide the basis for the transfer, as well as the importance of transfer as the essence of what Bloom and his colleagues meant by application.

**Collaborative Skills in Leadership**

Garmston (1987) emphasizes that team problem solving efforts yield insightful and concrete improvements. However, he states that trust, collegiality, and norms are essential conditions to start a coaching process. Bowman & McCormick (2000) also argues that collaboration promotes expert instruction when coaching is a practicable vehicle for establishing collaborative efforts; therefore, they say, coaching assures consideration as a potentially serviceable solution for consolidating the field-based training of future teachers.

**Methodology**

This is a mixed method case study, which relies on a survey called PCI (Pupil Control Ideology) that comprises 20 items Likert-type to evaluate the faculty’s perceptions regarding custodial or humanistic attitudes (See Appendix 1). These attitudes range from ‘strongly agree’
(five points) to ‘strongly disagree’ (one point). A high score represents a custodial attitude toward pupil control and a low score indicates a humanistic attitude toward control of pupils.

In addition, in-depth semi-structured interviews with 7 questions were also included for all the participants to identify traits required to empower collaborative skills in a team. The questions of these interviews were related to the research questions in order to follow a script that also gave the participants a certain extent of flexibility in how to reply. The questions in the interview for the students were related to the stage of learning in which the activity was being presented: acquisition, meaning-making, or transfer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students´ interviews during the learning walks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are you learning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What are you being asked to do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How is this like something you have already learned?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What will you do with this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What will it help you do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Why is it important to know this?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Source: A Value Added Decision: To Support the Delivery of High-Level Instruction. USA: Outskirts Press

Four main premises were identified in this discussion: identification of the stage, student engagement, authenticity in the learning process and releasing of responsibility. Nine open questions were used during the debriefing time with the teachers regarding the same four premises used during the student interviews:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers´ debriefing questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Was the activity presented at an acquisition, making meaning or transfer level?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What did you observe that you could take away immediately?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What was the teacher enabling the students to do?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Was the teacher taking the students to transfer? How do you know?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Were the students engaged in making meaning? Did you observe evidence of understanding?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. What percent of the students were engaged in making meaning leading to transfer? How do you know? How many were compliant? How do you know?

7. Did you see evidence of authentic learning? What was it about the work that was authentic?

8. How was the release of responsibility?

9. What could the teacher have done to “kick it up a notch”?

Author: Guilott, Maria & Parker, Gaylynn

Source: A Value Added Decision: To Support the Delivery of High-Level Instruction. USA: Outskirts Press

The interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes to be later transcribed. NVivo was used for decoding the interviews with the participants.

Furthermore, to add reliability to this study, the Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form scale is consistently high, usually .80-.91 (Packard, 1988; Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1967). Likewise, to add validity to this study, these instruments will be taken from the original format of Collegial Learning Walks and Professor Hoy, author of The Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) form which has been used in other studies (Packard, 1988; Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1967; Garret, 2008). Finally, the information collected in the internal analysis through the Pilot Control ideology (PCI) Form, the interviews and the Post-Pilot Control Ideology (PCI) filled out by each EFL instructor were triangulated to find any interrelated aspects among the instruments.

Setting

This study research was conducted in a private institution located in Guayaquil, Ecuador where the boys are taught by male teachers while the girls are taught by female teachers. However, the English staff is female dominated and they may be able to work with girls and boys as well. The institution has a great demand of students aged between 3 and 17 years old approximately with a high income background.

Participants

Three EFL instructors were considered to participate for this research: two female teachers and one male teacher who teach Language Arts, Science, and Social Studies at elementary education. They were observed at different grade levels, so each EFL instructor was considered as observe and as observer for this study.

There will be four stages in this process: firstly, the observation of the tasks through the learning walks and the student interviews in class; secondly, the debriefing questions in the interview to the teachers after each class they observe; thirdly, a three-week period where
instructors were able to have coaching sessions on student-centered planning; and fourthly, the follow-up question interviews for the teachers after the Learning Walks.

**Data collection and Analysis**

The interviews were conducted in English to be later transcribed, coded, and classified into three different tables: stage of learning, mediated experience, and values/traits to be developed.

Regarding the Pre-PCI Form, the answers of the 20 items were analyzed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-PCI Form</th>
<th>Post-Observation Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher A: 52/100</td>
<td>Teacher A: 14/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher B: 64/100</td>
<td>Teacher B: 12/20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher C: 68/100</td>
<td>Teacher C: 14/20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Pre-PCI form demonstrated that teachers agreed to have a slightly custodial attitude toward pupil control rather than a humanistic perspective. It was also observed that the highest scores were given to items such as students’ seating arrangements; student’s acquisition of many facts disregarding their immediate utility; teachers’ revision of their teaching methods, whether they are criticized by their pupils; teachers’ perception about being friendly with their pupils; and considering punishment as a solution for disruptive discipline when destroying school resources or property.

These factors indicate that teachers may not consider some student-centered tasks when designing their lesson plans to avoid losing control of the groups. In contrast, the meaning making and the transfer stages of learning demand from teachers to release responsibility; this means that teachers must allow students to be actively involved in more meaningful tasks that would help learners use high ordered skills like applying, evaluating and creating in a collaborative environment.

This was also evident during the teachers’ interviews. All of the tasks observed were in the acquisition and making meaning stages of learning that are the basis for transfer which was not evident in the tasks designed. It was also expressed that most of the students were engaged in making meaning leading to transfer because during the interviews, many of the students expressed ideas about how the knowledge being used was important for them in order to know, which also saw evidence of authentic learning. Some examples of authentic learning were the use of meaningful situations or real life settings, in which students were able to connect to their own reality. In contrast, the release of responsibility was partially given in “I do, you watch” or “You do, I watch” strategies.
Regarding the question about what teachers could have done to “Kick it up a notch”, the teachers participants in this study felt enthusiastic and with a positive attitude to observe a task and immediately improve it. Useful and practical ideas were given to improve the presentation of tasks in class by considering the improvement in the same stage of learning (acquisition or making meaning). Certain ideas suggested were related visual aids such as implementing graphic organizers to synthesize information, black and white physical maps can be displayed on the board to allow students to label the countries’ borders or main features rather than having maps just in their students´ textbooks, as well as videos to be paused from time to time, so students can hear the audio easily and be focused on a limited amount of facts to be heard. Other examples were related to the way of organizing group work tasks. Students would rather be arranged in smaller groups to later compare and contrast their information with other groups instead of having larger groups working the same idea. This was also evident in the Post-PCI form and the Observation form that were used after a three-week period, in which a slightly change in the participants´ perceptions and attitudes regarding the designing of tasks that were recorded:

### Post-PCI Form
- **Teacher A**: 50/100
- **Teacher B**: 60/100
- **Teacher C**: 66/100

### Post-Observation Form
- **Teacher A**: 16/20
- **Teacher B**: 15/20
- **Teacher C**: 17/20

A triangulation was used to contrast data obtained from the EFL instructors as a way to show validity in this study:

1. Data obtained from the PCI forms
2. EFL instructors´ perceptions about collaborative skills developed through the learning walks
3. Observation Form

### Triangulation: EFL instructors. Perceptions of Changes in the EFL community (See Appendix 1)

The two research questions for this study were directly developed through the analysis of the participants’ insights:

In the Custodial or Humanistic Attitude, the participants expressed a negative perception of giving responsibility to learners in the tasks presented. They, therefore, dealt with taking control of the class by reminding class rules and procedures to follow. They even had to
negotiate by responding with teasing and dealing with students’ anger when they had a disruptive behavior, since they were not actively participating in class.

In the Stage of Learning Used, the participants were not able to show a task leading to transfer. This was also evident in their communicative skills, since they showed a desire to involve students by asking questions and letting them take responsibilities. They were even able to ignore distractions such as minor discipline issues that were not evident in the post-observation. Some signs of appreciation were shown in the teacher-student relationship during the last classes observed.

In the Trust in Change, the level of the release of responsibility was evident when including learners in the learning process, which is the result of having a more humanistic attitude of students’ control. The participants expressed feelings of rapport with some colleagues rather than others, and the chance of having learning walks with a non-judgmental attitude through a clear protocol encouraged them to better themselves rather than evaluating their partners. They expressed empathy by criticizing ideas, not people. They accepted criticism and asked for help during the three week period where the designing of tasks were coached.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Overall, the perceptions of participants matched the results obtained from the PCI forms, the interviews and the observation forms. The participants manifested a slightly change in their attitude towards their groups and their partners as well. It was also noticeable that they felt comfortable with the protocol of learning walks before, while, and after the observation of the task. The participants felt comfortable by being just a host rather than being the teacher observed, and students were able to be interviewed and expressed their reflections about what was given to them.

Additionally, the planning of tasks was more meaningful for them since they were oriented to the big question, which allowed them to balance tasks in the three stages of learning with more accuracy regarding the objectives of the content. Furthermore, certain collaborative skills were regained or introduced during this study and the participants had a sense of trust when sharing what they knew and able to ask for help to take EFL instruction to a higher level.

As a concluding point, Fleres & Friedland (2015) assert that the researchers, Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, (2011) confirm that relationship-based coaching is more effective in forming changes to achieve rather than other methods. It follows that a relationship based on coaching would encourage teachers to find ways to extend their skills.
and techniques that would help their students become more responsible of their own learning and behavior.

Appendix 1
Table 1: PCI Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form PCI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directions: Following are twenty statements about schools, teachers, and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Your answers are confidential.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Student governments are a good “safety valve” but should not have much influence on school policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad.</td>
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</tbody>
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Author: Wayne Hoy
Source: Pupil Control Ideology

Appendix 2
Table 2: Perceptions of Changes in the EFL community

<table>
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<th>PCI</th>
<th>Class Observation Form</th>
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<tr>
<th>Custodial or Humanistic Attitude</th>
<th>Teachers´ Collaborative skills</th>
<th>Trust in Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A slightly custodial attitude toward pupil control with a limited position in releasing responsibility to learners in the flow of the tasks. | Negotiate  
Express concern for another  
Respond with teasing  
Deal with another´s anger | Criticize ideas not people  
Express concern for another  
Encourage others  
Accept criticism  
Ask for help  
Express empathy |
| Acquisition and Making meaning, since transfer involves having a more focused learner-centered approach | Follow directions  
Ask questions  
Begin a conversation  
Accept a compliment  
Take responsibilities  
Ignore distractions | More student-centered tasks were designed based on the three stages of learning: Acquisition, Making meaning and Transfer. |
| A slightly change is evident in the Post-PCI Form regarding teachers´ attitude of students´ control. The attitude is more humanistic which involves a release of responsibility, so learners are an active part of the learning process. | In the Pre-Observation Form, teachers remained control of their groups and avoided noise by reminding the class rules. Not all of the students were engaged and a lack of monitoring is evident in the tasks presented. | In the Post-Observation form, teachers still remained control of their groups, even though they now differ between productive and disruptive noise. Trust and a non-judgmental attitude were evident in class observation through a better predisposition to take instruction to a higher level. |

**Author:** Martha Castillo  
**Source:** Recordings of interviews, PCI forms and transcripts

**References**


Title
Constructing Advanced Organizer Tasks for the Indonesian Classroom

Author
Michael Thomas Gentner
Panyapiwat Institute of Management, Thailand

Bio-Profile:
Michael Thomas Gentner Ph.D obtained his doctorate in TESOL as well as certifications in TEFL and CELTA. He has taught English in Korea, China, Cambodia, Japan, and presently in Thailand. He is author of the series, ‘Teaching English in ASEAN’. He may be contacted at michaeltho@pim.ac.th.

Abstract
As the importance of English in Indonesia gathers force, a style of teaching, instep with the globally accepted and established communicative approach, is sought. The present discussion addresses the issue of how the unique interplay between cognition, cultural literacy, economic realities, and learner preferences in Indonesia propagates the use of advanced organizer lesson plans in a task-based framework, and how prior knowledge and situated inference activating devices correspond to auditory-based tasks. Considerable attention is devoted to activities moored to the oral narrative or storytelling modality as a vehicle by which tasks are administered. Explanations of, and rationale for the use of advanced organizer material in the ESL classroom are proffered and interspersed with accounts examining learner percepts to such activities and theoretical research that draws on the existing endorsements of scholars both international and Indonesian. The analysis concludes with the particulars of advanced organizer task constructions.

Keywords: oral narrative, prior knowledge, schematic, existing cognitive concepts, input modification
Introduction and Background

Creating and maintaining a dominion of linguistic nationalism that unites the more than seven hundred dialectal and ethnic groups separated by broad distances and vast stretches of ocean, where pockets of indigenous people spend the majority, if not all of their lives, removed from the mainstream is truly a great accomplishment. Uniting these cultures again in the acquisition of a second language is an even greater challenge. Foremost is the fear among the Indonesian intelligentsia and governmental lawmakers, such as those in the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Parent Action Group for Education (PAGE), and the National Union of Teaching Professionals (NUTP) that the push and pull for dominance between Bahasa Indonesian as a national unifier, and English as a global thoroughfare, will weaken the nation on both fronts (Lauder, 2008). How deeply English will become part of the Indonesian fabric is yet decided, what is widely described is the need for a higher scale of English fluency if Indonesia is to compete with its Commonwealth neighbors who hold a preexisting advantage in regards to global communicative capacities (Hermawan & Noerkhasanah, 2012). Most Indonesians have this clearly in mind, and many, particularly those from a moneyed background, are choosing to invest more in English education. The modern chic of English and all the respect and future prospects that follow is suggestive of a life with greater conveniences. For the majority of learners however, the government has been appointed the responsibility of endorsing a novel and sustainable approach toward English acquisition that is available to both the affluent and those of reduced circumstances.

The passive resistance to establishing elements of task-based modules into curriculum design, with conviction, is due in part to the thorny question of what is to be done with evaluation for testing, scoring, and placement purposes. The prospect of task-centered assessments or communicative performance tests in Indonesia are in the theoretical stages, as caution and ceremony block any appreciable movement away from the grammar-translation method for testing purposes. Early trials of student-centered knowledge-based instruction showed promise as a referential in what could be labeled an interlingual circumlocutionary manner (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). Learners develop auditory skills by drawing distinctions between and calling attention to content words over function. With pressure mounting, educational authorities are giving credence to the global change in EFL pedagogy, with communicative competency and learner-centeredness inhabiting the same instructional vein. Instructors who teach solely from the book are thought to lack in the type of training necessary for constructing discourse potential tasks that both entertain and educate, not strictly the latter. Utilizing advanced organizer skills is an assimilation theory that yields productive language
tasks. The oral narrative or storytelling lesson design is a vehicle by which advance organizer material can be transported.

**Rationale for Advanced Organizers Tasks**

*Oral Narratives as a Vehicle for Advanced Organizer Devices*

Oral narratives are a component of task-based learning. This approach was popularized by Prabhu (1987), who came to the realization that language learners were just as inclined to learn language specifics if they were taking into consideration a non-linguistic problem then if they turned their attention to particular language forms. Students are thus posed with a task they would have to perform rather than being absorbed with the syntactical framework. Incorporating the auditory oral narrative with Indonesian-based content falls into the category of subsumption, a component in the theory of advanced organizer. The doctrine, asserted by psychologist David Ausubel, (1960), claims that learning is based upon the types of subordinate, representational, and combinatorial processes that are borne out during the reception of information; an integral element of learning since new material is related to applicable ideas in the existing cognitive structure on a substantive, non-verbatim basis.

Cognitive structures represent the remnants of all knowledge acquiring episodes. Celce-Murcia (2001), maintains that the use of advance organizer can elicit a student’s previously developed knowledge for top-down processing and accommodate them in linking the new information to what they already know. Lingzhu (2003), contends that students employ the top-down approach at constant intervals to anticipate possible consistencies. Only thereafter do students transition to the bottom-up approach to attest their understanding. The process of comprehension is guided by the idea that input is overlaid with pre-existing knowledge in a bid to find a match. Oral narratives are an innate form of natural and often authentic discourse through which structured long turns may be extended. The instructor, or alternative speaker has to forge order and link causes with results through a meaningful and compelling chain of events. In this design, instructors are afforded the opportunity to illuminate on relevant particulars of a story to help the listener mentally construct the context of the drama. Once this approach to creating descriptive order in the target language is acquired, the instructor can employ this skill to create and channel other types of extended monologue. Creating opportunities for learners to process long chunks of discourse is not a simple matter in language teaching. With narration, modifications to the tempo and elocution would allow the prose to fit any proficiency level. Production can involve long pauses and exaggerated gestures for young learners or paced within a natural real-time context for the more advanced. Conversely, there
is an inherent interest on the part of the listener to enter the story and understand what is being said, thus a higher concentration level on the narrative is created. What learners are forming is a menagerie of associations that fashion webs of attachments in maze-like patterns until an unobstructed route is unveiled and a channel between what is being transferred and what is stored completes the advanced organizer process.

Cultural Mirroring and Learner Preferences

One often overlooked strategy in second language acquisition pedagogy is the concept of cultural mirroring or juxtaposing references of the local culture as a platform for English task constructions. The number of English language textbooks on the market worldwide has reached immoderate proportions, yet these regionally-unspecific assigned readings are often generated for a global EFL learner’s audience without regard for insular learner preferences. Perhaps the most referenced study on indigenous learning preferences (Reid, 1987), finds Indonesian learners with a proclivity towards kinesthetic and auditory learning. A more detailed study of Indonesian learners by Lewis (1996), establishes interactional dialogue in a group/pair environment as most favorable, with the study of grammatical structures among the least favored. The combined studies offer an example of how one type of teaching modality and delivery might accommodate learners of one ethnocentric division but not necessarily those of another. Societies, and at times communities within societies, make use of unique learning strategies.

From a more intellective frame of reference, a most obvious benefit to ESL practitioners keeping language lessons regionally one-dimensional is that learners, particularly those from beginner to intermediate level, are spared having to combine dual elements of new language input with new cultural particulars concurrently. The use of regional appointments as a context medium accords learners a focus on language explicitly without the distractions of secondary non-linguistic information. The learner utilizes cerebral hooks by which these new arrangements of linguistically-acquainted information can be attached. This abstract passage between new and stored information figures prominently in the long-term retention of new linguistic-related episodes. The weaving of uttered English lexical items, chunks of words, and phrases with prior knowledge activates the neurotransmitters consequential to the learning process. What is cognitively taking place is not necessarily a retrieval of past grammatical or lexical instruction, but rather a motif that bears the resemblance of a fiber optic network that creates a framework for learning. Mapping and retention is requisite, particularly in language
acquisition, as the sheer volume of locution can saddle the learner with an oppressing degree of input.

Cultural Literacy as Instrumentation

The source culture style of instruction can be defined as expository since information is provided to learners in a distinct and synoptic manner. It serves the dual function of providing a deductive English auditory exercise based on existing cognitive concepts and supplementary lessons in the appropriate suprasegmentals of English tone, pitch, and cadence dispensed appropriately for the target classroom. The instructors in an advanced organizer/oral narrative task have the occasion to utilize controllability in their otherwise incidental conveyance of grammatical patterns, lexical selections, and style of delivery. The lessons afford the learner an exposure to English by application rather than explanation. New linguistic patterns and lexical configurations are woven into expanding structural threads within the learner’s linguistic repository giving rise to an increase in confidence, motivation, and diminished logophobia. A successfully coded configuration of new English parlance and articulation presented in proper grammatical order with hundreds of lexical items and amalgamations was successfully coded, matched to an existing schematic, and deciphered into the intended conclusion diminishes language anxiety and brings about an ascending level of communicative confidence.

Co-operative Principals and Participants

Situational authentic tasks can be an individual activity rather than a pair/group peer feedback endeavor with each learner responsible for mapping, coding, and outcomes. The incisive disadvantage to individual rather than a group/pair format, in this task type, is the assumption that each individual learner will have knowledge of each articulated feature. Learners, who may have successfully deciphered the oratory of the instructor and created a clear synopsis, may not be familiar with topic to the extent of identifying its signature. Not everyone is familiar with even the most popular, widely discussed, and generationally referenced material that is read or taking to the floor. This is where the process of content negotiation is of great consequence. The chances of correctly identifying a synopsis and title through collaborative discourse increases exponentially with the number of group members. A group of four, assuming they are of the appropriate mixed English abilities as viewed in the co-operative principals of Vygotsky (1978), creates a solid representation of the learner-learner interactive processing group and allows for a better gauge of linguistic abilities (Ohta, 1995). The collaborative environment activates shared responsibility for negotiating input and bringing individual talents to bear. A learner better versed in film, for example, might combine
this attribute with their knowledge of English to create a synopsis map whereby the process of systematically including and excluding feasible solutions until possible solutions are narrowed to a thin number. The more receptively fluent learners of the group may add to the deductive process in a scaffolding-like manner by clarifying words, time frames, or verb tenses which might signal an ordering process, Other members of the group would also add their noted understanding of additional segments and language bits to fill in the fissures and form added voices in the negotiating process that considers the common properties one film has with another, such as similar plots, character types, and finale. The combined accounts are then posited and a resolution settled upon. The cycle of low-level learners in a group becoming novice-level and eventually the group leader is a scenario played out throughout the lifelong learning process. What learners first do in a group setting affords them the tools to perform independently at a later stage. The following illustration sheds some light on the metacognitive and cognitive sequential strategies in play during group/pair advanced organizer auditory tasks:

### Challenges from Traditions and Circumstance

Instruction on proper syntactic constructs continues to receive a higher priority than communicative competency, thus scoring well on grammatically-centered comprehensive tests and entrance examinations takes precedence. The English assessment tests, at the majority of Indonesian educational institutions, are habitually grammar focused and a source of antagonism between grammarians and advocates of CLT. Education department officials are
encouraging schools to expand programs that offer communicative English lessons (Lie, 2007). As a further matter, institutions are voicing concern about what they perceive as Indonesia’s position in the ASEAN region showing signs of abatement. How this will affect the country’s ability to compete in the global manufacturing sector is a source of concern. Instructors are voicing their disparagement for an assessment-based teaching methodology that shows little interest in engaging the attention of learners with creative and rousing lessons that would have their students listening with both ears. Sahiruddin (2013, p. 572) describes some of the problems instructors have with making the communicative approach transition:

1) Large class sizes: On average the typical Indonesian classroom is made up of thirty to forty-five students or more. The OECD ranks Indonesia 6th worldwide in the total number of students per class.

2) Teachers with a low level of English proficiency: Studies have found that teacher training programs assist teachers in the course design and teaching style but do little to improve the level of English knowledge.

3) The low salary of government English teachers encourages or even forces teachers to take additional jobs that leave them less time to prepare for lessons or further develop their English language skills.

4) Lack of sufficient preparation and training for the new curriculums and programs that are initiated on a regular basis. Teachers are given the foundations of such modifications but not the kind of detailed training necessary.

5) Lack of time to practice communicative English due to the focus on English for testing purposes that puts an emphasis on entrance exams, governmental data, and admissions to various programs and institutions.

In addition, the basic format of any student-centered lesson involves a departure from the instructor’s role as an omnipotent classroom director to that of a casual facilitator who voices and interjects in a non-evasive and non-hierarchical fashion. The horizontal style of communication, customary to native English speakers, has existing elements of respect and status but is not reinforced through the alteration of honorific speech and proximics. Instructors and learners alike often find this status interruption among the most difficult transitions to adopt. (Marcellino, 2005).

**Concerns over Linguistic Expansionism**

The integration of culturally-sensitive advanced organizer instructional material relieves some of the concerns of linguistic imperialism, cultural degrading, and the Indonesia
first education agenda championed by the government. Some are of the opinion that English textbooks and lesson plans reflect the cultural values and righteous perceptions of a foreign culture. There is the widespread assumption that in order to fully understand the linguistic registers of a second language, a learner must adapt, at least to some degree, to the cultural norms of those who speak the target language by convention. Critics of this line of reasoning are partial to the view that ethnologic orientation has the capacity to condescend, rebuke, or otherwise deliver a veiled critique of another society. From a learning perspective, the merging of two partially related entities compromises a learner’s ability to linguistically navigate. With such reservations in mind, lesson plans that pointedly avoid the elements of high culture in favor of a more vernacular and emotively appropriate initiative that embraces aspects of the native culture without intimidating the syntactic and semantic integrity of the lesson, are most sought after.

Methitham and Chamcharatsri (2011), describe how Western promoted teaching methods and materials are accepted by most teaching professionals because of the assumption that they are, from a research perspective, on good authority. Notwithstanding, a sediment exists among non-native ESL practitioners that instructional material, in its multi-dimensional roles, portrays the culture of the West as more civilized while those of the more traditional cultures are somewhat antiquated or backwards. Assumptions along these lines have the ability to marginalize both the language and culture (Puskurbuk, 2010). This is not to suggest that English instruction represents a style of neo-imperialism. Indonesian differs from its Malaysian and Singaporean counterparts as British subjugation, despite the best efforts of some, thought better of instigating the Dutch and left Indonesia out of the Commonwealth and its habits of anglocentricity. With Dutch as the language of the colonizer, English was spared the emblematic malediction of dominion (Dardjowidjojo, 2003). Nevertheless, with memories of colonization still crisp in the Indonesian memory, learning materials that celebrate the accomplishments of Indonesia and its peoples may be better received than the achievements of Western nations. Parenthetically, a populace with an intractable religion and shared societal puritanical values might call into question the appropriateness of some elements of Western ideology. Lesson with Christmas, Easter, and Valentine’s Day for instance, could raise concern for those who would favor the characterization of Islamic values and celebrations rehearsed through the medium of English.
English as a Multi-linguistic Language

The reality of Multiple Englishes in second language acquisition builds a case for the use of regional culture material and reference in task planning. Particularly for young learners, the question of which culture and to what extent does a foreign ethos become an influence over the young minds of children is central to the discussion. Keeping relativism in mind and lessons within the representative culture gives learners the tools to characterize elements of their own lives, emotions, traditions, and dispositions (Amalia, 2014).

In Indonesia, the fluency level of the customary English instructor remains wide of the mark. Though new programs to strengthen teacher competency are underway, the shortage of qualified English instructors at all institutional levels encourages schools to push trainees through the programs before they are properly qualified for a post (Mappiasse & Bin Sihes, 2014).

In many expanding circle ASEAN nations, the salary for teachers is at the lower reaches and thus the combination of low skill, low salary, and little time to procure and implement modern communicative type lessons is in an all-to-typical fashion. Advanced learner tasks, when performed through the medium of oral narrative reception, provide some degree of relief. Most NNS (nonnative speakers) instructors in Indonesia have received only a basic framework for communicative language practice but have the advantage of local knowledge necessary to produce lessons. For NS (native speakers), imbedding Western-based postulations into lesson planning runs the risk of cultural elitism or the legitimization of colonial or established powers (Phillipson, 1992). In addition, NS instructors and the increasing use of instructors from outer circle nations, leads to a greater variety of cultural backgrounds that become a prelude to the cultural prejudices of both the inner and outer circle.

Logistics and The Dismal Science

Another debate is how a language policy, singular in composition, can persevere without extensive re-orientation for the economic and social contrasts of a multicultural nation. Such diversification and economic limitations facilitate the use of advanced organizer tasks that foster affordable and pedagogically sound second language instruction. For many in this interspersed nation, what unites the various ethnicities, at least from an ESL perspective, is the reliance on a textbook driven teacher-centered approach that draws prodigiously on the grammar-translation method (May, 2015; Yusny, 2013). Apart from the strains of an outmoded style of English instruction are the financial strains of acquiring new English course books with every new governmental initiative, procuring advanced learning technology with multimedia
material and equipment, and NS instructors whose pronunciation and pragmatic communication skills are clamored for. Lesson plans, such as those with advanced organizer skills playing a key role in generational-themed tasks, compensate for the types of material out of the reach of many school budgets. Learners have, at the very least, local or common knowledge of traditional stories, fairy tales, music, history and other elements of a regional culture that can be transcribed into English and used to create interactional discourse. The instructor initiates a monologue and combines a felicitous pitch and modulations that are dispersed among eager learners without the worry of expenditures hindering their implementation. The parallel benefit, as both a pedagogically sound instructional tool and a cost efficient resource, renders it a suitable approach to second language development in regions of small means.

The Instructor and the Art of the Melodrama

Many English language learners undertake their studies with a lack of enthusiasm towards learning the syntactical functions of the English language. Low-interest material negates traces of the students’ ability to organize their recall facilities. Therefore the importance of an aptly chosen agenda and at what momentum the narration will be recounted bears prudent consideration. Advanced organizer material often marks a segue from brief reciprocal exchanges to extended speech acts or long turns (Trahey, 1996). When learners are constrained to fleeting and predictable lumps of dialogue, their facilities for verbalizing only short chunks of language become the objects of criticism. With oral narrative tasks, the students’ ability to comprehend the material depends principally on the instructor’s delivery. Brown (2001) characterizes this teacher talk or caretaker speech as essential, particularly in the young learner stage of development. Geddes and White (1978), have likewise presented a case for simulated authentic discourse, or input modification, meaning the material has been altered to serve a classroom purpose. The natural speech production rate of a native speaker is between 150-200 words per minute making unsimulated authentic discourse useful for only the most progressive speakers. A learners’ overall attitude towards acquiring English improves with the adjustment of speech delivery adaptations that compensate for the proficiency level of the target group (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006).

Since Indonesian learners favor kinesthetic and auditory task types in a pair/group setting, learners are well disposed to the idea of advanced organizer tasks involving a narrative/storytelling theme and laced with movement and theatrical effects. Participants can see and hear the attitude of the speaker who has the occasion of exposing students to various
speech patterns in their natural context. In addition to the new information from the instructor’s oral narrative being mapped against some prior schema, a number of non-grammatical ingredients can be served to convey meaning as oral communication is no longer the sole factor. Facial expressions, body posture, hand and body gestures, combined with the ebb and flow of intonations, will enable the instructor to engender a coherent illustration of the subject matter. Since the oral narrative is an act of storytelling, the same narrative tenses, (present simple, past simple, past continuous, past perfect, and past perfect continuous) can be employed. Novice level students find present and past simple suitable while the more advanced students could be challenged with the more exacting perfect tenses. Depending on the instructor’s grammatical objective, the task can be adjusted to concentrate on one or a combination of these forms using various input modifications.

**Constructing Advanced Organizer Tasks**

As noted, when advanced organizer tasks are orchestrated, learners manipulate the information in dual antithetical processes. In top-down processing, students reflect on previous occurrences as well as forage through their intellectual databases where they assimilate ideas to make predictions. In bottom-up processing, learners weave their understanding of syntactical rules and lexical chunks to compose a visual image of the theme being voiced. Students will already be acquainted with the details of these dramas in their first language-dominated conscious. By illustrating stories in English in the oral narrative task, new phonological arrangements are being presented.

Instructors may find it necessary to make categorical adjustments to improve the continuity of the task. Bardov-Harlig (1992:35) recommends; 1) Create a chronological sequence so the narrative follows a time ordered format; 2) With an oral narrative there should be an introduction, supporting ideas, and a conclusion; 3) Incorporate creative adverbs as well as transition words and sentences; secondly, then, after that, finally; 4) Put stress on the key words and slow the tempo of speech when explaining something that may be a bit difficult to absorb. After the first phase of the presentation, instructors can deduce whether the level of English is at the appropriate proficiency level for the class and make circumspect adjustments accordingly. Gentner (2016), provides intermediate-level samples on the procedures and material that may be used in an Indonesian advanced organizer/oral narrative task-based activity.
Indonesian Film Synopsis

Preamble:

a) (Warm-up) Begin by asking if any students have seen any of the latest movies.
b) Form students into groups of four, five, or six with each group requiring one sheet of paper.
c) Describe the activity: Indonesian movies will be discussed in English; write the movie titles in Bahasa Indonesia.

1. Based on the true story about a conservation organization that educates learners in remote places throughout the Indonesian archipelago. One activist works to bring literacy and math skills to a village that sees opposition towards education by some of the locals who fear it will bring disaster. (The Jungle School- Sokola Rimba)

2. The story of a boy who did not graduate from elementary school but was educated because he watched TV news. He dreams of becoming a news anchorman, but he is shy about a problem with his lower lip. When his sister dies, he gets the courage to follow his dream. (The Beetle Soliders- Serdadu Kumbang)

3. A mother with three children tries to make a living in Jakarta after her husband dies. Her oldest daughter married a rich man and her son is an actor so she must raise her youngest daughter on her own. (Mother- Ibunda)

Quiz Game

Introduction:

a) Students form into three large groups and each group selects a leader.
b) A quiz diagram is written on the board with categories and point values.
c) Explain the task: Group 1 will choose a category and point value and try to answer that question, if not, other groups have an opportunity to answer. Example entries in the category of Indonesian History are as followed:

1. (5 points) Where was the core of Buddhist teaching and learning during the 7th through the 12th centuries? (Sriwijawa)
2. (6 points) Where was the archipelago’s Hindu Kingdom during the 13th and 14th centuries? (Majapahit)
3. (7 points) In what year did the Japanese invade Indonesia? (1942)
4. (8 points) Who was Indonesia’s President in 2002? (Megawati Sukarnoputri)
5. (10 points) What was the most powerful ethnic group in Sumatra from the 12th to the 17th century? (Minangkabau)

Indonesian Music

Introduction:

a) Begin by humming a popular Indonesian song and ask students to identify it.
b) Form students into groups and introduce new vocabulary for the songs.
c) Explain the task: Fifteen Indonesian songs will be translated into English and the lyrics read to the students. Students write the song name in Bahasa Indonesian.

1. On top of a Champakka tree, a bird is singing, whistling all day long, not tired at all, nodding his head while singing tri-li-li, hopping around with his beak always open, shaking his head, facing the blue sky…(A Thrush Bird- Burung Kutilang)
2. My native land, the land where I shed my blood, there I stand to be on guard of my motherland, my nationality, my nation, my homeland, let us proclaim, long live my land, long live my state, long live my nation… (Great Indonesia-Indonesia Raya)
3. The clang of the piano, when fingers slowly dance a creeping tone, in the silence of the night, when the rain comes along with a shadow, ever forgotten, a small heart whispers, return to him, a thousand words seduce, a thousand regrets in front of my eyes… (The Forgotten- Yang Terlupakan)

Indonesian Parables I

This sub-section will demonstrate how an advanced organizer/oral narrative task can be adjusted to pre-intermediate or advanced level learners. The same story, in this example The Story of the Coconut Tree, with adjustments to vocabulary and sentence structure can be altered to fit any target group.

a) Pre-intermediate- There was a very very old man, some people said he was a thousand years old. He was very smart and many people visited him in his cave near the ocean to ask him questions, a man asked him how he could help people and the
old man gave him a magic box and said don’t open it until you get home, but the man opened it when he got outside the cave.
b) Advanced- There lived a significantly elderly gentleman; some said he had reached a millennium in years. Since he was a highly intelligent individual, his cave along the coast was visited by many who were searching for answers to difficult questions. One such fellow asked him how he might serve his fellow man, to which the elderly guru produced a magic box and warned that the box should not be opened until the fellow had arrived at his home, but the fellow opened it soon after exiting the cave.

Indonesian Parables II

In this subsection, a fairy tale titled, How Lake Chini Came to Be- Asal Usul Tasik Chini, will employ the same oral narrative procedures in a demonstration on how a standard text can be altered to fit particular language points..

a) Standard- ‘A native tribe wants to make a village so they clear the thick jungle to build houses and plant crops, one day a mysterious old woman comes to the new village and tells the people what they have to do to make the spirits happy, but the people of the village don’t listen to the old woman and disaster hits the village.
b) Present continuous- ‘A native tribe is clearing the thick jungle. They are making a village by building houses and planting crops. An old woman is walking around the village and telling people what they should be doing to make the spirits happy, but the people are not listening to the old woman and bad events are coming to the village.
c) Past simple- ‘A native tribe wanted to make a village, so they cleared the thick jungle, built houses, and planted crops, but one day a mysterious old woman came and visited the new village, she told the people how they could have made the spirits happy, but the people of the village did not listen to the old woman and disaster came to the village.

Conclusion and Discussion

The adaptation of advanced organizer tasks allows the instructor a wide latitude of design possibilities and language acquisition scenarios. Indonesian learners are afforded a task-based strategy that accounts for financial circumstances, ethnic and cultural considerations in task constructions, the learning preferences of Indonesian learners, and the support factors found in a collaborative learning environment. Advanced Organizer tasks, utilizing the oral
narrative method, have negligible costs and are thus economically feasible for all of Indonesia’s 34 provinces. Since they rely on regional and generational components, the tasks are applicable to various speech communities throughout the nation without prejudice toward one or another. Oral narrative tasks are an appropriate link to the auditory and kinesthetic learning preferences of Indonesian learners as the actions and speech of the instructor satisfies both determinants. The content of these tasks lends itself to the type of acclimation that allows instructors to reconfigure any existing text from any number of genres to a desired pragmatic or grammatical objective. The resulting syntactic and phonological cues summon images from which learners form assumptions that result in a sharper focus of semantic constructs. The use of caregiver speech allows the instructor to heighten the effects of certain vocabulary and exaggerate others to demonstrate the priority of a word or phrase in a sentence. Stress, intonations, and other suprasegmentals of the language can be, if the occasion requires, rendered with dramatic effect.

Instructors are expressing interest in this pedagogical technique but often have little in the way of experience in constructing and orchestrating such a task. Proponents of oral narrative/storytelling tasks point to lower affective filters, increased learner input and expanded participation behavior, as well as better comprehension and linguistic organizational skills. Perhaps the biggest advantage to implementing oral narrative information-gap tasks to a class syllabus is the increase in intrinsic motivation responsible for fostering the desire in many to reconsider their skepticisms in regards to the tutelage of the English language. Opponents remain unconvinced of the value of oral narrative instruction and remain in favor of a more measured approach as lessons affiliated with the task-based approach do not, in the sentiment of some, lend themselves easily to assessment. Learners have for decades been taught this complex English language embedded in unfamiliar foreign concepts and mannerisms, and often delivered in colorless fashion with the rote memorization of words in stilted phrases being the only objective. With students learning English through the prism of their own culture and in a manner that invites enthusiasm and imagination, the linguistic proceeds of the advanced organizer/oral narrative tasks can hardly be questioned.

References


Title
Embracing EIL Pedagogy in Teaching Speaking to University Students through Culturally-Relevant Materials

Author
Monica Ella Harendita
Sanata Dharma University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Monica Ella Harendita currently serves as a lecturer at Sanata Dharma University. She has a Master’s Degree in Education from Monash University, Australia. Her research interests include English as an International Language (EIL), language, culture and identity, and pre-service teachers’ identity. She can be reached at meharendita@usd.ac.id

Abstract
The implementation of English as an International Language (EIL) pedagogy is on the rise as a response towards the dynamic use of English language across the globe. In this light, this research aims at describing how such EIL-informed speaking materials are designed. The materials are designed to teach Speaking to the second semester students of the English Language Education, Sanata Dharma University. Despite the acknowledgement of the culture of the Inner Circle countries, the materials are also designed be culturally relevant in such a way that they can accommodate learners to bring up their local cultural backgrounds. It is expected that the designed materials will help raise students’ awareness of EIL as well as amplify their sense of ownership of English language.

Keywords: EIL, Speaking, culturally-relevant materials

Introduction
In English language education, the current status of English as an International Language (EIL) has shed light on the pedagogy as well as the materials to teach. Generally, English language learning
focuses on materials made and designed in compliance with the native-speakers’ norms (McKay, 2003). However, the materials do not really depict how English is used since English is no longer used only to communicate to native speakers of English (NES) but also to non-native-speakers of English (NNES). McKay (2003) asserts further that the nature of English has changed “in terms of how many of its speakers make use of English and how English relates to culture” (p.2). Similarly, Renandya (2012) maintains that one of the principles in EIL is “the promotion of instructional materials that include both local and international cultures” (p.73).

Among four language skills, speaking seems to be one of the most challenging skills for language learners. As future English teachers, the students of English Language Education Study Program, Sanata Dharma University are expected to be proficient in speaking. However, culturally-irrelevant materials (such as those focusing too much on native-speaker models) seemingly affect their motivation and may hinder them in making the most of their Speaking class.

Literature Review

Kachru’s Three Circles Model

The discussion of EIL is inseparable from the Three Circles models proposed by Kachru (1985 as cited in Park and Wee, 2009): Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle countries include the USA, the UK, New Zealand, Australia, and Canada. According to Kachru (1985, as cited in Park and Wee, 2009, p. 389), Inner Circle countries are where “the traditional monolingual native speakers of English are located”. The next circle, the Outer Circle, consists of countries that were once colonized by English-speaking countries, such as Singapore, Malaysia, and India. English is now an official language in those countries. The last circle, Expanding Circle, is where English does not hold any official status and is used a medium of international communication. Some examples of Expanding Circle countries are Indonesia, South Korea, Japan, and China. However, the clear-cut boundaries in Kachru’s model somehow seem problematic particularly due to the vast development of English language use. It does not sufficiently elucidate “the heterogeneity and dynamics of English-using communities” (Park & Wee, 2009, p. 390).

The Need for EIL Pedagogy in Teaching Speaking

The previous discussion takes us further to how English is spoken internationally. Crystal (2003, p. 69) states that “the ratio of native to non-native is around 1:3” Therefore, McKay (2003) argues that “the teaching and learning of an international language must be based on an entirely different set of assumptions than the teaching and learning of any other second and foreign language” (p. 1). Similarly, Ha (2008) also highlights the need to reconsider
redesigning Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) course so as to “make students from non-English-speaking backgrounds aware of how their images have been constructed through English and ELT, and in what way their voices can be heard” (p. 100)

One of the most common beliefs in ELT is that “the cultural content of ELT should be derived from the culture of native English speakers” (McKay, 2003, p. 75). However, assumptions of EIL stated by Talebinezhad & Aliakbari (2001) heavily emphasize on the existing nature of English use in a way that English is used across nations and facilitates communication not only between NNES to NES but also among NNES. Therefore, the notion of culture in EIL needs rethinking, as Talebinezhad & Aliakbari (2001) further argue that “EIL will not de-emphasize or undermine the interest in culture but it is to say that English culture is not the sole referent” (p. 3).

Traditional ESL/EFL approach might see NES culture as the target culture a student needs to be familiar with. Needless to say, those cultures have become the references in designing teaching materials. As a result, the diversity of different cultural backgrounds is overlooked. In this vein, Renandya (2012, p. 75) argues that “despite the growing awareness of the role of English as an international language, teaching materials often reflect the cultures of native English-speaking countries.” It then becomes problematic as it may create the image of Self and the Other (Ha, 2008).

Methodology

This library research is basically non-empirical research as it deals with a number of references and resources and does not aim at obtaining primary data. The references and resources then became a guideline in designing the materials. Thus, this research is mainly descriptive and interpretative. The result of this study can be a basis for other empirical studies.

Findings and discussion

Based on the course outline, Speaking II offered to the second semester students generally deals with descriptions of self, objects, places, processes, procedures, scenes and situations. In approaching the topics, ‘traditional’ ELT will most probably focus on how such descriptions are used in the Inner Circle cultures. In addition, most of the sources and materials used in the class will provide or employ vocabulary that may not be present in other countries or cultures. For example, when describing someone’s appearance, the materials use vocabulary such as freckles, red hair, or pale complexion. Those features do not commonly appear among
Indonesians. As Ha (2008) argues, this kind of difference may bring about the gap between Self as an Indonesian and the Other.

Since there are some inappropriateness and mismatches between the materials and the context where students are situated, EIL pedagogy can serve as an alternative to make the teaching and learning more meaningful for the students. In integrating EIL pedagogy, teachers certainly need to consider what culture to represent (McKay, 2003). Before making the decision, there is certainly a need to consider the objectives of learning English that the students have. Students enrolled in the English Language Education Study Program of Santa Dharma University are expected to be teachers. The society and the stakeholders may then expect them to introduce the English culture to their future students. Therefore, acknowledging the Inner Circle cultures is still undeniable.

Yet, the materials should also be designed based on the students’ culture too to make the teaching more meaningful and contextual. Providing materials based on their culture will hopefully result in a sense of ownership of English language and may consequently affect the students’ confidence in producing English language. In addition, language teaching should focus not only on communicative competence but also on intercultural competence (Richards, 2008). Hence, addressing the differences between the Inner Circle culture and the Indonesian culture is also of the same importance.
Conclusion

EIL pedagogy provides an alternative approach to current English language teaching. Based on the principles of EIL pedagogy, culturally-relevant materials can be designed. Such materials help the students to be able to relate what they learn with their lives as well as endow them with intercultural competence. Moreover, the sense of ownership of English language may be growing and boost their confidence in producing the language.

References

Book


Journal Article


Title
Bilingualism: The Beneficial and Contradictory Findings

Author
Muhammad Ahkam Arifin
Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN) Alauddin Makassar

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

Abstract:
Historically bilinguals were often associated with low intelligence, high mental confusion, and limited number of vocabularies. In their seminal work Peal and Lambert (1962), however, reported that bilingual children significantly outperformed monolinguals on verbal and nonverbal intelligence tests. This paper first reviews the benefits that bilinguals have when acquiring an additional language. Secondly, the cognitive benefits will be explored, particularly the bilingual advantage in executive functioning (EF), empirically linked with general intelligence and the ability to better cope with brain damage (e.g., dementia) mostly known as “cognitive reserve”. This paper culminates with presenting speculations why some studies report contradictory findings.

Keywords: bilingualism, multilingualism, metalinguistic awareness, executive functions (EF), cognitive reserve

Introduction
In the past, some psycholinguists and linguists expressed concern over perceived intellectual disadvantages of bilingualism. Saer (1923) and Smith (1923), for instance, revealed
that monoglot (monolingual) children had a better intelligence, higher number of vocabularies, and lower mental confusion than did bilingual children (see also Jones & Stewart, 1951; Darcy, 1963 for review). Seemingly, however, it was Peal and Lambert (1962) who, initially, showed researchers the opposite direction by showing that bilingual children performed significantly better on both verbal and nonverbal intelligence test than did monolingual children.

Currently, researchers from such different fields as cognitive psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, education, and others are actively focusing on studying the beneficial implications of being bilinguals and multilinguals (e.g., Calvo, A., & Bialystok, 2014; see Bialystok, 2009 for review). Considering most second language acquisition (SLA) studies still define multilingualism as a synonym of bilingualism (e.g., Saville-Troike, 2012), in this paper I will refer bilingualism as the ability to use two languages (R. Ellis, 1994) and multilingualism as the ability to use three or more languages (McArthur, 1992). Bilinguals and multilinguals may not have equal proficiency in their languages (Kemp, 2009).

**Linguistic Changes**

One of the implications of being bi/multilinguals is the enhancement of metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz, 2013) as a result of structural knowledge of more languages (Jessner, 1999) and focusing upon the similarities and differences between languages (Lado’s Contrastive Analysis) (James, 1999). Metalinguistic awareness is generally considered to be able to facilitate language learning (Ringbom, 1987; Lasagabaster, 1997; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994). However, there appears diversity in defining the term metalinguistic awareness. Jessner (2006) uses metalinguistic awareness, language awareness, and linguistic awareness synonymously, while Masny (1997) offers a distinction between language awareness and linguistic awareness, or metalinguistic awareness (for further discussion, see Kemp, 2001). Metalinguistic awareness tends to be associated with explicit knowledge about language (Ellis, 1993; Roehr, 2008), but can also be implicit (Kemp, 2001). Metalinguistic ability manifests itself in the form of phonological awareness, word awareness, syntactic awareness, or pragmatic awareness (Yopp, 1988).

Interestingly, though, only certain conditions may enhance the metalinguistic awareness of bilinguals and multilinguals such as having literacy in the first and second language (Kemp, 2001; Sanz, 2000 Cenoz, & Valencia, 1994) and being highly proficient in both languages (Ricciardelli, 1992). It is related to the threshold theory proposed by Cummins (1976, 1991), that is, high level proficiency in two languages may bring beneficial effects.
(upper threshold), whereas low level of proficiency may bring no changes and even negative effects (lower threshold). Nonetheless, this speculation may not also apply in all contexts, for Yelland et al. (1993) found that English children learning Italian within only six months – one hour of instruction per week – were shown to have a significantly higher level word awareness than their monolingual counterparts. Furthermore, bilingualism may result in negative consequences if the first language is in danger to be replaced by the second language (subtractive bilingualism), as opposed to additive bilingualism (Lambert, 1974, 1981; Cenoz, & Valencia, 1994).

After controlling age, socioeconomic class, gender, parents’ education, Kang (2012) reported that bilingual children having literacy both in Korean as their native language (L1) and English as a foreign language (L2) outperformed Korean monolingual children who also had literacy in Korean in the test of phonological awareness in Korean. In their study, Loizou and Stuart (2003) also indicated that bilingual English-Greek children had significant superiority over monolingual English children in phonological awareness, but no significant difference between bilingual Greek-English children and monolingual Greek children. They concluded that the bilingual enhancement effect might apply only if the second language is phonologically simpler than the first language. Although most studies have so far shown the bilingual advantage in metalinguistic tasks, yet not necessarily in all tasks (see Bialystok, 2001 for review).

Having more language learning strategies is said to be another advantage for bilinguals and multilinguals as a result of their previous learning (Nayak, Hansen, Krueger, & McLaughlin, 1990). Kemp (2007) for example showed that learners who had more languages in their repertoire know more strategies in learning grammar and more frequently apply those strategies. Examining undergraduate students, Psaltou-Joycey and Kantaridou (2009) also asserted trilinguals had better flexibility in using more language learning strategies than individuals who are bilinguals, with advanced trilinguals using strategies more frequently. Although Kemp (2007) and Nayak, Hansen, Krueger, and McLaughlin (1990) emphasized there was no direct link between the use of more strategies and being a better language learner, successful language learners are always associated with having and using more strategies in language learning (Oxford, 1994).

Becoming more sensitive to the communicative needs of their interlocutors, and being able to apply a variety of strategies in maintaining the conversation, appears to be an additional edge to bilinguals (Thomas, 1992: see also Cenoz, 2003 for review). Observing her own husband and her two children using English and Korean in their daily lives, Chung (2006)
concluded codeswitching, as a communication strategy within her family, functioned as lowering language barriers and consolidating cultural identity. She defined codeswitching as the ability to switch from one language to another and as a synonym for codemixing (see Muysken, 2000 for a distinction). Some scholars may refer codeswitching to the ability of using more than one variety in a single conversation (Toribio & Bullock, 2012) or style (Romaine, 1995): there emerges fuzzy boundaries between languages and varieties (Kemp, 2009). If codeswitching may help maintain the conversation, then it should also benefit language learners in learning language, as is the case in Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), learners are said to acquire language through output (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Furthermore, codeswitching may also become a language learning strategy (Arnfast & Jørgensen, 2003). Codeswitching is, also, regularly associated with scaffolding (Saville-Troika, 2006; 2012). That is, language learners may get scaffolded (support) by their peers in the classroom in learning language or performing tasks by codeswitching (Swain & Lapkin, 2013).

Some other self-evident benefit of being bilinguals or multilinguals is having the opportunity to speak with people from different communities, strike new friendships, and have the opportunity to build good mutual understanding among different communities. For example, currently, being able to speak more than one language enables me to live abroad and study in a university, where a language different from my native language (Indonesian) is used as its medium of instruction. Now I realise more the importance of having another language as I can get more information by reading resources written not only in Indonesian language but also in English language. It means I can acquire more knowledge, i.e. through reading journal articles in two different languages. Moreover, with the opportunity to meet and get to know people from around the world, I can learn additional cultures, different from my own. Conversely, I can introduce my native culture to others that may contribute to the increase of cultural sensitivity (intercultural awareness) and, of course, to bring about mutual understanding. Language learners, including myself, may also get benefits with the ability to do translation from one language to another language. Not only is translation important regarding sharing information or knowledge to others, but it has also been perceived to be an effective means of language learning, protecting learners’ linguistic and cultural identity (Hall, and Cook, 2012).
Cognitive Changes

As a result of codeswitching which requires monitoring in selecting appropriate language, activating the selected language, and inhibiting the other language(s), bi/multilinguals seem to benefit from learning languages in executive processing (EP), also called executive function (EF), that is, the ability to inhibit those that are not irrelevant and competing (inhibition), to switch from one task to a completely different task (task-switching), and to monitor goal-setting cues (attention) (Marian & Shook, 2012; Paap & Greenberg, 2013). EP has been empirically shown to be linked with general intelligence (Kyllonen, 2002; Gray & Thompson, 2004).

For example, Bialystok, Craik, and Luk (2008) showed the overall superiority of young and older bilinguals in inhibitory control over young and older monolingual by applying Simon, Stroop and Sustained Attention to Response (SART) task. Furthermore, Blumenfeld and Marian (2014) also found that university-age bilinguals performed better than monolinguals in cognitive control tasks of Simon and Troop tasks. Additionally, in Flanker task, after controlling culture (socio-economic) variable, Yang, Yang, and Lust (2011) also showed bilingual children’s advantage.

Regarding task-switching ability, Prior and MacWhinney (2010) reported the advantage of female fluent bilinguals with diverse native languages studying in an American university over English monolinguals in a non-linguistic task switching paradigm. Controlling age and gender, Garbin et al. (2010) in their study using color-shape switching task (a non-linguistic task switching paradigm) also reported fluent Catalan-Spanish university students advantage over Spanish monolinguals. Again with a similar task-switching paradigm, Prior and Gollan’s report (2011) exhibited smaller task-switching costs experienced by fluent Spanish–English bilinguals than monolingual English speakers.

To find out whether or not bilinguals have better attention, Bialystok (1999) carried out a study of sixty preschool children who had not received any formal instruction on reading. Half of those children were Chinese-English bilinguals and the rest were English monolinguals. Both groups include children of middle-class provenience. By using Visually-Cued Recall Task, Moving Word Task, Dimensional Change Card Sort Task, she found that bilingual children outperformed monolinguals through showing better abilities in solving problems that were based on conflict and attention. Similarly, Soveri et al. (2011) highlighted such stance with their study, where both 30-50-year-olds and 60–74-year-olds bilinguals were more skilled in focusing attention and ignoring task-irrelevant stimuli.
Amazingly, language learners may get benefits from learning languages with cognitive reserve, that is, the efficiency and capacity of the brain to actively deal with brain damage through the implementation of cognitive processes, leading to the enhancement of brain function during aging (La Rue, 2010; Marian & Shook, 2012). Bialystok, Craik, and Freedman (2007) conducted a study on the records of monolingual (with the average age of 75.4) and bilingual patients (with the average age of 78.6) with cognitive complaints who had been diagnosed with various kinds of dementia (e.g., Alzheimer’s diseases and a series of strokes). They found that the bilinguals were shown to have delayed symptoms of dementia for 3 – 4 years later than the monolinguals (see also Craik, Bialystok, & Freedman, 2010). Mitchel et al.’s study (2004) confirmed that learning languages and actively using them may increase the density of grey matter, that is, part of the brain responsible for information processing (Cheshire, 2006) as well as the density of white matter (Li, Legault, & Litcofsky, 2014), which functions as a connector of grey matter regions and responsible for transmission information (Cheshire, ibid).

Nevertheless, there have also been some studies that see no coherent evidence for the superiority of bilinguals in EP (see Hilchey & Kelin, 2011 for review). For instance, Paap and Greenberg (2013) reported no advantage of highly fluent bilinguals over monolinguals in EP. The authors applied the task anti-saccade, Simon, and flanker, colour-shape switching, and Ravens Advanced Matrices. Controlling sociocultural variables, Kousaie and Phillips (2012) also reported no bilingual advantage both in young and older adults. The participants of their study were English-French bilinguals who had learned both French and English simultaneously from birth (early and simultaneous bilingualism) and actively used both of their languages on a daily basis (see also Morton & Harper, 2007).

Regarding Alzheimer’s disease, Chertkow et al. (2010) found no overall significant bilingual advantage in relation to age at diagnosis or age at symptom onset, yet indicated the advantage of multilinguals. Furthermore, as a result of the activation of the two consistently competing languages (Marian & Shook, 2012), bilinguals tend to be associated with harmful implications both in a smaller vocabulary size in each language and lexical retrieval (e.g., naming picture slowly, tip-of-the-tongue experiences) (see Bialystok, 2009 for review). Nonetheless, Bialystok (ibid) argued that the exact causes of the experience of deficits in lexical have not been clear. One proposed reason of this experience is the fact that bilinguals use both of their languages not as often as do monolinguals (Weaker Link Hypothesis) (Michael & Gollan, 2005).
Metacognitive Changes

Learning languages has been shown to be able to increase language learners’ metacognitive awareness. Le Pichon Vorstman et al. (2009) reported children’s metacognitive awareness could be enhanced by having them experience learning a language in a formal setting. They continued that the similar enhancement of metacognitive awareness was not shown in children who had no specific experience learning English in a formal context. The authors defined metacognitive awareness as self-awareness of one’s own learning strategies and mental activities to self-regulate the process of learning involving cognitive processes (e.g., memory, comprehension, learning and attention). Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness seem to be fuzzy boundaries. For example, Kabuto (2011) stated that metacognitive can be enhanced by comparing similarities and differences of language structure (for further discussion, see Kemp 2011). Importantly, also bi/multilingualism now has been associated with creativity, or divergent thinking (Kharkurin & Wei, 2015).

Conclusion

Although most of studies now have shown the bi/multilingual advantage over their monolingual counterparts, there are also studies that find no coherent evidence of this advantage. Some speculations of the problems in methodology of each study have been put forth. Kemp (2001), for example, has highlighted at least two conditions that may block this advantage: (1) if acquiring an additional language may replace the learner’s native language (subtractive bilingualism), and (2) if the learner is not literate in his native language(s). Nonetheless, such speculation may not be true, to the extent that some studies have shown no bilingual advantage after controlling socioeconomic and cultural variables, and even with participants who have literacy in both of their languages. Clearly, there is a need to conduct a holistic study in the sense that it can cover all potential variables that may influence the result of the studies. A longitudinal study may be needed.

References


Title
Teachers’ Perspectives on Scientific Approach in Indonesian Educational Context

Author
Muhammad Azwar Paramma
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Muhammad Azwar Paramma is a researcher in the English Department, State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research interest deals with English language studies, bilingual education, and educational technology. Email: azwar_paramma@yahoo.co.id

Abstract
This paper examines the EFL teachers’ perceptions toward the Scientific Approach in their classroom interaction in Indonesian school context, focusing particularly on their understanding, perspectives, and implementation of the scientific approach. It aims at exploring teachers’ perception towards the Scientific Approach applied in the teaching and learning interaction. The study employs survey research to gain the data. Purposive sampling technique was employed in selecting the EFL teachers as the respondents. The result of the study demonstrated that there were marked differences in the way the EFL teachers perceive the scientific approach in their classroom teaching practices.

Keywords: perception, Scientific Approach, learning interaction

Introduction
Curriculum 2013 emphasize new learning process in supporting the learning process in Indonesian school education. It brings a responsibility that every level education system is developed as integrative science, application oriented, thinking ability development, learning ability, and curiosity. The general aim of learning process is to improve the knowledge, skill and attitude equally (Widiyatmoko 2016). In consequence, it serves Scientific Approach with
expectation to develop the students’ knowledge, skill, and attitude.

Using a new approach in teaching English, the EFL teachers find dilemma between their needs and their responsibilities in teaching that give significant impacts to the learning process in the class especially in making students interested in English as a second language (Wong 2009).

As an attempt to anticipate the difference perspectives among the EFL teachers toward the Scientific Approach, it is important to find out their perception about understanding and implementation towards scientific approach in their classroom interaction.

**Literature review**

**Teaching and Learning Approaches**

Strategies and approaches to studying are specific to education and students comprehension, being contextual ways of providing learning materials involving characteristic combinations of intentions, processes and activities (Entwistle & Peterson 2004). It becomes an assistance for teacher to effectively perform the classroom. By using suitable approaches in teaching, it will make learning become easier, faster, enjoyable, effective, and transferred to new situations (Bouckenoooghe et al. 2016).

**Scientific Approach**

Bloom et al. (1956) has earlier study on teaching and learning system by developing taxonomy that covers an educational-logical-psychological classification. It categorized the three major parts such as cognitive, affective, and psychomotor into educational domains as learning objectives. Regarding to the Bloom’s perspective, in present study, these educational domains are adopted as learning outline to evolving learning approach in Indonesian curriculum. Furthermore it well known as Scientific Approach on 2013 curriculum.

Further explanation on Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (2013), this curriculum emphasize three learning models in supporting the learning process such as discovery learning, project-based learning, and problem-based learning as part of the Scientific Approach. Recent study to the learning models in scientific approach, (Bernardini 2016; Ajmal et al. 2016) have been investigated the learning models related to the classroom practices. These study revealed the learning models of scientific approach are effectively support the improvement of students’ achievement in English. Therefore, they are students centered and support students to improve their learning comprehension through intensive teacher guidance.
Method of the Study

A descriptive study was employed using survey questionnaire to collect data of the 34 EFL teachers’ perception on scientific approach in their classroom interaction. They were selected based on their profession as the teachers implementing scientific approach method to their classroom teaching practices. As the preliminary survey, the participants were asked to provide basic demographic information. Further survey of the learning models in scientific approach was rated by participants to know what extent they perceive their understanding of scientific approach. The learning models in scientific approach included discovery learning, project-based learning, and problem-based learning (Hosnan 2014). Data was analyzed using a 5-point Likert scale to rate the questionnaire (1 =“strongly disagree,” 5 = “strongly agree”) (Brown 2010).

Findings and Discussion

The EFL Teachers’ Perception on Scientific Approach

Mostly EFL teachers who implemented scientific approach in this study responded positively related to their classroom interaction. In addition, the EFL teachers also perceive that scientific approach on 2013 curriculum is understandable and applicable to their learning interaction. Figure 1 below describes the number of EFL teachers’ perception towards scientific approach and its learning models.

![Figure 1: EFL Teachers' Perception towards Scientific Approach](image)

As an indication of the Figure 1 above, the extent of EFL teachers strongly agree to which used of Scientific Approach on 2013 curriculum is implemented in Indonesia. The
detailed of the survey are described as 20 (58.82%) teachers were “Strongly Agree”, 11 (32.35%) teachers were “Agree”, 3 (8.82%) teachers were “Neutral”, and none “Disagree”.

**Discussion**

As a result, the EFL teachers’ perception divided into three categories: (1) Strongly Positive Teachers (SPT); (2) Moderately Positive Teachers (MPT); and (3) Less Positive Teachers (LPT). These categories are related to the EFL teachers’ understanding to scientific approach and implementation to their classroom interaction as follows:

- **Strongly Positive Teacher**
  The Strongly Positive Teachers are characterized as teachers who have score interval above 73 as categorized ‘Strongly Positive’. There are 20 EFL teachers (58.82%) classified into this category. These teachers perceived their understanding to the use of the learning models and enable it to their classroom interaction such as interactively use discovery learning, problem-based, and project-based learning.

- **Moderately Positive Teacher**
  The Moderately Positive Teachers are characterized as teachers who have score interval from 48 to 72 as categorized ‘Moderately Positive’. There are 11 EFL teachers (32.35%) classified into this category. These teachers perceived their understanding to the use of the learning models and enable it to their classroom interaction although the influence of conventional teaching method still on it.

- **Less Positive Teacher**
  The Less Positive Teachers are characterized as teachers who have score interval below 48 as categorized ‘Less Positive’. There are 3 EFL teachers (8.82%) classified into this category. These teachers maintained their perspective to the conventional teaching method in their classroom interaction with less intention of implementing the scientific approach.

**Conclusion**

The study revealed that there were marked differences in the way the EFL teachers perceive the scientific approach in their classroom interaction. The EFL teachers’ perception felt into three categories: (1) Strongly Positive Teacher (SPT); (2) Moderately Positive Teacher (MPT); and (3) Less Positive Teacher (LPT). These categories related to the EFL teachers’ understanding to the scientific approach and their classroom interaction. All in all, the more positive of the teachers on scientific approach the better the practices they have in their classroom teaching practices reflecting the state bureaucracy in Indonesia by Gaus et al. (2016).
It is suggested that all EFL teachers equipped themselves with the 2013 curriculum to make their classroom teaching practices more effective and interesting.

References


Title

Learning Strategies in Speaking Performance Applied by the 12th Grade of Senior High School Students in Indonesian

Author

Muliaty Ibrahim

STKIP Mega Rezky Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract

This study aims to explore language learning strategies in speaking performance used by twelve years students’ Indonesian secondary school. The study addresses how the students use these strategies. It employs a descriptive qualitative in nature using phenomena design. Through this method, it is hopefully more comprehensive and intensive information will be obtained from the natural settings. The sample consists of 4 students to the twelve years students of SMA Negeri 1 Makassar and SMA Negeri 1 Maros. The researcher chooses two male and two female students. She tries to explore and elicit data of what actually language learning strategies are dominantly and intensively employed by two senior high school students EFL learners while they are doing EFL learning activities both inside and outside of the class. The research data are collected using observation, interview as the data instrument and report as a document. Data collective by means of qualitative methods constitute interview in speaking performance. The study demonstrates that the students used a wide range of strategies consciously, confidently, and effort fully as well as persistently because of the usefulness of the strategies and pleasure in using strategies. Implications for Indonesians English Foreign Language learners are made.

Key words: Language Learning strategies, consciously, confidently, and effort fully and persistently.

Introduction

Language learning strategies are among the main factors that help determine how the students learn English Foreign Language. English Foreign Language is a language
studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle for daily interaction and where input that language is restricted. The study of language learning strategies has sought to identify patterns of strategy use that are indicative of successful language learning. Considering that learning is actually processing information, the most important elements of these processes are perception, attention, memory, and thinking. On the other hand, learning is the management of mental responses to stimuli (Marcela, 2015). At the senior high school level, the English language learners are considered at intermediate level since they have learned English for at least six years, and even more. The period of time spent for such quite a long time learning should make them master English very well. In other words, they should have the ability to communicate in English actively. They are expected to be able to participate, initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those that require an increased ability with diverse language strategies, satisfying the requirements of schools and work situations, and narrating and describing connected discourse with paragraph-length (Richards, 2001).

The interrelation between learner strategies and language learning outcome is similarly reciprocal. Students’ strategy use can be influenced by their L2 proficiency, which is one of the indicators of language learning outcomes, and can also have an effect on their L2 proficiency level. For example, students with high L2 proficiency may select and use the compensation strategy ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’, instead of ‘switching to the mother tongue’ (Oxford, 1990) when they do not know an L2 word in the midst of a conversation practice in L2. The choice and use of the first strategy, which requires better vocabulary and understanding in L2 morphological and syntactical constructions, is obviously influenced by their high level of L2 proficiency. At the same time, the strategy use can also have an effect on their L2 proficiency level, i.e. the increase of L2 proficiency level as the result of practice.

Language learning strategies are important factors that affect students’ learning. In Indonesia, Senior high school is an important stage in a person’s education. This research examines the English language learning strategy use by senior high school learners in Indonesian context by means of the strategy inventory for language learning. With the development of the research on second language acquisition, more and more attention has been paid to the research on learners differences. English language learning strategies have been increasingly attracting the interest of contemporary educators as they have potential to enhance learning. Learning strategies are claimed to have the principal influence on the rate and level
of second language acquisition (Ellis, 1994; Oxford, 1990). Over the years, many researchers have studied and examined the language learning strategies. However, the results of the studies are different and controversial. Most of the research subjects in these studies are students in different colleges and universities. There is little in the literature that focuses on the language learning strategies of students learning English in senior high schools. In Indonesia, senior high school is a very important stage in a person’s life because the study in senior high school determines whether a person can go to have higher education or not and what kind of higher education a person can have. Therefore, the teaching in Indonesia senior high schools is quite different from that in universities or colleges and the students in senior high school have their own peculiar ways of learning.

Studies in this field have produced a number of learning strategy taxonomies and the most comprehensive system is the one proposed by Oxford (1990). She proposes a system of learning-strategy classification into two major classes, direct and indirect. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. The direct strategy class covers memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and compensatory strategies for using the language despite knowledge gaps in the brain. The indirect is composed of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions, and social strategies for cooperating with others in the learning process. O’Malley et al. (1985) classify learning strategies into three broad categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective.

With related to English learning, The students usually learn more effectively when they learn through their own initiatives. When their learning styles are matched with appropriate approaches in teaching, then their motivation, performances, and achievements will increase and be enhanced (Brown 1994). The visual learners, for example, prefer to obtain information through visual simulation. Compared with the auditory learners who prefer explanations, lectures, or oral instructions without using any visual aids, for the visual learners, “teachers, conversations, and oral instructions without any visual backup can be very confusing”.

Research into what learners do to learn a language has resulted in the identification of specific strategies and in attempts to classify them in some ways. Rubin (1975), one of the earliest researchers in this field, provided a very broad definition of learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.” Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as specific actions taken by learners to make language learning more effective, more self-directed, and more enjoyable. Her definition, thus, concerns observable behaviors, although it might also include unobservable cognitive actions.
The most general finding among the investigation of language learning strategies was that the use of appropriate language learning strategies leads to improved proficiency or achievement overall or in specific skill areas (Wenden and Rubin 1987; Oxford and Crookall, 1989; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993; and Oxford et al., 1993). They found that the success of learning English has positively correlated with the use of appropriate learning strategies. They also reported that learners who adopted learning strategies are more successful than those who do not. These studies also supported the notion that the use of appropriate learning strategies enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction (Oxford et al., 1993). In this regard, it appears to be extremely important that teachers of a second or a foreign language should learn to identify and comprehend how the strategies of their students are applied in varied language activities.

O'Malley et al. (1985) suggested that the learning strategies of good language learners, once identified and successfully taught to less competent learners, could have considerable potential for enhancing the development of second language skills. Considering these, the researcher would like to suggest that if we, language teachers knew more about what the "successful learners" did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success records. Thus, this study is based on the idea that "an understanding and awareness of learning strategies on the part of teachers as well as students may provide valuable insights into the process of language learning" (Fleming and Walls, 1998).

In reality, the students do perform many tasks in the classroom. However, they are not asked systematically to describe in detail how they proceed in performing them. Most of the teachers focus upon the results but rarely upon the learning strategies that students use to arrive at the results and they spend comparatively little time talking to learners about their learning. These matters need to be taken into account by Indonesian junior secondary school teachers because their students need to keep on learning foreign languages, even when they are no longer in a formal classroom setting.

Even though there are many influential variables that could affect EFL learners in learning English in our environment, the focus of this study is directed to the learners’ behavior and thinking process they used during the learning process is going on. Any actions, relating to successful learners used in facilitating their way of learning English in terms of obtaining, retaining, and retrieving information they have had will be the main concern of this study.

Based on the above statement, the problem of this study is postulated as follow:

1. How do the students use on their language learning strategies in learning English?
Methodology

This study is descriptive qualitative in nature using phenomena design. Through this method, it is hopefully more comprehensive and intensive information will be obtained from the natural settings.

Subjects

The subjects of this research are twelve year students in Indonesian senior high school in South Sulawesi. This study aims to reveal the phenomenon in learning foreign language learners are successful, this research uses one learner as the subjects research porposively. The subjects are selected based on the criteria. The subjects have a mastery of English better than the other students. These subjects are able to use English actively and in writing. The subjects have never live in abroad. These criteria are made to avoid the possibility that ability to speak English owned the subjects are not product of a learning process that takes place outside the context of foreign language in Indonesia. The total number of students who give consent to participate in this study is 4, 2 male and 2 female students.

This research is located at SMA Negeri 1 Makassar, and SMA Negeri 1 Maros, South Sulawesi. The twelve year, and the reseacher only takes 2 students in each school. They have ability to speak English better than the other students, and they have a good record in English competation, it is based on a variety of data which will be explained later in the chapter description of findings. These data include a form of performance academic quality when interviewed in English, opinion classmates, English teachers who are teaching, and English test scores obtained books.

Instruments

In this research, the researcher uses three instruments they are observations, interviews, and documents. Observations are done at the subjects’ house and at the English course place, a total of seven times. Interview is the transcribed verbal reports data are recorded data to be obtained as the results of in-depth interviews between the researcher and the EFL learners. Semi-structured interviews are used to collect the qualitative data. The recorded data consist of data reflecting the EFL learners’ learning styles preferences as well as the overt and covert learning strategies that could not be obtained through the observation techniques. Documents are the analysis of some collections of the subjects’ (school/home) work. It uses to get students’ grade point average to see the students who can be the samples of this research both their native region, and achievement.

Data Management and Analysis
Data management. Regarding the date collected by interview. The researcher recorded her voice in the form of audio-recorded semi-structured interview between students and her. The researcher came to their school, community, home and the place where they took private courses. The researcher transcribed the recorded interview for six weeks. In the interview, she used a specific indicator for each interview to facilitate quotation at data analysis stage.

Analytical techniques for the qualitative data. Several steps were taken in collecting The researcher used interview each student. She did some meeting with the students. She made appointment in a comfortable place. She met them of individual or personality interview, so they could be free to tell about themselves. The first, she used a table to condense the meanings of each individual interview. The table consisted of five main columns. The first, it was contained ‘natural units’ – statements made orally in interviews. The second, it was contained ‘central themes’ – the main ideas of the ‘natural units’ mentioned in the first column. The third contained language skills for which the activities indicated in the ‘central themes’ were intended. The fourth contained strategy taxonomy (Oxford, 1990), which included strategy, strategy set, and strategy group.

Result

The research findings shows students translating in English learning strategies mindfully, confidently, effortfully, and persistently. Concerning conscious used the strategies; the students translated using the strategies with clear awareness of what they were doing, as indicated by among other things, their ability to identify the strategies that they used. This finding supports conscious use of strategies as implied in a claim made by Lee and Oxford (2008, p.8), stating strategies could help Korean students who participated in their study to learn English more efficiently. Mostly they used strategy mindfully.

In the present study, male and female students differed from each other in the strategies. Male students used strategy ‘finding out about language learning the most and reading English novels and narrative stories the least, and female students, ‘paying attention’ the most and ‘representing sounds in memory’ the least. Regarding the strategy male students used compensation strategies, but female students, metacognitive strategies. The finding parallels a finding from a study by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) who demonstrate the significant differences between male and female students lay only in the use of affective strategies.
Discussion

All the students were shown to use strategies consciously. However, if they were conscious, they were not all confident, i.e. some students indicated confidence on the part of some students are not clear, as there was no direct question on this in the qualitative phase of study. When the students did not alluded to confidence in their strategy throughout interview, it did not necessary mean that they were not confident strategy users.

As regards effortful and persistent use of strategies, both are the ways students used strategies uncovered in this study, which had not come to light in any previous studies. Effortful use of strategies involves putting in extra effort before or during the process of exercising them. Some students in this study indicated this behavior, and among them, gender and proficiency levels did not seem to be influencing factors.

The effort, for the most students in this study, extended to the area beyond physical activities. They had to decide to replace practice of certain strategies that were hard for them to use. The strategy ‘repeating’, for instance, would normally be done by repeating the words of real native speaker of English; the students used native English singers and actors on the movies.

Based on the interview, it is clear that the participants used strategies across four dimensions, they used the strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently. One of the students raised another potential way of using strategies, i.e. creative use. These students’ persistence caused them to work quite hard. Firman, Bryan and Dya kept persuading their peers to practice speaking with them, and persisted in practicing speaking with their family.

Conclusion

This study gives evidence that students used strategies consciously and confidently. The students used strategies frequently is not considered as an appropriate answer to the qualitative question of how students used strategies. Thus frequent use of strategies is not claimed as a separate ‘finding’ the parallels the ‘conscious’, confident’, effortful’, and ‘persistent’ use of strategies in this study. This study measures included actions ask a friend, follow the conventional course, follow the formal learning and learning activities autodidact. In addition, it gives evidence of effortful and persistent use of strategies, these being so far unacknowledged in language learning strategy research, and thus a contribution to it. Interestingly, these two ways, distinct from the first two, are characterised by the sense in which they make the students ‘work’, take deliberate action.
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Title
Gender Differences in English Language Teaching

Author
Murni Mahmud
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Murni Mahmud is a Professor of English Education Department at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. Her research interests include gender studies and discourse analysis. She has a Ph.D. in Anthropology Linguistics from the Australian National University and currently teaches Anthropology Linguistics and Sociolinguistics. She can be reached at murnimahmud@unm.ac.id

Abstract
This paper examines the use of sex-based grouping (female-sex group, male-sex group, and mixed-sex group) in teaching English subjects. The subject of this research is one class consisting of 30 students taken randomly in one Senior High School in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. To collect data, the teaching and learning process employing the sex-based grouping was observed. The study found that male and female students have different ways in learning English, which are influenced by gender differences. Male students preferred mixed-sex grouping whereas female students preferred the female-sex grouping.

Key words: gender, sex-based grouping, English language teaching

Introduction
Gender difference in communication has become important topics for discussion recently since the notion about ‘women’s language’ was elaborated by Lakoff (1976) and followed by Tannen (1990). This notion emphasized that men and women have different styles
in communicating. Numerous studies on it then flourished (Keeler 1990; Kuipers 1990; Berman 1998; Itakuro and Tsui 2004).

This paper examined the issue of gender differences in teaching English by examining the use of sex-based grouping (female-sex group, male-sex group, and mixed-sex group) in teaching English subjects. Discussion in this paper becomes precious findings on the literature of English language teaching and literatures of language and gender.

**Related Literature**

Literatures had revealed differences of men and women in communication. Tannen (1990), for example, states that there is a tendency for men to use language to ‘preserve their independence and maintain their position in the group’. Conversely, women use language to ‘create connection and identity’. Biber & Burges (2000) also confirm that women’s focus in conversation is on ‘personal and interactional aspects of conversation’, whereas men’s focus is more on ‘transferring information’. In addition, Stanton (2001) states that conversations for women are for the sake of ‘developing and preserving intimacy’, while for men, ‘maintaining power’ is more important than other aspects, such as intimacy.

Literature had also revealed the differences between men and women in terms of learning a language (Logan and Johnson, 2009; Mahmud, 2010). Logan and Johnston (2009) found that women ‘have better reading comprehension’ than men. Mahmud (2010, p. 182) mentions that some characteristics of female students such as being ‘ashamed, nervous, not certain’, can influence their English proficiency.

**Research Method**

This paper is based on the data taken in 2015. The subject of the research is the second year students of one Senior High School in Makassar. One class was taken randomly, consisting of 30 students. To collect data, the researcher conducted intensive observations in three meetings. In each meeting, students were divided into three groups: male single sex group, female single sex group, and mixed sex group of male and female. Each group was given a topic for discussion and was observed separately. The results of the observation was described and elaborated in relation to gender differences in English language teaching.
## Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>1st meeting</th>
<th>2nd meeting</th>
<th>3rd meeting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>Each member expressed opinions and work together to make good report; Some produced questions; In the reporting, some of the members are trying to answer the questions; Most members speak in turn</td>
<td>Each member expressed opinions and the topics All work together to make good report Some produced questions; Others try to answer the questions</td>
<td>Each member expressed opinions in the topics All work together to make good report Some produced questions; Others try to answer the questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>Tended to be silent more rather than talking Only one or two try to talk on the topics Sometimes one member was asked to talk but no comments</td>
<td>Members are expecting each other to talk No one from the group</td>
<td>Tended to be silent Talking should be prompted Not a good report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mixed</strong></td>
<td>Members try to express their opinions Questions and answers were lively Members were cheerful (laughing and yelling)</td>
<td>Members try to express their opinions</td>
<td>Members try to express their opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 above shows differences in the way each member of the group participate in the group discussion. In each meeting, groups of the female single sex always performed good participation in the class. In the first meeting, each member try to express opinions about the given topics, some tried to probe questions which can make their discussion was directed to the main issue of the topics. They also show good order in talking. Last they worked together.
to produce good reports. In the reporting session, members were actively asking questions. These phenomena can also be observed in the second and third meeting.

A different style of discussion can be seen in the male single sex setting where all of the members are male students. As observed for three meetings, members did not show cheerful discussion that can be seen from the high tendency to be passive and keep silent. Questions need to be prompted, and sometime only one or two tried to talk.

Another different case can be seen in mixed sex setting. From the three times of observation, members of this group tended to be very noisy as they were shouting and laughing each other when one of them was expressing their opinion. During the discussion, most members tried to be active and in fact they made a discussion into long debate. When a female member was expressing her opinion, other members were yelling and clapping hands However, they still can produce good report after long debate.

Therefore, it can be inferred that female and male students have different styles in communication. The female single sex group has more potential to show their good participation in English discussion, compared to the male single sex group. Mixing the group of men and women could also show active participation. This study proves the existence of ‘women’s language’ that had been observed by Lakoff (1976) and Tannen (1990). Tannen (1990) indicates that the superior language-related communicative skills of females are related to their difference in communicative styles. As addition, Tannen (1990) characterizes male speech as conflictive and female speech as cooperative. This results in better communicative competency among female language learners since they are more active in listening and able to convey the message in a harmonious way.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that gender differences are important aspect in English language teaching. Students in the class are various and come from different background and therefore, they are different. Findings from this study prove that those differences can be caused by gender differences, particularly the notion of women’s language (Lakoff 1976; Tannen, 1990). In order to accommodate students’ differences in the class, English teachers need to create a great atmosphere for learning. The study shows that sex- based grouping can become an alternative way.
References


Title
Learners' Motivational Traits and Strategic Investment in Learning through EFL Immersion Program: A Study at Insan Cendekia Madani Boarding School Tangerang Indonesia

Author
Dra. Nasmilah, M. Hum, Ph.D

Abstract
The present study investigates learners' motivational traits and their learning strategies invested during the implementation of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) immersion program. Taking the English tutors and the students of grade 7 and 10 as subjects, it is revealed how English is perceived by the students and how this perception is reflected in their learning motivation and strategy use to improve their communication skills. Using qualitative research paradigm utilizing interview, observation, and focus group discussion (FGD) the study emphasizes that EFL immersion program is an essential alternative to overcome problems encountered by students in traditional classroom contact for full-board type of schooling. Personal approach to individual students develops a conducive interaction that allows students' motivation in learning English to be enhanced and thus enriches the strategy use to perform better in speaking skills. This study is particularly beneficial to be attended by EFL school teachers and related practitioners.

Keywords: motivational traits, strategic investment, total immersion

1. Introduction
The educational dynamics of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia have long been documented in a large volume of research. Various topics on the development of different English language skills have been elaborated as well as the ways they are practiced by learners at different age, level and learning context. More research attention has also been directed to the individual differences of EFL learners which are believed as playing crucial roles in developing the skills of English as a foreign language. Among others, individual differences
cover motivation, learning strategies, age, learning styles, etc. Motivation and learning strategies are believed to be interrelated as the more motivated the language learners are, the more learning strategies they employ in the process of learning. This study scrutinizes 1) how total immersion affects the learners motivation in language learning, and 2) how motivation and learning strategies are intertwined within the total immersion program.

Large number of studies has been compelled in relation to individual differences among EFL learners at all levels of age. Mori (2007) has found that Indonesian high school students are more instrumental and integrative than those students at the university level. Mori’s study emphasizes the fact that university students are less integrative and instrumental even though they tend to have stronger motivation and have better attitude toward EFL learning. Mori further recommended the importance of studying motivation in relation to other individual differences and focusing more on the understanding of the use of learning strategies in order to provide more knowledge and resources for better teaching model applicable for intended levels of students. http://eprints.utm.my/15931/1/JOE-1-2011-014.pdf

This study reports on a prominent picture of how influential motivation and language learning strategies are in determining success in English Foreign Language (EFL). The aim is to provide a general portrait of how well these two individual differences develop in an English Immersion program of Secondary school and how the field is important to contribute to the program of a boarding school in which an extremely serious curriculum is in the process to be implemented; Cambridge curriculum.

2. Why immersion program?

English has become a compulsory subject in Indonesian schools as it is an inseparable part of the curriculum endorsed by the Department of National Education. Its position as compulsory subject has been implemented for three years for Junior High School and another three years for Senior High School while for Primary school this subject is an optional (Lauder, 2008). This leads to the consistency of English as important subject which becomes the first foreign language to be embedded in the national curriculum.

The application of Competency-based curriculum in Indonesia has basically originated from School-based curriculum which was implemented early on. In the history of general education, it was widely accepted that Teacher-centered approach was the only teaching system applied by teachers in which students were merely passive object whose role is to listen and follow instructions. Even though this approach worked well to some extent, approved by the presence of mature intellectuals at present, but the shift of educational approaches to learner-centered approach which begun in the late 1980s has
proven the effectiveness of the so called SCL (Student-centered Learning) in all levels of education. SCL itself has opened great opportunity for the study of individual learners in conjunction with their performance in learning. This shift also provides more chances for teachers to elaborate the student individual differences as confirming contribution to design their teaching preparation in an attempt for better quality of teaching and learning process. Thus, performance-based instruction implemented by teachers in the whole process of teaching and learning should be based on the learners’ competences which according to Richards and Rodgers (2001) comprise essential skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviors required for effective performance of “a real-world task or activity”

Shifting focus from teacher-centered to student-centered learning is now an obsession among English language teachers and practitioners in Indonesia. It is widely believed that giving more opportunity for students to experience learning through more exercises and more independence allow language input to be absorbed by learners in high speed. However, some studies such as those by Bjrok (2005) and Marcellino (2005) still confirmed that teacher-centered approach still dominated the educational system in Indonesia. It is hard for teachers to avoid this practice due to large class size and mixed ability students. They stated that in most cases students just listened to the explanation of the teachers and did not put adequate effort to respond to teachers’ instruction with independent tasks. This old paradigm did not train teachers to become facilitators, but rather just a model to be imitated. Consequently, students are rarely given enough time and opportunities to participate in classroom interaction. In addition, teachers mainly apply single and monotonous teaching methods which lessen the students chances to be exposed and taught different ways of expressing feelings and thoughts.

In relation to independent way of learning, improving curricula, syllabi, materials, and activities is believed to be more effective in the process of teaching and learning. Providing access for independent and autonomous learning is also highly recommended. However, these expectations are still far away from the reach of the teachers. Good teachers should better understand the individual differences among their students before they design their teaching materials. They are required not only to be knowledgeable but also to be skillful in transferring their knowledge, being creative and innovative in providing teaching aids to assist language learning to take place (Dardjowidjoyo, 2003).

It is clear from all perspectives that teachers need to understand the individual differences of their students and link those differences with their teaching preparation. Among those are motivation and learning strategies that should be invested both before and while learning. Being knowledgeable of these two aspects will lead teachers to provide well-developed curriculum, syllabi, lesson plan and teaching materials to achieve teaching and learning objectives.

All the facts mentioned above become the bases for the implementation of Immersion program in which much more exposure to English can complete what has been missing in the
process of preparing EFL learners to be more proficient users of English. This study put the emphasis on the learners’ motivation and how they orchestrate their learning strategies to improve their performance in all skill areas of English.

3. Learners’ Motivation

In the original version of Socio-educational Model of Language Learning, proposed by R. C. Gardner (1959:267) and various other colleagues, motivation is grouped into two categories; “integrative motivation” and “instrumental motivation”. Integrative motivation refers to positive attitude toward the foreign culture and a desire to participate as a member of the target culture. Instrumental motivation is possessed by those whose goal of acquiring language is to use it for a specific purpose, such as career advancement or entry to post secondary education. It is widely accepted through empirical studies that students with integrated motivation are more successful language learners than those who are instrumentally motivated (Ehrman et al., 2003).

Based on social psychology, early studies such as Gardner & Lambert (1972:134) treated second language learners’ motivation as a “relatively static trait”. It is suggested that learners who wanted to integrate into the target culture were more motivated and more proficient than those who were instrumentally motivated for reasons of academic or career advancement.

Although the significance of studying motivation from the perspective of socio-psychological domain in language learning is well established, criticism toward the concept of integrative motivation becomes a major issue among the observers. Crookes & Schmidt (1991), and Dornyei (1994) have argued that definition of any terms related to integration is somewhat ambiguous. Other researchers such as Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dornyei (1990); Clement & Kruidenier (1985) assert that what is suggested by Gardner is more multifaceted than what is originally proposed. Studies by Oxford & Shearin (1994); Crookes & Schmidt (1991); & Au (1988) have revealed interesting findings highlighting that integrative motivation is far less important in foreign language setting where such integration is virtually impossible. In some cases, individuals who are highly ethnocentric and do not like the cultures of the target language they are studying have achieved very high levels of foreign language proficiency (Leaver, 2003).

The above findings in turn, give rise to a number of new studies focusing on reasons for learning second language. Clement et al. (1994:42) identified four orientations of foreign language learners studying a target language. These are: (a) instrumental -friendship and travel-
related, (b) integrative - identification with the target language group (c) sociocultural orientations - general interest in the culture and in world events, and (d) knowledge expansion and career improvement.

Within the area of educational psychology, “intrinsic and extrinsic motivations” are two terms widely used to describe what Gardner & Lambert (1959:267) proposed as “integrative and instrumental motivations”. This model is introduced by Deci & Ryan (1985:5) who defined intrinsic motivation as the motivation that comes from within the individual and is related to individual’s identity and sense of well-being. Students are said to be intrinsically motivated when they put learning as a goal in itself. Bandura (1997:79) relates this to the “feeling of enjoyment or a feeling of competence (self-efficacy)” when dealing with interesting and challenging tasks. Deci & Ryan (1985) go on defining extrinsic motivation as motivation that comes from outside the individual. Students are extrinsically motivated when learning is done for the sake of rewards (such as grades or praise) that are not inherently associated with the learning itself, that is, when learning or performing well becomes necessary to earning those rewards. Many studies have demonstrated e.g., Walqui (2000) that intrinsic motivation correlates more closely with language learning success than extrinsic motivation. However, study by Pintrich & Schunk (1996) reveals that external rewards can either increase or decrease motivation, depending on how they affect self-efficacy. They further suggest that providing students with learning experiences that meet their needs for competence, relatedness, self-confidence, and enjoyment can increase their intrinsic motivation. When students are given choices, both their persistence and sense of autonomy are greatly enhanced.

Study on motivation as part of individual differences in second language acquisition (SLA) has also been conducted from two different but related perspectives. Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret (1997) use traditional social-psychological theory and methodology, whereas Siegal (1996); Pierce (1995); & Wertsch (1991) use social constructionist to investigate the relationship between socio-affective factors and second language acquisition. Early second language acquisition research examined the role of attitudes and motivation in promoting language proficiency; much of that research (e.g. Gardner & Lambert, 1972) focused on target language proficiency in terms of grammatical accuracy, native-like pronunciation, and the target language cultural norms. More recently, SLA researchers have become interested in the notion of pragmatic competence, a clearly important component of current definitions of successful language learning. The attempt to integrate second language pragmatic norms and behavior into a theory of second or foreign language development is shown through the models of communicative competence proposed by Canale (1983) & Bachman (1989) who were
inspired by Hymes’ (1972:287) “construct of sociolinguistic competence”. In conjunction with this expansion of what it means to know a language, questions arise with regards to individual differences and the role of attitudes, motivation, and learners’ willingness to adopt second language standards for linguistic action including both oral and written language.

Kasper & Schmidt (1996) pointed out that learners’ willingness to adopt second language pragmatics may be particularly sensitive to their attitudes towards the L2 target community and their motivation for learning a second language. In another study, Hinkel (1996:51) examines ESL learners’ knowledge of “second language pragmatic norms, their attitudes toward them, and their self-reported behaviors”. Scrutinizing various aspects of L2 politeness, subjects’ awareness of it, and perceptions of L2 pragmalinguistic norms from 240 non-native speakers, she found that the non-native speakers’ recognition of second language pragmatics norms was not matched by their willingness to adopt L2 communicative practices.

Willingness as assumed by Kasper & Schmidt (1996) is the expectation of second language learners to achieve “native-like competence”, even though there is only little support for this assumption to be widely accepted (quoted in LoCastro, 2001:70). She goes on to say that the learner and Second Language Acquisition form a complex constellation of variables, which interact each other. In her empirical study, LoCastro (2001) examined the relationship between learner “subjectivity, attitudes and L2 pragmatic norms” to scrutinize the extent to which EFL learners are willing to adopt L2 communicative norms. Through the use of self-reports of the learners on these issues, LoCastro (2001:69) found out that individual differences specifically “attitudes, motivation, and learner’s self-identity”, may influence and constrain the willingness to adopt native speaker standards for linguistic action. Many learners favour retaining their own identities, suggesting it as inappropriate for them to accommodate to the “L2 pragmatic norms”.

4. Language learning strategies

“Learning styles and learning strategies are often seen as interrelated. Styles are made manifest by learning strategies (overt learning behaviors/action)” (Ehrman et al., 2003:315). A given learning strategy, they further point out, is essentially neutral until it is considered in context. This indicates that learning strategy is particular to any individuals and interpretable according to the context in which it is used. Learning strategy is useful under several conditions: “(1) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand, (2) the strategy fits the particular students’ learning style preferences to one degree or another, and (3) the learner employs the effective strategy and develop a bridge to relate it with other relevant strategies. It is
emphasized that when learners fulfil these conditions, the learning becomes more enjoyable, easier, faster, more effective and easily transferred to new situation. (Oxford, 1990) This will also enable more independent, autonomous, lifelong learning (Allwright, 1990; Little, 1991) cited in Ehrman et al. (2003:315).

In the field of language learning, all definitions of strategies manifest conscious movement toward a language goal (Bialystock, 1990; Oxford, 1990; 1996). Oxford (2001) introduces a strategy chain to demonstrate a set of interwoven and mutually supportive strategies, for example, the teaching styles applied by the teacher well match the learning styles of the learners. Even in subject areas outside second language learning, the use of learning strategies is also directly translated to the success and better proficiency of the learners. (Pressley & Associates, 1990) It is thus not surprising that students who frequently employ effective learning strategies possess a high-level of self-efficacy (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986), and less able learners on the other hand often use strategies in a random, unconnected, and uncontrolled manner. (Abraham & Vann, 1987 and Chamot & O’Malley, 1996 cited in Ehrman et al. 2003:316)

Oxford (1990 in Ehrman, at al., 2003:316-317) has identified six major groups of learning strategies:

1. “Cognitive strategies; this type of strategy provides the learners with ability to directly learn from the material through for instance, reasoning, analysis, note-taking, and synthesizing.
2. Metacognitive strategies (e.g. identifying one’s own preferences and needs, planning, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success) are used to manage the learning process overall.
3. Memory-related strategies (e.g. acronyms, sound similarities, images, key words) help learners to link one teaching point with another without having to involve deep understanding.
4. Compensatory strategies (e.g. guessing from the context; circumlocution; and gestures and pause words) help make up for missing knowledge.
5. Affective strategies, such as identifying one’s mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk, help learners manage their emotions and motivation level.
6. Social strategies (e.g. asking questions, asking for clarification, asking for help, talking with a native speaker) enable the learner to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture.
The broad coverage of the study of learning strategies gives rise to another approach modelled by Biggs (1992). On the basis of purpose of learning, Biggs (1992) in Ehrman et al. (2003:317) incorporated motivation into learning strategies and categorized them into three groups:

1. Surface (to get a task done with little personal investment)
2. Achieving (to succeed in competition and get good marks), and
3. Deep (to make personal investment in the task through associations and elaboration).

Ehrman (1996:173) further describes deep processing as:

“An active process of making association with material that is already familiar, examining interrelationships within the new material, elaborating the stimulus through associations with it and further development of it, connecting the new material with personal experience, and considering alternative interpretations. The learner may use the new material to actively reconstruct his or her conceptual frameworks.”

On the other hand, surface processing is described as superficial completion of the task with minimum conceptual effort, resulting in less information stored in memory. This consequence is due to the absence of both emotional and cognitive contribution in the process of task completion. Ehrman (1996:174) suggests that the most successful combination of these strategies and motivation is “deep and achieving strategies”, though she indicates the “existence of a place for surface strategies, because sometimes the cost/benefit ratio of a task does not justify any deeper investment”.

The model suggested by Biggs (1992) exploits the possible connection between intrinsic motivation and deep strategies in that he treats motivation in parallel with strategies, as indicated above. However, Ehrman (1996) opposed the idea by arguing that the students may not have the choice of using deep strategies, no matter what their motivation, for reasons of weak educational background, lack of aptitude for learning, inexperience, or inability to adopt appropriate learning style.

Wenden & Rubin (1987) and Cohen (1998) have also suggested other important treatments of language learning strategies. Wenden & Rubin’s work is relatively theoretical, providing a comprehensive overview of theory and research on learning strategies, which is still mostly relevant to date. Cohen’s approach is generally applied to research strategy use, to synthesize extant models, and provide teachers’ materials for learner awareness. His contribution to understanding how and when students use
specific strategies has helped inform strategy-training programs (Ehrman et al., 2003).

A great deal of effort has been invested into designing and executing strategy training programs considering the fact that appropriate learning strategies can make such a difference to learning success. To increase proficiency in second language speaking, Dadour & Robbins, (1996), O’Malley et al., (1985) have shown the positive effect of strategy instruction by providing instruction and help for the students to use more effective and appropriate learning strategies. Similar attempt was made by Chamot & O’Malley (1996); and Cohen & Weaver (1998) in improving reading proficiency for second language learners. They designed an interesting study investigating how strategy instruction affects both native English-speaking learners learning foreign languages. Similar study was conducted by Nunan (1997) who concluded that strategy instruction lead to increased second language learning motivation, and among native-English speaking learners learning foreign languages, it is found a greater use of strategy and self-efficacy. (Chamot & O’Malley, 1996).

Dornyei (1995) and Oxford (2001 in Ehrman et al., 2003) have documented that L2 learning strategy instruction has had mixed results. One main reason for this might be that students’ diversity of learning styles and needs was not systematically taken into consideration in the presentation of strategy instruction. It is further emphasized that strategy instruction is more effective when adjusted for students’ learning styles (Ehrman et al., 2003).

The essential roles of motivation and learning strategies in the process of teaching and learning as scrutinized above have widely been proven in extensive studies including those conducted in Indonesia. How these two aspects of individual differences intertwined in Insan Cendekia Madani Islamic boarding school is unique in itself. It enriches the writer’s insight of how an exclusive school engage its students to be successful English language learners.

5. Insan Cendekia Madani Islamic Boarding school (ICM) at a glance

The school under study comprises three levels of early education; Kindergarten, Primary School and High schools. It is built on an 8.5 hectares land just outside Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia, a developed suburban area called Tangerang. With cosy and well-designed school, supported and surrounded by beautiful green parks and gardens, the school is considered luxurious with complete facilities including sport courts, and swimming pool. The Islamic atmosphere is well presented. Female and
males are separated in all school activities except for school excursion in which they are also well-guarded by the school teachers. With about 30 percent out of 120 teachers are fluent users of English, this school is in the process of implementing Cambridge curriculum in an attempt of gaining a desired label of ‘international school’. Various different methods have been implemented to make this dream come true after five years school operation. However, this expectation is far from being realized. Some of the parents even complained that their children went to the school initially with great ability in using English but after a while they lose it. This becomes a great concern of the whole school management which was then followed up with the idea of implementing a Total Immersion English Program in cooperation with a private English school.

This Total Immersion Program (TIP) run by the school partner employs 10 tutors to train 250 students, 125 Junior High School (JHS) students [year 7], and 125 from Senior High school (SHS) [Year 11]. This makes the ratio of 25:1 (25 students to be looked after by 1 tutor). All the tutors are provided with bedrooms to mingle with the students after and before school hours. English is taken as a tool of communication and should be used by all the students at any time the tutors are around. Considering the class hours which start at 6.30 and last till 4pm, practically, the interaction between tutors and the students can only be initiated from 5 to 9 pm. This includes two prayers times, Maghrib and Isya in which all the tutors and the students gather in the Mosque for prayers in congregation.

This pure qualitative study was inspired by the dynamics of teaching and learning process within this strict Islamic educational system applied in the school. Through close observation, interview and focus group discussion with both 10 tutors and 40 (out of 250) students it is revealed that several factors are detrimental in enhancing students’ motivation and triggering the use of specific learning strategies applied by students when English session is in progress.

6. Learners’ Motivational traits

Learners’ individual differences are unique in any given society. This applies also in the learning context of ICM Islamic boarding school in which formal teaching hours are strictly arranged to accommodate every single aspect of the school curriculum. Even though Student-centered learning (SCL) has been implemented from the very beginning of the school program problems in motivating students to learn English still encounter. The study reveals that learners’ motivation to learn English varies across grades. The higher the grades are the higher
the motivation the learners have. The following excerpts taken from two FGDs (5 JHS and 5 SHS) have shown this trend.

**Senior High School (SHS)**

Q: How do you like English and how do you improve it?

A:  
[St1] “I like studying English because I want to become ambassador for my country like my father. I read books a lot and surfing in the internet for new words.”

[St2] “Hmmm… Everybody should learn this language because if we don’t we will be left behind. I read many books in English and I always do my homework. I keep studying this language especially because now I have my tutor to help me”

[St3] “Me…. I like English just like Bahasa Indonesia. I want to study overseas when I finish my study here”

[St4] “Why I like English? It’s simple. I like it because when I play games in my computer all the instructions are in English. I learn more words everyday”.

[St5] “I like English very much and I always get good marks from my teacher since high school. I think I will keep studying this language so I can go abroad easily one day”

**Junior High School (JHS)**

Q: How do you like English and how do you improve it?

A:  
[St1] “I like English but I don’t study it seriously. I have so much homework to do”

[St2] “Yes.., I like English but… I don’t know how to pronounce the words”.

[St3] “English is rather hard to understand. But I need to learn because I don’t want to have bad mark in my report.”

[St4] “I think English is very important. I study this language with my brother even at home.”

[St5] “hmmm… English is difficult. I don’t know how to make a simple sentence yet.

(Q: Question; A: Answer; St: Student)
It is proven from the above excerpts that SHS students have higher motivation compared to JHS students. However, there is a tendency that students of JHS are more attentive when tutors lead them with outdoor activities after school. When this fact was confirmed with the tutors, they responded that younger learners are still very much dependent on the tutors while SHS students prefer to be given more flexible time on their own. This indicates that motivation could be high even though the clue of this is unseen to specific learners groups.

Motivation has been proven to have powerful influence on the use of learning strategies by students. From the observational matrix it is discovered that language learners with higher motivation tend to employ more varied learning strategies compared to learners with lower motivation. This also confirms that motivation is the key factor which determines the use of learning strategy types and its frequency and thus the two are inseparable determinants of success in language learning.

To a great extent, motivation also leads students to work hard on a language activity. Their willingness to engage in activities instructed by their tutors is spontaneous due to their great interest in experiencing something new in their learning process. This in turn has a great positive effect on the attempt to achieve the learning goals and outcomes. The SHS students are mostly willing to communicate frequently with the tutors. Their good grasp of English words builds up a firm self-confidence which allows English to be spoken fluently.

In terms of teaching facilities, this study uncovers that complete facilities are not a guarantee for high motivation by EFL learners. When asked whether the school facilities affect both SHS and JHS students to actively engage in language learning activities, all responded negatively. They confirm that their motivation in learning English is mostly affected by their eagerness to assimilate with native speakers of the language if one day they have to live in the country where the target language is being used. This, in the perspective of the researcher, is a manifestation of the firm economic conditions of the students whose parents are economically established. ICM Islamic boarding school is the most expensive school ever in the nation.

7. **Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) of the learners**

Various learning strategies are reported to be applied by SHS students whose high motivation is shown throughout the 14-week total immersion program. Four main groups of learning strategies seem to be the most frequent types of LLSs applied by the students. They are the empowerment of memory, Cognitive, Affective, and Social strategies.

Empowering memory is the most favorable learning strategies found to be utilized by the students when engaged in language learning. This includes remembering the relationships
between what the students already know and new things they learn in their interaction. They also try to frequently use the new English words in a sentence so they can remember them. Memorizing words is also much easier when they use flashcards and then try to compose sentences based on the new words they have just learned.

The use of language learning strategies by the highly motivated students can secondly be categorized into cognitive type of strategy (Oxford, 1990 in Ehrman, at al., 2003). The students reported that they often say or write the new learned vocabulary several times and try to speak them out like native speakers. This practice is essential to improve their pronunciation. The students also reported that they frequently use their newly-learned vocabulary in different ways to make sure they appropriately put the words in correct composition. In their own time, the students mostly write notes, messages and any related word web in their gadgets to help practicing the words in more essential way. Most of them also do plenty of reading for pleasure. They believe that most of the words they have possessed are resulted from their active engagement in reading.

Highly motivated students also reported to use various strategies related to the affective factors they inhibited. When challenged with difficult learning situation especially when teachers ask unexpected questions, the students encouraged themselves to speak English even when they are afraid of making mistakes. Trying to make themselves relax whenever they need to engage in English exchange and conversation is also a favorable strategy imposed by the learners. Sometimes, they write their feelings in a diary and they write in English.

The last category of LLS used by the highly-motivated students is social strategy. By this, the students frequently ask the speaker to slow down or say the sentence again when comprehension is hardly gained. Trying to converse with native speakers who are teaching in their school is also favored. They find this very helpful because those native speakers are willing to correct them when they make mistakes in using the language. In addition, they are very pleased as they can learn the culture of the native speakers simultaneously through intense conversation.

It is clear from the above findings that highly-motivated students can make use of various learning strategies essential to achieve the objectives and the outcomes of the language learning. Thus, teachers are encouraged to frequently modify their instruction in order to develop learners’ motivation. High motivation leads to more engagement in learning process and in turn provides easy access for learning outcomes to be achieved. When success is in hand, motivation will admittedly be much higher. On the contrary, failure in learning results in lower motivation and in turn less engagement in learning.
8. Conclusion

Total immersion program has been proven to be effective in enhancing the English language learners’ motivation in ICM Islamic boarding school. They actively engaged in learning activities instructed by the teachers/tutors whose involvement in the program is less formal compared to the classroom teachers. Personal and individual approaches are key determinants in assisting learners to freely express themselves in English as tool for communication in their daily life within the boarding school. Being able to freely convey messages in simple English and later becomes more complex is considered success by these specific learners under study, which in turn enhances their motivation in learning. High motivation directs learners to actively utilize various learning strategies essential to gain success in language learning. Thus, the circle keeps moving. The higher the motivation is, the more successful the language learners will become. The more successful the language learners are, the higher their motivation will be.

References


Title
The Use of Pictures in English Speaking Classes for Pupils at DANANG Primary Schools: Reality and Solutions

Author
Ngo Thi Hien Trang
University of Foreign Language Studies, Vietnam

Bio-Profile:
Ngo Thi Hien Trang received her BA in TESOL and an MA in English Language from University of Foreign Language Studies. She has contributed to national and international conference proceedings, and published articles in Journals of Linguistics and Life, and Journal of Science and Technology. She can be reached at nthtrang@ufl.udn.vn

Abstract
A wide range of methods of teaching English speaking skill to pupils is used at primary schools where English is a compulsory subject for third-grade pupils upwards throughout Vietnam and in Danang, one of the piloted cities. According to modern language teaching methodology, using pictures is regarded as an effective way to enhance this skill, especially for young learners. This paper investigated the reality of using pictures in teaching English speaking skill to third graders at local schools who are using textbooks proposed by the Ministry of Education and Training. Teachers’ difficulties, their attitudes towards using pictures, and suggestions for using pictures more effectively were shown. The paper is hoped to basically improve the quality of English teaching as declared in National Foreign Languages Project 2020; and the “Primary English Teacher Training” program at Danang University of Foreign Language Studies.

Key words: pictures, speaking skill, reality, teachers’ attitudes, difficulties.
Introduction

There is no idea about whether teachers take advantage of pictures. Therefore, I decided to conduct this topic to investigate the reality of using this means of visual aids, teachers’ difficulties and attitudes towards using pictures to teach English speaking skill to pupils at primary schools in Danang, and to give some suggestions on using pictures more effectively.

Literature review

Definition of Picture

According to Hornby (2010), “picture is a painting, a drawing, a sketch or a photograph, an image on a television screen, a cinema film, and an impression formed from an account or description.”

Classification of Picture

Rogova and Berliner (1998) say that pictures can be grouped into non-mechanical pictures and mechanical pictures. Non – mechanic pictures are boards, cards, posters, charts, maps, scrolls, board games, mounted pictures, photos, objects, brochures, leaflet, newspaper, magazines, books, puppets, equipment operation manuals and so on. Advantages of these items that should be taken into consideration are their cost, availability, accessibility or user-friendliness. And mechanic pictures include audiotapes, audio recorders, record players, video players, VCDs, CDs, DVDs, television, telephones, cassettes, computers, projectors, slides, filmstrips, PowerPoint software. Although these forms of media are more expensive and less user-friendly than the non-mechanical ones, they are expected with the aim at motivating pupils and maintaining their high level of interest to learn better thanks to their time-efficiency, compact manner, animation and adaptability.

Methodology

The data collected from questionnaire consisting of 17 closed and open-ended questions which were delivered to 10 teachers, and observations which concerned the frequency of using pictures, picture selecting sources and difficulties in using pictures at Phu Dong and Hung Vuong primary schools were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed to answer the research questions. After collecting the data, the researcher identified, and grouped them. Then, they were displayed in percentage and illustrated by graphs. Basing on this analysis, the researcher got findings for discussion.
Findings and discussion

**Reality of Using Pictures in English Speaking Classes at Danang Primary Schools.**

According to teachers, there were a variety of sources to select pictures: the main source of pictures was from *textbooks* (41.18%), *the Internet* was chosen as the second favorite one (29.41%), *newspapers and magazines* ranked the third with 17.65% because it was not easy to pick up pictures which were relevant to the content of speaking lessons from this resource, very few of them got pictures from *picture dictionary and self-drawing*.

All teachers used pictures as a teaching aid in an English speaking lesson. They made use of pictures at all stages for pupils to understand speaking lessons easily. However, they all revealed they sometimes presented pictures in their speaking classes.

![Figure 1: Stages of Using Pictures](image)

In recent years, some primary schools in Danang city have been well-equipped and primary teachers are trained to use new and modern teaching techniques; therefore, 40% teachers used *computer and projector* as their best way to present pictures. Up to 46.67% could not deny the convenience when using *posters and flipcharts* to show pictures. Actually, most teachers used both types of pictures including mechanical and non-mechanical ones in English speaking lessons. There was only 14.28% always using the former. The traditional means - *board* ranked the last.

Teachers employed many activities with pictures giving pupils more chances to speak such as “Role play”, “Lucky number”, “Pictures description”, “Rub out and remember”, “Comparing pictures”, “Guessing pictures” or “Pictures dictionary”; however, these activities could still not meet the demand of pupils. Once these activities were employed, the atmosphere in speaking classes was more exciting and pupils were more interested in lessons than those without any pictures.
Teachers’ Difficulties

According to 43.75% teachers, the level of relevance was the biggest problem in choosing pictures from the Internet, magazines and newspapers. However, some asserted they had little difficulty in selecting pictures because pictures were available in textbooks which was the main source or in picture cards given by the District’s Department of Education and Training, or published by Oxford University Press which were already relevant to lessons. 37.50% teachers thought it took a lot of time to find and select pictures for their speaking lessons. Complicated contents were also a big problem which ranked third at 12.50%. The rest (6.25%) advocated types of pictures whether they were mechanical or non-mechanical were also their concern.

Besides, teachers also faced many problems when using pictures in English speaking classes as shown in Figure 2.

![Figure 2: Difficulties in Using Pictures](image)

Teachers’ Attitudes

All teachers regarded pictures as a necessity in an English speaking lesson thanks to a variety of benefits. Most teachers (43.75%) thought that pictures could motivate pupils and made them want to pay attention and take part in learning activities. 37.50% agreed that pictures were a means of presenting ideas in a time-efficient and compact manner. 12.50% teachers stated that pictures could provide information and created contextualized situations in speaking activities, discussing and storytelling. The rest (6.25%) used pictures in their teaching because pictures could be used for many times and many activities. Some teachers advocated pictures could also make speaking activities more interesting and animate.

Therefore, all teachers thought pupils got more involved in English speaking classes when using pictures. No one thought it was useless to teach speaking skill by presenting pictures.
Most teachers found it really effective when using pictures. However, to some extent, most teachers thought the effectiveness of pictures mainly depended on the teaching methodology of teachers.

**Suggestions**

In order to reach the effectiveness in teaching young learners, teachers have to get a basic foundation of pupils’ psychology. However, in reality, most primary teachers of English in Danang graduated from University of Foreign Language Studies who could not, to some extent, approach the theory of children’s psychology closely and dramatically because those teachers just had some periods only at university to learn about the way children think and behave. On contrast, for those who graduate from University of Education, they understand thoroughly about the psychology of young learners but the fact that they are trained to be the teachers of other subjects only, not English. Therefore, primary teachers of English should cultivate professional knowledge, and simultaneously learn about the children’s psychology in order to know what the best ways to motivate their pupils to speak out.

When using any kinds of pictures in English speaking lessons, teachers should make sure of the quality of pictures used. First, pictures should be big enough to be seen with a minimum size of 15cm x 12cm. Furthermore, pictures should be presentable, and preferably mounted. Pictures simply ripped out of magazines look scrappy and unprofessional. Last but not least, pictures should be unambiguous and simple as they can be for the purpose they have to fulfill unless the ambiguity is deliberate and productive.

**Conclusion**

In summary, this article found out the actual use of pictures in English speaking classes in Danang. Although teachers are aware of the importance of pictures in teaching; however, due to the lack of well-equipped teaching facilities, methodology, computer and picture using skills, the effectiveness of using pictures is not as expected. Hence, a number of recommendations have been proposed to improve the efficiency of using pictures in English speaking classes in Danang city.

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